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CHAPTER SIX

METHOD

INTRODUCTION

Qualitative research methods are designed to assist researchers to understand people and the social and cultural contexts within which they live. As Kaplan and Maxwell (1994) point out, the goal of understanding a phenomenon from the point of view of the participants and its particular social and institutional context is largely lost when textual data are quantified. In studying people and organisations in depth, the qualitative researcher uses qualitative data in order to understand and explain the situation. Qualitative data sources include observation, interviews, questionnaires, documents, texts, and the researchers impressions and reactions. Qualitative research encompasses a broad range of research strategies, including case study, grounded theory, ethnography, semiotics, hermeneutics, historical studies and action research.

Despite the range of research strategies available, qualitative research suffers from the question of - How do you do it? Qualitative researchers make observations of the people and systems in an attempt to reconstruct the reality of the social scene, and report it in the natural language of the scene from which it was derived. The problem of method arises from the subjective nature of the data collection and subsequent interpretation. Schwartz and Jacobs (1979) suggest there are two poles in qualitative data collection that effectively illustrate the problem. They argue that at one pole are those who believe that the qualitative

researcher should begin with a clear statement of the problem, and a clear understanding of the relevant literature and theory in the area under investigation. This allows the investigator to clearly define who to ask, what to ask and thereby produce a valid and reliable result. The problem with this approach is that the background information and research design may limit the study such that it fails to allow important information to emerge, as the method is tightly controlled and implemented.

Schwartz and Jacob (1979) argue that at the other end of the spectrum are those who believe that qualitative researchers should minimise explicit preconceptions by not familiarising themselves with background information in advance. The researcher should ‘immerse’ in the scene under investigation. In this approach, data collection is taken as literal field notes for latter examination, the interpretation and theorising is left until the latter stages of the study. The problem with this approach is that the preconceptions of the researcher are implicit. The researchers actions are guided in unknown, or unrecognised ways, resulting in a narrow insight into the field, using a method that is difficult to replicate.

As the preliminary investigation into the preparation of ADF personnel for peace operations, this researcher was required to meet two practical requirements that were embedded within the exploration and development of Capability as an organisational concept. The first requirement was the need to produce valid and reliable results that would lead to practical recommendations for improvement in peace operation policy and practice. The recommendations were to be such that they could be implemented by human resource and training practitioners. The second requirement was the need to provide sufficient scope and

flexibility to the study so that a broader understanding of the factors influencing the process of preparing ADF peacekeepers could emerge.

In balancing the practical and theoretical aspects of the study the researcher elected to use a qualitative research paradigm that would leave an appropriate 'audit trail' that others could reliably follow or build upon. With this as the central feature in the design of the study it was concluded that the sociological method of investigation known as Grounded Theory (Glaser & Strauss, 1967) would be best suited to the aims and purposes of the research.

Grounded theory adopts a middle ground between the two extremes of researcher preconception described above. The theory adopts the approach that the researchers preconceptions amount to 'sensitising concepts' (Glaser, 1978). They provide the researcher with a point at which to begin the investigation and orient the research. However, it is recognised that the orientation they provide is not firm, they are used in the knowledge that it is a starting point that will be confirmed, denied or transcended in the course of the investigation.

PURPOSE OF THIS CHAPTER

To describe the method and materials employed in this study.

This will be achieved by providing a comprehensive background to grounded theory and its application in this study; the researchers assumptions and preconceptions; the sampling

procedures; the apparatus; the procedure for the conduct of the study and analysis. The purpose in providing this information is to show that the data has been collected to meet the quality standards of: objectivity; reliability; internal and external validity; and utilisation.

GROUNDED THEORY: AN OVERVIEW

Grounded theory is described by Glaser (1978) as the systematic generation of theory from data, that is itself systematically obtained from social research. Lonkila (1995) provides more detail by describing grounded theory as a method for the inductive generation, and provisional verification of sociological hypotheses and theories from empirical data. Providing more detail still, Martin and Turner (1986, p. 141), see grounded theory as an inductive, theory discovery methodology that allows the researcher to develop a theoretical account of the general features of the topic while simultaneously grounding the account in empirical observations or data. The foundations of grounded theory can be found in the books and articles of its originators (Glaser, 1978; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss, 1987; Strauss & Corbin, 1990). It stands apart from other qualitative method because, as the definitions above show, it provides a systematic approach to the identification and collection of data that is related to the twin goals of theory development and verification.

In broad terms, grounded theory research might proceed as follows:

- a. The researcher starts by reading and carefully analysing a small amount of data,

most often text, that may have been gathered from sources such as interview, documentation and field observations. The data are 'coded' or analysed according to complex and detailed procedures and 'rules of thumb' (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). During the analysis the researcher reviews and questions the data, checking them by constantly comparing different instances of data.

- b. When it is necessary, the researcher collects new data based on 'theoretical sampling' (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). This is a sampling procedure that is directed by the categories of the emerging theory. Glaser (1978) describes theoretical sampling as the process of data collection for generating a theory, whereby the analyst jointly collects, codes and analyses his data and decides what data to collect next and where to find them, in order to develop his theory as it emerges.
- c. Throughout the research "memos" are developed by the researcher containing information such as the interrelations between codes and new directions for the research. Memos are the theorising of the researcher about the codes and their relationships as they strike the analyst while coding (Glaser, 1978). There is a continuous interaction between the collection of data, coding of data and writing memos. Glaser (1978) believes that if a researcher excludes this aspect of the procedure then he or she is not doing grounded theory.
- d. As the research advances, increasingly abstract theories about the situation are

generated which specify the connections between the concepts of the emerging theory. The theoretical structure is regularly checked against the data to ensure that it is supported.

- e. Finally, the research is written up; the originators see this as an integral part of the research process (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

The method of grounded theory is iterative, requiring a steady movement between concept and data, as well as comparative, requiring a constant comparison across types of evidence to control the conceptual level and scope of the emerging theory (Orlikowski, 1993). As Pettigrew (1989, p.14) notes, this:

provides an opportunity to examine continuous processes in context in order to draw out the significance of various levels of analysis and thereby reveal the multiple sources of loops of causation and connectivity crucial to identifying and explaining patterns of change.

Glaser and Strauss (1967) regard grounded theory as a general theory of scientific method concerned with the generation, elaboration and validation of social science theory. For them, grounded theory research should meet the accepted canons of doing good science. In this thesis, the canons of good science will be taken to mean that the study must display the following characteristics (Miles & Huberman, 1994): objectivity, reliability, internal and external validity and utilisation. As discussed earlier, the philosophical position of the

researcher with regard to nature of qualitative research can have profound implications for method selection and procedure. This researcher has adopted the 'realist' position of Miles and Huberman (1994) in that qualitative research takes place in a real social world and has real consequences for people and organisations. It is reasonable to expect that the sponsors and beneficiaries of the research should have some measures by which the 'goodness' of the research can be described or measured. In line with this position, this researcher believes that qualitative research should strive to achieve the canons of good science mentioned above, such that the research conclusions are based on the data, they can be generalised, and the procedures and methods are such that they can be accurately replicated by others.

The general goal of grounded theory is to construct theories in order to understand phenomena. A good grounded theory is one that is: inductively derived from data; subjected to theoretical elaboration, and finally, is judged adequate to its domain with respect to a number of evaluative criteria. Grounded theory then is not restricted in its application to one field or discipline of study, and has been employed successfully by researchers in disciplines ranging from health studies (Irurita, 1996) to information technology (Orlikowski, 1993).

THE SELECTION OF GROUNDED THEORY FOR THIS STUDY

The aim of using grounded theory in this research was to generate a descriptive and explanatory theory of the individual and organisational factors involved in preparing ADF personnel for peace operations. Grounded theory has been used effectively in organisational research (Anaconda, 1990; Elbasch & Sutton, 1992; Isabella, 1990; Kahn, 1990; Orlikowski,

1993; Pettigrew, 1990; Sutton, 1987), and was adopted here for the following four reasons:

- a. The inductive, generative approach of the method seemed to be particularly appropriate here given there is limited formal research on preparing peacekeepers worldwide, and no research has been done in Australia. This study is the preliminary analysis of the area, and as such, is designed to produce a broad base for future work.
- b. The major premise of grounded theory is that it is pragmatic. It produces accurate and useful results using a method that can be accurately traced and reproduced.
- c. The organisational context of the problem must be incorporated into the understanding of the problem, rather than being reduced, simplified and ignored (Martin & Turner, 1986; Pettigrew, 1990). The organisational context of this problem was considered to be crucial to understanding the process of preparing ADF peacekeepers. Grounded theory method allowed the inclusion and investigation of this key organisational element.
- d. Finally, grounded theory facilitates “the generation of theories of process, sequence, and change pertaining to organisations, positions and social interaction” (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 114). As this study is evaluating all aspects of the organisation and its process, a research approach that specifically

included elements of process and change was believed to be particularly appropriate.

The three key aspects of grounded theory are inductive reasoning, and understanding the problem within the framework of context and process. These three elements are congruent with the interpretative, and evaluative, nature of this research. The focus here is on developing a context-based, process orientated description and explanation of the subject. This theory aims to describe and explain the process of preparing ADF peacekeepers in terms of an interaction of contextual conditions, actions, and consequences, rather than explaining variance using independent and dependent variables (Elbasch & Sutton, 1992). This orientation “gives primacy to the realism of context, and theoretical and conceptual development as research goals” (Pettigrew, 1990, p. 283).

THE ASSUMPTIONS

As discussed earlier, Glaser and Strauss (1967) refer to researcher preconceptions about the subject under study as ‘sensitising concepts’ that provide a starting point for entry to the research that can subsequently be discarded in the course of the research. In taking this approach they explicitly acknowledge that the researcher does not enter the situation as a *tabula rasa*, the researcher must have some perspective to see relevant data, and abstract significant categories from it (Glaser & Strauss, 1967, p. 3). However, it is in the interest of obtaining emergent, or diverse categories at different levels of abstraction that Glaser and

Strauss (1967) would have the researcher hold all potentially relevant facts and theories in the background for some time. In their discussions of grounded theory, Glaser and Strauss (1967) focus on understanding the method in the context of problem solving, but offer little guidance on the role of research problems. Strauss (1987) maintains that, because we do not have to prepare an articulated problem in advance of the inquiry, researchers may come to their problems at any point in the research process. According to Haig (1995), this approach presupposes that problems and methods are separate parts of the inquiry. The method used in this thesis has adopted the notion that problem formulation and method must be considered together on the basis that a well structured problem ultimately leads to a well structured solution. With this in mind the following assumptions serve three purposes:

- a. to provide a concise statement as to the researcher's orientation and preconceptions prior to undertaking the research;
- b. to focus the research on the 'expected outcomes' of the analysis; and
- c. to allow the reader and researcher to determine what has 'emerged' as a result of adopting the method of grounded theory.

The use of the assumptions is not designed to constrain emergent theory building but to support it. Glaser and Strauss (1967, p. 34) note that by attempting to connect a grounded theory with the aspects of existing formal theory, a general substantive theory can result. Similarly, Eisenhardt (1989, p. 545) notes that the tying of the emergent theory to existing

literature enhances the internal validity, generalisability, and theoretical level of theory building from case study research. By clearly stating a set of assumptions the researcher in this thesis is clearly linking problem formulation in terms of current research and theory, to method as described in grounded theory. The entry point for conducting this research then, is in terms of problem formulation and statement.

From Chapters Two, Three and Four of this thesis it has been established that the environment in which peace operations are conducted, and the tasks military personnel are expected to perform, are not congruent with the basis of their general combat orientation. Further, they show that the prevailing organisational and political climate in which the training takes place ensures that, training or preparing for peace operations is a secondary consideration - the ADF trains for war. Accordingly, the skills, knowledge and attitudes of Army personnel are orientated towards the prosecution of war. It is not unreasonable to expect that a soldier or officer deploying to a peace operation will carry with him or her expectations instilled by the nature of their training. The first assumption for this study is, as concluded by K.E. Eyre (1994), that:

Assumption One:

There are general skills, knowledge and attitudes required by Army personnel deployed on peace operations that are beyond the normal domain of general purpose combat training.

Assumptions Two and Three relate to the concept of Capability in military education and training introduced in Chapter Five, in that:

Assumption Two:

Successful performance on deployment is recognised and described by individual characteristics that are in addition to technical competence; and.

Assumption Three:

The organisational architecture of the Australian Army on deployment fosters capable individual performance.

RESEARCH DESIGN OVERVIEW

As this was the first comprehensive investigation of this subject in the ADF, the purpose of the study was to achieve as broad a cross-section of peace operation deployments and peacekeeper positions as possible within the bounds of available resources. As described earlier, the aim of employing grounded theory was to support emergent theory building from the data. This study is not designed to explain variance using dependent and independent variables, but rather to describe the processes under investigation in terms of an interaction of contextual conditions, actions and consequences.

The interview schedule employed was designed to access the participants' perceptions of the topics raised such that common themes of understanding and experience could be allowed to emerge. While the primary focus of the study was to evaluate the adequacy of ADF predeployment preparation, the topic structure also supported the exploration and development of concepts in organisational capability.

The study targeted Arms Corps personnel as they were considered to be the group most likely to have difficulty reconciling the issues in preparing for war and deploying on peace operations, and as such the group least likely to benefit from fact-based predeployment training. This group was balanced by including those from combat support and support corps who perform equivalent or similar roles in conventional operations as they do in peace operations, and as such fact-based predeployment preparation was seen to be adequate.

The junior to mid-level officers were the primary source of information as they hold positions within the organisation that allow them access to the strategic and operational level of the deployment, while maintaining strong contact with tactical level. It was believed that this placed them in the best position to comment on a broader range of issues than might be expected if either end of the rank spectrum was targeted.

In keeping with the desire for a broad examination of the issues as many different types of missions were included in the study. The purpose was to determine what features might be generic to these types of deployment, while also exploring the issues that might be particular to small, medium and large Australian contingents.

The aim was to reveal as much practical information as possible on the topic areas such that, additional, more specific research would have an appropriate starting point. The emergent theory building implicit to grounded theory further supported this aim by providing the researcher with the tools to describe the issues in terms of their contextual relationships.

The research process followed this process. The participant was contacted by formal letter requesting their consent to participate in the study; if the participant agreed a time was arranged for interview. The participant read and signed the consent form and completed the Interview Data Sheet (Appendix H). This captured basic details on the participants deployment and military career to date.

Once this was completed, the participant was the subject of a tape-recorded interview following the format of a semi-structured interview schedule (Appendix C). The interview schedule was developed from that employed by Pinch (1994a) specifically to allow some comparison with that work. The semi-structure nature of the schedule was consistent with the grounded theory approach as it inherently supported the generation and testing of emergent theory building.

On completion of the interview, the participant completed the Cohesion, Morale and Satisfaction pilot survey (Appendix I), following which the tape recorder was turned off and the participant was debriefed and invited to ask questions regarding the study, its method and likely outcomes. The survey was designed to generate a small amount of quantitative data on the topic areas raised in the interview, with the aim of determining whether the questions

developed by Pinch (1994a) could form the basis of a valid and reliable questionnaire format that would allow practitioners to monitor peacekeeper opinions on these issues. Moreover, it formed one element of the triangulation and verification process during analysis.

Other methods of triangulation employed include the nature of the sampling method; the testing of emerging theories against recognised peace operations authorities within the ADF; discreet reliability and validity testing against specific elements of the studies sample, within the framework of the semi-structured interview; and finally, as soon as possible after the interview, the researcher completed a Contact Summary Form (Appendix D) designed to capture the researcher's overall impressions of the information provided by the participant. The Contact Summary Form was an essential part of the memo writing process, and allowed the researcher to compare and contrast impressions of participants from similar and dissimilar mission types. This information was included in an iterative analysis process completed every five interviews. Interview data was transcribed and coded according to hierarchical coding structure that moved from open to axial coding with each successive iteration.

The remainder of this chapter describes the specific process and procedures employed throughout the collection and analysis of data.

THE PARTICIPANTS

This section provides detail on the sampling technique used in the research, followed by specific information on the sample selection process and composition. Additional

information on the types of missions covered in the study, and the level of Australian participation, is detailed in Appendix B.

SAMPLING TECHNIQUE

Following Glaser and Strauss' (1967) technique of theoretical sampling, membership of the sample was determined in a purposive (not random) manner. Similarly, the missions investigated were selected for their similarities as well as their differences. Missions differ in terms of size, location and task. As this is the first study of this type to be conducted in the ADF, the aim in selecting missions for examination was to gain the most comprehensive cross-section of mission types as possible.

Theoretical sampling requires the researcher to pay attention to theoretical relevance and purpose. With respect to relevance, the selection process used here ensures that the substantive area addressed in this study, the preparation of ADF peacekeepers, is kept similar. Thus, in all missions DFSU (or its predecessor) played a similar role in the preparation of personnel by consistently delivering a generic training package tailored with information to suit the current mission. The grounded theory approach also encourages the collection of inter-related data from sources at other levels and with different perspectives on the subject under investigation (Pettigrew, 1990; Yin, 1989a, 1989b). In this case, an attempt was made to take a vertical slice through the management and conduct of a peace operation from multiple rank levels and positions.

SAMPLE

The sample comprised officers and warrant officers who had been posted to a peace operation, or who were currently holding positions that contributed to the development of peace operations training. In the course of the investigation it became apparent that those who currently held positions in peace operations training development had in the past been deployed on a peace operation. The information they provided on training development was addressed by a distinct subset of questions in the interview. This allowed the researcher, while coding the transcript, to separate information specific to training development from their deployment experience.

There were three major determinants for membership of the sample. The first, was that the candidate must be from the Army. The majority of peace operations have been land based, and consequently, the Australian Army has had by far the greatest exposure to these types of operations. Royal Australian Navy (RAN) and Royal Australian Air Force personnel participating in peace operations generally fulfil a specialist role within an ADF contingent that is dominated by the Army. For example, RAN medics were part of the UNAMIR Medical Company, and RAAF loadmasters and movement specialists were deployed to UNOSOM in the Australian Movements Group. These two services were excluded from the sample for the following reasons:

- a. the normal combat orientation, and therefore general training, of these two services is completely different from the predominantly Army environment of

most peace operations; it was considered that this had the potential to introduce confounding variables to the sample;

- b. the purely specialist nature of the trades and categories represented on the operations were not representative of their service, or, at times, the role of that trade within their service;
- c. by concentrating on an homogenous group such as the Army, factors like operational expectation, training, and experience could be effectively controlled or accounted for by the researcher; and
- d. by expanding the number of services involved in the study it was anticipated that the administration of the project would have increased exponentially, and if this was the case, it would be beyond the resources of the researcher to complete the project within the time frame available.

The second determinant for membership of the sample was based on an assumption of the position held by the individual within the contingent. Selection was based on the researcher's knowledge of the structure and mission of the contingent, and the rank and Corps of the potential participant. Specific information on the position held by an individual on a contingent was not available, and was unlikely to be accurately represent specific mission employment. The aim was to find individuals who were likely to have filled most, but not necessarily all of the following criteria:

- a. They were currently serving Australian Army officers and soldiers between the rank of Colonel and Warrant Officer Class Two. At these ranks the individual had held a position of command, or a position integral to the contingent, and they were considered to have the general military experience to provide the best quality information.
- b. Preferably, but not necessarily, they were from an Arms Corps, as it was considered that they would have the greatest difficulty reconciling training for war and deployment on peace operations.
- c. Preferably, but not necessarily, their position allowed them to travel the mission area, or assess broad based information gathered on the performance of the contingent, and thereby observe or assess the behaviour of others.

The final determinant for membership to the sample was the geographic accessibility of the individuals in Australia. The project was granted resources to conduct interviews in specific locations during particular time frames based on an assumption of unit availability. If the participant or the participant's current unit was not expected to be available during this time then they were excluded from the sample. Similarly, if the current position they held was determined to be in high demand, or if it was expected to be administratively time consuming to access the individual, then they too were removed from the sample.

Using these three determinants the sample was derived from a welfare database of 2507 ADF personnel who served on operational deployment. The database was by no means a complete record of all those currently serving officers and soldiers who had participated in peace operations. However, it represented a starting point large enough for this study. As the database also included RAN and RAAF personnel who had participated in peace operations, the exclusion of these personnel resulted in a database of 1911 Army members.

The database did not contain the names of those officers and soldiers who had participated in the UNITAF mission, known in the Australian Army as Operation SOLACE (OP SOLACE). This element of the sample was selected, employing the criteria outlined above, from a list of approximately 1100 names detailed in Ramage and Breen (1994). From this list a total of 71 names was added to the welfare database to create a complete Army sample of 1182.

The welfare database captured information at the time the individual had returned to Australia from their respective mission. Consequently, key elements of the base data were no longer accurate. In particular, information detailing whether the member was currently serving or not, or their current rank and location. To rectify this shortfall, the welfare database was run against an Army manning database to update basic contact details. These positions were then matched against current geographic and unit location. Four geographic regions were targeted; Sydney, South East Queensland, Townsville and Canberra. An assessment was made as to the potential availability of the individual given their current position. Where possible an attempt was made to group individuals within a particular unit to

reduce the resource demand on the researcher.

Throughout the process of refining the sample an attempt was made to keep it as representative of the mission and position types as possible. By this method a sample of 139 officers and warrant officers were selected and contacted by mail. Of the 139 contacted 46 (33 percent) either failed to respond or responded negatively, and this group was then removed from the sample. As will be discussed later, a further 16 (11 percent of the total contacted) Townsville based participants were removed from the initial sample leaving a sample of 77 participants (55 percent of the total contacted). In the course of the study theoretical saturation (Glaser & Strauss 1967) was reached with a sample size of 41 (29 percent of the total contacted). This final sample represents 53 percent of the initial sample of 77 participants. As can be seen in Tables 6.1, 6.2, 6.3 and 6.4 showing the comparative detail between the initial sample contacted by the researcher and the final sample included in the analysis, comparative proportion was maintained throughout the theoretical sampling process. Additionally, the depth of the vertical sampling slice was broadened to provide greater rank spread and balance (Table 6.3).

Table 6.1.

Initial and Final Sample Comparative Gender Balance.

Gender	Initial Sample		Final Sample	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Female	7	9.09%	4	9.76%
Male	70	90.91%	37	90.24%
TOTAL	77	100.00%	41	100.00%

Comparable gender balance was maintained throughout the sampling process. The ratio established in this study was marginally higher than that contained in the welfare database of 1182 Army personnel which included approximately 7 percent females. The sampling bias in this study was toward Arms Corps personnel; women in the Australian Army can be employed in combat related roles, but at the time of these deployments were not employed in Arms Corps, and were not the specific target of the study. Within these constraints, the gender balance in this sample was considered appropriate and representative for the purposes of the study.

Table 6.2.

Initial and Final Sample Comparative Mission Balance.

Mission	Initial Sample		Final Sample	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
MFO	7	9.09%	4	9.76%
MINE CLEARANCE (OUNMOZ, CMAC, UNSCOM)	5	6.49%	4	9.76%
MINURSO	5	6.49%	3	7.32%
UNAMIR	15	19.48%	8	19.51%
UNITAF	12	15.58%	5	12.20%
UNOSOM	12	15.58%	6	14.63%
UNTAC	13	16.88%	6	14.63%
UNTSO	8	10.39%	5	12.20%
TOTAL	77	100.00%	41	100.00%

Generally, the original mission balance was maintained. The predominance of participants from UNAMIR and OP SOLACE reflect the sampling bias towards Arms Corps participants. However, if the missions are described in terms of size and operations the balance between small (Mine Clearance, UNTSO, UNTAC); medium (MFO, MINURSO, UNOSOM); and large (UNAMIR, OP SOLACE) the proportional separation for the final sample is evenly distributed as small N=15 (36 percent), medium N=13 (32 percent), large N=13 (32 percent). UNTAC while in real terms is a large mission the nature of the operation was such that the contingents generally operated in small geographically dispersed groups, as such the experience of the participants in this study more closely reflected small group

deployment.

Table 6.3.

Initial and Final Sample Comparative Rank Balance, Current and Deployed Rank.

Rank	Initial Sample				Final Sample			
	Current Rank		Deployed Rank		Current Rank		Deployed Rank	
	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent	N	Percent
SGT	0	0.00%	3	4.11%	0	0.00%	1	2.44%
SSGT	0	0.00%	2	2.74%	0	0.00%	1	2.44%
WO2	11	14.29%	7	9.59%	5	12.20%	4	9.76%
WO1	2	2.60%	1	1.37%	2	4.88%	1	2.44%
LT	0	0.00%	6	8.22%	0	0.00%	4	9.76%
CAPT	16	20.78%	18	24.66%	7	17.07%	12	29.27%
MAJ	28	36.36%	22	30.14%	20	48.78%	12	29.27%
LTCOL	16	20.78%	12	16.44%	5	12.20%	5	12.20%
COL +	4	5.19%	2	2.74%	2	4.88%	1	2.44%
TOTAL	77	100.00%	73	100.00%	41	100.00%	41	100.00%

Deployed rank in Table 6.3 provides and indication of the actual depth of the vertical slice through the hierarchy. While for reasons of practical accessibility, the current rank was restricted to the boundaries of WO2 to COL, the deployed rank shows that the deployment experiences accessed in the study range from SGT to COL. The tendency was to further flatten the rank structure of the final sample: However, the predominant bias toward junior to middle ranking officers remains.

Table 6.4.

Initial and Final Sample Comparative Corps Group Balance.

Corps Group	Initial Sample		Final Sample	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Combat Arms	38	49.35%	20	48.78%
Combat Support	34	44.16%	18	43.90%
Support	5	6.49%	3	7.32%
TOTAL	77	100.00%	41	100.00%

While the intention was to maintain a preference towards Arms Corps subjects, factors in the evolution of sample selection significantly effected the final outcome. In particular, the removal from the sample of 16 Townsville participants, the majority of whom were Arms Corps, influenced this final outcome. As can be seen in Table 6.4, the final outcome was closer to even balance between Arms Corps and Combat Support.

SAMPLE LIMITATIONS

In consultation with the project sponsors, the Army Personnel Research Committee (APRC) and 1 Psychology Unit a decision was made to limit the impact of this study on those who had returned from UNAMIR and OP SOLACE, as they had been, and were the continuing subject of, considerable Australian military personnel research. There was concern

that the members of these contingents were becoming research fatigued, or were subject to the “fishbowl effect”, and further targeting of these groups by this study could jeopardise on-going projects. To reduce the impact of this study on these contingents the sample selected from the UNAMIR contingent was limited to key Arms and Logistic Corps members. The large medical contingent was excluded. Similarly, for the OP SOLACE contingent the sample was limited to key positions within the contingent.

In the smaller operations (UNTSO, MFO and MINURSO) the 'Fishbowl' effect was not an issue, as these contingents have not been subject to the same level of scrutiny as the larger contingents. The small size the total sample for the smaller contingents precluded selecting out one portion of the contingent for study. Moreover, these missions were selected on the basis that, by their nature and mandate, they presented problems peculiar to their environment, and were different from the larger contingents.

THE MISSIONS

As this was the initial study of the area a concerted attempt was made to investigate the broadest range of peace operations that Australian service personnel had served on. For this reason the sample was not limited to purely UN missions. Some missions (MFO, CMAC, UNSCOM and UNITAF) were not raised or controlled by the UN in the usual sense, however, they are or were, in place with the sanction of the UN. Appendix B, shows the missions investigated with brief information on the location, mission type and the level of Australian involvement.

Three missions (CMAC, UNSCOM and OUNMOZ) have been combined to form a category known as Mine Clearance. All participants provided to these missions are deployed as small groups from the Royal Australian Engineer (RAE) Corps. While the original intention was to treat each as a separate mission it was apparent that there were more similarities than differences between these missions, similarly there were more differences than similarities when compared to the other missions investigated. By grouping these missions the investigation could more efficiently focus on the features of the group without being distracted by their relatively minor differences.

THE INSTRUMENTATION

This section details the instrumentation and equipment used in the study. The development and basis for the interview schedule and Cohesion, Morale and Satisfaction survey are detailed, followed by an overview of the computer-aided qualitative data analysis software used, and finally, details of the equipment used to record and transcribe the data.

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

Pinch (1994a) conducted a preliminary evaluation of Canadian peacekeeping experience, drawing on data gained from approximately 50 expert respondents from the Canadian Forces (including the Reserve Forces). The instruments used to gather the data varied to include: personal interviews; written responses; group discussions; and a review of

the anonymous evaluations of peacekeepers as to the adequacy of their pre-deployment briefings. Pinch's (1994a) study was a more general evaluation of human resource issues associated with peacekeeping, and this approach is reflected in the instrumentation developed to support the study. As the only example of formal research into peacekeeping preparation, the value of the work to the current investigation was the possibility for a broad cross-cultural comparison in some key areas. With this objective in mind, the instrumentation developed for this study used Pinch's (1994a) interview schedule as a starting point. Where possible, interview questions were adopted or modified from Pinch's (1994a) original schedule. However, it was considered inappropriate to entirely adopt Pinch's (1994a) instrumentation on the basis that: it was not entirely congruent with the aims and purposes of this study; it required cultural adjustment from the Canadian to Australian military context; and some elements of his work were thought to lend themselves to a revised format. However, it was important to maintain some consistency in method with this study to allow an accurate comparison of findings.

The interview schedule for this study was developed by following the basic systems model detailed in Figure 6.1 (below). The process of deployment was seen as a system that involved the individual, or unit, being drawn from a peacetime Army where the primary preparation and training focus was on defence of Australia tasks. From this point, the individual or unit, passed through a sequence of phases characterised by; a selection process, predeployment training and orientation, the physical deployment, and finally the return to Australia and subsequent re-integration into the peacetime Army. From the systems model (Figure 6.1) the following areas were derived as a guide to the development of the schedule.

- a. ADF personnel are a product of a broader military education and training system from which they draw skills to be applied to the peace operations environment. This research should address what elements of previous training and professional education was relevant to peace operations.
- b. ADF personnel are a product of a structured selection process, similarly the selection of personnel and units to participate in peace operations is subject to a selection process. This research should address what issues of selection were relevant to peace operations.
- c. The research should examine the relationship between predeployment preparation and the deployment environment, in terms of their inter-relationship, and as an experience embedded within the wider context of general military education and training.
- d. The final phase of the deployment is the return to Australia and re-integration into the peacetime military environment, this research should address issues in this area related to the impact of the operational experience on the individual and unit, in terms of the implications for predeployment and general training.

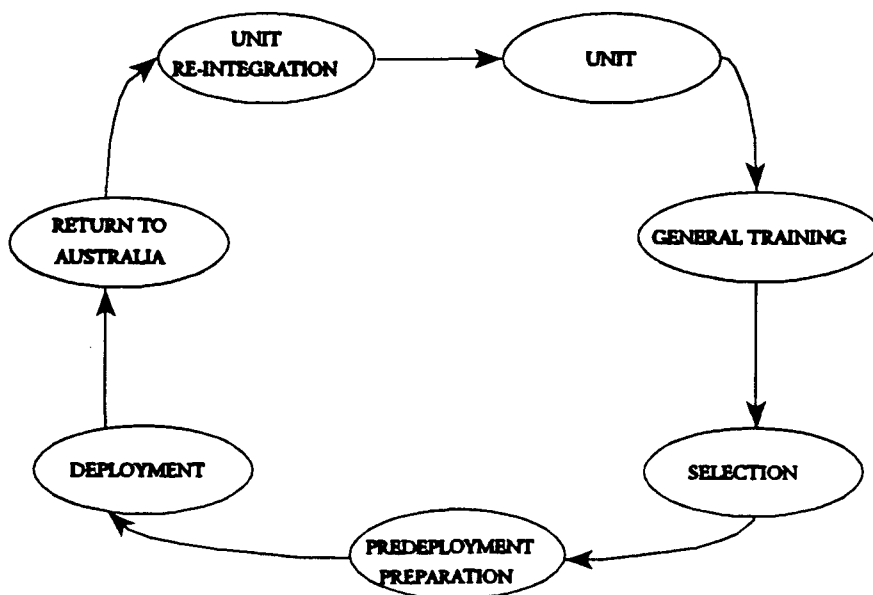


Figure 6.1. Systems model of a peace operations deployment (repeated from Chapter One).

The interview schedule developed for this study is at Appendix C. The schedule was designed as a semi-structured interview tool with questions generally categorised, in accordance with Figure 6.1, under the following topic headings: Training; Leadership; Cohesion, Morale and Satisfaction; Selection; and Military Service and Career. As an indication as to how the schedule was applied in the semi-structured format, the researcher felt constrained by the maximum time limit granted by the participant (usually one hour), and the topic headings of the schedule. While considerable effort was made to gain consistency in the questions addressed across interviews, some questions were not addressed in some interviews because the participant spontaneously raised issues relevant to the topic heading, but outside the scope of the questions in the schedule for that heading. This procedure was felt to be in accord with the central tenets of grounded theory (Glaser & Strauss 1967). All interviews

were audio taped from later transcription, concurrently the researcher took notes throughout the interview in particular focusing on the variations to question structure and the use of novel questions. If these variations were considered important in the context of the interview they were referred to in the Contact Summary Sheet (Appendix D) completed by the researcher after the interview.

As the research process developed, sub-topic areas and questions were highlighted as key issues and were systematically addressed, and others that were less viable were addressed less frequently or removed from the schedule. This process ensured that the broad topic domains remain fixed, but allowed the schedule to be flexible enough to capture and triangulate emerging issues identified by participants.

COHESION, MORALE AND SATISFACTION SURVEY

Sections of Pinch's (1994a) interview schedule included attitude or opinion questions with a specified response format, for example:

Based on your personal experience, have the following been of concern to peacekeepers, have they received attention by the Canadian Forces, and has the situation been improved or not?

- a. *Field accommodation and related arrangements.*

<i>Concern:</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
<i>Received Attention</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>
<i>Situation Improved</i>	<i>Yes</i>	<i>No</i>	<i>Don't Know</i>

Apparently, Pinch (1994a) asked these questions in the interview, or alternatively if the participant was responding in writing they were addressed as a small survey section within the broader written response.

For the purposes of this study the researcher believed that questions of this type were better combined in a survey format to support the key themes of the interview schedule. The researcher extracted three sections of Pinch's (1994a) schedule. The first, examined the broader issues of peacekeeper preparation, the second examined the peacekeeper's assessment of issues related to the cohesion, morale and satisfaction of the force, and the third section examined the impact the deployment on some general measures of individual satisfaction. Added to this was a fourth section developed by the researcher, to gather quantitative data on issues directly related to skills acquisition in pre-deployment training.

No attempt was made by the researcher to alter the question structure or the response format developed by Pinch (1994a), on the basis that he did not report any concerns related to the use of the questions within his interview schedule. Additionally, the results of these questions provided the only opportunity for a direct quantitative comparison that could give some general indication of the level of congruence between the two studies. As the research samples in both studies is small, the Cohesion, Morale and Satisfaction Survey developed for

this thesis was treated as a pilot, from which further reliability and validity testing would occur. The purpose of the survey in this thesis was to:

- a. generate quantitative data to add depth to the broad issues covered in the interview;
- b. determine whether the questions derived by Pinch (1994a) could be developed into a valid and reliable questionnaire format that would allow practitioners to monitor opinion on these issues; and
- c. allow direct cross-cultural comparison between this research and that conducted by Pinch (1994a).

COMPUTER-AIDED QUALITATIVE DATA ANALYSIS SOFTWARE

The development of computer software to assist qualitative researchers in analysing their data is a growth industry. Weitzman and Miles (1995) provide a comparison of the key characteristics of 24 qualitative data analysis programs. Qualitative software can be broadly divided into six main groupings (Miles & Huberman 1994; Richards & Richards, 1994) moving from those that have applications in qualitative research but were not specifically designed for that purpose, to those designed to meet the needs of qualitative researchers. The groupings are: Word Processors, Word Retrievers, Text Base Managers, Code and Retrieve Programs, Theory Builders, and Conceptual Network Builders. The software that has been

specifically designed for qualitative analysis automates many of the functions that formally placed considerable administrative burden on the researcher, for example, coding and the storage and retrieval of codes in relation to text. Moreover, the software allows the researcher new facilities that support the grounded theory notion of emergent theory building, these include, the efficient and effective linking of different types of data, and the ability to examine text data for specific key terms or ideas through the use of search and retrieve functions.

Kelle and Laurie (1995) suggest that computer-aided analysis enhances the validity of qualitative research in two ways: first, they can assist the management of larger samples and, second, given that reliable and stable code is applied they offer facilities to retrieve all relevant information about a certain topic. This increases the trustworthiness of qualitative findings because these facilities can ensure that the hypotheses are really grounded in the data, and not based on single and highly untypical incidents.

Grounded theory has exerted a strong influence over the development of qualitative analysis software, some (Denzin, 1988; Lonkila, 1995) argue that dominance is dangerous in itself. The method of grounded theory is not without its critics, and the concern of Lonkila (1995) in particular, is that the ready availability of techniques may also suggest the method to some researchers, and this in turn will lead to the unhealthy dominance of grounded theory over other qualitative methods. There are obviously dangers in the selection and use of computer-aided qualitative data analysis software.

In this study the researcher elected to use a program produced by Qualitative Solutions Research Pty. Ltd. (QSR) titled 'Non-numerical Unstructured Data Indexing Searching and Theorising' (NUD.IST), generally known by the acronym QSR NUD.IST. This package is specifically designed to meet the needs of qualitative research based on grounded theory. QSR NUD.IST is a theory building program based on the principle of developing a hierarchical coding structure. Theories are built by accessing the code patterns and their relationships to the original data through a sophisticated coding and retrieval engine. The semi-structured nature of this study could be well supported by the hierarchical coding structures advocated by the developers of QSR NUD.IST, while continuing to allow the researcher to develop and test emerging theories. From an administrative perspective, the software is developed and supported in Australia allowing the researcher easy access to the product and product support.

Equipment Details

A Sanyo Microcassette Recorder (Model: M-5699) was used to audio tape all interviews. While the recorder was fitted with an internal microphone, initial testing of the equipment proved that it was inadequate for recording in the situations anticipated in the study. An omni-directional Electret Condenser Microphone (Realistic Cat. No. 33-1052) with a collar clip was added to the recorder to improve performance. The recorder had a dual speed function in which a standard Microcassette would record at 1.2 cm per second producing one hour of recording for a standard thirty minute side. The recorder also had a Voice Activated System (VAS) that would record for a signal detection level that could be set

by the user. However, the VAS system was not employed in this study due to the perception in initial testing that it had the potential to be unreliable, and it missed the first few words spoken in the activation process. Digitor MC-60 Microcassettes were used throughout the study. Each side was recorded on three times before the tape was cleaned of material and retired from the study.

THE PROCEDURE

This section details the ethical and administrative clearances obtained for the study, followed by the procedure for participant contact, interview and transcription of the interview record. The section concludes by discussing the practical constraints and limitations that arose in the course of collecting the data.

ETHICAL CLEARANCE

The study was reviewed and approved by the Macquarie University Ethics Committee (Human Subjects) in accordance with National Health and Medical Research Council (NH&MRC) guidelines (Appendix E). The project was also reviewed by the Army Personnel Research Committee (APRC) before approval to use Army personnel as subjects was given (Appendix E).

While overall clearance to gather data was provided by the APRC, individual unit clearance for the researcher was required to visit some regions. This additional approval was negotiated through Land Headquarters Australia.

PARTICIPANT CONTACT, INTERVIEW AND TRANSCRIPTION PROCEDURE

This section details the method by which the potential participant was contacted and the conduct of the subsequent interview.

Initial contact with each of the 139 initial sample participants was made by mail. The potential participant received a letter of introduction (Appendix F) from the researcher that described the background to the research and invited the potential participant to consent to an interview. Enclosed with the letter of introduction was a Registration of Interest Form (Appendix F) and a sample of the Interview Consent Form (Appendix G). In completing the Registration of Interest form the respondent was asked to indicate their availability for interview in week blocks that coincided with the researchers arrival in the region. Approximately one week prior to the interview, the participant was contacted by telephone, and an interview appointment was confirmed. At this point, the participant was again provided with a brief overview of the project and given the opportunity to ask questions.

Four geographic zones were targeted for interviews, these were: Sydney Region; South East Queensland; Townsville Region and Canberra Region. These sites were selected on the basis that they provided the greatest concentration of Army personnel, employed in the

greatest variety of positions, and therefore these zones were considered to be 'target rich' environments. Concentrating research effort in these areas ensured the best opportunity to obtain a vertical slice through the levels of the organisation and the missions. Additionally, it maximised the use of available resources.

Interviews were arranged to be conducted in interviewee's office, the local unit, or area Officer's Mess. The priority at all times was to remove the individual from their normal working environment for the period of the interview to minimise the possibility of interruption, however, this was not always possible. Similarly, particular effort was taken to minimise the disruption to the daily routine of the participant or their unit. These procedures benefited the study by allowing the participant to focus on the issues raised without the competing demands of normal working life.

Prior to each interview a brief introduction to the origin of the project and the expected outcomes was presented. This information did not form a part of the record of the interview but was standard in terms of content and delivery. The introduction to the project by the researcher concluded with an overview of the contents of the Interview Consent form. Particular attention was given to the provisions for confidentiality, security of information, and the reporting procedures should the participant believe that the interview was not conducted ethically. The participant was then asked to read and sign the Interview Consent form. One copy was kept by the researcher, the other by the participant. The researcher then asked the background 'questions of fact' contained in the Interview Data Sheet (Appendix H)

The tape recorder was then turned on, and the interview was conducted. Each interview was conducted with a fresh copy of the interview schedule so that notes could be taken simultaneously with the recording. This safeguard was instituted for two reasons, first, to account for tape recorder failure, and second, the notes added additional richness to the transcribed text, supporting the production of memos during coding. As discussed earlier, potentially important issues that were spontaneously raised by the participant were explored fully.

The time taken to conduct the interviews was approximately one to one and a half hours. The interview was concluded with the question, "That is all the questions I have for you, is there anything that I have not covered, or are there additional issues you would like to raise?" At the completion of the response and follow-up questions that flowed from this the tape recorder was stopped.

At the conclusion of the interview the researcher established the participant's verbal consent to follow-up telephone contact either to clarify points of fact, or to seek their position on additional hypotheses. This consent was noted on the Interview Data Sheet by the researcher. The purpose of this request was to assist in the triangulation of information. Finally, the participant was presented with a copy of the Cohesion, Morale and Satisfaction Survey (Appendix I) to complete at their convenience. A brief explanation was provided as to the purpose of the survey, and instructions for its completion. The researcher then departed.

As suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994), preferably, within one hour of the interview, but certainly on the same day the interview took place, the researcher completed a Contact Summary Form (Appendix D). This form was a two page document designed to capture the researchers overall impressions of the information provided by the participant. In completing this form the researcher was required to address the following five key questions:

- a. What were the main issues or themes that struck you in this contact?
- b. Anything else that struck you as salient, interesting, illuminating or important in this contact?
- c. What new or remaining questions do you have in considering the next contact with this site?
- d. Were there any leads to be followed as a result of this contact?
- e. Summarise the information you got, or failed to get, on each of the target areas you had for this contact? (The target areas were: Training; Leadership; Cohesion, Morale and Satisfaction; and Military Service and Career.)

The information contained in the Contact Summary Form was then used as a guide to planning the next interview or similar interview, as a record of new issues raised in the interview, to capture the immediate impressions of the researcher that could then be compared

with impressions formed while coding the transcript, and finally, to support the memo writing process.

All recorded interviews were transcribed verbatim by the researcher as soon as possible after it had been completed. While this process was time consuming, and as discussed below, it was ultimately a significant constraint on the courses open to the researcher as the study progressed, it was completed for two reasons:

- a. personal transcription offered the researcher the best opportunity to ‘get inside’ the data quickly. Transcription by a third person was seen as having the potential to distance, or marginalise, the researcher from the data and this was not considered appropriate to the method used here. Moreover, the study did not allow for the significant costs associated with having the transcription done professionally, nor was it catered for in the original ethics proposal associated with the study; and
- b. as the primary source of data available to the study, the trustworthiness of the transcripts as a data source was a fundamental component of the quality of the research (Poland, 1995). By personally completing the transcripts the researcher was able to ensure the integrity of the data.

Several interviews were recorded from notes either because the tape recorder failed, or the interview location was subject to military security in which the use of tape recorders was

prohibited. Notes taken in this way were written up, by the researcher, immediately after the interview. As soon as possible after this they were organised under the topic headings used throughout the study and entered into QSR NUDIST for subsequent coding.

Two participant's information was entered into the data as transcripts of interviews conducted by others. The first, was an interview conducted by Simpson (1995) with the then Lieutenant Colonel Hurley, commanding officer of the Australian Battalion Group deployed as part of the U.S. led UNITAF mission in Somalia. The interview was conducted as an 'Oral History', and was designed as part of a series of interviews with selected personnel to record their operational experiences for later use in training. The second interview, was with the then Colonel Mellor, Force Commander of the Australian contingent to the UNITAF mission, conducted by Van Der Donckt and Wilson (1993) for the journal *Pacific Research*. Elements of the participant's responses from these interviews that were relevant to the current study were extracted and coded. The extract included the interviewer's questions, the participant's complete response, and if it was required, a researcher note as to the context of the information. The information from each interview was cross checked against other articles written by, or about the participant to ensure the accuracy and quality of the information.

TIME RESTRICTIONS

The pressure of time played a significant role in the courses open to the researcher as the study progressed. It was evident early in the data collection phase that in the original proposal the researcher had severely underestimated the time it would require to fully

transcribe the recorded data, in doing so, the researcher failed miserably to note the warnings of Miles and Huberman (1994) that qualitative data requires approximately two to five times as much time for processing and ordering as the time needed to collect it. In this study, the researcher found that for each one hour of recorded interview the researcher was required to allocate a further four hours to transcription, and an additional one hour for initial coding. This additional time does not include the administrative and logistic effort involved in ensuring the interview takes place.

It became obvious that to interview and record 139 interviews for further analysis was beyond the resources of the researcher. The courses open then were to find a more efficient means of transcription:

- a. complete summary transcriptions;
- b. reduce the breadth of the study (sample size); or
- c. both complete summaries and reduce the breadth of the study.

The decision was taken to significantly reduce the breadth of the study for two reasons. First, as discussed above, there was no funding for a professional transcription service to be employed, and it was not catered for in the original ethics proposal. Additionally, personal transcription was the preferred method because it allowed the researcher to quickly 'get inside' the data ensuring quality interpretation. Full transcription

was preferred from a preference for quality in the analysis as summary transcriptions led to a danger of minimising the context. Second, it was apparent from early interviews that the data quality and participant consensus on the issues was high, and additional data collection was adding depth to the issues but not raising additional significant issues. The consequence of this was that the researcher could quickly target the interview schedule to address new issues, and at the same time reinforce the key issues. A significant amount of quality information about each type of mission, and the missions in general, was gathered in a smaller sample than was originally anticipated.

PARTICIPANT AVAILABILITY

It was evident that despite indicating a preference for interview in a particular week the pressures of their employment, or unexpected work demands, resulted in participants being unavailable to be interviewed, or they were not able to be contacted at the time the researcher was in their location. This was a particular problem in the Canberra Region where the participant held a key position in Army Office. This is an unavoidable problem in this type of research.

TOWNSVILLE BLACK HAWK HELICOPTER ACCIDENT

On Wednesday the 12th of June 1996, fifteen members of the Australian Special Air Service Regiment and three members of the 5th Aviation Regiment were killed in a training accident in Townsville. The impact of this event on those serving in the Army in Townsville,

and the Australian Army in general, was significant. The researcher had originally planned to collect data in the Townsville region in the week beginning 17th of June 1996, the week following the accident. Data collection in the region was cancelled for the following reasons:

- a. The personal and organisational impact of the accident on the Townsville region was significant. As several key members of the sample held positions in Headquarters 3 Brigade, the unit responsible for coordinating and absorbing the additional organisational and administrative pressures on the region, it was inappropriate to burden their time with demands not directly related to their immediate tasks.
- b. It was apparent to the researcher at this time that the point of theoretical saturation was being reached, and that additional data from the Townsville region was a 'nice to have', as opposed to a 'research imperative'.
- c. Finally, a large number of personnel in the area were being psychologically debriefed by members of the Australian Army Psychology Corps immediately after the accident. Previous experience in the Corps suggests that incidents of this type have a tendency, in some personnel, to result in spontaneous 'revisiting' of experiences from previous operational deployments that are best raised and managed through effective personnel counselling. This was not an ideal environment for the researcher to attempt to gather information on the experiences of personnel from peace operations.

In not collecting data from Townsville Region sixteen personnel were removed from the initial sample.

THE ANALYSIS

This section will detail the methods used to analyse the interview and survey data collected by the researcher. The reader is reminded that the researchers goal in conducting this research is to show that the information has been collected and analysed to meet the quality standards of: objectivity; reliability; internal and external validity; and utilisation. The methods described in this section show how these standards were meet in the analysis of the data. The analysis is covered in three parts, the overall analysis process, the coding structures employed, and the methods used to triangulate or corroborate information provided by the participants.

ANALYSIS PROCESS

Reflecting grounded theory method, the analysis approach was iterative in that at certain points a 'thumb-nail' analysis was conducted with the aim of refining the data collection tools and analysis methods. At the outset of the research it was decided that the 'thumb-nail' analysis would occur every five interviews. The purpose of the analysis was to assess the validity, and consequent viability, of existing questions in the interview schedule. Moreover, it allowed opportunity to develop new questions to target issues that were consistently and spontaneously raised by the participants, but that at that time fell outside the

structure of the interview schedule. This formal process ensured that the interview schedule was subject to consistent dynamic refinement that targeted the interview schedule to original systems model described in Figure 6.1.

Paralleling this formal process was an informal process in which the researcher was continually testing issues raised by the participants against the opinion of other participants from within the same mission and contingent, and from different missions and contingents. In this way issues that were potentially relevant to all missions were clearly tested and formulated before being subject to the thumb-nail analysis.

Clustering was the predominant technique used to clarify the issues that emerged from the data. This technique involves the repeated application of the following three phases: scanning, ordering and selecting (Miles & Huberman, 1994). The purpose was to determine the links between and within the data to establish an appropriate framework for theory building. The exemplars used throughout the discussion of the findings are the final outcome of the successive application of clustering. The utility of this approach was the consistent application of the technique to different levels of the data. For example, it could be applied equally to an examination of perceptions at a particular rank level, experiences within and between missions, or to clarify perceptions of process. In this study, clustering was used to support generic theory building, and to clarify sub-themes that occurred within the data.

CODING

Codes are tags or labels for assigning units of meaning to the descriptive or inferential information compiled during the study (Miles & Huberman, 1994). Codes can be attached to any sized chunk of information from single words to whole paragraphs. In this study, line analysis was conducted such that the base coding unit was a line of text from the transcript. By using codes the qualitative researcher can retrieve and organise 'chunks' of text data to develop or support hypotheses and theories.

As discussed earlier, computer support for qualitative analysis has enhanced the utility of the coding process. In this research, the coding practice was to move from a system of open codes based on the original interview schedule to axial coding (Strauss & Corbin, 1990). Open codes were designed as a starting point for the analysis, and as such categories were created as 'bins' to collect factual or like information. As the analysis developed, the coding structure moved to the more refined axial coding which attempts to rebuild the data by making connections between a category and its subcategories. Axial coding is about specifying the relationship between categories, while open coding focuses on the categories relationships and dimensions (Lonkila, 1995).

The computer support (QSR NUD.IST) used in this research supported a coding structure that led to the development of 'hierarchical categories' (Richards & Richards, 1995). As the name implies, hierarchical categories are developed by organising related information or ideas under a common theme. In this way, a tree structure is developed that

provides a framework for qualitative data storage and analysis. The hierarchical approach to category formation has a number of benefits that were congruent with this project, in that it:

- a. supports both open and axial coding;
- b. supports the dual purposes of the study, in that, the structure can be developed to simultaneously hold bottom- up data necessary to develop emerging theories, and the top-down theory driven data necessary to test hypotheses;
- c. provides a simple structure that is easily understood by professional researchers and laymen alike, providing open system for others to verify conclusions drawn from the data; and
- d. provides a simple visual display that facilitates the recognition of inter-relationships between data, and subsequent theory building.

TRIANGULATION

Triangulation is the process of corroborating information or matching patterns in data to ensure that independent measures of it, agree with it, or, at least, do not contradict it (Miles & Huberman 1994). Denzin (1978) defines triangulation as a function of data source (people, times and places etc) by method (observation, interview or document) by researcher (if

multiple researchers are used) by theory, to which Miles and Huberman (1994) add data type (qualitative text, recordings or quantitative data). Miles and Huberman (1994) go on to describe that the aim of triangulation is to choose sources that have different biases and strengths, so that they can complement each other.

In this research triangulation was achieved by:

- a. taking a vertical sample slice through the personnel who manage and conduct of peace operations, such that information and perception could be verified across level, position and mission;
- b. the main data collection source (interviews) was tested against quantitative data (Cohesion, Morale and Satisfaction survey) and examination of the Post Operational Reports (POR) from the mission under investigation;
- c. emerging theory was regularly tested for internal and external validity by first, feeding it, or elements of it, into the interview schedule, and second, testing it against the staff of the project sponsors or other suitably qualified individual(s); and
- d. by using the interview to cross-reference participant statements of fact, or opinion, with other participants from the same mission.

Added to these specific methods was the broader process adopted in the study in which data collection moved from a broad interview schedule to a highly targeted and selective schedule. This approach supported the triangulation process selectively subjecting information considered critical to testing the hypotheses, or the development of emerging theories, to increasingly intense scrutiny.

COHESION, MORALE AND SATISFACTION SURVEY

The Cohesion, Morale and Satisfaction Survey was a pilot survey adapted from the Pinch (1994a). The purpose in the analysis of the instrument in this study was to test the general viability of the questions, and the appropriateness of the response format. As discussed earlier, the questions and response format were adopted from Pinch's (1994a) interview schedule. In Pinch's (1994a) study, the questions were either delivered orally or required as part of a larger written response made by the participant. The use of the questions in a pure survey format was an innovation in this study that needed validation. In quantitative terms, the sample size was too small to effectively determine the validity of the instrument, so this research aimed to conduct a broad assessment by:

- a. comparing the survey findings to the interview findings to assess the level of consistency and congruence;
- b. asking the participants to comment on the appropriateness of the questions and response format, these responses were then analysed; and

-
-
- c. comparing the survey findings against the Pinch's (1994a) results to determine the degree of consistency between the two studies.

At all times it was anticipated that quantitative validation of the instrument would be undertaken by the Australian Army Psychology Corps before the instrument was used to collect data on a larger scale. In this research the frequency data extracted from the survey was treated as a descriptive source of information that could be used to add depth to the interview.

ACKNOWLEDGED METHOD PROBLEMS

The nature of the study and the method adopted resulted in some anticipated method problems which are acknowledged but unable to be catered for in the design of the study. It was anticipated that the time elapsed between deployment and the interview for most participants was significant. Their recall of the detail of their pre-deployment information was not expected to be detailed, or completely accurate, as it was expected to have been coloured by the deployment and events since the deployment. Throughout the interview 'questions of fact' were introduced to confirm the extent to which the participant believed they could recall particular types of information. For example, the following sequence might occur in relation to pre-deployment training:

Interviewer: Did you deploy through Reinforcement Holding Company?

Participant: Yes.

Interviewer: Can you recall the detail of that training?

Participant: Parts of it, Yes. We did mine clearing at SME, medical training, briefings from the intelligence cell at LHQ...

By passing through the 'question of fact' process a broad assessment of the quality of the participant's information could be made. Prompting through the use of a sample course outline further aided the participants recall. Despite these corrections it is acknowledged as a potentially confounding problem.

The second problem relates to the type of recall or the distortion on memory that has taken place as a result of the deployment experience. It was anticipated that the participants would have a biased view of their experience, or a 'rose coloured glasses' effect. It was assumed that the participants' view of the deployment could be biased either, positively or negatively, by a broad range of factors either directly related to the deployment (relationship with superior, type of work performed) or secondary to the deployment (for example, family issues, return to unit issues). These issues had the potential to 'colour' the participants' total perception of the deployment in one way or the other. This problem was addressed by cross referencing information from participants from the same contingent. Where a bias was suspected in the interview an attempt was made to double check particular pieces of information either formally or informally. At no time was it considered necessary to remove

the data from the sample if a suspected bias existed, however recognition or suspicion of participant bias was recalled in the data analysis phase such that information from a potentially biased source was given weight only if it could be extensively collaborated by others from the sample. The problem remains and is acknowledged.

The final problem of method relates to the nature of the sample. The sample concentrates on those who have remained in the Regular Army. It does not account for the perceptions of those who are in the Army Reserve or those in the Regular Army who have discharged since completing their deployment. It is recognised that these groups may have alternate or differing views from those who have remained in the Army. As this study was considered to be the first in a series of explorations into this area it was anticipated that future work would target these groups for comparison with the results of this study. This problem is accepted as a limitation.

CHAPTER SEVEN

COHESION, MORALE AND SATISFACTION SURVEY

PEACEKEEPER SELECTION

INTRODUCTION

One of the benefits of conducting a qualitative study is the richness and quantity of data that is collected. This study has been no exception. One purpose of this thesis was to determine what features of organisational architecture contribute to the development of capable individuals, using the ADF on peace operations as a case study. However, in qualitative research, the participants have greater control over the direction of the research process, taking the researcher into new, and often interesting areas, that are related to the broader domain of the study, but are only tangentially related to the original aim of the study.

Reporting the findings of such a study poses some problems in terms of determining an appropriate structure to present the data that is coherent and reflects the aim, as well as ensuring that justice is done to the participants' 'other' contributions to the research process. A related consideration, concerns the audience for which this thesis is intended. This study has been funded by the Australian Defence Force. The researcher has a responsibility to the sponsor to provide the most complete report of the findings of the study as possible, this includes exploration of those 'other' areas raised by the participants, that may be outside the original intention of the study, but offer critical insight into the project sponsors operations.

This chapter will set the scene by examining two areas of the data that provide an overview of the issues raised by participants. First, their responses to the Cohesion, Morale and Satisfaction Survey, and second, their insights into peacekeeper selection. Opening the analysis and discussion with these areas gives the reader the opportunity to get a sense of the participants orientations and attitudes.

Subsequent chapters have been organised to address the issues highlighted in the literature review. Chapters Eight, Nine, Ten and Eleven focus on particular aspects of organisational architecture identified in Chapter Five, linking this framework to an examination of both the development of capability in the Australian Defence Force, and the human resource issues associated with peace operations deployment. These two areas are not mutually exclusive, as the concept of organisational capability can be seen as a conceptual framework within which the development of some aspects of human resource policy and practice relevant to peace operations can be considered. However, where possible in this discussion the issues have been treated separately to facilitate clearer examination and understanding.

A final point to consider in reviewing the findings of qualitative research is that it is not enough to present the findings of the research, it is also necessary to comment on the construction of the study. Many of the decisions made in the analysis of the data are the result of the subjective considerations and orientations of the researcher. To contribute to the validity and reliability of the findings the onus is on the researcher to be as open as possible

about the development of the reports conclusions. To assist in this process exemplars from the data will be used to anchor the researcher's comments and conclusions.

There are two reports here, the one that reports the findings of the research, and the one that provides the 'back-stage' detail of the research. In part, the 'back-stage' process was begun in the discussion of method (Chapter Six), and it will be continued here.

THE PURPOSE OF CHAPTERS SEVEN TO TWELVE

To comprehensively and coherently present the findings of the research:

- a. to determine those features of organisational architecture that contribute to the development of individual capability; and
- b. to comment on the human resource issues relevant to deploying Australian Defence Force personnel on peace operations.

COHESION, MORALE AND SATISFACTION SURVEY

The Cohesion, Morale and Satisfaction Survey (Appendix I) was derived from the work of Pinch (1994a). The purpose was to pilot the instrument with the view that once fully developed it would provide further quantitative detail on some of the conceptual, training and

human resource issues associated with peace operations.

The survey questions (Sections 1 and 2) were originally developed and delivered by Pinch (1994a) in a study of Canadian peacekeepers. Pinch (1994a) delivered the questions as part of his interview schedule scoring them as he conducted the interview. The long term utility of this method of administration was not considered appropriate to purposes of this study, so the questions and their response format were drafted into a simple survey design. By keeping the same question and response format it was hoped that some initial broad based comparison with Pinch's (1994a) work could be examined to determine the cross-cultural utility of the instrument.

The questions employed in Section 3 of the instrument were developed with the purpose of evaluating the predeployment training conducted in Australia. The results were expected to provide quantitative support to the training issues raised in the interview.

Of the 41 military personnel interviewed 28 (61 percent) completed and returned the survey. Given the small sample size and the developmental nature of the instrument, analysis was confined to the broad descriptive features of the data. In administering the instrument, participants were encouraged to make comments on their perceptions of the survey design and content, these were then analysed using the qualitative methods used in the bulk of the study. These comments provided insight into the utility of the questions and the appropriateness of the response format. The descriptive features of the data are contained in Appendix J.

Analysis of the survey provides a useful insight into the general orientations of the participants on:

- a. satisfaction with predeployment preparation as conducted in Australia;
- b. perceptions of the peace operations environment;
- c. perceptions of three of the five generic SKA areas identified in the literature review; and
- d. the impact of peace operations deployment on some post-deployment satisfaction indicators.

FINDINGS

PREDEPLOYMENT PREPARATION

Of those who completed the survey 96 percent had completed some form of predeployment preparation prior to leaving Australia, and 59 percent considered that they had completed some form of formed unit training appropriate to the mission. It should be noted that a large proportion (31 percent) of participants were deployed as members of formed units to either Somalia (OP SOLACE) or Rwanda (UNAMIR). This is not the norm for

participation of Australian personnel, but reflects the deliberate sampling bias in this study explained in Chapter Six.

Fifty-five percent believed that the predeployment preparation they received prior to deployment was adequate, while the remaining 44 percent considered that it was inadequate. For those who did receive mission specific predeployment preparation, 32 percent rated it as important to their ability to carry out their duties, and 43 percent rated it as very or extremely important to their ability to carry out their duties. The qualitative data showed that the majority considered that predeployment preparation suited their needs once deployed, however, the comment was often associated with a 'rider' comment that went on to clarify the level of appropriateness, or to detail one or two areas where they believed improvements could be made. This qualitative finding tempers the level of dissatisfaction with predeployment training reported above. Predeployment preparation is discussed further in Chapter Nine.

Forty-eight percent of those who completed the survey believed that the briefing on the attitudes and habits of the host population was not adequate to prepare peacekeepers for the situation they found once deployed. A larger 74 percent of survey participants consider that the briefings on the attitudes and habits of other force nations was not sufficient to prepare them for what they encountered once deployed. As discussed in Chapter Nine, the level of dissatisfaction with the briefings carries the caveat that most participants recognised the difficulties associated with gathering complete and accurate information in the limited time

frame given between the notice to deploy, receiving preparation, and deployment.

Preparation in the culture and customs of other force nations received strong support as a factor in improving both individual (78 percent) and unit (82 percent) performance once deployed. The strength of this result suggests that it may be worth researching the viability of including information on this topic in predeployment preparation. This issue is raised again in Chapter Nine.

Other issues that received strong support as potentially improving the performance of the individual (first figure below) or unit (second figure below) once deployed were: training in mediation and negotiation (81 percent and 70 percent), this item also received strong support in Section 1A with 71 percent of respondents reporting that the ability of all ranks to conduct negotiations was either very or extremely important; training in conflict resolution (75 percent and 68 percent); a clearer understanding of the role and agendas of NGOs (67 percent and 70 percent); training in the customs and culture of the country (73 percent and 81 percent); specific training in the operations ROE (69 percent and 78 percent); a clearer understanding of the political situation in-country (71 percent and 75 percent); a clearer understanding of the aim and objectives of the deployment (71 percent and 75 percent); a clearer understanding of the role of other UN organisations (78 percent and 74 percent).

Some of these topics already constitute a part of predeployment preparation, and reflect their continued importance to participants. Others such as negotiation and mediation

skills training, and information on the customs and culture of other force nations are not a feature of predeployment preparation. The broad indications from this survey are that the potential for including these subjects in predeployment preparation is worthy of further investigation.

Interestingly, specific language training in key phrases received less distinct support for individual performance (55 percent) than for unit performance (70 percent). The available literature, and the qualitative analysis of the issue in this study (Chapter Nine) suggest that basic skill in the language of the host population is considered an asset on deployment. The mixed result for improvements in individual performance may reflect the perception that basic of language skills can be readily obtained once deployed, negating or reducing the need for consideration in the initial preparation process. This study was not able to provide any further insight into the difference in perception between the impact of basic language training on individual and unit performance. Further examination of this finding is required.

Participants considered that mission specific formed unit training would have been advantageous in both the performance of individual (63 percent) and unit tasks (77 percent). For those who received mission specific formed unit training prior to deployment, 32 percent felt that it was important to their ability to carry out their duties, while 39 percent felt that it was not important or, mildly important. This finding might be interpreted as suggesting that the individual perception of those who did not receive formed unit preparation is that it would have been of benefit, but the reality is that for those who did receive it contributed to

individual performance. To further clarify the issue information on the type of formed unit training received, and it's relevance to the peace operations environment is required. The questions employed to investigate this issue lacked the clarity necessary to make further informed comment. These questions require alteration prior to further administration of the instrument.

PERCEPTIONS OF THE PEACE OPERATIONS ENVIRONMENT

Section 1B of the survey addressed the participant's perceptions of issues often associated with the conduct of peace operations. This section of the survey, and section 1C, suffered from a combination of two design flaws. In some cases the questions were not sufficiently accurate or clear in the minds of the participants, and this combined with a response format that was not sufficiently descriptive leads to the conclusion that the results reported here should be interpreted with care. The following interpretation, where appropriate, will draw the reader's attention to support the finding may have either in the qualitative data of this study, or from literature on the issue as highlighted in this thesis.

In analysis the questions from this section can be broadly subdivided into those on the:

- a. mission conditions, as dictated by the nature of the operation;
- b. contact between peacekeepers and the host culture; and

-
- c. conditions that define the conduct of the operation.

Mission Conditions

The type of mandate under which the mission was conducted was reported to have a positive effect (Positive - 68 percent) on the contingent while deployed. This result likely reflects the qualitative findings on the influences on personal satisfaction derived from participation in a peace operation. In interview, participants regularly commented that the ability to make a positive contribution to the population of the host nation was one source of personal satisfaction (Chapter Eleven). This was consistent across missions, but was stronger in short term, high profile missions where the mandate received considerable attention in the media and the force, such as Rwanda (UNAMIR), as opposed to Israel (UNTSO).

As addressed in Chapter Two, peace operations are governed by impartiality and the minimum use of force. In the survey response, operating under these conditions was not considered to have any effect on the contingent (No Effect - Impartiality, 64 percent; Minimum Use of Force, 52 percent). That these restrictions had made no impact on the contingent may reflect the participants' perception that training in LIC and SWC produces skills that are readily transferable to peace operations (see Chapter Nine).

Contact with the Host Culture

The attitudes of the host population were reported as having a positive effect (Positive - 64 percent) on the contingent, as was the degree of cooperation from the local authorities (Positive - 39 percent). Language barriers were reported by most participants as having no effect on the contingent (No Effect - 53 percent), however, 36 percent reported a negative effect on the contingent. Again, language acquisition and use is reflected as a difficult issue that may have a number of dimensions that warrant further investigation.

Mission Conduct

The uncertainty of the situation (Negative - 46 percent); the ambiguity of the situation (Negative - 71 percent); the periods of inactivity or waiting (Negative - 57 percent); being unarmed where the belligerents and others were armed (Negative - 43 percent); and decisions taken by UN authorities (Negative - 64 percent), were all seen as having a negative effect on the contingent. It should be noted that 36 percent of the survey participants reported that the uncertainty of the situation had a positive impact on the contingent.

This may be a reflection of reports that the potential danger inherent in peace operations was seen as a positive feature of participation, in that it provided the conditions under which the individual could truly validate their training and experience. This may be the distinguishing feature between uncertainty and ambiguity, where ambiguity might be

interpreted as social or operational ambiguity. In support to this argument 64 percent of survey participants considered that being under the threat or risk of injury or death had a positive effect on the contingent.

That the operation provides the opportunity to be challenged by novel tasks (Positive - 89 percent), and allows greater scope for independent action and decision making than would otherwise be expected in an Australian setting (Positive - 82 percent), was seen as a positive feature of the deployment and is well supported in the qualitative interpretation (Chapter Ten). There is clearly a difference in the way the organisational architecture performs in Australia, and on deployment. In theory, this difference should not exist, as the training and day-to-day operation of the organisation in Australia should reflect the organisation's operation on deployment.

The physical conditions of the deployment such as having restrictions on movement (Negative - 61 percent) and physical and social isolation (Negative - 57 percent) were both seen as negative events, as was separation from home and family (Negative - 68 percent). These issues were not raised as significant factors in the interview.

The final area in this section addressed the issue of recognition. Eighty-two percent of survey participants reported that being told they were doing something worthwhile had a positive impact on the contingent. In the qualitative analysis, recognition develops as a complex issue that involves formal operational recognition and support from Australia

(Chapter Eleven); the psychological debriefing process (Chapter Twelve); and the capture and use of, operational information in Australia (Chapter Twelve). The survey result gives support to the importance of the global concept of recognition in peace operations.

SKILLS, KNOWLEDGE AND ATTITUDES

Section 1A examined issues related to the application of skills, knowledge and attitudes in the mission area. The results for this section allow direct comparison with the work of Pinch (1994a). The results from Pinch's (1994a) work are in italics beside the results from this study.

The central theme of this thesis is that conventional combat training may produce attitudes and orientations in personnel that are not appropriate to peace operations, and it may not appropriately skill personnel to deal with the problems they are likely to confront in this environment. Seventy-one percent of survey participants believed that a combat orientation among peacekeepers of all ranks was a very or extremely important factor contributing to the success of the operation. This compares favourably with 67 percent of Canadians in Pinch's (1994a) study. Further, 81 (77) percent of participants reported that the ability to use conventional combat related skills and knowledge contributed to the success of the deployment. However, a non-combat orientation was considered to be important or extremely important by 71 percent of survey respondents compared to the Canadian experience of 55 percent. Apparently, there is a need to maintain both attitudes in the conduct of peace

operations. What implications does this have for preparation and training? What is the nature of the non-combat orientation, and who is developing it? Clearly, the difference in results suggests that the Australian experience of this an issue requires further clarification.

Special orientation and training carried out in Australia prior to deployment was considered to be very or extremely important by 86 (77) percent of survey respondents. Orientation and attitude training that could generally be considered part of such preparation or training was reported as very or extremely important to participants in the following areas:

- a. the ability to be fair and impartial in dealing with all belligerents - 100 (96) percent of respondents;
- b. knowledge of the culture and belligerents - 75 (70) percent of respondents;
- c. understanding or clarity of the mandate - 89 (81) percent of respondents; and
- d. knowledge of the present situation - 92 (91) percent of respondents.

The results suggest that knowledge of these areas continues to be important to peacekeepers. Additionally, the results are comparable with the Canadian study (Pinch, 1994a).

The attitude of peacekeepers to the different organisations in the mission area can impact on overall contingent effectiveness. Exploration of this issue revealed that the following proportion of survey participants considered the attitude of peacekeepers to the following groups to be very or extremely important to the success of the operation:

- a. the UN - 57 (30) percent of respondents;
- b. civilians from NGOs - 43 (26) percent of respondents;
- c. soldiers from other nations - 79 (43) percent of respondents;
- d. officers from other nations - 72 (30) percent of respondents;
- e. civilians of the affected population - 85 (56) percent of respondents; and
- f. Australian leaders or supervisors - 82 (88) percent of respondents.

There is significantly less comparability between the Canadian study and this one on these questions. This may reflect differences in administration, in that, in this study the use of the questions in a survey format was less distinct or resulted in a different interpretation than when administered as part of an interview schedule. The Australian results do show a priority order for information on the groups that are most likely to impact on the contingent, from the

host population and Australian leaders through to the NGOs. This may reflect the relative importance of these issues in predeployment preparation. If this is the case, there is again evidence that cultural and professional understanding of other force nations is a priority among participants.

ORGANISATIONAL INDICATORS OF POST-DEPLOYMENT SATISFACTION

Respondents were asked to rate a number of indicators of organisational satisfaction as to the level of change they had noted since their return from deployment. The following were rated as 'no change', however, where there was an indication of a trend in the Australian data toward 'increase' or 'decrease' this has been noted (comparisons with the results of the Canadian study are in italics):

- a. individual complaints - 50 (37) percent with a trend toward an increase 39 (25) percent;
- b. level of interpersonal conflict - 50 (57) percent with a trend toward an increase 36 (26) percent;
- c. medical of other absences - 86 (75) percent;
- d. posting requests - 68 (74) percent;

- e. discharge requests - 61 (70) percent;
- f. level of section performance - 64 (28) percent;
- g. expressions of military commitment - 54 (55) percent, with a trend toward an decrease 29 (17) percent; and
- h. unit morale or cohesion - 50 (47) percent, with a trend toward an increase 25 (41) percent.

It is interesting to note the observation that posting and discharge requests were not seen to change. For some time, the popular theory in the Australian Army has been that those deployed to peace operations often discharge from the Army soon after their return to Australia. The participants in this study do not support this notion. This supports the qualitative findings discussed further in Chapter Twelve.

The following were seen to increase:

- a. family complaints - 50 (37) percent with a trend toward no change 43 (52) percent;
- b. incidence of dissatisfaction - 86 (41) percent; and

-
- c. requests for peacekeeping deployments - 64 (55) percent.

The high level of dissatisfaction is reflected in the qualitative analysis (Chapter Twelve). This result is mirrored by the finding that 43 (40) percent of respondents indicated a decrease in their individual motivation post-deployment, but this showed a confounding trend (36 (30) percent of respondents) toward an increase. The difference between the incidence of dissatisfaction between Canadian and Australian peacekeepers may reflect the CF's widespread involvement in peace operations. CF's personnel have significantly more opportunities to be deployed than their Australian counterparts, this restriction may be a contributing factor to the higher levels of dissatisfaction among Australian personnel.

CONCLUSION

The survey results give a broad indication of the orientation of participants in this study. A number of faults in the design of the survey were identified that will need to be addressed prior to further administration. However, despite these problems the results are in accord with the qualitative findings of the study, suggesting that with some improvements in design, the general features of the instrument would provide reasonable insight into the issues involved in perceptions of the peace operations environment, predeployment training and post-deployment issues.

There is general compatibility with Pinch's (1994a) study, with the only significant differences occurring in the attitudes of peacekeepers to the other organisations found in multinational operations. As discussed above, this may reflect the greater experience of the participants in the Canadian sample, with many having been deployed overseas at least twice. In general terms, the issues that concern peacekeepers about multinational operations are similar, suggesting that this type of survey may prove useful in exploring cross-cultural military experiences of peace operations.

Further examination of the issues raised in the survey are addressed as particular topics in subsequent chapters. This information will allow further clarification of the content of the survey, and should be considered in subsequent refinements to the instrument.

The following section on peacekeeper selection provides a qualitative overview of the participants perceptions and orientations.

PEACEKEEPER SELECTION

Peacekeeper selection was raised as an issue in the interview for two reasons. The first, was an attempt to elicit participant response on the issues surrounding the voluntary nature of peace operations. As part of career management in the Australian Army each individual is asked to indicate whether they are volunteers for particular forms of duty, one of

which is UN operations. However, if an individual is a member of a unit group, and that group as a whole is selected for participation in a UN operation, then the individuals volunteer status could be questioned. By volunteering to join the Army, the primary assumption of employment is in operations in defence of the nation. It was hypothesised that some individuals may consider participation in operations outside those parameters inappropriate. Presumably, this is why Australian Army personnel are asked to indicate their volunteer status for such a mission. The purpose in addressing this area was to gain some insight into the impact the participants perceptions of their volunteer status, and their subsequent perception of the mission. In terms of individual capability, volunteer status was seen as a measure of organisational commitment, a potential factor in organisational capability.

The second approach to selection was to ask the participants to define the positive and negative personal characteristics that contributed to, or detracted from, performance once an individual was deployed. As we have seen, much of the literature on the selection of military personnel for peace operations has adopted a 'negative selection' approach, that focuses on identifying those features that clearly indicate the individual is unlikely to cope with the demands the operation is expected to make of them. To establish the features of the organisation that will contribute to the development of capability it is necessary to establish the range of characteristics that are considered positive in a particular domain, in this case peace operations. Capability is more likely to be described in terms of positive characteristics, reflecting that a capable person is one who is likely to be able to meet the demands of unfamiliar problems in an unfamiliar context. It was expected that the participants in this

study would be describing the performance of people in just such an environment, as peace operations for military personnel trained for conventional operations, represent unfamiliar problems in an unfamiliar context.

FINDINGS

THE NEED FOR SELECTION IN PEACE OPERATIONS

In addressing selection as an issue in peace operations the focus was on the individual qualities considered to be desirable or undesirable in a peacekeeper. Implicit to this approach was the assumption was that there was a need for a selection process, consequently this fundamental question was not directly addressed by the participants.

No participant denied that individual selection was a valid consideration in the deployment process, however some participants (mainly commanders of large formed groups, for example Company Commanders) considered selection issues within the context of unit or formed group selection, a subset of which was individual selection.

Implicit to the participants' comments on individual selection is acceptance of the need for some form of selection process, but further interpretation of this implicit assumption does not allow the researcher to comment on the adequacy or otherwise of current selection techniques used by the ADF in relation to peace operations. It can be said that the smaller the

operational group the more important the issues of selection were to the participants, and it was apparent that participants had previously considered this as an issue in reflecting on their experience. The following comment from the commander of a small group provides the only overt insight into the perceptions of the broader peace operations selection process and policy:

I am a victim of the 'he's the best available' regime, and I am thankful for that. We should try and find a compromise between availability, best meeting the requirements, and career development. Although, I am mindful of being told in recent times that the overseas deployment is being used to keep people in the Army. Sure that is a virtuous way of doing things, but I shudder to think that we are sending people who are not necessarily well qualified to go and do the job we are asking of them, in situations where potentially they can get themselves and others killed, and we are sending them simply because we want them to stay in the service. That is a real problem. ...CMAC

Selection is an issue that has two inter-related features. The first is as referred to in the comment above, is an issue of selection policy, and the subsequent implications for those deployed. The second is as addressed in this study, is an issue of appropriate and inappropriate behaviours and personal characteristics, the identification of which may lead to the development of an individual selection method. Large formed units are better able to 'carry' unit members who are not suitable for operational deployment, group behaviour will

sustain and protect them. In small groups, individuals are more vulnerable, and personal inadequacies can have a damaging effect on individual and group performance. There is less 'slack' in small groups, and so individual selection policy and method assume greater importance than they might in larger groups. Given that the history (and likely future) (McLachlan, 1996), of ADF peace operations deployments has been predominantly as small groups, this area may warrant further attention.

UNIT SELECTION

It should be the selection of a company or battalion as a block rather than a platoon from here and there. If they have a few weak links then bad luck.

That is the way things are. You're not going to pick your best fifteen when you go to war, you are going to take what you have in place. ...UNAMIR

I had been the Company commander for two years, so I knew the strengths and weaknesses of my company. The negative side is that knowing the players you knew that there were one or two borderline cases. The bottom line is that they were X Company soldiers and I had no reason to sack them yesterday, and I therefore have no reason to sack them today. They should not miss out on this operation. The unit should pick up and go as it is. ...UNAMIR

These two comments from infantry company commanders sum up the sentiment of unit selection. If a unit group is selected to deploy, then there should be no need for further selection, because the 'fitness' of a unit to deploy is a command responsibility, and selection associated with 'fitness' is an ongoing task. There is also acknowledgment that every unit has weak or "borderline" members, but the unit must be responsible for compensating for these internal deficiencies if it has not had the foresight to take action sooner. In terms of organisational capability, the unit is more than the sum of its component parts, and therefore it is unit capability that should be considered in selection. Triangulation of the concepts of 'unit selection' with other participants, within and between ranks and missions, confirmed these sentiments.

An additional observation by participants was that the process of formed unit selection and deployment in Australia has been experienced, and observed to be influenced by, vested interests in the ADF. This notion is summed up in the following quote:

I think that selection should be given totally to the commander, he chooses who he takes. As it turned out, from what I gather there are so many vested interest in the Army making sure their Corps or speciality go, it can become a bun fight. They lose sight of what the job is to do. I know the CO had his proposal, but then people asked him to justify this or that. I know he was forced to take elements he did not think were appropriate, and that process breeds ill-feeling within the force. ...UNAMIR

The perception is that the final composition of the force is as much about politicking in higher defence as it is about sending those elements most appropriate to complete the task. While this process might be considered to be the reality of a bureaucratic organisation made up of many distinct specialist areas (that rarely get the opportunity to validate their training and experience), the reality is that the impact of the process is felt within the deployed force. The transparency of the political manoeuvring to all levels of the organisation, and the final impact this has on the internal credibility and cohesion of the deployed force is a concern for unit commanders. Their solution is to vest the final responsibility for force selection with the force commander, and where possible select whole units as opposed to creating composites.

‘Unit Selection’ underlines the importance of the command responsibility for maintaining the ‘fitness’ of the unit for operational deployment. Individual selection is not a decision that should be made when notification to deploy is received, but is an ongoing responsibility of command. These sentiments are clearly in keeping with those of Wenek (1984), extending his understanding of military selection and training, to an ongoing process of socialisation, where if an individual is unable to meet the demands (in this case the potential operational demands) of the group, then they should be selected out.

VOLUNTEERS FOR PEACE OPERATIONS

Unit Perspective

Absolutely, I had no one say they did not want to go. I had to shut the door on people who wanted to go. ...UNAMIR

I don't think you have any problems getting people to go. There is a very strong professional ego. They would have forsaken anything to go. ...UNAMIR

Individual perspective

There are a couple of ways to look at it. I had a choice, I could say that if I don't go then I will never get another overseas trip, therefore I must go. I took the attitude that I had been in the Army for six years, I had done x amount of training and x number of postings, if I don't take this opportunity I am kidding myself in wearing this uniform. ...OP SOLACE

All participants considered that they were volunteers for their deployment, and they reported that to their knowledge they knew of no one who did not consider themselves a

volunteer. As expressed in the comments from a unit perspective, the sentiment is that the Australian Army is not short of volunteers for overseas deployment. Few participants spontaneously acknowledged that there may be an issue in the voluntary nature of the deployment and a compulsory force commitment. For the participants, this problem was negated by an absolute commitment to their willingness to deploy. Some of those who were part of composite Australian contingents explained that on hearing about the possibility of a deployment, they had contacted their career managers to ensure that they were considered in the selection process.

That all the participants in this study considered themselves volunteers somewhat negates the original intention of the question in terms of the participants' perceptions of their volunteer status and subsequent perception of the mission. Similarly, it does not contribute to a clearer understanding of volunteer status as a factor in the capable organisation. The findings do not preclude 'willing commitment' as a factor in capable organisations, nor do they provide any additional information on the topic.

The findings may reflect a military that has been starved of the opportunity for operational experience to the point where the type of the commitment is no longer important. The individual perspective provided above gives some insight into the reasoning process, one element of which is the consideration that this may be the only opportunity for overseas deployment that will arise in an individuals career, therefore it is an opportunity that cannot be passed up.

Support for this notion comes from spontaneous admissions of participants to the effect that if they were asked to be considered for a second deployment family considerations and the nature of the mission take precedence over “the job” or “the experience” as a motivating factor. The following comment was made by the same participant who gave the individual perspective above:

Admittedly, I was engaged at the time not married, looking at it now with a child on the way I would look at it harder but I would still go. It would be more than the job to go. ...OP SOLACE

Similarly, from an older participant who had spent 12 months unaccompanied in the Sinai:

... within reason as a family man now, I am still a volunteer for overseas service. I would not allow myself to go away on a soft activity like the MFO again. It would have to be more real. I could not justify it to the family to go to a similar operation. ...MFO

The overriding understanding is that although they would remain volunteers, for re-deployment the factors that contribute to the final decision have a different emphasis. The first deployment might be seen as a ‘selfish deployment’, where volunteer status is considered in terms of professional validation, career enhancement and experience. With the prospect of a second deployment family and mission considerations assume greater importance. The

importance of the mission is likely to be measured more closely against defence of Australia priorities, or in the light of recent humanitarian operations, where the possibility of making a successful, long term impact is high. The reader should note that despite the reasoning the result is the same, the individual will volunteer. Willingness to serve is a military tradition, and an expectation of the organisation and the individual.

It should be noted that some study participants observed a link between inappropriate or material motivations for volunteering for service, and subsequent performance on the operation. Additionally, these comments highlight the significant social and professional pressure on individuals whose family or personal situations might ordinarily preclude them from such service. These comments highlight the potential for a more sophisticated approach to selection for participation in these operations than is currently in place.

... there were a few of the younger girls who had been coerced into going, you know everyone else from the unit has been over, make some money, and all this sort of stuff. They really did not want to leave their husbands. They were going because it was the right thing to do, you would never get a chance again etc. They had a difficult time initially. Personally, I don't think they should have gone because they had been coerced into it. Once they got there and settled down they were fine.

...UNOSOM

... it surprised me the number of people who went over just for the money, and I believe that it affected the way they did their jobs. There was one group that did not want to come up to see the pay rep because they did not want to be shot at, they did not want to leave their protected areas. The pay rep had to go and see them. That was just ludicrous. They were willing to let others take the risks and take none themselves. ...UNOSOM

The reasoning that forms the basis of volunteer status was not explored in any detail in this study, but further exploration may be important for those who manage military careers, or those who will be commanding ADF personnel on overseas deployments.

PERSONAL QUALITIES OF PEACEKEEPERS

Selection for the Australian Army is based on the principles of 'negative selection', the aim of which is to select out those who are clearly unsuited to military service. Socialisation through the initial induction process, and a strong internal culture contribute to the ongoing selection process. Those incompatible with the organisations goals and values either elect to leave, or are recognised as incompatible, and the organisation initiates the process of separation.

In the definitions of capability, individuals are confident, able to adapt and learn from new situations, are creative, and have an appropriate value system. If an organisation is to

accept the concept that people are capable, the next step is to attempt to select for the base qualities that constitute capability. Alternatively, if the concept of organisational capability is to prosper, there must be some understanding of what qualities constitute individual capability, such that the organisation architecture can foster the development of those qualities.

For the Australian Defence Force, peace operations appear to demand the demonstration of Independent Capability (Position Z, Figure 5.2) by individuals and the organisation. By asking participants to highlight those positive qualities that they considered important among those participating in peace operations we gain some insight into the individual qualities that might constitute Independent Capability. In terms of defence selection, the absence of those same individual qualities would be considered important in selecting out potential peacekeepers.

Table 7.1 presents those individual qualities that the participants most valued on peace operations. The qualities are arranged from those more frequently cited (or most widely valued) to less frequently cited (or less widely valued). The following comment is from the first interview conducted in the study, and does much to sum up the views expressed by the other participants:

Stability, maturity and reliability, I want someone who understands what he is getting into, and is capable of communicating that to others. They must be

part of the group, and open to discussing problems. They need the ability to reach outside themselves and do other jobs as well, you can't be a specialist, you have got to be able to rely on everybody. Finally, they must have a stable family life. ...UNSCOM

Table 7.1.

Positive Characteristics that Contribute to Successful Performance on a Peace Operation.

Individual Qualities	Problem Solving Skills	Team Skills	Cultural Awareness	Home Life
Stable, mature and reliable	Flexible in the application of total skill base	Good interpersonal skills	Able to adapt to:	Stable home life
Positively motivated towards the deployment	Able to identify problems and develop innovative solutions	Professionally competent	the new environment	
Possesses initiative		Team player	new organisational/ cultural norms	
Fit and healthy (physical hardiness)			an operational mindset from a peacetime mindset.	
Easy going nature			Culturally sensitive	
Understands the nature of the deployment				
Conservative values				

Table 7.2.

Negative Characteristics that Detract from Successful Performance on a Peace Operation.

Individual Qualities	Problem Solving Skills	Team Skills	Cultural Awareness	Home Life
Poor Interpersonal skills	Inflexible thinking	Socially dependent	Negative attitude to other cultures	Instability in home life
Inflexible 'military or regimental' approach	Poor lateral thinking skills	Poor communication skills		Financial problems
Lack of sustained moral principle	Not able to quickly assimilate new information	Poor leader skills		
Poor operational preparation		Lack of field skills or experience		
Status seeking behaviour				

Individual Qualities

The qualities of stability, maturity and reliability were the greatest personal assets that a potential peacekeeper could possess. These qualities were seen as important in a professional context in performing the mission, and from an interpersonal context in sustaining the effectiveness of the group. These qualities were not seen as being age related. The key sub-features of this category were the individuals ability to be confident in taking action and making decisions, and responsible for the consequences of those actions, which was related to the quality of personal integrity. Finally, the person must possess a significant measure of self-

discipline.

Negative qualities appeared to reflect on the individual rather than the group. Overly aggressive or arrogant people were seen as a liability in terms of their interaction with the host population. Similarly, those who were quick to anger were not suited to an environment that invariably tested patience. An inflexible military approach which was stereotyped as “dogmatic” or “regimental”, was not well regarded in an environment where flexibility, adaptability and compromise were required. This is not to say that those with regimental backgrounds did not perform well in this environment, but the observation was that in smaller contingents in particular, these individuals needed time to adjust their approach.

An interesting observation was the negative quality that has been called ‘lack of sustained moral principle’. The following provides some insight into the notion:

...the big one is the moral fortitude, to follow your beliefs through and not after a few months wane and bend to what happens in Africa. Consistency, this was the most disappointing thing of the lot. The odd individual was wrecking their whole lives, and those of their families. You don't want someone who is not true to their beliefs. ...ONUMOS

Moral principle did not feature as a positive quality but was clearly identified as a negative. The issue is discussed later as part of the psychological adaptation to long term

deployment and leadership in small groups (Chapters Eight and Ten). It is flagged here as an early indicator of its importance as a selection consideration, in that participants in this study have highlighted that congruence between the individual's values and beliefs, and ultimately behaviour, and the organisation's aims and objectives in the operation is an important feature of success in peace operations.

The presence of an appropriate value and belief system to support judgement in an situation that requires independent capability is a fundamental feature of a capable individual (Stephenson, 1992; Weaver, 1996). If peace operations represents an environment that presents conventionally trained military personnel with unfamiliar problems in a unfamiliar context, then it would be expected that an individual value and belief system that reflects the organisation's involvement in that environment is a fundamental feature of performance. In the case of small groups in particular, a lack of moral principle that reflects poorly on the organisation, and the aims of the organisation in the operation is seen as detracting from the individuals suitability in that environment. Clearly, there is a link between individual value and belief systems and organisational goals that is highlighted in the peace operations context. The development of an organisational culture that fosters and develops appropriate value and belief systems in its personnel is potentially a feature of organisational, as well as individual capability (see Chapter Eight for further discussion).

Of the remaining individual qualities a fundamental feature of an easy going nature was a "sense of humour", correspondingly "a lack of sense of humour" was considered a negative

quality.

I think our country's cynical form of humour is an asset. ...UNTSO

A cynical sense of humour is an often quoted feature of Australian national character, and is reflected in the Anzac legend (Beaumont, 1995). As noted in the literature review, the picture of the Australian soldier created by this legend permeates the ADF, and is at the foundation Australian Army culture in particular. The role of the legend in ADF and Australian Army culture, and its contribution to performance on peace operations is discussed in Chapter Eight.

Being, “fit and healthy” (Table 7.1) was taken to mean more than the ability to pass a Basic Fitness Assessment, it was considered to be more a quality of hardiness, the ability to resist disease, or to continue to perform despite illness.

“Poor operational preparation” (Table 7.2) included “poor motivation for the deployment”, a “poor mental attitude to the deployment”, and “fear of the unknown”. Fear of the unknown was generally raised by those who had been members of larger contingents, and expresses the feeling that while the opportunity to gain as much experience as possible from the deployment was generally available, some people were reluctant to take the opportunity because they did not want to “leave their comfort zone”. The impression is that larger contingents allowed individuals to shelter in familiar cultural surroundings, and they were

reluctant to step outside these boundaries. The general view is that this attitude resulted in reduced individual performance, and ultimately, had an impact on organisational effectiveness. More importantly, from the participants perspective, these individuals failed to take the opportunity the deployment offered to broaden their experience and understanding. Learning from the environment and the experience was a key benefit of participation in a peace operation and those who did not take the opportunity were held in low regard. The attitude is also reflected in the discussion of problem solving skills below.

The final point to be highlighted in this section is what has been referred to as 'status seeking behaviour' (Table 7.2). For example:

You don't want people who are really looking forward to the status of being over there and having the blue hat on. People who derive power from that and at the same time want to come back and expect a whole heap of kudos.
...UNAMIR

Status seeking was clearly linked to performance in country and was related to the misuse of power. The perception was that it led to arrogance in dealing with the local population, and behaviour back in Australia where the individual expected to gain power and/or status as a result of the deployment. This issue was sometimes referred to as the individual possessing an "ulterior motive" in participating in the deployment.

Problem Solving Skills

The key feature in this category was the ability to move outside a specialist area or domain when a situation called for it. Specialists who were locked into a particular area, and who were not willing to attempt other activities were not appreciated.

[You need] people who are willing to take a chance. They are not going to sit on their bums and scream that they do not have the right gear, they will get off the ground and make something. ...UNTAC

The second feature of this category is related to, or a consequence of, the first. The ability to identify problems, develop innovative solutions with the resources available was also highly regarded. This was seen to include their ability to learn quickly and think laterally.

His training needs to be such that he is adaptable enough to cope with the different environment and situations. ...MFO

This area was well balanced, in that, the presence of qualities that were seen as positive, was countered by the perception that the absence of those same qualities was a distinct negative. Clearly, the desire to learn from the environment, and the ability to be flexible in the application of thinking and skills is a consistent individual requirement of peace operations deployments. The identification of this as an important selection characteristic

highlights peace operations as an environment that presents military personnel with unfamiliar problems in an unfamiliar context, and therefore an environment that requires the demonstration of characteristics associated with individual capability.

Team Skills

Their ability to work as a team is paramount. Provided they are competent in their trade, I would take a person who could work effectively as part of a team above a more experienced tradesman. ...UNSCOM

Sound interpersonal skills that supported relationships within the group were valued above specialist professional expertise. These included openness to discussing issues within the group, the ability to resolve conflict appropriately and the ability to seek compromise. “Social independence” was a sub-category of the global team skill of “good interpersonal skills” in the identification of positive qualities, but was a category of its own in the identification of negative qualities. The following comments capture participants the participants sentiments:

We used to share a house, and you would be there on your own for the greater part of the time. You had to be able to stand on your own. ...UNAMIR

You need people who able to stay by themselves, so anybody who has to be around others all the time is a liability. ...UNSCOM

Social independence is a feature of good team skills the absence of which can cause problems for the individual and the group. This element provides an interesting insight into group interaction that should be considered in attempts to develop more specific selection techniques for peacekeepers.

Cultural Awareness

You must be able to accept that people from other cultures will behave in a different way. ...UNTAC

We need to respect their customs and traditions and so forth, accept their differences of opinion. This ranges from their sexual practices with kids to acceptance of corruption. While not acceptable to us, it is just a way of life for them. ... One African guy told me that you can't impose first world standards on a third world country. Towards the end I realised that this was true. You just can't achieve to the same level as you would in your own country and you must reconcile this to yourself. ...ONUMOZ

Cultural sensitivity or cultural acceptance was seen as an important positive quality in peacekeepers. As highlighted in the comments above “acceptance” of the differences in other cultures was an important element to success in this environment. The last comment gives some understanding that the basic preparation for a change in mindset should occur before the individual is deployed from Australia. There is a danger in attempting to apply first world cultural values to a third world nation. The operational mindset for those departing Australia should focus on the acceptance of those behaviours that can be established as the cultural norms of the local population, not to judge them by first world standards but to understand behaviour in terms of the context in which it is displayed. This may prove to be a training and education issue rather than a feature of selection.

Cultural sensitivity extends beyond the host culture to include the cultural differences found in contact with other peacekeepers that form part of a multinational force. The issues in this context include those mentioned above, but also include measures of military professionalism. In this situation, the other nations culture may be judged in terms of their professional military standards without taking consideration of the nature and composition of the force. An impression of ‘poor professionalism’ results in negative reflections on the cultural group. Education in the inappropriateness and inequity of such comparisons is a matter of predeployment preparation, in-theatre training and experience through exposure.

Interestingly, cultural awareness is extended to include internal divisions within the ADF. Moreover, in small Army groups it has been associated with the impact very close

living arrangements has on the culture of the organisation, for example:

...the soldier must be able to deal with living very closely to senior ranks and vice versa ... because we are used to separation at the social level, the close environment of deployment challenges some of our military cultural attitudes. Everybody in the contingent needs to be comfortable in adjusting some cultural rules. ...CMAC'

In small group deployments the normal distinctions in military culture may not be possible, or are not appropriate to the situation. According to some participants, for some people these barriers are ingrained, and likely serve to define structure, status and purpose, consequently exposure to small group environments in which maintenance of these barriers is challenged, calls for a level of adaptation that is difficult for some people. If they are unable to adapt their thinking and approach to the new context then they are a liability to group performance.

Cultural awareness and adaptation are a consistent theme of the participants' comments on ADF deployment to peace operations, and as such are addressed throughout the thesis. At present, it is enough to recognise that people who are able to successfully accept other cultures are valued as peacekeepers.

Home Life

Having a stable home life is important. Any small problem is exacerbated overseas. While they might survive the mission there will be all sorts of problems when they return home. ...ONUMOZ

...those with personal problems, their minds were not on the job. You need to consider what is a welfare problem. For example, is someone who's wife is about to give birth a welfare problem? In Australia it isn't, but in Africa it could be. ...UNAMIR

Screening for a history of family or welfare problems is an ingrained and accepted practice in military selection. Consequently, many participants added a “stable family life” as a positive feature or any “instability in family life” as a given that did not require further elaboration. Those who did offer further comment raised some relevant and interesting points for consideration. The second comment provided above is an example. It poses the question of when is a family problem really a family problem? In Australia, deployment of an individual whose wife is pregnant is not uncommon, if problems occur it is not difficult to remove the member from exercise, or deployment, and return them home. However, on a deployment of a minimum of six months to a maximum of twelve months in a third world country, a soldier whose wife is pregnant could have a negative impact on the soldier and result in a significant burden to the unit. What rules of selection should apply in this situation? What are the

professional implications for the soldier if he does not deploy? What are the implications for his family if he does? If we are to rely on the individual's assessment of his situation we need to consider that, as we have already noted, there is considerable professional pressure on the soldier to deploy.

This situation is not new to the Army which has policies and processes in place through the chaplains department (RAAChD) and other service organisations like Army Community Services (ACS) who are able to make an assessment of the family situation and advise commanders on 'fitness' of the soldier to deploy. However, the organisational and personal costs of making a selection error in this area can be extraordinarily large. Pregnancy is only one of many borderline areas that are encountered in assessing family stability. It should be noted that a number of participants in this study reported that they were absent overseas while their wives gave birth in Australia, none considered that they were a liability to the unit during this time. Soldiers and officers reporting on the stability of their family life, or other areas of their life, are under significant pressure to ensure that everything appears 'normal'. Commanders, and those in a position to advise them, should be aware of the factors driving volunteer service for peace operations raised earlier, and pressures on service members, particularly if it is their first deployment.

A related problem is the amount of experience soldiers have in being away from home for extended periods of time. Some participants noted that for the majority of people the longest consistent period of time spent away from home was likely to be a maximum of three

months on professional training. Many would not have spent this much time away from family at one time. On operational deployment the time spent away from home is likely to be a minimum of six months and a maximum of 12 months. There is generally a lack of experience in the issues associated with spending prolonged periods away from home. This inexperience contributed to individuals not forming an “operational mindset” (Table 7.1) prior to deployment that would carry them through.

Predeployment training does address the family issues associated with extended deployment through professional briefings on the subject. Additionally, there is an Army policy that requires all members to be psychological debriefed after a peace operations deployment. One element of the debrief process aims to educate personnel on the issues associated with adjusting to family life on arrival home. Perceptions of the effectiveness of psychological debrief are covered in Chapter Twelve.

Comparison between the positive and negative characteristics of Australian peacekeepers identified in this study (Tables 7.1 and 7.2), and the positive and negative characteristics associated with cross-cultural performance (Table 4.1), show that there is general congruence between what are desirable and undesirable characteristics in each setting. Cross-cultural “acceptance” stands out as a key feature in individual and group success on peace operations that would not ordinarily be considered a positive selection feature for participation in conventional military operations. This quality seems to reflect the need for peacekeepers to understand that differences exist between Australian culture and that of the

host culture, and peacekeepers must be able to translate this understanding into behaviours and attitudes that do not judge the host culture by Australian cultural standards or norms. It is likely to require peacekeepers to demonstrate a range of cross-cultural contact skills similar to those identified by Wehr (1979) (Table 4.1). The development of appropriate selection techniques is only part of the solution, training must also provide the opportunity to develop and practice the skills associated with success in this environment.

At present, cross-cultural awareness is not a feature of ADF selection for peace operations, and orientation and attitude to cross-cultural issues is catered for by exposure to a series of briefings without appropriate skills development. The findings of this study highlight the importance of an appropriate cross-cultural attitude in the peace operations environment. Individual selection for performance in cross-cultural contexts is not an area of expertise in the ADF, but it may be an area worthy of further consideration.

CONCLUSION

Peacekeeper Selection

Military selection is soundly based on the principle of negative selection. This study has provided some insight into those features of individual behaviour and character that experienced peacekeepers considered to be negative. Similarly, they have provided an indication of those features that are positive, the absence of which might be considered

negative indicators. These findings should be balanced by the information that most participants felt that Australian officers and soldiers were well suited to employment on peace operations, that is they possessed many of the positive qualities and rarely exhibited the negative qualities.

However, this perception does not negate the need for adequate screening mechanisms either by commanders or psychologists, or both. Selection errors in this environment are costly to the organisation as a whole, and make a significant impact of the effectiveness of the deployed unit. The findings of this study highlight that the smaller the deployed group the more important individual screening becomes. At present, individual selection occurs on the basis of qualifications, availability, and career development, little consideration is given to other indicators of successful performance outside family stability.

The first step toward a more rigorous system would be the development of clear policy on the selection of individuals for peace operations that goes beyond the more superficial or obvious negative indicators. The findings described here clearly indicate that the ability to perform effectively as a member of a small group is critical to success in this context. As many deployed small groups are composites, as opposed to formed units, appropriate selection, preparation and training assumes renewed importance. It may be worthwhile to consider developing a selection checklist for career managers, commanders and psychologists similar to that developed by Cotton and Grandmaison (1993) for the CF, but with greater emphasis on the indicators success in small group environments.

It is interesting to compare the categories of selection criteria identified in this study with the those factors considered important in selecting civilian personnel for service in Antarctica. The environments are similar in that the successful achievement of objectives is dependent on the performance of small independent groups operating in harsh climates. Taylor (1987, p. 17) identifies three criteria that would be balanced within each individual and within each group to which the individual belonged. The criteria were:

- a. Ability - which concerns the individual's level of competence at specific occupational tasks while having sufficient versatility to overlap on other tasks when necessity demands;
- b. Stability - which concerns the degree of self-awareness, self-acceptance, and self control that allows an individual to moderate and to express impulses and needs without a loss of functional efficiency; and
- c. Compatibility - which concerns the degree of respect, support and tolerance an individual has for others in the party and without which there is insufficient group cohesion and group morale to counter adversity.

He also suggests that it may be of benefit the performance of the group if the leader played a greater part in the selection of the people to accompany them. He feels that in this "way they would have a better chance of establishing bonds with them earlier rather than later"

(Taylor, 1987, p. 92).

It is interesting to compare this conclusion with the approach to the selection, formation and training of a Swedish battalion for peace operations discussed in Chapter Four. It is apparent that the features of their system clearly incorporate the fundamentals of Taylor's (1987) suggestions, at the same time capitalising on the fundamentals of military selection as described by Wenek (1984). The outcome for the Swedish Armed Forces is a composite unit, that through the process of selection and training is able to develop a significant level on internal cohesion prior to deployment, overcoming a problem that has been identified as a significant cause of stress in the composite units of other nations (Bartone & Adler, 1994).

The parallels between the selection criteria identified by Taylor (1987) and the findings of this study are apparent. In selecting for a peace operations environment it would be appropriate to add a further category of 'cultural awareness', which would describe:

the degree of cultural adaptability and sensitivity that allows the individual to function appropriately and effectively in a foreign culture.

The findings of this study suggest that better knowledge and understanding of the stages of group formation and development would contribute to the groups ability to understand individual reactions towards each other, and to the host culture. A clearer understanding of the factors influencing volunteer behaviour, for example, may provide

operational commanders with clearer insights into individual motivation, and thereby improve the leadership and management of personnel.

Unit selection and individual selection are clearly linked. Commanders assessing the fitness of their units to deploy are making selection decisions about “borderline” individuals on a daily basis. A better understanding of the issues in individual motivation, and the provision of some guidance on selection through improved policy and advice will result in improved selection decisions and consistency. At present, in the absence of this support, individual selection within units, while well intentioned, is conducted on an ad hoc basis.

Selecting for Capability

Participants in this study identified and defined the peace operations environment by identifying the individual characteristics that contributed to success or failure. There was recognition that the person required the ability to recognise problems and develop appropriate solutions in response to unfamiliar problems and circumstances. The application of skills was not confined to basic areas of competence, but was expected to draw on the full range of skills they possessed. It is an environment where knowledge, skills, values and esteem combined to constitute effective performance. Basic competence was identified as the foundation, but effective performance was based on more than trained competence. The peace operations environment was one in which the person was required to learn, and that learning was a result of confronting unfamiliar problems and situations, and developing appropriate solutions.

Consequently, those who failed to confront the environment were seen as less effective.

If we consider the qualities identified in this study, against those identified by Weaver (1994) (see Chapter Five) as the 6C's of individual capability, we see that the participants have identified characteristics that describe peace operations in terms of the 6C's: comprehension (one who understands and acquires the necessary knowledge as the basis for sensible action); cultivation (a proper sense of values against which to judge right and wrong); competence (an understanding of the practice of their craft in a wide range of difficult circumstances), creativity (an ability to understand and employ their capacity for creativity); cooperation (the ability to understand the importance of working with others); and coping (the ability to manage their own life, to cope with the environment, to profit from the experience and reach sensible decisions).

In particular, the prominent features of capable performance in peace operations are: cooperation, comprehension and cultivation, or in more traditional terms, teamwork, the ability to learn, and an appropriate personal value and belief system. These three features of the peace operations environment are consistently reported in a variety of contexts throughout the study. That an appropriate personal value and belief system is a prominent feature is a surprise, particularly in the way participants linked it to organisational values and image. The link between individual values and beliefs, organisational values and image, and the nature of peace operations is an explicit theme of the data that is picked up later in the analysis.

In terms of selecting for capable individuals the data presented here suggest that Weaver's (1994) description remains an appropriate generic model that might be used as the basis for the development of an appropriate selection tool. However, the development of capability recognises that different domains require different approaches to the development of capability, so those features that have been identified here are specific to capable performance of military personnel on peace operations.

The personnel selection qualities highlighted here do point to the involvement of wider organisational factors in the development of individual capability. For example, "poor operational deployment" was correlated with poor performance and a "positive motivation towards the deployment" was correlated with successful performance. Organisational activities such as effective predeployment training, leadership and team structure can all contribute significantly to the development of appropriate attitudes, orientations and behaviours that will contribute to the demonstration of individual capability in the field, and it is these factors that are explored in greater detail in subsequent chapters.