

**AN EXPLORATORY STUDY FOR THE PSYCHOLOGICAL PROFILE OF A
CIVIL MILITARY COORDINATION OFFICER AS A SELECTION TOOL FOR
TRAINING**

by

GARY LLOYD

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SUPERVISOR: DR G.A.J. VAN DYK

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To my father, Edwin Lloyd, for his continuous support and encouragement towards accomplishment of this personal milestone.

DECLARATION

I, Gary Lloyd, declare that this dissertation hereby submitted to the UNIVERSITY OF STELLENBOSCH for the degree MASTER OF COMMERCII in the subject INDUSTRIAL PSYCHOLOGY has not previously been submitted by me to this or any other university.

I hereby declare this work to be my own, that I have acknowledged all references and that no part of this dissertation has been directly sourced from the internet without providing the necessary recognition.

G. LLOYD

Date

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ABSTRACT

The introduction of a multidimensional approach towards peace missions in complex emergencies emphasises the importance of coordination between the military and the humanitarian components at all levels of interaction. Cooperation and coordination between the military and humanitarian components are critical in achieving a common goal to alleviate suffering and save lives. The challenge is how to develop, enhance and sustain an effective working relationship to overcome the conflicting views on coordination from the military and humanitarian perspectives. Humanitarians fear the loss of independence and neutrality when associated with the military. The military tend to undermine humanitarians role and functions in becoming directly involved in humanitarian action. During selection, the military needs to identify members who firstly conform to the generic psychological peacekeeping profile and who secondly, portray the skills, knowledge and abilities to perform the coordination function between the military and the humanitarian component. The challenge remains to select competent military members in the absence of a psychological profile for the coordination function. Through this research, the psychological profile for a Civil Military Coordination Officer is defined. In the theoretical discussion, the importance of coordination is emphasised through analyses of the challenges, roles, functions and behaviours associated with Civil Military Coordination Officers in multidimensional peace missions. The theoretical foundation and primary data from field research are integrated in a competency model for Civil Military Coordination Officers. The results of this research are presented as a model of provisional selection criteria for Civil Military Coordination Officers.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 General introduction and orientation to the study

Peace missions are the new focus area for the South African Department of Defence (DoD). The nature of peace missions has changed dramatically over the past decade. The military and humanitarians are two of the main role players in processes that are essential for mission success. (Republic of South Africa [RSA], 1998). Neethling (2000a) described peace missions as a holistic term that encompasses political and diplomatic activities. These activities include (a) preventative diplomacy that refers to a diplomatic action that is taken in advance to prevent a predicted crisis, (b) peace making, that seeks to end the dispute or to resolve the conflict through processes of diplomacy, mediation, negotiation or other means, (c) peacekeeping with the aim of monitoring and facilitating the implementation of a peace agreement, (d) peace enforcement with the aim of applying military force to restore and maintain peace and (e) peace building that involves the strengthening of civil infrastructures and institutions to set the platform for enduring peace. Peace missions have rapidly increased and become more complex since 1994 (Bruwer, 2003; RSA, 1998). Traditional peacekeeping evolved to complex emergencies. In complex emergencies, the restoration of peace and stability is much more complex than in the earlier traditional peacekeeping operations and the need for enhanced coordination has been acknowledged. (United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs [OCHA] 2004). Complex emergencies are described as a humanitarian crisis in a country, region or society where there is a total or significant collapse of authority. It is a result of internal conflict and requires an international response that exceeds the mandate and capacity of any single agency and/or the ongoing United Nations (UN) country programme. (Neethling, 2000b).

Complex emergencies have resulted in the deployment of multidimensional peace missions. These operations involve a large number of components, including the military, civilian police, political, civil affairs, human rights, rule of law, humanitarian, reconstruction and public information. (United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations [UN DPKO] 2003). The multidimensional nature of peace missions requires both military and civilian personnel in unified and consolidated missions (RSA, 1998). The military component's primary task is to create a secure environment in which the local and international civilian organisations can perform their tasks. Both the military and humanitarians are referred to as peacekeepers. Both components work towards achieving a common goal, viz., to reinstate peace and stability to facilitate a process towards a self-sustaining state. (Pollick, 2000).

The Brahimi report focussed on enhancing the effectiveness of the UN. It recommended that a peacekeeping operation should form part of a comprehensive strategy towards resolving the conflict and should include political, economical, developmental, institution building, humanitarian and human rights elements. Cooperation and coordination between the role players within and outside the UN system are critical to the successful implementation of the strategy in a multidimensional operation. (Durch, Holt, Earle & Shanahan, 2003; UN DPKO, 2003). The importance of this study is founded in the critical coordination and cooperation function in multidimensional peace missions.

1.2 Background for and motivation of the research

Cooperation and coordination between the military and humanitarians is critical in multidimensional peacekeeping operations (Jackson, 2005). Harris and Dombrowski (2002) said humanitarians need to have a collaborative working relationship with military forces to perform their life-saving functions. The challenge remains how to develop, enhance and sustain this working relationship. There are conflicting views between the military and humanitarian

components concerning the tasks that the military perform in civil military coordination (Jenny, 2001). The UN is sensitive to the fact that effort should not be duplicated. It implies that the military should not perform humanitarian tasks or vice versa. Although the military's normal duties include security related tasks, it might be required to perform tasks in conjunction with other humanitarian organisations and international agencies. (Pugh, 2001). The nature of such cooperation must be coordinated to ensure the achievement of common goals (Abiew, 2003). Poor coordination might have severe consequences, e.g. loss of lives due to a delay in response caused by discussions on role clarification and responsibilities (Lindenberg & Bryant, 2001). Support to the effected population will be significantly more effective if cooperation is enhanced with humanitarians (Siegel, 2001). De Coning (2005) emphasised that coordination are the most important mechanism to create synergy and achieve common goals. Civil Military Coordination Officers (CIMIC Officers) are the critical coordination interface between the humanitarian and the military components.

The selection of CIMIC Officers is a national responsibility. It implies that the DoD must ensure that competent officers are deployed to perform this critical task in peace missions. The existing generic profile for a peacekeeping soldier (Van Dyk, 1998) focused on generic peacekeeping and not selection of specialists to peace missions. This profile reflected the dimensions of health, depression, dominance, ego strength, state of anxiety, self-esteem, carefreeness, communication, peer group relationships and environmental happiness. The South African National Defence Force (SANDF) is faced with the challenge that CIMIC Officers are appointed on generic criteria and not a specific profile encompassing the necessary knowledge, skills, abilities and behaviours.

The challenge remains to select competent military officers for the critical coordination function in the absence of a psychological profile inclusive of knowledge, skills, attitudes and behaviours. This research will address the gap between the demands of the task and the absence of selection criteria for a

CIMIC Officer. The researcher will define a psychological profile for officers who are responsible for the coordination of military and humanitarian actions in multidimensional peace missions. This psychological profile can be applied to selection processes in future. The development of a psychological profile for selecting CIMIC Officers should enhance the possibility that competent officers with specific skills, knowledge, abilities and behaviours are selected and trained for the critical function of coordination in peace missions.

1.3 Problem statement

Pollick (2000) stated that despite the importance of civil military coordination in peace missions, competent members with a specific psychological profile and appropriate knowledge, skills, abilities and behaviour are not selected and trained. Van Dyk (1998) indicated that peacekeeping soldiers should be selected at two levels. The first level comprises social factors and the second level on various psychological dimensions as discussed in par 1.2. Within the SANDF CIMIC Officers are not selected according to a predetermined psychological profile. Civil military coordination is a specialist field in peace missions; any soldier cannot perform this task effectively (George, 2002; Pollick, 2000). The military is often forced to deploy members with insufficient CIMIC training due to a lack of capacity or ineffective selection criteria (Pollick, 2000). George (2002) indicated the fundamental importance of the military in identifying competent members to be trained as mission specialists to conduct CIMIC activities. The literature reveals that specialist coordination skills (Abiew, 2003; Brooks, 2006; De Coning, 2005) over and above the generic peacekeeping soldier skills are required to perform successfully as a CIMIC Officer. These skills must be inclusive of skills that facilitate enhanced coordination in the working relationship between the military and humanitarian communities.

It is imperative that competent members with a specific psychological profile, inclusive of knowledge, skills, abilities and behaviour, are selected for this critical function. To address this research statement for the SANDF, this study will focus on the requirements for CIMIC Officers in peace missions in the Sudan, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC), Ethiopia/Eritrea and the Ivory Coast as well as future missions. The importance of this study has its foundation in the following objectives:

- To propose a psychological profile for CIMIC Officers that can be utilised during selection and training to select and train the most suitable candidates for deployment in peace missions.
- To provide a better understanding of the requirements that enhances cooperation and coordination between military and humanitarian components in peace missions.
- The above-mentioned information can be used to update training manuals and policy guidelines.
- To finalise the job description of a Civil Military Coordination Officer to be utilised to align the training curriculum for military Civil Military Coordination Officers.

1.4 Aims of the study

The following aims were formulated for this study:

- To define the roles and functions of CIMIC Officers.
- To identify behaviours that will impede effective performance and adjustment of CIMIC Officers.

- To define a psychological profile for a CIMIC Officer.
- To identify critical dimensions as performance criterion for CIMIC Officers.

1.5 Research methodology

The qualitative research design (see par 3.2) will be conducted in seven phases, namely literature review, empirical research, reporting on results, discussion of results, conclusions, limitations and recommendations.

1.5.1 Phase 1: Literature review

The literature review facilitates a holistic view of the challenges, demands and requirements for CIMIC Officers in the dynamic peace mission environment. Triangulation enables the researcher to apply multiple methods in defining a psychological profile for a CIMIC Officer. The research is conducted within the legal framework of selection. The dynamics of peace missions, the challenges of coordination and the significance of personality are integrated into a psychological profile for a CIMIC Officer by means of an appropriate job analysis technique. Specific focus areas in the theoretical foundation include:

- The link between the research design and selection.
- The identification of an appropriate job analysis technique to capture the challenges, roles and functions of the CIMIC Officer.
- The dynamics of the ever-changing peace mission environment and the impact thereof on the CIMIC Officer.
- Analyses of the concept of civil military coordination from a humanitarian and military perspective.

- The manifestation of environmental challenges in peace missions as stressors on the CIMIC Officer.
- The importance of understanding underlying personality theories in defining the psychological profile of a CIMIC Officer.
- The dynamics and impact of culture in peace missions on the CIMIC Officer.
- The theoretical discussion and primary data obtained from job incumbents are summarised in a psychological profile of CIMIC Officers, inclusive of positive and negative indicators.

1.5.2 Phase 2: Empirical research

The research was conducted by means of a cross-sectional study in the African Mission in Sudan (AMIS) where the SANDF deploys formed troops and specialist staff. Primary data for this study were gathered through individual and focus group interviews. The questionnaire for the development of competency models (Appendix A) by Lucia and Lepsinger (1999) was administered on five voluntary participants from the humanitarian component. It was administered on a focus group of 10 military participants who were either appointed as CIMIC Officers or interacted with the humanitarian component.

Psychometric tests were administered on 20 African officers (see par 3.3.2 for biographical information) appointed as CIMIC Officers or Officers who interacted with the humanitarian component. The following psychometric tests were administered: (a) 15 Factor Questionnaire (15FQ+), (b) Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory Third Edition (MCMI-III), (c) Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) and (d) Linguistic skills of the Academic Aptitude Test (AAT). (See par 3.3.3 for detailed discussion on instruments).

1.5.3 Phase 3: Reporting on results

A competency model for the CIMIC Officer was defined by integrating the theoretical foundation in Chapter 2 with the primary data from field research. Six Subject Matter Experts (SMEs) rated the competencies to identify the critical performance competencies. The reliability of the SMEs' ratings was determined through intraclass correlation (Gatewood & Feild, 2001).

Statistical analysis was conducted by means of the SPSS (15th edition) software package (Field, 2000). The average reliability of the SME ratings is reported as the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) (Gatewood & Feild, 2001). The sample is divided in two clearly defined groups of successful and unsuccessful participants (see par 3.3.1). The division is founded in performance reports indicating three performance criteria of command and control, operational planning and the CIMIC function. The results of the participants in the psychometric tests are reported as descriptive statistics in tabular format for the sample, successful and unsuccessful groups. The profiles of the sample group are presented as graphs. Differences between the successful and unsuccessful group that are meaningful are discussed in the Chapter 5 of the study.

1.5.4 Phase 4: Discussion of results

The reliability of the SMEs' ratings on critical competencies is discussed. The critical positive and negative indicators of the CIMIC Officer's profile defined in the theoretical foundation are compared to the sample results. The impact of deployment of a CIMIC Officer portraying negative indicators (as defined in a competency model) is highlighted. The theoretical foundation, primary data and the meaningful results are integrated, compared and discussed to identify possible performance indicators for CIMIC Officers.

1.5.5 Phase 5: Conclusion

The conclusions of the study are integrated in this section. The conclusions are integrated in a model indicating possible relationships between criteria and variables.

1.5.6 Phase 6: Limitations

The limitations of this study, with specific reference to research design, sample size, initial measurement instruments and measurement of performance are discussed.

1.5.7 Phase 7: Recommendations

This exploratory study paves the way for future research on the psychological profile of a CIMIC Officer as a selection tool. The impact of the results of this study on the SANDF is indicated. The recommendations are concluded stating hypotheses for future research.

1.6 Chapter division

The research is presented under the following chapters:

- Chapter 1: Introduction and orientation towards the study.
- Chapter 2: Theoretical framework.
- Chapter 3: Research design and methodology.
- Chapter 4: Results.

- Chapter 5: Discussion of results.
- Chapter 6: Conclusion, limitations and recommendations.

1.7 Chapter summary

Civil military coordination is a well-documented phenomenon. From the literature, it is evident that multiple factors prevent enhanced coordination between the military and humanitarian components. The importance of this study is founded on the fact that it not only analyses the challenges, but also links it to behaviour that should enhance coordination. The dynamics of the peace support operation (PSO) environment and the impact thereof on the CIMIC Officer are analysed. The civil military coordination environmental challenges are linked to behaviour that should enhance the critical coordination function. The selection of CIMIC Officers according to a predetermined psychological criterion should enhance the critical coordination function in multidimensional peace missions.

CHAPTER 2

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

2.1 Introduction

Challenges in cooperation and coordination between the military and humanitarian components in peace missions are well-documented phenomena (George, 2002; Jenny, 2001; Pugh, 2001; Spence, 2002). These challenges, as discussed in par 2.5.3 and par 2.5.4, are in excess of the normal challenges and stressors (see par 2.4.9) experienced by peacekeeping soldiers. Although the concepts are clearly defined in the military and humanitarian components, the challenge remains in defining effective mechanisms to enhance cooperation and coordination.

The theoretical foundations underlying the problem statement defined in par. 1.3 are discussed in this chapter. To comply with the legal framework of selection, the design process for this study is founded on selection. Appropriate job analysis techniques are evaluated to define the optimal technique for this study. This study assesses the challenges preventing effective coordination from a humanitarian and military perspective. The impact of the dynamic peace mission environment as a stressor on the CIMIC Officer is discussed. The roles and functions of a CIMIC Officer are defined based on the theoretical analysis of challenges, demands and requirements of the CIMIC Officer. The relevant theoretical behavioural dimensions as electives are founded on personality theories. The significance of culture within an ethnocentric and organisational framework is discussed as electives for the job profile. The theoretical discussion in this chapter provides the foundation for the development of the competency model. From this chapter, a competency model with positive and negative indicators is defined as the preliminary selection model for the SANDF.

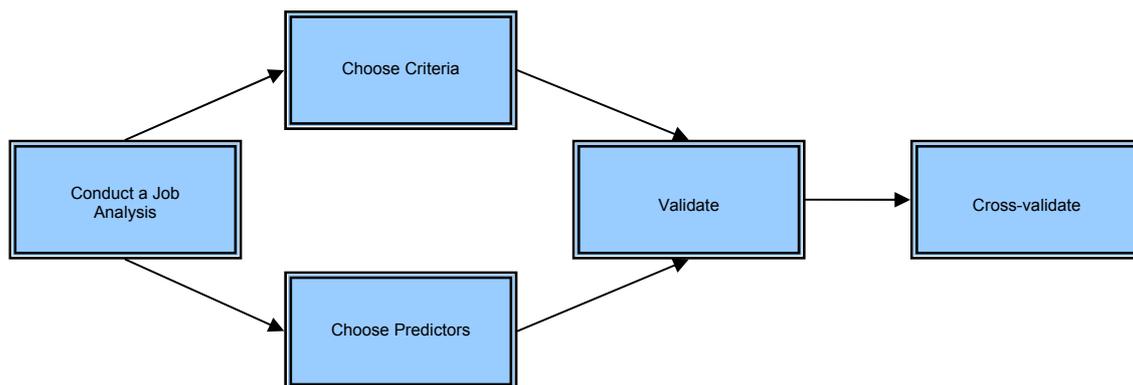
2.2 Selection

As highlighted in Chapter 1, the selection of CIMIC Officers is a national responsibility. Selection is addressed to ensure that competent individuals are selected as CIMIC Officers to perform the critical function of coordination in multidimensional missions. Selection processes must be conducted within a legal framework. Organisations are vulnerable to charges of discrimination when not complying with legal guidelines. (Gatewood & Feild, 2001). To comply with the legal framework, the guidelines of the Society for Industrial and Organisational Psychology (SIOP) on *Principles for Validation and Use of Personnel Selection Procedures* (2003) and *The Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures* (1978) are included in this theoretical discussion.

Holland, cited in Furnham (1997), reflected on the concept of fit and misfit at work. Within the framework of a comparable analysis, it is possible to measure accurately the degree of fit or misfit. He highlighted that these predictors were optimised when the individual and the job are analysed and measured. The rationale of selection is to identify and employ individuals who are expected to perform successfully in a specific job (Spector, 2003). Spector (2003) indicated it was necessary to analyse two elements to forecast success. The first is the criterion as the sum total of the ideal employee profile. The second element is the predictor that includes elements for measurement of the criterion. Validation is the process through which it is determined how well the predictor relates to the criterion (Spector, 2003). Gatewood and Feild (2001, p.161) defined validation as “the degree to which available evidence support inferences made from scores on selection measures.” The significance of the relationship between the predictor and the criterion is indicated by a correlation coefficient. The predictor is valid in terms of the criteria if the relationship is significant. If significant, valid prediction concerning the probability of individual applicant success can be forecast. (Spector, 2003).

2.2.1 Conducting a validation study

A validation study is conducted in five steps as indicated in Figure 1. These steps must be aligned with the Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedure (Section 60-3, 1978) and the Principles of Validation and Use of Personnel Procedures (Society of Industrial and Organisational Psychology [SIOP] (2003). The Principles of Validation states, “the purpose of study must be stated clearly, the study must be aligned with the organisational needs and purpose and the study must comply with social and legally accepted practice” (SIOP, 2003, p.16). The purpose of the study and the organisational needs are listed in par 1.2 and par 1.3. Compliance with the social and legal aspects is addressed in this section and par 3.3.



(From Spector, 2003, p.140)

Figure 1. *Steps for conducting a validity study*

2.2.1.1 Conducting a job analysis

Through a job analysis (Figure 1), the major components of the job are identified. It includes knowledge, skills, abilities and behaviours. These components form the foundation for a validation study in defining criterion and predictors. (Spector, 2003). The detail on job analysis for this study is discussed in par 2.3.

2.2.1.2 Specify job performance criteria

Guion, cited in Muchinsky, Kriek and Schreuder (2005, p.51) referred to this phase (Figure 1) “as the development of measures of actual behaviour relative to expected behaviour as identified in the job analysis.” The job content defined in job analysis provides the basis for developing job performance criteria (Spector, 2003). The Principles of Validation directs that “criteria must be selected on the basis of work relevance, freedom from contamination and reliability rather than availability” (SIOP, 2003, p.16).

It is necessary to distinguish between conceptual and actual criteria. Conceptual criteria relates to “a theoretical construct that can never actually be measured. It is an ideal set of factors that constitutes a successful person” (Muchinsky et al., 2005, p.46). The main challenge of this phase is to identify and select actual variables as measurement criteria for conceptual variables (Muchinsky et al., 2005). The following theoretical concepts underlie criterion development.

- Criterion relevance. Muchinsky et al. (2005) said that relevance relates to the extent that actual criteria match conceptual criteria. The exact value of relevance cannot be determined. The concept implies that the higher the significance between the actual and conceptual criteria, the greater the criterion relevance. (Muchinsky et al., 2005). It is not essential for criteria to be all-inclusive. The importance of criteria relates to the rationale link of the criteria to the purpose of use within the selection process. The type of study and the purpose of the validity study will guide the applicable criterion. Criterion is measured specifically or in totality on work performance, work related behaviours or work outcomes. The critical aspect in criterion relevance is not the measure that is applied, but rather the relevance to the job. (SIOP, 2003).

- Criterion contamination. It is the degree that the actual criteria are unrelated to the conceptual criteria. The actual criteria measures something else than the conceptual criteria. (Muchinsky et al., 2005). A criterion measure is contaminated to the extent that it includes irrelevant systematic variance. The focus must be on minimising the effect of sources of contamination by controlling the effect statistically or constructing meticulous measurement procedures. (SIOP, 2003).
- Criterion deficiency. This indicates the extent that the actual criteria fall short in overlapping the conceptual criteria (Muchinsky et al., 2005). It implies a criterion that is intended to measure overall work performance, is deficient if it excludes critical work behaviours and outcomes (SIOP, 2003).
- Criterion bias. Bias relates to the extent that actual criterion consistently measures something other than the conceptual criteria (Muchinsky et al., 2005). It is a result of criterion contamination or deficiency. Criterion score alone does not substantiate the presence or absence of bias. Professional judgment should be considered to control for bias. (SIOP, 2003).
- Criterion reliability. Criterion measures must reflect reliability. The effect of criterion reliability is considered in criterion-related validity in the population of concern. (SIOP, 2003).

Gatewood and Feild (2001) identified the following factors for consideration in selecting criterion: (a) The criterion must be realistic and representative of all significant aspects of the job for which it is chosen to measure success; (b) management must accept the criterion as a valid predictor; (c) it might be necessary to review the criterion periodically if the work environment changes; (d) meaningful comparisons between individuals can only be made if the criterion

is uncontaminated and bias free and (e) the criterion must be able to detect and score differences amongst individuals.

2.2.1.3 Selecting predictors

The selection of predictors (Figure 1) in a validation study focus on criteria related to job performance and behaviour. It must result in predicting success in the achievement of organisational objectives. Spector (2003) identified five validation study methods as valid predictors of job performance: (a) assessment centres, (b) biographical inventories, (c) interviews, (d) psychological tests and (e) work samples. The Principles on Validation (SIOP, 2003) emphasises the rationale for the choice of a predictor. It must be specific and embedded on an empirical, logical or theoretical foundation. The researcher must have a clear understanding of the work, the research literature, the logic of predictor development and the preliminary choice of predictor based on scientific knowledge without regard for personal bias or prejudice. (SIOP, 2003).

- Predictor contamination. A predictor is contaminated when it includes unrelated systematic variance. Predictor contamination can be minimised during the design of the study by ensuring the most appropriate procedures are consistently applied on relevant content. (SIOP, 2003).
- Predictor and selection strategy. Judgements on predictor data must not create additional predictors. The judgement, when integrating multiple predictors into a final selection decision, is based on the validity evidence for the specific components. (SIOP, 2003).
- Predictor reliability. Predictor reliability is estimated whenever feasible by applying suitable methods. It should only be applied in a validation study if the reliability is acceptable. (SIOP, 2003).

Gatewood and Feild (2001) listed the following factors for consideration of predictors: (a) The predictor must be appropriate for the group or problem on which it is applied; (b) the predictor content must be evaluated for offensiveness towards applicants and employees; (c) the predictor must be standardised and comparative data must be readily available for interpreting the results; (d) it is more cost effective if the predictor can be administered and scored by individuals with minimum level of training and (e) group predictors are more economical than individual predictors and can be applied on individuals.

2.2.1.4 Validation

The validation (Figure 1) of collected data commences after criterion and predictors are chosen. Measures of criterion and predictors are taken on a sample of individuals to determine the relation to the criterion. Three strategies are considered in validation studies: they are content validity, construct validity and criterion related validity. These strategies must be applied within the framework of the Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures. (Section 60-3, 1978). The three validations strategies are discussed in the following paragraphs.

2.2.1.4.1 Content validity strategy

Content validity indicates the degree that a predictor covers a representative sample of the behaviour. It is limited to psychological tests but can be extended to interviews and other predictors. There is a strong link between the process of job analysis and the concept of content validity. Employees and supervisors specify the domain for job behaviour. The test items are developed to assess the factors needed for job success. The content validity of employee tests is a function of the extent to which the context of the job is reflected in the content of the test. (Muchinsky et al., 2005).

A job analysis is conducted to describe roles and functions. It indicates the knowledge, skills and abilities necessary for job performance. The job analysis should reveal all factors that are critical for successful job performance. On completion of the job analysis work samples are developed. These samples reflect tasks, knowledge, skills and behaviour as outlined in the job analysis. Subject Matter Experts (SMEs) who are familiar with the job are asked to evaluate the test items to determine if they are an accurate reflection of the job. The SMEs must also be able to identify irrelevant items. (Arvey & Faley, 1988).

2.2.1.4.2 Construct validity strategy

The construct validity process determines the link between what is measured by the test and the theoretical construct. To be valid, the evidence must support the notion that the test measures the psychological construct. Tests, that manifest a high degree of construct validity, are frequently used as assessment instruments in Industrial Psychology. (Muchinsky et al., 2005).

2.2.1.4.3 Criterion related strategy

Criterion related validity indicates how well a predictor relates to the criterion. The two major criterion related strategies are concurrent and predictor validity.

- In concurrent validation studies, the criterion and predictor scores are collected relatively simultaneously. Usually the subjects are current employees who are assessed on both criteria and predictors. In measuring concurrent criterion related validity, the focus is to assess how well a predictor can predict a criterion concurrently. The predictor and criterion information are statistically correlated after collection. The significance of the relationship between the predictor and criterion is determined by a correlation coefficient (Gatewood & Feild, 2001; Muchinsky et al., 2005; Spector, 2003).

- Predictive validity involves the collection of data over time. The predictor is measured before the criterion. The timeframe between the predictor and criterion assessment could be months or years. In the context of human resource selection, job applicants rather than job incumbents are used as a source of data. The predictor scores are correlated with the criterion scores to determine if the predictor can forecast criterion scores. If significant, the predictor is a valid selection device. (Gatewood & Feild, 2001; Spector, 2003).

Validity coefficients are found to be similar in studies using the two different types of design. Concurrent studies can be conducted in a short timeframe if the predictors are administered rapidly and the criterion scores are readily available. (Spector, 2003). The primary distinction is the time interval (Muchinsky et al., 2005).

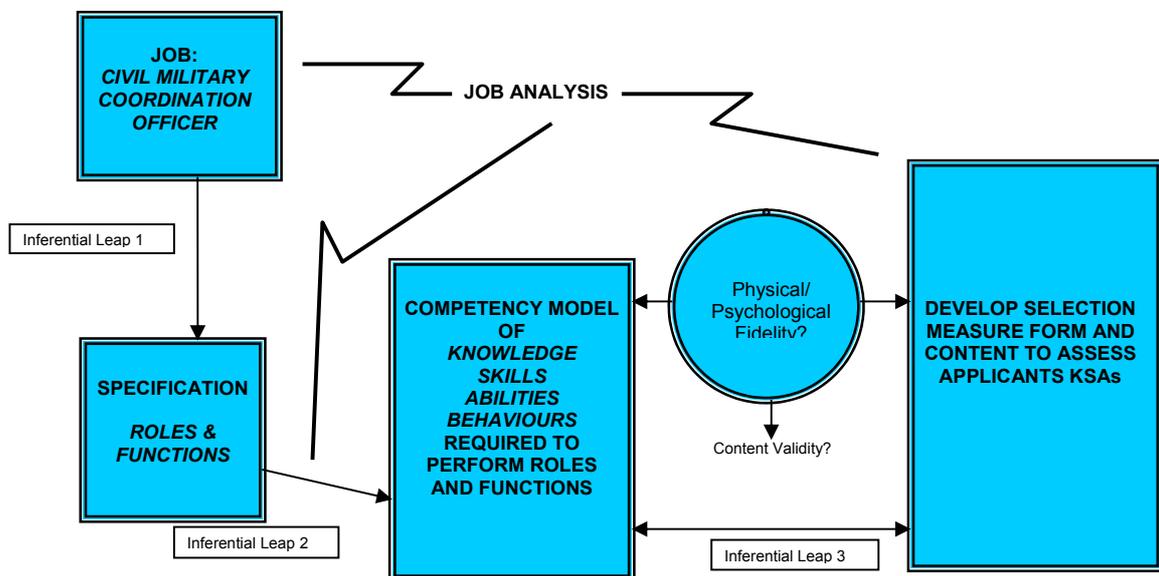
2.2.1.5 Cross validate

The final step in validation studies are to cross validate (Figure 1) the results of one sample with another sample. To conduct a cross validation study two samples are necessary. The first sample is used to determine if the criterion and predictor are significantly correlated. The second sample is used to determine if the significant relation in the first sample is replicated. Cross-validation increases the confidence that the predictor can forecast the criterion. (Spector, 2003).

2.2.2 Summary

Criterion related validity studies require a large (more than several hundreds) sample of individuals for predictor and criterion data. Construct validity is in the development phase and there are no universally accepted agreement on the methodology. (Gatewood & Feild, 2001). Content validity studies are suitable to determine the content validity for job analysis and the development of selection

procedures. Job analysis includes analysis of work behaviour required for successful performance. The related work behaviour and behaviour selected for measurement must be critical work behaviours. The critical work behaviours in this study will be identified by SMEs (see par 3.3.1 and par 4.3). The selection procedures designed to measure the work behaviours can be developed from the job analysis. The content validity of a selection procedure is significant if the behaviour demonstrated in the selection procedure is a representative sample of the behaviour of the job. Figure 2 indicates the job analysis framework for this study based on a content validity strategy.



(Adapted from Gatewood & Feild, 2001, p. 182)

Figure 2. Job analysis framework

This diagram indicates the content validity strategy theoretical framework for the development of a psychological profile for a CIMIC Office. This research focuses on inferential leap 1 and 2. In inferential leap 1, the job environment is analysed to define the roles and functions of the CIMIC Officer as reported in par 2.6. The second inferential point is to identify the critical knowledge, abilities and behaviours required for successful job performance (see par 3.3.1 for discussion

on procedure). In the following section, the possible job analysis methods and the most appropriate method for this study are discussed.

2.3 Job analysis

Holland, cited in Furnham (1997), indicated some jobs are more suitable for individuals than others. It is necessary to analyse jobs from a person and job perspective to measure the degree of fit. Furnham (1997) said to measure the degree of fit objectively; the measurement of the one job must be interrelated with the measurement of the other person. He stated that the conceptual language of fit is based on personality and individual differences. The Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection Procedures indicates that it is essential to describe the job analysis method used in developing selection processes (Section 60-3, 1978). To identify the most appropriate job analysis technique for this study, job analysis terminology are defined, the approach, purpose, methods and techniques are discussed. After evaluating these techniques, the most appropriate technique for this study for a CIMIC Officer' profile are discussed.

2.3.1 Definitions

Job analysis involves a two-stage process. The first stage is the collection of information on the identified job. The second stage focus on the application of the information within the organisation in a desirable format. (McCormick, 1979). The following terminology lays the foundation for the job analysis discussion.

- Sims (2002) indicated that job analysis is a systematic process for the collection of important job information. McCormick (1979, p.20) defined job analysis as “the process of obtaining information about jobs”. The definition for this study is from Landy and Conte (2007, p.57) who defined job analysis as “the process that determines the important tasks of the job and the human attributes necessary to successfully perform those tasks”. This

definition encompasses personality profiles and behaviour that is a critical component in defining the CIMIC Officer's profile.

- A job description comprises the description of work activities performed by an individual. It usually includes information on job related aspects of working conditions and equipment used. A job description includes real time job information. (McCormick, 1979; Sims, 2002).
- A job specification reflects on specific requirements and personal qualifications (McCormick, 1979). Sims (2002) indicated that the focus is on individual knowledge, skills and abilities that are synonymous with successful performance and not necessarily qualifications. Job specifications includes information on educational background, personal experience (DeCenzo & Robbins, 1999; Landy & Conte, 2007), knowledge, skills and abilities (DeCenzo & Robbins, 1999) that are essential for job success. Landy and Conte (2007) highlighted job specification relates to aspects concerned with selection, screening and placement. The literature of DeCenzo and Robbins (1999) indicated the challenges in drafting a job specification for selecting individuals who are partially or untrained. For these individuals it is necessary to specify qualities such as physical traits, personality, interests or sensory skills that indicate potential to perform or be trained.

The literature above highlights the importance of the elements of a job specification for the CIMIC Officer's profile. These elements include personal experience, knowledge, skills, abilities, physical traits, personality, interests and sensory skills. The Principles of Validation emphasises the importance of understanding the purpose of the study (see par 2.2.1). In the following paragraph the theoretical discussion on the application of job analysis information are linked to the purpose of this study.

2.3.2 Application of job analysis information

Job analysis techniques are applied in multiple fields to provide information for the following purposes (Landy & Conte, 2007; Spector, 2003):

- Job analysis techniques are applied in drafting job descriptions that are primarily used during selection. Job descriptions are inclusive of the type of tasks, worker attributes, training and experience requirements. Job description techniques are also applied in defining a group of potential candidates' requirement. This is an extremely important technique when a large number of applications are expected during the recruiting process. Recruitment time is reduced and cost effectiveness is enhanced since only candidates who comply with the job description are considered.
- During selection, job analysis techniques are applied to identify the assessment tool most likely to predict success. The job analysis information assists in identifying the most challenging performance areas to be addressed through pre-assigned or post-assigned training opportunities.
- The major performance components are identified through job analysis techniques. Compensation can only be finalised after monetary value is linked to major performance components.
- Job analysis techniques provide critical information to decision makers during restructuring. Restructuring can include mergers, acquisitions, downsizing or rightsizing of the organisation. The challenge remains in identifying which positions are redundant or can be expanded. Restructuring often results in the enlargement of the remaining employees' job descriptions. It implies more responsibility is assigned to fewer employees. A detail job analysis provides the template for managers to make rational decisions concerning the re-assignment of tasks.

- Job analysis information is used in the development of performance assessment criterion. The criterion is used to evaluate the extent to which an individual worker has exceeded or underperformed on organisational standards. These standards are determined after the critical performance areas are identified through job analysis.
- In litigation, job analysis information demonstrates that employees are familiar with the critical tasks and attributes necessary to perform successfully. Job analysis provides information on the knowledge, skills, attributes and other personal characteristics of the job incumbent under litigation. The job analysis information provides the foundation on which legal decisions are based during employee/employer disputes.
- Job analysis techniques are incorporated in multiple research fields and research designs. In the organisational research framework, research often addresses the job requirements or task characteristics in the organisational framework and includes a multitude of research fields.

The importance of job analysis information for this study is founded in selection. In this study, the critical performance areas of the competent CIMIC Officer are defined. In conducting a comprehensive job analysis, it is essential to explore all the possible sources of information. The available sources of job analysis information are discussed in the following section where after the most appropriate sources for this study are selected.

2.3.3 Sources of job analysis information

In order to determine the most appropriate sources of job analysis for this study the following sources of information are discussed.

- Performing the job. By physically performing the job, the job analyst obtains insight into the nature of the task and how various tasks are interrelated. The advantages of this approach are that it provides extensive detail about the job as well as the context in which the job is done. The limitations of this approach are: (a) it is a time consuming process that results in inflated costs; (b) the job analysis results fail to indicate individual differences among jobs with the same title; (c) the job analyst does not observe that tasks might differ between employees; (d) extensive training that is time consuming and inflates the cost of the analysis, might be required prior to performing the job; (e) performing the job might be dangerous to the analyst due to the nature of the environment or a lack of experience in the specific field by the analyst. (Spector, 2003).
- Observe. During observation, the job analyst or trained observers physically observe the tasks performed by the job incumbent. A structured form that indicates the focus areas can guide these observations to ensure consistency between the observers. The advantage of this technique is that it provides a multiple perspectives of the job and can indicate differences among incumbents of the same job. The disadvantages of this technique is that it is time consuming, expensive and fails to indicate the context in which the job is performed. (Spector, 2003).
- Interview. Spector (2003) indicated that interviews with the job incumbent or supervisor as SME are frequently applied in obtaining job analysis information. Interviews are effective in identifying job related tasks and activities. Through the interview, the job analyst can determine a multiple

perspective of the job as well as identify differences among incumbents performing the same job. The technique is time consuming and fails to indicate the context in which the task is done. (Spector, 2003). DeCenzo and Robbins (1999) distinguished between individual and group interviews. During a group interview the principles of interviewing remains the same although a number of job incumbents are interviewed simultaneously. Accuracy of job analysis information is increased although group dynamics might be an obstacle that influences effectiveness. Miner (1992) viewed individual interviews of job incumbents as SMEs as the most efficient means to obtain job information.

- Questionnaire. Spector (2003) perceived this technique as the most efficient since it provides the most information with the least effort from the job analyst. It provides information in an efficient and inexpensive way. It indicates differences among incumbents of the same job. Questionnaires provide information that is relatively easy to qualify and analyse statistically. Information can be compared between different jobs and between common job dimensions. The limitations of this technique include: (a) the structured questionnaire limits response from the job incumbent; (b) the job analyst must be familiar with the job in order to design an appropriate questionnaire; and (c) the job incumbent can inflate the importance of the job by distorting facts. (Spector, 2003).
- Diary Method. Job incumbents are required to record their daily activities over a specified period. This technique normally extends over a long period. The long period required for this technique, is time consuming and inflates cost. As with the questionnaire the job incumbent can inflate the importance of the job by distorting facts. (DeCenzo & Robbins, 1999).

- Written material and existing documentation. Published documentation of the job may provide functional information. The researcher must ensure that the content of existing documentation is valid. Organisational production data, organisational charts and training manuals might provide useful information if they are current. (Arnold, Silvester, Patterson, Robertson, Cooper & Burnes, 2005). In this study, the researcher included peace support lessons learned databases and debrief reports as additional sources of information to enhance the theoretical foundation of the study.
- Multiple methods. Multiple methods of obtaining job analysis information can be considered. Multiple methods focus on the strengths of specific techniques and reduce the limitations of a single method (Spector, 2003). DeCenzo and Robbins (1999) indicated techniques are not mutually exclusive and no single technique is universally superior. The job analyst must remain aware of potential distortion factors. These include: (a) incumbents reporting to conform to what others report, (b) the SMEs' desire to inflate the importance of his own job and (c) attempts to provide the answers that the SMEs think the job analyst wants (Landy & Conte, 2007). The optimal results are achieved by a combination of methods that ensures that job incumbents describe what they are doing, rather than what they are thinking (DeCenzo & Robbins, 1999).

The researcher considered multiple methods in this study. Primary data were obtained through individual and group interviews with job incumbents (see par 3.3.1). These interviews were conducted within the framework of a structured questionnaire (see Appendix A). The interviews were integrated in the competency model for a CIMIC Officer with electives identified in the theoretical discussion (see par 4.2). The primary data from the interviews represents one of the pillars of triangulation in this study to enhance the validity of the CIMIC Officer's profile. Written material and existing documentation on PSO were

analysed as secondary data (see par 3.3.1) and integrated in the theoretical foundation of Chapter 2.

2.3.4 Approaches to job analysis

Landy and Conte (2007) identified two approaches towards job analysis. The first approach of task oriented job analysis is defined as “an approach that begins with a statement of the actual tasks as well as what is accomplished by those tasks” (Landy & Conte, 2007, p.184). Some methods describe the task itself while other describes the characteristics of tasks. The characteristics are not a specific task but general features that overlap tasks. (Spector, 2003). The second approach is the worker oriented job analysis and is defined as “an approach that focuses on the attributes of the worker necessary to accomplish the task” (Landy & Conte, 2007, p.184). This approach results in the description of the knowledge, skills and attributes and other personal characteristics for an individual to perform a specific job successfully (Spector, 2003). Job orientated descriptors refer to work activities performed with regards to what, why, how and when it is accomplished (Peterson & Jeanneret, 1997). This study focuses on the worker-orientated descriptors that include human behaviour performed at work.

The researcher can apply a deductive or inductive method in constructing a job description. The deductive method reflects on existing information on the specific job. Inductive methods focus on the collection of new detailed information for the creation of an articulate structure of a new job that is limited by its uniqueness. Job analysis is qualified by qualitative and quantitative methods. Qualitative analysis is reflected as narrative descriptions of the primary duties, purpose and required qualifications for a job. Quantitative methods reflect numerical ratings of various types of jobs, descriptions on scales, time spent on, frequency of and difficulty of performance of the job. Job incumbents, supervisors and SMEs provide these rating. (Peterson & Jeanneret, 1997).

In this study an inductive worker orientated approach towards job analysis are followed. It focuses on individual behaviour that are defined in qualitative descriptions of the critical knowledge, skills, abilities and behaviours required to be successful as a CIMIC Officer. The Principles of Validation highlights the importance of selecting a job analysis technique that supports the purpose of the study (SIOP, 2003). To comply with these requirement possible job analysis techniques for this study is discussed in the following section where after the most appropriate technique is selected.

2.3.5 Job analysis techniques

A detailed job analysis needs to be conducted in defining a profile for competent CIMIC Officers. Within the framework of selection, aspects of job descriptions, job specification and worker training are important.

Table 1. *Practicality Ratings of Job Analysis Methods*

<i>Purpose</i>	<i>TTA</i>	<i>ARS</i>	<i>PAQ</i>	<i>CIT</i>	<i>TI</i>	<i>FJA</i>	<i>JEM</i>
Job description	2.95	2.15	2.86	2.59	4.20	4.07	2.66
Job classification	3.11	2.61	3.67	2.19	4.18	3.81	2.73
Job evaluation	2.80	2.44	3.70	2.37	3.46	3.52	2.72
Job design	2.73	2.28	2.99	2.52	3.72	3.64	2.59
Personnel requirements/ specification	3.68	3.51	3.36	2.86	3.19	3.58	3.64
Performance appraisal	2.80	2.75	2.72	3.91	3.24	3.58	3.07
Worker training	2.74	2.78	2.76	3.42	3.65	3.63	3.33
Worker mobility	2.67	2.47	2.78	2.20	3.34	3.07	2.62
Efficiency / safety	2.34	1.90	2.46	3.08	2.79	2.81	2.30
Workforce planning	2.61	2.32	2.83	2.24	3.41	3.11	2.60
Legal/quasi-legal requirements	2.65	2.44	3.03	2.66	3.67	3.38	2.79

(From Brannick & Levine, 2002,p.274)

Brannick and Levine (2002) conducted research on the practicality of frequently used job analysis methods (see Table 1). The ratings are scored from 1 (low) to 5 (high). The results of Brannick and Levine's research (Table 1) indicated that high scores were reported on job description, personnel specification and worker training for the Functional Job Analysis (FJA) and Task Inventory (TI). These two techniques are discussed in the following paragraphs.

2.3.5.1 Task Inventory (TI)

Brannick and Levin (2002, p.51) defined Task Inventories (TI) as "a listing of all work activities performed to complete one or more jobs". The task inventory is a questionnaire that contains a list of specific tasks in the assessed job. A task is described as a significant part of work that can be readily recognised by the employee (Sims, 2002). The supervisor, job incumbent and SMEs define task statements of the inventory. After defining task statements, the tasks are rated by job incumbents. To simplify interpretation, tasks are categorised into dimensions representing the major job components. (Sims, 2002; Spector, 2003).

2.3.5.2 Functional Job Analysis (FJA)

Functional Job Analysis (FJA) provides the foundation for a holistic approach to job analysis. Workers are perceived as complete individuals who accumulate knowledge, skills, abilities and experience over time. The knowledge, skills and abilities empower individuals to perform successfully within a specific organisation according to the employees' needs. (Fine & Cronshaw, 1999). Two types of task information are obtained through this analysis. Firstly, what the individual worker does, inclusive of the procedures and processes applied in the performance of the job. Secondly, how the task is performed by addressing the physical, mental and interpersonal involvement of the worker with the task. (Muchinsky et al., 2005).

2.3.5.3 Occupational Information Network (O*Net)

The Occupational Information Network (O*Net) is utilised for estimating requirements for future jobs. The O*Net information is collected through a battery of questionnaires. It provides data on worker and worker characteristics of occupations. This includes information on (a) worker characteristics reflecting on abilities, occupational values, interests and work styles, (b) worker requirements including basic skills, knowledge and education, (c) experience requirements including vocational training, work experience and licensure, (d) occupational requirements reflecting generalised work activities, work content and organisational content, (e) occupational specific requirements including occupational knowledge, occupational skills, generalised duties and tasks and machines, tools and equipment and (f) organisational characteristics. (Brannick & Levine, 2002; Gatewood & Feild, 2001; Spector, 2003).

Theoretically the framework of the O*Net can be utilised to conduct a job analysis for a CIMIC Officer because civil military coordination is not a completely unexplored field. However, the framework and more specifically the person job matching function are not suitable for military job design. This technique is not suitable to be applied in this study because the O*NET does not collect information specific to military jobs. (Borman, 1996).

2.3.5.4 Competency Modelling

Brannick and Levine (2002) said job profiling in terms of competency requirements is more effective than traditional approaches towards job analysis. Competency modelling encompasses the essential skills that provide the core competencies of the organisational environment. Competency modelling is a popular approach in developing individual directed assessment criteria. (Arnold et al., 2005). A competency model provides an inclusive list of applicable competencies related to a specific job. The model reflects the desirable and

essential behaviours for job success. (Arnold et al., 2005; Brannick & Levine, 2002). Landy and Conte (2007, p. 201) defined competency modelling as the “process that identifies the characteristics desired across all individuals and jobs within an organisation; these characteristics should predict behaviour across a wide variety of tasks and settings, and provide the organisation with a set of core characteristics that distinguishes it from other organisations.” Competency modelling is an extension rather than a replacement of job analysis. (Arnold et al., 2005; Brannick & Levine, 2002). Brannick and Levine (2002) stated that the two approaches of competency modelling and job analysis result in complementary processes in analysing jobs. Competency modelling provides a person specification, while job analysis provides a job description. Muchinsky et al. (2005) identified three key areas of differentiation between competency models and job analysis: (a) the generalisability of job information throughout the organisation, (b) the method by which the attributes are derived and (c) the measure of acceptance of the identified competencies within the organisation.

Bartram, Robertson and Callinan (2002, p.7) defined competencies as “sets of desirable behaviours that are instrumental in the delivery of desired results or outcomes.” The definition of Arnold et al. (2005, p.139) included “the specific characteristics and behavioural patterns a job holder is required to demonstrate in order to perform the relevant job tasks with competence”. Bartram (2004) expanded on the definitions by indicating that a competency is not restricted to behaviour itself, but also includes a range of capabilities, activities, processes and responses that enables a specific individual to perform more efficiently on a specific job. Kurz and Bartram (2002) indicated the key factor that differentiates a competency from other weighted composites of psychological constructs, is that a competency is defined in relation to its importance for efficient work performance.

Brannick and Levine's (2002) criticism towards the model is based on the research of Shippmann. Shippmann, cited in Brannick and Levine (2002), viewed competency modelling as superior to job analysis when competency modelling is linked to organisational goals and strategies. The main obstacle for successful implementation of the model remains the absence of a universally accepted definition and means of measuring competencies (Brannick & Levine, 2002; Grigoryev, 2006; Landy & Conte, 2007).

Brown (2006) perceived the application of the right competency development methodology as key in constructing a competency model. The initial analysis focuses on identifying outcomes for success. A model of core competencies is defined by applying a combination of traditional job analysis techniques on outstanding performers, subject matter experts and key stakeholders. Finally, a model of core competencies inclusive of descriptive behaviours that encompass technical, professional and soft competencies are derived. This model can serve as basis for selection. Assessment and interviewing questions are specifically developed to evaluate candidates' skills related to critical components for success. (Arnold et al., 2005; Brown, 2006). One of the significant advantages of competency models for this study is that it allows for the identification of positive as well as negative indicators. This enables the researcher to list desirable and undesirable criteria for measurement in the selection process.

Brown (2006) indicated that the competencies should be restricted to eight general competencies with an additional not more than six technical competencies. Kutz and Bartram' (2002) research reflected that various analyses of competency data supports the view that variance in competency measures are accounted by eight broad factors (see Table 2).

Table 2. Relationship between top and middle tiers of the job competency framework structure

<i>8 Competency Factors</i>	<i>Competency domain definitions</i>	<i>20 Competency Dimensions</i>
1 LEADING & DECIDING <i>Need for Power & Control</i>	Takes control and exercises leadership, initiates action, gives direction, and takes responsibility.	1.1 Deciding and Initiating Action 1.2 Providing Leadership & Supervision
2 SUPPORT & CO-OPERATING <i>Agreeableness</i>	Supports others and shows respect and positive regard for them in social situations. Puts people first, working effectively with individuals in a team, clients and staff. Behaves consistently with clear personal values that compliment those of the organisation.	2.1 Team Working & Supporting 2.2 Serving Customers & Clients
3 INTERACTING & PRESENTING <i>Extraversion</i>	Communicates and network effectively. Successfully persuades and influences others. Relates to others in a confident, relaxed manner.	3.1 Relating & networking 3.2 Persuading & Influencing 3.3 Communicating & Presenting
4 ANALYSING & INTERPRETING	Shows evidence of clear analytic thinking. Get to the hart of complex problems and issues. Applies own expertise effectively. Quickly takes on new technology. Communicates well in writing.	4.1 Writing & Reporting 4.2 Applying Expertise & Technology 4.3 Problem Solving
5 CREATING & CONCEPTUALISING <i>Openness</i>	Works well in situations requiring openness to new ideas and experiences. Seek out learning opportunities. Handles problems with innovation and creativity. Thinks broadly and strategically. Supports and drives organisational change.	5.1 Learning & Researching 5.2 Creating & Innovating 5.3 Forming Strategies & Concepts
6 ORGANISING & EXECUTING <i>Conscientiousness</i>	Plans and works in a systematic and organised way. Follows directions and procedures. Focuses on customer satisfaction and delivers a quality service or product to the agreed standards.	6.1 Planning & Organising 6.2 Delivering Quality 6.3 Complying & Persevering
7 ADAPTING & COPING <i>Emotional Stability</i>	Adapts and respond well to change. Manages pressure effectively and copes well with setbacks.	7.1 Adapting & Responding to Change 7.2 Coping with Pressure & Setback
8 ENTERPRISING & PERFORMING <i>Need for achievement</i>	Focuses on results and achieving personal work objectives. Works best when work is related closely to results and the impact of personal efforts obvious. Shows an understanding of business, commerce, and finance. Seeks opportunities for self-development and career advancement.	8.1 Achieving Results & Developing Career 8.2 Enterprising & Commercial Thinking

(Adapted from Bartram, 2005, p 1187; Kutz & Bartram, 2007, p.233)

They identified eight factors (see Table 2) that reflect the psychological constructs underlying competencies through factor analysis and multidimensional scaling analysis of workplace performance (Bartram, 2005). These factors include the “g” or general reasoning ability, the Big Five personality factors, and two factors relating to need for achievement and need for power and control (Bartram, 2004). In analysing generic and client specific competency models Kutz and Bartram (2002) identified twenty middle level dimensions. Kutz and Bartram (2002) stated that factors and dimensions represent the competencies frequently identified in job analysis and applied in assessment and development centres. Table 2 lists the 20 competency dimensions in relations to the top tier Big Eight competency factors.

2.3.6 Summary

The competency model is the most appropriate technique for this study. It allows for the inclusion of positive as well as negative behavioural indicators. The importance of including negative indicators in this model is emphasised in the discussion on abnormal behaviour in par 2.7.4. The importance of including negative indicators is also highlighted in the research of Crowne (2007) and Flin (2001). Their research highlighted the importance to identify the undesirable characteristics and subsequently prevent ineffective leaders from assuming critical appointments (Crowne, 2007; Flin, 2001). Competency models have the potential to significantly influence employee performance if efficiently constructed. (Brown, 2006). The development of the competency model for this study are founded in the theoretical foundation of this chapter and validated by comparing and integrating primary research data (see par 4.2 for competency model and par 5.2 for discussion of competency model).

The dynamics of the PSO environment are discussed in the following section to lay the foundation for the application of the competency model in defining the psychological profile for the CIMIC Officer.

2.4 Peace support operations (PSO)

Civil military coordination is conducted in the challenging environment of peace missions. Peace support operations (PSO) are the umbrella term that describes military involvement in all types of peace missions (Hough, Du Plessis & Kruys, 2006). The White Paper on Defence indicates the DoD identified preventative diplomacy, peacemaking, peacekeeping, peace enforcement, peacebuilding and humanitarian or relieve activities as relevant for future participation (RSA, 1998). The following discussion on these types of operations and challenges for PSO emphasises the challenging and dynamic working environment of the CIMIC Officer.

2.4.1 Preventative diplomacy

“Action to prevent disputes from arising between parties, to prevent existing disputes from escalating into conflicts and to limit the spread of the latter when they occur.” (Hough et al., 2006, p. 21). Politicians facilitate this intervention with the military contributing in a supporting role when requested.

2.4.2 Peacemaking

Kofi Annan defined peacemaking as “the use of diplomatic means to persuade parties in a conflict to cease hostilities and to negotiate a peaceful settlement of the dispute” (Aning, Addo, Birikorang & Sowatey, 2004, p.12). Efforts to achieve peacemaking include a process of diplomacy, mediation, negotiations or other forms of peaceful settlement of conflict. Military forces may be required to support the process.

2.4.3 Peacekeeping

“Peacekeeping is the deployment of a United Nations presence in the field, hitherto with the consent of all parties concerned, normally involving United Nations military and/or police personnel and frequently civilians as well. Peacekeeping is a technique that expands the possibilities of both the prevention of conflict and the making of peace” (Hough et al., 2006, p. 21).

2.4.4 Peace enforcement

Bruwer (2003) described peace enforcement as the application or threat of military force with the aim to maintain, restore peace and to support diplomatic efforts in order to achieve a long-term settlement.

2.4.5 Peacebuilding

Peacebuilding is defined in the White Paper on Defence as “peacebuilding may occur at any stage of the conflict cycle, but is critical in the aftermath of the conflict. Peacebuilding includes activities such as the identification and support of measures and structures that will promote peace and build trust, and the facilitation of interaction among former enemies in order to prevent a relapse into conflict” (Williams, 1999, p.169).

Peacebuilding as a strategy are directed by international role players’ involvement in conflict and post conflict situations. The international community can contribute to the resolution of intrastate conflict, reconstruction, or construction of an enduring peaceful resolution. (Keating & Knight, 2004). Durch et al. (2003) indicated that peacebuilding includes but is not limited to (a) reintegration of former combatants, (b) reinstating rule of law through training, (c) restructuring and reforming the judicial and penal systems, (d) develop respect

for human rights, (e) providing electoral assistance for democratic development and (f) promoting conflict resolution and reconciliation techniques.

The overarching goal of peacebuilding is to augment the capabilities of society to manage conflicts through peaceful processes and design enduring solutions to conflicts (Aning et al., 2004). The mandate of peacebuilding missions is broad and extends beyond security matters. These mandates include a large scope of civilian functions in addition to the military and policing responsibilities of traditional peacekeeping. (Mohamed, 2005).

Peacebuilding is implemented through a phased approach once hostilities have ceased. It includes a broad scope of programmes addressing short to long-term roots and consequences of conflict. Peacebuilding are implemented in three phases namely, stabilisation, transition and consolidation. Each phase have five broad frameworks of (a) security, (b) political transformation, (c) economical reform, (d) human rights and judicial reform and (e) coordination, management and resource mobilisation. (De Coning, 2005). De Coning (2005) indicted the following activities for the three phases:

- The stabilisation phase follows the cessation of hostilities and concentrates primarily on the consequences of the conflict. Internal role players will focus on the basic relief, survival and the transformation of the social and political systems.
- The transitional phase drives towards establishing a transitional government to create favourable conditions for the development of sustainable political and economic systems. The focus is on rehabilitation, reconstruction and recovery, emphasising the transfer of responsibility to the local institutions.

- The newly elected government will commence with the implementation of development programmes focussing on reconciliation, nation building, socio economical reform and judicial reform during the consolidation phase.

Successful implementation and management of the phases of peacebuilding programmes require a coordinated multidimensional approach. It includes government, civil society, private sector, international institutions, international agencies, and non-governmental organisations (NGOs). De Coning (2005) said the coordination, management and mobilisation phases are critical for the successful implementation of all the peacebuilding dimensions. This statement highlights the importance of this study.

2.4.6 Multidimensional peacekeeping

Multidimensional peacekeeping is differentiated from traditional peacekeeping by military interaction with other mission components. Interaction with political components results in the adjustment of military tasks to address political realities. The military also interacts with the administrative and support components on joint logistics and supply. Coordination is essential with other components for humanitarian activities, human rights monitoring, civil affairs and restoration of law and order. The following mechanisms exist to enhance the coordination process and represent the CIMIC Officer's working environment (UN DPKO, 2003):

- Strategic planning and coordinating cell including military experts.
- Integrated joint operation centre to coordinate daily activities including military, political, civil affairs, human rights, public information and other mission components.

- Integrated civil military coordination cell to coordinate activities with other civilian actors in the mission. The cell facilitates information sharing, mutual support, joint assessments, integrated planning and common strategies.

Although the concept of multidimensional peacekeeping are well defined in the UN environment, inclusive of guidelines for enhanced cooperation between the UN organs, an additional challenge remains the coordination of relief efforts with longer-term development assistance. Immense consideration is given to the internal cultural, social, political and economic causes that can result in breakdown of civil society. It manifests in armed conflicts and create an escalating number of complex emergencies. The situation in multidimensional peacekeeping remains challenging when the situation of relief evolves into a situation of development. (Munslow & Brown, 1999).

2.4.7 Complex emergencies

There are diverse definitions for complex emergencies that vary from a humanitarian and military perspective. The Inter Agency Standing Committee (ISAC) defined a complex emergency as “a humanitarian crises in a country, region or society where there is total or considerable breakdown of authority resulting from internal or external conflict and which requires an international response that goes beyond the capacity of a single and/or ongoing UN country programme” (Inter Agency Standing Committee [IASC], 2005, p.5).

The definition of Salama, Spiegel, Talley and Waldman (2004, p.1801) for complex emergencies does not include natural disasters and is defined as “the situation in which mortality among the civilian population substantially increases above the population baseline, either as a result of direct effects of war or indirectly through increased prevalence of malnutrition and or/ transmission of communicable diseases, particularly if the latter results from deliberate political

and military policies and strategies.” Lautze, Learning, Raven-Roberts, Kent and Mazurana (2004, p.2134.) defined complex emergencies as a “web of political, economical, military and social forces engaged in violence.” Durch et al., (2003) added that it reflects unfinished war from a local perspective. Durch et al., (2003); Lautze et al. (2004) and Munslow and Brown (1999) all agree that complex emergencies are synonymous with civil war.

2.4.8 Theoretical framework of peace support operations

Peacekeeping evolved from traditional peacekeeping to a multidimensional model. Traditional peacekeeping focuses primarily on a military model of observing buffer zones, monitoring cease-fire agreements and supporting disarmament plans subsequent to inter-state wars. The multidimensional model addresses the environment where civilians and the military are coexisting to build peace in the hazardous aftermath of civil wars. (Durch et al., 2003; Mohamed, 2005). Mohamed (2005) identified consent of the parties, neutrality of the peacekeepers and minimum use of force as the key principles for an intervention within the framework of traditional peacekeeping.

The limitations of traditional peacekeeping principles were exposed in operations characterised by limited consent in the grey area between traditional peacekeeping and peace enforcement. Jakobsen (2000) referred to the British approach to grey area operations (complex emergencies). In these operations the military component conducts its mission by means of prevention, negotiation and consent promoting techniques. If necessary, limited force is applied to protect the population and the mandate. The objective remains not to defeat the parties but to create conditions for a stable peace settlement. (Jakobsen, 2000). The Brahimi report urged the UN to revise its doctrine and strategy on peacekeeping and to develop an enhanced strategy for peacebuilding in complex emergencies. A critical success factor for implementing the revised strategies is

the implementation at grass route level in the field to ensure effective complex peace operations. (Durch et al., 2003).

Complex emergencies are characterised by: (a) a deterioration or total disintegration of central government authority; (b) ethnic or religious conflict accompanied by extensive human rights violations; (c) mass starvation as a result of sporadic food insecurity; (d) weakening or collapse of economical systems resulting in decrease in gross domestic product and substantial unemployment; (e) mass movement of displaced populations as internally displaced or refugees in search of food and security and (f) war and decreased commitment to development. This instability frequently overflows into neighbouring counties that are often unstable themselves. (Knuth, 1999; Natsios, 1995). Power hunger individuals create a situation of enduring insecurity at the cost of other individuals. These actions are characterised by human rights violations and the destruction of economic and social structures. (Lautze et al., 2004).

The initial response models to complex emergencies were based on models of emergency relief in natural disasters. The initial models did not address the transition from a phase of conflict into a rehabilitation and development phase. (Lautze et al., 2004). Cilliers and Mills (1999) indicated that complex missions, which involve concurrent political, military and humanitarian intervention, have its foundation in traditional peacekeeping experiences. Salama et al., (2004) identified the longer period of complex emergencies as one of the main reasons for a need for a significant shift in approach towards peacekeeping.

The military's partnership with civil society in peacebuilding is in most instances not an opinion but an absolute necessity (Keating & Knight, 2004). It highlights the importance of coordination and cooperation between the military, humanitarian and civilian components. Williams (1999) argued that the definition on peacebuilding (in par 2.4.5) does not indicate the role players or the duration

of peacebuilding. Without a clear definition, the formulation of a clear aim, allocation of resources, realistic time frames, and the establishment of coordination mechanisms, coordination in peacebuilding remains a challenge.

The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD) declaration underlines the focus on the African continent that Africa should address Africa's challenges (Heyns, 2005). Irrespective of this viewpoint Rotberg, Albaugh, Bonyongwe, Clapham, Herbst and Metz (2000, p.107) said "African problems could not be left exclusively to Africans, the gross violations of human rights occurring in parts of Africa demand the resources and attention of the whole world". During a high level South African Development Community (SADC) visit to Denmark in 1998 it was emphasised that Africans should take ownership of peacekeeping in Africa by maintaining command, control and communications of peacekeeping operations, inclusive of training in Africa. The absence of adequate and effective capabilities and resources in these areas will impact negatively on the ability of African forces to conduct operations without foreign assistance. (Rotberg et al., 2000). Insufficient funding of the African Union has a negative impact on its ability to conduct effective operations. The concept of a hybrid force has been accepted where the UN provides expertise and resources, although it is clearly stated that the leadership must remain African. The reality is that African peacekeeping will remain under funded and that UN resources remain insufficient to match the African requirements. The vision for enhanced availability of resources for peacekeeping for Africa remains inadequate. (Cilliers & Mills, 1999).

The definition of PSO for this study is formulated within the multidimensional approach to complex emergencies wherein the CIMIC Officers functions. The roles of the CIMIC Officer are not limited to a specific peace mission. With this definition, the researcher intends to orientate the reader towards the complexities of emergencies and the diverse and challenging environment within which a CIMIC Officer performs duties.

Peace support operations are defined as actions to prevent conflict (Hough et al., 2006) cease hostilities, negotiate peaceful settlements, (Aning et al., 2004), implement and monitor agreements, (Bruwer, 2003), restore peace (Bruwer, 2003), address consequences of the conflict (De Coning, 2005) and the construction of an enduring peaceful resolution (Keating & Knight, 2004).

The lack of resources emphasises the importance of the optimal utilisation of available resources. The shortage of resources highlights the importance of this study. Selected according to a psychological profile will ensure that the limited resources are applied on the most suitable candidates to perform the CIMIC function.

2.4.9 Peace support environmental challenges

The peacekeeper profile, as defined by Van Dyk (1998), serves as the generic basis for selecting soldiers for peace missions. This profile will be integrated in par 4.2 in the competency model for the CIMIC Officer. It is essential to analyse the impact of the environmental stressors on individual soldiers during deployment in multidimensional missions. These mission stressors are linked to personality theories in par 2.7. This enables the researcher to identify personality traits and other characteristics of more competent CIMIC Officers. There is general misconception that the nature of PSO involves less risk and exposure to potentially traumatic events than the traditional war zone. Analysis of the physical and psychological stressors in peace missions indicates that it can result in severe and enduring psychiatric impairment. (Orsillo, Roemer, Litz, Ehlich & Freidman, 1998).

Each mission is unique with differences in the frequency and exposure to traumatic events as stressors. Sixty six percent of US soldiers deployed in Somalia ($N= 3461$) reported exposure to thirteen traumatic events or more (Orsillo et al., 1998). Michel (2005) reported that amongst 181 Swedish soldiers, 89 observed one serious traumatic event, 72 two traumatic events, 16 three traumatic events and one soldier reported being exposed to four serious traumatic events. These traumatic events include wounded or dead maimed people, mine accidents and clashes between factions. Differences in experiences of stressful events have been reported within the same mission and even between different rank groupings within the same missions. The Dutch soldiers reported less exposure to stressful events than the Swedish soldiers did during their deployment in Bosnia (Vogelaar, Soeters & Born, 1997). Bruwer (2003) confirmed that stressors' frequency differ from mission to mission. She reported significant differences in the rating and frequency of stressors between the first and fifth rotation of South African soldiers within the UN Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (MONUC). In this study peacekeeping environmental challenges are discussed as physical, cognitive, emotional and social stressors.

2.4.9.1 Physical stressors

During operations, peacekeepers are confronted with various dangers during patrols and monitoring. These dangers include units being fired upon, rocks thrown at units (Michel, 2005; Litz, 2004; Orsillo et al., 1998), shootings not directed at soldiers (Bramsen, Dirkzwager & Van der Ploeg; 2000), verbal abuse and harassment by civilians (Bolton, 2005), locating unexploded landmines and patrolling in those mined areas (Litz, 2004), soldiers being challenged at gunpoint outside their camps (Rosebush, 1998), confrontations at checkpoints and shelling of camps (Deahl, Srinivasan, Jones, Thomas, Nebrett & Jolly, 2000; Vogelaar et al., 1997).

The working conditions are associated with long hours and low intensity of operations, especially during the initial phases of the operation (Bartone, 1997; Bruwer, 2003; Stanley, 2003; Van Dyk, 1998;), double standards for ranks and insufficient equipment (Rosebush, 1998), unpredictable work schedules, dissatisfaction with superiors and inability to get along with other nations in the contingent are related to stressors (Stanley, 2003). Bruwer (2003) reported long and high frequency of meetings, micro management of leader group and sleep deprivation as major stressors.

Living conditions includes crowded and confined living quarters, lack of privacy, poor facilities for leisure and physical exercise (Bruwer, 2003; Stanley, 2003) and poor sanitation of latrines and living areas (Bruwer, 2003). Peacekeepers are exposed to extreme weather conditions although this was only recorded as a possible stressor in MONUC (Bruwer, 2003).

2.4.9.2 Cognitive stressors

The main cognitive stressor in peacekeepers relates to role conflict. Soldiers are trained psychologically and technically to defeat enemies, implying a different mental mindset than required in PSO. In PSO the role conflict is based on the neutral mindset of a war trained soldiers and the ambiguity concerning taking the right decision within a peace mission framework (Orsillo et al., 1998; Shigemura & Nomura, 2002). The physical environment influences the role ambiguity and can result in cognitive stressors. The following challenges can result in cognitive stressors.

- Ambiguity. Peacekeeping soldiers continuously question actions within the PSO environment based on an ambiguous mandate. An ambiguous mandate is subject to different interpretations. Different interpretations result in command structure confusion, doubts about the value of the mission, an unclear end state, mission creep, doubt related to the

- significance of the role of the peacekeeper in the mission and doubt about the length of the mission related to when the end state will be achieved (Bartone, 1997; Bartone & Adler, 1994; Nuciari, 2002; Rosebush, 1998; Shigemura & Nomura, 2002). Doubts with regard to the significance of the peacekeepers role is influenced by aspect like; why must peacekeepers remain neutral and restricted with regards to the use of weapons when mass rape, ethnic cleansing and massacres are taken place and war criminals are not arrested (Litz, 2004; Shigemura & Nomura, 2002).
- Danger and threat. The escalation of the threat and danger is unpredictable. Peacekeepers experience the fear of political consequences for their actions. This challenge is complicated by the ambiguity and restrictive nature of the rules of engagement. Peacekeepers are often confronted and humiliated by civilians and parties to the conflict and attacked by civilians and militia. Peacekeepers have to tolerate these challenges since the rules of engagement often restrict them from retaliating or taking offensive actions. (Shigemura & Nomura, 2002). Peacekeepers frequently ask the question on why they should endanger their lives by operating in a volatile environment when the local population does not appreciate their efforts (Bramsen et al., 2000).
 - Boredom and monotony. Peacekeepers are trained professional soldiers who thrive on challenges to display their professional capabilities. Peacekeeping soldiers are employed in simple and repetitive tasks. This results in monotony and boredom that leads to loss of mission focus. (Bartone, 1997; Bartone & Adler, 1994; Bolton, 2005; Bruwer, 2003; Nuciari, 2002).

- Career anxiety. Bartone (1997) indicated that loss of educational opportunities, lack of advancement opportunities, financial problems and problems with unit leaders, impacts on career anxiety. Peacekeepers are concerned that their career managers will overlook them during deployment (Stanley, 2003).

2.4.9.3 Emotional stressors

Peacekeepers who are confronted with death and destruction of a great magnitude have the potential to develop emotional, physical, cognitive or behavioural symptoms of distress. Peacekeepers have to adjust to death and extreme human suffering on a daily basis. Stressors related to exposure to death are not restricted to death of a comrade, but also includes seeing human remains, witness civilian deaths, observing atrocities against locals and witnessing locals injuries that is the result of mines or belligerent attacks. (Bramsen et al., 2000; Deahl et al., 2000; Litz, 2004; Orsillo et al., 1998; Rosebush, 1998; Shigemura & Nomura, 2002; Vogelaar et al., 1997).

A very small number of peacekeepers reported body-handling duties as a major stressor in peace missions. The small number is related to the fact that only a small component of the contingent is exposed to such duties. These duties include digging up bodies and body parts from single and mass graves, transportation of the bodies and reburial. The bodies are often mutilated and at an advanced stage of decomposition (Deahl et al., 2000; Rosebush, 1998).

Feelings of powerlessness in peacekeepers impacts on emotional stressors. Peacekeepers observe the suffering of the local population and have little means due to a restrictive mandate to alleviate the suffering or to improve the safety. (Bolton, 2005; Bramsen et al., 2000; Shigemura & Nomura, 2002). The inability of the peacekeepers to address this suffering reflects negatively on the UN

System. Their inability impacts on emotional stressors based on the ambiguity of the mission and role conflict. (Rosebush, 1998).

2.4.9.4 Social stressors

Research indicated that social stressors are more prominent during the establishment and the first months of a mission (Bruwer, 2003; Vogelaar et al., 1997). Prominent social stressors during the initial phases include:

- Insufficient time for the planning staff to finalise personal business and to prepare families for deployment. It is due to involvement in an extensive planning cycle before deployment. (Bartone, 1997).
- Other initial stressors include isolation from families due to the time frame linked to the establishment of communication support systems (Shigemura & Nomura, 2002), financial concerns, separation from families and friends and lack of family support (Bartone, 1997; Bruwer, 2003; Litz, 2004; Nuciari, 2002). Stanley (2003) reported the reality of leaving a newborn baby behind increases the impact of family well-being as a social stressor. Isolation, as possible stressor, remains prominent throughout the mission as a result from feelings of being forgotten. These feelings are enhanced by lack of media recognition, little recognition from commanders, lack of appreciation from the host country and lack of recognition from home. (Bruwer, 2003; Shigemura & Nomura, 2002; Stanley, 2003).

2.4.9.5 Stress Management Programmes

Stanley (2003) said stress related training and preparation must focus on two aspects to ensure a high state of psychological readiness before deployment. Firstly, to equip personnel with the ability to manage psychological stress that they are likely to experience during their deployment. Secondly, it deals with the

organisations efforts to reduce the anxieties prior to deployment. This view is supported by Rosebush (1998). Rosebush (1998) reflected on the efforts of the Canadian military mental health professionals who provide a wider role beside clinical support through counselling and debriefing. These psychologists play a significant role in the development of pro-active pre-deployment related psychological programmes. The following are examples of programmes managed in the British and US Defence Forces.

- Research on British soldiers reflected very low rates of Post Traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) and other psychopathology in a group who were exposed to an Operational Stress Training package that were facilitated before deployment. This package included lectures on the nature of stress and its physical, psychological and behavioural development. It addresses anxiety reduction and relaxation techniques. Personal work related and domestic events known to be stressful to soldiers on previous deployments as well as measures to minimise their impact are outlined. Soldiers are briefed on the nature of stressful events they are likely to encounter in missions, what symptoms they might expect to experience, how to cope with these and where they could seek help when necessary. (Deahl et al., 2000).
- Keller (2005) discussed the US Military solution that focuses on a Soldier Peer Monitoring Care and Support (PMCS) Programme. The US focus is on training risk assessors with the minimum rank of corporal. The aim of this programme is to provide managers with a tool to effectively manage soldiers who are exposed to potentially traumatic events. The programme that focus on the training of junior and middle management has the following objectives: (a) to be effective in and carry out effective management on site of a traumatic event, (b) conveying and conducting a meeting with key managers to plan a response, (c) analysing traumatic events and allocated personnel to group or individual risk assessments,

(d) conducting a trauma risk assessment interview, (e) conducting a briefing meeting and facilitate a timely referral to an appropriate agency for treatment. The PMCS programme emphasis the fact that the programme does not cure nor does it replace formal mental services. (Keller, 2005).

The CIMIC Officer must cope with the generic stressors of peacekeeping operations as discussed in par 2.4.9.1 to 2.4.9.4. The literature reveals (see par 2.6) that specialist skills over and above the generic peacekeeping soldier skills are required to perform successfully as a CIMIC Officer. These skills must be inclusive of skills that enhance the working relationship between the military and humanitarian community. It is imperative to include electives on the PSO environment stressors in the psychological profile of the CIMIC Officer. If excluded, the CIMIC Officer will experience difficulty to cope and adjust to the challenging PSO environment. A maladjusted CIMIC Officer will be ineffective in enhancing the critical task of coordination.

2.5 The concept of civil military coordination

The Office of Internal Oversight Services (OIOS) reported that the increase in military involvement in civil assistance (MICA), complementary to the military primary role of providing security, is due to the realities of conflicts and the shift towards broader peacekeeping mandates within the context of multidimensional peacekeeping. (The Office of Internal Oversight Services [OIOS] 2005). IASC acknowledged that military and humanitarian components have fundamentally different ways of institutional thinking and organisational cultures. The humanitarian community is more diverse compared to a well-structured hierarchical chain of command of the military component. (IASC, 2005).

Various challenges have been addressed and many suggestions have been developed and implemented following on lessons learned in peace support operations. Although well documented, challenges continue to exist with regard

to coordinating the humanitarian and military activities at grass root level. Abiew (2003) said these problems exist due to ad hoc improvements made at grass root level, often influenced by personal views of field workers. The Brahimi report provides the strategic direction with specific focus on the improvement of humanitarian coordination. The challenge remains, although the UN System claims to have a strategic plan for coordination in complex emergencies, few relief agencies wish to be coordinated or comply with a single strategy, especially those in the field. (Natsios, 1995).

2.5.1 Definitions

Coordination is a critical aspect in complex peace support operations. It remains the most important mechanism to create synergy and achievement of common goals during the peace, security and development phases (De Coning, 2005). It is imperative to have a thorough understanding of the complexity of the concept of CIMIC as theoretical foundation in defining a psychological profile of a competent CIMIC Officer.

2.5.1.1 Civil military coordination(CIMIC)

Peace operations literature reveals that various definitions for the term civil military coordination exist. The challenge remains to define a universally accepted definition for the relationship between the military and humanitarians. Jenny (2001) cautiously steered clear in her research of the use of the acronym CIMIC for civil military coordination in the absence of a universally accepted definition for this concept. Pugh (2001) said the reason for divergence in interpretation is due to different purpose and focus of the humanitarian and military components. The researcher highlights the complexity and dynamics of the civil military coordination environment in discussing the following definitions.

- The United Nations Department of Peace Keeping Operations (UN DPKO). UN DPKO refers to the relationship as United Nations Civil-Military Coordination (UN CIMIC). UN CIMIC is described as the system of interaction, involving exchange of information, negotiation, de-confliction, mutual support, and planning at all levels, between military elements, humanitarian organisations and civilian population to achieve respective objectives. (The United Nations Department of Peace Keeping Operations [UN DPKO] 2002). Communication, planning, interpersonal and negotiation skills are central to the UN CIMIC definition. Although defined in a policy document, this definition is not universally accepted throughout the UN System. The Office for Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA), a component of the UN System, defined CIMIC from a humanitarian perspective. The OCHA definition is discussed in the following paragraph. De Coning (2005) suggested the use of the acronym UN CIMIC to distinguish between UN and other CIMIC definitions.
- The United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA). The United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs (OCHA) described civil military coordination from a humanitarian perspective as the essential dialogue and interaction between civilian and military actors in humanitarian emergencies that is necessary to protect and promote humanitarian principles, avoid competition, minimise inconsistency, and when appropriate pursue common goals. Basic coordination strategies range from coexistence to cooperation on the spectrum of conflict. Coordination is a shared responsibility facilitated by liaison and common training by the humanitarian and military components. This calls for members to work in joint teams, define strategic integrated plans, set common goals and be accommodating. OCHA use the acronym CM Coord to distinguish their definition from the military perspectives. (United Nations Office for the Coordination of Humanitarian Affairs [OCHA], 2004).

- North Atlantic Treaty Organisation's (NATO). Although not part of the UN System, the NATO acronym, "*CIMIC*", is unofficially used in most peace missions to refer to the relationship between the military and humanitarian actors. NATO defines the relationship from a military perspective as "the coordination and cooperation, in support of the mission, between the NATO Commander and civil populations, including national and local authorities, as well as international, national and non governmental organizations and agencies." (Jenkins, 2003, p.129; Rollins, 2001, p.123). NATO focuses on a military approach where superior analytic, decision-making and planning skills are essential. This definition for civil military coordination (CIMIC) is NATO specific and is not universally accepted throughout the military and humanitarian components.
- European Union (EU). The African Centre for the Constructive Resolution of Disputes (ACCORD) refers to the European Union (EU) definition for civil military cooperation (CIMIC) as the coordination and cooperation, in support of the mission, between military components of EU-led Crisis Management Operations and civil role players (external to the EU), including national population and local authorities, as well as international, national and non governmental organisations and agencies. This definition is corresponding to the NATO definition that emphasise superior military analytic, decision-making and planning skills. (African Centre for the Constructive Resolution of Disputes [ACCORD] 2005).
- United States Military. The United States (US) Civil Affairs (CA) doctrine addresses the aspects of cooperation, coordination and activities to enhance the relationship between civilian and military components as well as the support to civil military operations. CIMIC in US Joint Doctrine encompass a wide spectrum of actions ranging from sustaining life to restoring governments. The US CIMIC definition refers to cooperation,

rather than coordination. The US doctrine served as the basis for the drafting of the Canadian Armed Forces CIMIC manual. Activities to enhance the relationship can include joint training, effective communication and respect for cultural diversity. (ACCORD, 2005; Joint Publication [JP], 2003; Pollick, 2000).

The DoD deploys peace mission forces under the auspices of the UN and the African Union (AU). The AU adopted the approach that the UN policies and guidelines will form the basis in developing AU policies and documentation. Derived from literature the theme of cooperation and coordination is central to the definitions that address the relationship between the military and humanitarians. The challenge is to create synergy between the humanitarian and military views concerning the utilisation of the military in humanitarian tasks. De Coning (2005) recommended the term UN CIMIC as described by UN DPKO to distinguish between UN and NATO CIMIC. De Coning (2005) emphasised the importance of a universally accepted definition for CIMIC as a central point of departure within the UN environment. This will reduce the diverse interpretations of the term in the international peacekeeping community. He indicated that CIMIC in the UN peacebuilding environment relates to maximising the coordination between: (a) the military and humanitarian component within an integrated mission, (b) the military component and other role players within the UN system and (c) the military component and other external and internal civilian role players. Since the DoD operates within the UN System, and the AU adopted this UN approach, the UN DPKO definition for civil military coordination (UN CIMIC) are accepted as the definition for this study:

“as the system of interaction, involving exchange of information, negotiation, de-confliction, mutual support, and planning at all levels, between military elements, humanitarian organisations and civilian population to achieve respective objectives. “

The following electives for a CIMIC Officer are derived from the definitions: superior analytic skills, decision making skills, planning skills including objective and goal setting, communication and liaison skills, training skills, teamwork, flexibility and respect for cultural and organisational diversity.

2.5.1.2 Definition of the concepts of coordination, cooperation and coexistence

The international community recognises the fact that it is imperative to promote enhanced cooperation and coordination between the military and the humanitarian communities (Abiew, 2003). The terms coordination and cooperation are frequently applied inter-changeable in CIMIC. It is thus essential to define these terms within the concept of CIMIC to derive the electives for measurement of a successful CIMIC Officer.

- Definition of cooperation. Abiew (2003) perceived the term cooperation as relatively weak concept for the military. Abiew (2003, p.33) referred to the British Military perspective that states “cooperation is more about consensus and heading together in an agreed direction than about strict coordination and command, to achieve a comprehensive approach based on complimentary capabilities.” It implies that cooperation entails working together towards the same goals.
- Definition of coordination. Abiew (2003, p.33) defined coordination as “Bringing together into a proper or required relation to ensure harmony or effective cooperation”. Cooperation becomes evident when common goals have been identified. Common goals are encompassed in approved strategy on improving the effectiveness and efficiency of combined humanitarian objectives through coordination (IASC, 2005). De Coning (2005) distinguished between three types of civil military coordination

functions: (a) liaison and information management, (b) mission support and (c) community support.

Van Baarda (2001) analysed the impact of coordination within the scope of CIMIC from a legal perspective and identified three basic forms of coordination.

- Negative coordination is applied where the components agree not to duplicate effort. This coordination refers either to a component performing in a specific area or only performing a specific assignment. Negative coordination is common when two or more components have similar capabilities and one will perform the required function.
- Positive coordination focus on action where effort is organised through joint planning, participative processes and an exchange of information. This is common practice in the UN System where a lead agency is appointed. In the military environment, the African Mission in Burundi (AMIB) serves as example where South Africa was appointed as the lead military component and subsequently facilitated the coordination process.
- Concerted action manifests where a lead organisation and a specific command element are identified. This form of coordination results in the most challenges especially within the concept of wider peacekeeping.

The implications for coordination in peacebuilding are not as severe on the security of the humanitarian and civilian component as it would be in a humanitarian crisis. It is contributed to the fact that peacebuilding normally commence after the cessation of hostilities (De Coning, 2005).

De Coning (2005) perceived the sharing of information as the core function of coordination. The intensity of sharing of information through coordination is determined by the spectrum of cooperation versus coexistence.

- Definition of coexistence. De Coning (2005) addressed coexistence as an additional dimension towards coordination within the peacebuilding concept. Within the phases of peacebuilding the level of coordination are determined by a spectrum of relationships that fluctuates between the two perimeters of coexistence and cooperation. In this context, cooperation is viewed as the relationship where appropriate role players integrate their individual effort to achieve a common goal. Coexistence refers to the minimum level of coordination required to de-conflict individual role players' actions. (ACCORD, 2005). Van Baarda (2001) stated the more insecure the environment, the less the likelihood of coordination between the military and humanitarian component.

2.5.2 Role players

To emphasise the holistic approach to this study the researcher analysed the CIMIC environment from a humanitarian as well as military component perspective. IASC (2005, p.5) defined humanitarian actors as “civilians, whether national or international, UN or non-UN, governmental or non-governmental, which have a commitment to humanitarian principles and are engaged in humanitarian activities.” Military actors are defined as “official military forces, for example military forces of a state, regional or inter-governmental organisation that are subject to a hierarchical chain of command, be they armed or unarmed, governmental or inter governmental. This may include a wide spectrum of actors such as the local or national military, multinational forces, UN peacekeeping troops, international military observers, foreign occupying forces, regional troops or other officially organised troops” (IASC, 2005, p.5).

In peacebuilding, the military supports the civilian component inclusive of humanitarian, developmental and local authorities as role players (De Coning, 2005). The primary role of the military during peacebuilding operations is to create and maintain a secure environment for other role players to conduct their operations. The secondary function is to avail resources to internal and external role players in support of mission objectives. (De Coning, 2005).

2.5.3 Humanitarian view

Burckle (2006) described humanitarian assistance as support to the civilian population to prevent loss of life and to reduce the suffering of the crisis-affected populations. He viewed assistance as most effective when provided by civilian humanitarian agencies under UN leadership. Some humanitarians view interaction with the military as compromising to their security, impartiality and neutrality. These assumptions are frequently founded on previous individual experiences. The humanitarian component views the presence of the military in protecting their assets as a possible threat to their personnel. The parties to the conflict can perceive aid workers as targets. The humanitarian community has to weigh up the probable advantages of short-term cooperation with the military against potential consequences of long-term isolation. Humanitarians must maintain their neutrality long after the military component has withdrawn. (Abiew, 2003; Burckle, 2006).

The humanitarian community shares information on the suffering of civilians. They are reluctant to share other sensitive information with the military because of their perception that the military seeks information that is beyond the immediate crises. (Abiew, 2003). Pugh (1998) viewed military involvement in humanitarian action as inherently political and the provision of security for humanitarians can be an excuse for a military intervention. De Coning (2005) disagreed with Pugh's (1998) view. He indicated that within the scope of UN

peacebuilding operations both the military and humanitarian components are perceived as credible and legitimate neutral parties. Therefore, the relationship between the military and humanitarian component can and should be more cooperative.

Non-governmental Organisations (NGOs) are very active and relevant role players within the humanitarian component in complex emergencies. NGOs perceive conflict situations primarily as a response to crises and secondary as opportunities to expand their profile and authority in the development phase of the humanitarian crises. (Abiew & Keating, 2004). Reimann (2006) said the relief NGOs working in conflict situations have the potential to impact negatively on the conflict. They support the conflict in five possible ways: (a) provide resources to the parties to the conflict, (b) contribute to market distortion, (c) reinforce community division in conflict, (d) release domestic resources for use in conflict and (e) legitimise parties to the conflict. NGOs have transformed into a corporate model that is characterised by hierarchical and bureaucratic structures that alienate themselves from the original voluntary community based model. (Reimann, 2006).

Coordination challenges are not restricted between the military and humanitarian components; these challenges are also relevant within the humanitarian community (Reimann, 2006). There is lack of role definition among UN Agencies escalating in ineffective competition for resources and control of emergencies. The consequences of poor coordination are not limited to ineffective utilisation of resources. Severe consequences may be the loss of lives due to a delay in response caused by discussions on role clarification and responsibilities. (Lindenberg & Bryant, 2001). NGOs' projects are dependant on donor funding and subsequently some are more concerned with donor interest than the needs of the crises affected population that they claim to serve (Reimann, 2006).

The humanitarian community performs their duties under the umbrella of three fundamental principles of humanity, neutrality and impartiality. The humanitarian component views the compromising of these principles as the primary barrier limiting coordination between the military and humanitarian components. Seybolt (1996) said the principle of uncompromising neutrality originated from the historical understanding of humanitarian emergencies caused by natural disasters. During a natural disaster the government of the day remains in control. During natural disasters, no harm is intended against the population and no noticeable barriers exist that prohibit cooperation and coordination between the military and humanitarian components. These barriers exist in complex emergencies where the humanitarian component fears the loss of independence and neutrality when associated with the military.

The humanitarian component feels that the military become more directly involved in un-mandated humanitarian work (Jenny, 2001; Munslow & Brown, 1999). Military components' involvement should have a short-term focus, highly effective in term of numbers deployed and under a mandate with clear objectives. The military component secures the environment; protect humanitarian assets and personnel; provide humanitarian support activities including convoy escorts, humanitarian supplies and equipment transport; and repair and maintenance of infrastructure. The humanitarian community weights these advantages against their operating principles of neutrality and impartiality. (Newland & Meyers, 1999). The humanitarians express the need for clearly defined perimeters indicating procedures when considering military assistance in humanitarian tasks (Jenny, 2001). In response to this need, OCHA drafted the IASC Reference Paper that serves as a non-binding reference document. This document provides the framework to assist in the formulation of country specific guidelines on the use of military assets in humanitarian action during complex emergencies (OCHA, 2004).

Abiew (2003) said the humanitarian components insistence on impartiality, neutrality and independence remains the main obstacle in cooperation with the military component. The question remains, does the intervention with the military through civil military coordination really influence perceived neutrality or impartiality? Although the answer to this question is beyond the scope of this study it is important to note that Seybolt (1996) stated the principle of neutrality cannot be maintained during a complex emergency. He is of the opinion that only parties who are entirely uninvolved in the complex emergency are neutral. Abiew and Keating (2004) noted that although some NGOs pride themselves on the principle of neutrality, others do not hesitate to identify perpetrators of atrocities. Humanitarian agencies ascertain freedom of movement through establishing agreements with parties to the conflict to ensure a safe passage and access to civilians under control of a party to the conflict. Seybolt (1996) viewed this action as impartial and not neutral. He stated that it is relatively straightforward for the humanitarian community to apply the principle of impartiality if they perform their duties according to a set of standards that benefits the whole of the crises affected population.

De Coning (2005) highlighted the importance to distinguish between short to medium term humanitarian action and development action. He said humanitarian action focuses on saving lives, reduces suffering and preserves human dignity during and after a man made crises or natural disaster. These actions are neutral and impartial. Although development initiatives focus on causes of underdevelopment, they are politically motivated and cannot be neutral or impartial.

Abiew (2003) reflected on the notion of the humanitarian component that humanitarians will not be controlled or commanded by the military component. Barriers obstructing coordination includes unique organisational cultures, leadership styles, command and control, cost structures, decision-making authority and differences in time management. These barriers manifest in

negative implications for attempts to facilitate a degree of cooperation. (Abiew, 2003; Newland & Meyers, 1999).

The humanitarian component strongly opposes community support initiatives by the military towards the local communities. The military aims to increase the local communities' confidence towards military action in the peace process. The military's humanitarian assistance are based on available resources rather than the populations' needs. Target population are selected based on co-location and not identified by means of an independent need assessment involving the community and humanitarian components. These actions are often not life saving assistance nor motivated by the humanitarian principles of humanity, impartiality and neutrality. (De Coning, 2005).

The prevalence of complex emergencies and the augmented demands for peacebuilding clearly indicate that it is imperative that military and humanitarian components have to interact through coordination and cooperation. Coordination and cooperation are enhanced through flexibility and building trust (Abiew, 2003). Coordination is sought by agencies that benefits from cooperation (Jeong, 2005). In order to overcome these challenges the United Nations High Commission for Refugees (UNHCR) employ military advisors to foster effective coordination (Newland & Meyers, 1999).

The humanitarian perspective highlights the importance of maintaining the principles of impartiality, neutrality and impartiality. The need for coordination with the military is acknowledged within the perimeters of these principles. Role definition, clear mandated tasks, deployment time frames, understanding organisational cultures, operating procedures and decision-making structures are the main barriers preventing effective coordination. The CIMIC Officer can facilitate enhanced coordination through consultative and participative processes that addresses the abovementioned barriers.

2.5.4 Military view

Pugh (2001) said the military component is capable of performing humanitarian tasks; the question remains if the military is sufficiently capacitated to perform humanitarian and security task simultaneously. Jackson (2005) said the quality of the military component is crucial for humanitarian success. NATO identified the need for the military component to become involved in humanitarian and reconstruction activities. NATO adopted this approach due to unacceptable human suffering they observed because of mandated humanitarian organisations that are not operational to meet the immediate need. The NATO approach is focussed to fill the vacuum as an interim arrangement. All tasks are transferred to applicable civil authority or humanitarian components when they are operational. The withdrawal of the military component is delayed when the civilian population are not sufficiently empowered to maintain an acceptable human rights environment. In order to facilitate a seamless transition from the military to the humanitarian component it is important to establish liaison mechanisms (Pugh, 2001).

Harris and Dombrowski (2002) identified physical protection of civilian personnel by armed military personnel as the central function in civil military coordination. Pugh (1998) agreed that the creation of a secure environment by the military component is essential for the humanitarian community to provide relief. The core competencies for military involvement in complex emergencies are: (a) providing security for the relief, (b) impose negotiated agreements, (c) provide security for non-combatants, (d) employing logistical capabilities and (e) in extreme situations, the military component can be requested to deliver food aid in areas of total insecurity (Burckle, 2006).

Pugh (1998) perceived the difference in the humanitarian and military component cultures as complementary. The military is more effective in achieving political objectives rather than performing humanitarian tasks. The military hierarchical

command and control structure does not make provision for a long-term relationship on building local capacity. Humanitarians are capacitated to endeavour in long-term initiatives. (Pugh, 1998). The military perspectives on civil military coordination are discussed within the framework of four categories: complementary and avoidance of duplication, command and control, mutual understanding and flexibility, and coordination at all levels.

- Complementary and avoidance of duplication. Effective resolution of conflict requires an approach where capabilities and capacity of various organisations complement one another. Hatzenbichler (2001) said that humanitarian assistance should be provided by the military component when it compliments the efforts of foreign governments and the humanitarian component to alleviate the suffering of man made or natural disasters. Spence (2002) agreed that to achieve sustainable peace, consensus must be reached between the political, economical, military and humanitarian components. He indicated that a holistic approach inclusive of clearly defined responsibilities, clear perimeters that allows for flexibility, and provision is made for consultative processes. Through this process, new responsibilities are assigned through negotiations to the relevant role players. It is essential to define roles and responsibilities to avoid duplication of effort and optimising available resources. (Abiew, 2003).

All non-security activities are considered within the peacekeeping mission mandate. These activities are performed if spare capacity is available within the military component and security tasks are not compromised. The military component must be aware that the humanitarian component will only request support when the capability required is unique; civilians cannot provide the capability in a timely framework; and the use of the military capacity is a last resort. (Pugh, 1998).

Siegel (2001) discussed the NATO experience in Bosnia/ Herzegovina where the military component focussed on small-scale projects with high visibility. Funds must be readily available to ensure quick implementation between identification and roll out of the project. Siegel (2001) proposed stress coordination programmes for the humanitarian community to assure them that projects are complementary and not in competition with one another.

- Command and Control. Coordination does not imply a change in relation to command. The military and humanitarian components have existing command and control channels. A participative approach in analysing the root cause of the in-country conflict results in a common understanding of the conflict and a collaborative approach in defining possible solutions. The participative approach is complicated by the complex chains of command within the humanitarian as well as the military components (Cockell, 2002). Spence (2002) identified the sharing of information as a critical factor in determining; what can be achieved; which task can be performed; by whom; and under which circumstances tasks will be performed. Command and control challenges can be addressed in joint operations centres and joint planning committees. (Cockell, 2002).

The UN DPKO policy directive on Military Involvement in Humanitarian and Developmental Activities stated that the humanitarian coordinator must approve humanitarian activities additional to security tasks conducted by the military. This condition becomes obsolete in severe situations when immediate assistance is required to prevent loss of life, severe injury or significant loss of property. To ensure compliance with the policy directive, UN CM Coord Officers will be co-located with the military CIMIC officers to advise the military component. These officers will oversee the maintenance of standards and facilitate interaction with

the humanitarian component and developmental role players. (United Nations Department of Peacekeeping Operations [UN DPKO] 2005).

Jakobsen (2000) highlighted the importance of creating effective partnerships with humanitarian agencies and NGOs. These partnerships are based on mutual respect and coordination by consensus and not command. Superior negotiation and interpersonal skills are essential to enhance these partnerships. Siegel (2001) suggested the attachment of civilian development experts to the military component to ensure the development programmes are aligned with long-term development plans of the region. The US Military establishes a Civil Military Coordination Centre that serves as a focal point for humanitarian agencies. Request for assistance received from and to the humanitarian community are validated, coordinated and monitored through this centre. (JP, 2003).

- Mutual understanding and flexibility. Emergency humanitarian assistance is provided within the framework of the principles of humanity, neutrality and impartiality. The military component must have a thorough understanding of these principles to avoid compromising humanitarian operations. Mutual acknowledgment of interdependence is crucial for successful implementation of coordinated operations. Mutual understanding provides a firm basis for a flexible approach towards complex mission issues. (Pugh, 1998). Cockell (2002) stated it is imperative to coordinate operational and tactical military and humanitarian action to achieve shared objectives. Both components must acknowledge that joint action results in a loss of autonomy on both sides. The Office of Internal Oversight Services (OIOS) suggested the presence of a civilian humanitarian coordinator within a joint coordination centre. This coordinator can facilitate improved coordination to breach the organisational cultural gap. Coordinators can also create an environment for better understanding of the complex network of humanitarians

interacting in peace operations. (OIOS, 2005). A coordinated approach ensures that joint assessment is conducted to identify key tasks, assess available resources, draft integrated plans and establish coordination mechanisms (Rollins, 2001).

OIOS reported on the unrealistic expectations of the humanitarian community concerning support provided by the military component. It is contributed to a lack of understanding military points of contact and authorisation procedures. (OIOS, 2005). Joint training and planning will promote mutual understanding of needs and resources sharing (Cockell, 2002). Abiew (2003, p.34) referred to the UK Ministry of Defence Civil Military Cooperation Philosophy; “each organisation needs an appreciation of the values and principles which motivates and guide the activities of others and mandates under which each one is operating.” Cockell (2002) indicated that mandates should be unambiguous with regards to the tasks of the military and humanitarian component in the mission. Unambiguous mandates allow for proactive flexibility and the integration of effort through coordination. The IASC document drafted from a humanitarian perspective within the UN System indicates factors that may trigger the deployment of UN CM Coord Officers. These functions include but are not limited to situations where: (a) military action is ongoing or anticipated and is likely to have humanitarian consequences; (b) UN CM Coord expertise is required for contingency planning; (c) Military and Civil Defence Assets (MCDA) may be required by the humanitarian actors; (d) military forces may engage in relief activities and (e) humanitarian actors lack the necessary CM Coord capacity. (IASC, 2005).

- Coordination at all levels. Weinberger (2002) identified general coordination problems associated with multidimensional peacekeeping. These challenges include divergent organisational culture, different approaches and content for training professionals, ambiguous mandates and insufficient resources for implementation. The lack of coordination results in the implementation of projects that has little significance on the perceived target group. It is evident when contingents provide direct assistance to the population during peace missions. These actions create a situation where neither the parties to the conflict or the beneficiaries can distinguish between military support and humanitarian assistance. Community service projects are optimised through coordination in consultation with the humanitarian component. (OIOS, 2005). A comprehensive approach should be followed during the drafting of an all-inclusive plan. This plan is finalised after the analysis of the crises and identification of capabilities, roles and responsibilities. It is imperative to include guidelines towards interim end states to guide those participants who were not included in the planning process. A detail plan of humanitarian action in the region will enable the military to consider humanitarian activities during planning of operations. This plan enables the military to create a favourable security situation for humanitarians to perform their activities. (Spence, 2002). Coordination can be enhanced through joint operations centres and joint planning committees (Cockell, 2002). Coordination should be directed from the highest possible level to ensure apt direction and correct focus. The appointment of decentralised coordination teams at all possible levels ensures effective coordination during implementation. (Pugh, 1998).

Military action is a last resort option that is primarily guided by humanitarian purpose. It is conducted to maximise respect for international human rights law and intents to achieve more good than harm. (Burckle, 2006). Humanitarians depend on the parties to the conflict and the military to provide a secure

environment (Jackson, 2005). One of the most important determinants for success in a military peace support operation is whether the force is able to assume and maintain the principle of neutrality. When one or more of the parties to the conflict perceive that a foreign force has other than humanitarian objectives, the operation will be regarded as a military intervention and the force will become engaged in the conflict. Once the principle of neutrality is breached, it cannot be regained. (Newland & Meyer, 1999).

Keating and Knight (2004) acknowledged that tension is more severe between the military, humanitarian and civilian components during peacebuilding operations. Within the framework of the multidimensional approach to peacebuilding, the military component interacts with humanitarians, civilians and civil components. The challenge to define a clear division of labour originates in the difficulty in defining conflict and when it begins and ends. Peacebuilding encompasses more than the cessation of hostilities, with the focus on everlasting peace as the end state. The military components initial focus remains to establish a secure environment. As the situation moves from crises to longer-term development, responsibilities are transferred to other role players. The critical challenges remain finding the appropriate balance between military, civilian police, humanitarian and societal activities. (De Coning, 2005; Keating & Knight, 2004).

2.5.5 Closing the gap between the military and humanitarian component

The above-mentioned literature reflects that both the military and the humanitarian community acknowledge the need for cooperation and coordination. Support to the affected population will be significantly more effective if cooperation is enhanced with humanitarians. (Siegel, 2001). The challenge remains to determine the level and possible areas for cooperation and coordination. Jackson (2005) said successful future peace support operations consist of unparalleled forces, led by states with superior armed forces, in

partnership with the humanitarian components. Previous interactions, previous training and constructive coordination experiences might enhance a complimentary relationship (George, 2002). OIOS identified the need to establish standard operating procedures to address the coordination challenges to develop enhance coordination. These guidelines includes: (a) interaction with the humanitarian component, (b) strategy development, (c) identification of suitable projects, (d) project priorities, (e) planning, implementation and evaluation of projects, (f) project communication strategy, (g) identifying and interacting with the identified internal and external role players, (h) information analysis and coordination and (i) financial management inclusive of identifying appropriate donor and funding mechanisms. These guidelines emphasise that military endorsed community support projects are not humanitarian projects. (OIOS, 2005).

Humanitarians experience difficulty in translating strategic decisions into implementation at the operational and tactical level due to the absence of pervasive command structures. Humanitarian international field officers of major agencies are well trained in managerial, legal and policy implementation skills. Despite this training, language barriers and cultural differences remain obstacles at local office level. The main barriers in preventing successful coordination remain organisational cultures reflecting differences in approach towards authority and decision-making. These obstacles are discussed in par 2.8.2.2. The military component decision-making style is based on hierarchical top down approach with clear deadlines and rules of engagement that guides all parts of the structure from senior leadership to the soldiers on the ground. A Code of Conduct and Rules of Engagement direct the military components actions. Non-compliance with these directives can result in legal actions instituted against perpetrators. The humanitarian components structure is usually decentralised within a relatively flat authoritative structure. The challenge remains especially at the community project level where development agencies promote collaborative decision-making versus the military component process that is not based on

consensus or collaborative working relationships. This decision-making process allows the humanitarian community to adjust more easily to unexpected increase in civilian needs. The military is less flexible because they depend on coherent mission objectives. (Jeong, 2005).

The humanitarian component has immense experience in dealing with complex emergencies. The military component can benefit from interacting with the humanitarian component on local knowledge, technical skills and best practices. (Harris & Dombrowski, 2002). Military and humanitarian components have to coordinate their actions at both the directive and execution level to alleviate suffering in pursuing the same objectives. The appointment of a military liaison officer to the civilian humanitarian coordination office can enhance effective coordination and cooperation. This individual can facilitate mutual agreements between military and humanitarian components. (Jeong, 2005). It is imperative to share information affecting security of humanitarians and civilian populations. It includes information on security, humanitarian positions, humanitarian plans and intentions, mine action information, population movement, military relief activities and information that facilitate humanitarian relief effort. (IASC, 2004). UNHCR have taken the relationship with military component seriously and dedicated considerable resources to enhance coordination. Initiatives include programmes learning each other's strengths, weaknesses and values through joint training, lessons learned exercises, personnel exchanges and field manuals. Through these programmes soldiers and humanitarian workers have gained mutual respect. Consultation, coordination and communication have become standard operating procedure, despite the significant differences that will and should remain. (Newland & Meyers. 1999). To address the lack of unity across the spectrum of operations, opportunities should be created through the exchange of information at all levels, even before deployment (Abiew, 2003). Early engagement at institutional level is imperative for removing obstacles in cooperation and coordination. This can be achieved through early development of relationships, joint education and exercises, joint planning sessions, joint

training and exchange programmes where the military attend humanitarian learning opportunities and humanitarians vice versa. (Spence 2002).

The military is often forced to deploy members with insufficient CIMIC training due to a lack of capacity or ineffective selection criteria (Pollick, 2000). George (2002) indicated the fundamental importance for the military to identify competent members to be trained as mission specialist to conduct CIMIC activities. To address the training gap the DoD approved the participation in the development of an African CIMIC Handbook to facilitate the training of CIMIC Officers for the department. This handbook provides an overview of possible military tasks in a humanitarian setting. These possible tasks include use of military assets for military assistance, integrated planning, security to the humanitarian community and humanitarian tasks in the absence of a humanitarian coordination structure. The military view as reflected in the handbook is not necessarily universally accepted in the humanitarian community. (ACCORD, 2005).

The organisational cultures of the military and humanitarian components are different. A lack of understanding these cultures can easily result in misunderstanding and miscommunication. Training opportunities for mutual beneficial exchange might provide a better understanding of cultural differences. These opportunities include conferences, identification and conducting of joint exercises, training, planning and civil military learning opportunities at educational institutions. (Abiew, 2003; George, 2002; Harris & Dombrowski, 2002).

2.6 Roles and functions of the CIMIC Officer

The role of the CIMIC Officer is determined by the type of mission and stage within the mission and should allow flexibility. It emphasises the need for a flexible officer to function in a participative management environment. CIMIC Officers must understand the complexities between functioning in a cooperative

versus coexistence framework (Abiew, 2003; De Coning, 2005). The role and functions of the CIMIC Officer are as follow:

- Adviser to military commander (Abiew, 2003; Harris & Dombrowski, 2002; Pugh, 1998; OIOS, 2005; Spence, 2005)
 - Advise the military on the structure, mandate and operating strategies of humanitarians.
 - Provide specialist advice on CIMIC during planning processes.
 - Communicate humanitarian needs within the framework of humanitarian principles and operational goals.
 - Advise on policy implementation guidelines on use of the military in humanitarian action.
 - Advise on the feasibility and impact of community support projects.
 - Advise on the appropriate channels to follow for authorisation of military humanitarian activities.
 - Advise on creating a favourable security environment for humanitarians.

- Adviser to the humanitarian coordinator (Abiew, 2002; Burckle, 2006; Jackson, 2005; Jeong, 2005; Newland & Meyers, 1999)
 - Advise humanitarian organisations on the structure, mandate, hierarchy and command and control mechanisms of the military.
 - Advise the humanitarian component on security matters and emphasise the importance of sharing security related information.
 - Provide specialist military assistance to humanitarian components.
 - Advise on the utilisation of available spare capacity and resources of military.
 - Request authorisation for the military community support projects.

- Coordination Officer (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002)
 - Identify, establish and maintain contact with relevant role players.
 - Define relevant role players' roles, responsibilities and decision-making perimeters to avoid duplication of effort.
 - Establish effective coordination mechanisms that enhance flexibility through participative and consultative processes.
 - Coordinate capabilities of relevant organisations to be complimentary.
 - Attend and report on local meetings.
 - Facilitate the development of comprehensive integrated plans through joint assessments on key objectives.
 - Establish coordinating mechanisms at all levels to enhance coordination.

- Project officer for community support initiatives (Jenny, 2001; Newland & Meyers, 1999; OIOS, 2005)
 - Establish and implement standing operating procedures to determine suitable projects.
 - Establish and manage coordinating mechanisms to evaluate and prioritise projects.
 - Implement and manage approved community support projects.
 - Facilitate seamless role out and handing over of completed projects.

- Training coordinator (George, 2002; Harris & Dombrowski, 2002; IASC, 2005; Pollick, 2000; Pugh, 1998)
 - Coordinate awareness training on humanitarian and military operating procedures and principles.
 - Conduct training on CIMIC policy documents and guidelines.
 - Conduct awareness training promoting humanitarian and military organisational cultural awareness,
 - Coordinate training to the military by humanitarians on local knowledge, best practices and technical skills.

To be successful in these roles the CIMIC Officer exercise superior communication skills, liaison and information management skills, analytic and planning skills in a participative environment, respect for cultural diversity, sensitivity towards organisation culture including values and principles, flexibility, mutual respect, understanding and interpersonal skills.

2.7 Civil military coordination officers' profile

Flin (2001) emphasised that military leaders must be able to deal effectively with crises in remote environments. To be effective they must portray a leadership style that allows for flexibility, are task and achievement orientated and are able to work in harmony without losing authority or respect of the group. Effective leaders are self-confident, have high levels of self-control, are self-reliant and have the strength of personality to maintain authority. To prevent ineffective leaders assuming critical appointments, it is essential to identify the undesirable characteristics like anxiety, depression and traits of uncontrolled behaviour. (Flin, 2001). Penwell, cited in Crowne (2007), confirmed the importance of identifying undesirable personality characteristics that make individuals unsuitable for a specific position. In defining the psychological profile of a CIMIC Officer, it is necessary to identify the desirable personality characteristics as well as the undesirable behaviours to ensure that competent candidates are selected

and trained. The competency model framework in par 2.3.5.4 enables the researcher to integrate the positive and negative behavioural indicators for a CIMIC Officer as defined in this section.

Furnham (1997) stated the relationship between personality and work related outcomes as indirect and multi-causal. Personality determines work related behaviours with organisational and occupational variables. He highlighted that the literature on personality is extremely diverse, dispersed and contradictory. Within this complexity of personality, it is essential to analyse personality theories that are linked to provisional measurement instruments to ensure the CIMIC Officer' profile encompass the most appropriate electives.

2.7.1 Definitions of personality

Pervin (1989) wrote that there is no generally agreed on definition for personality. He confirmed that no substantive definition of personality could be applied with any generality. Definitions will vary based on the application within a specific personality theory. "Personality is defined by the empirical concepts that are part of the theory of personality employed by the observer" (Hall, Lindzey & Campbell, 1998, p.9).

Vandaveer and Menefee (2006) described personality as unique individual qualities that are accountable for individual identity. It accounts for the aggregate of ways in which an individual respond to others. They highlighted the importance of accepting that every individual has a unique personality. Roberts and Hogan (2001) said personality is defined from either an observer or actors' perspective. From an observers perspective it is the unique impression an individual makes on other individuals. From an actors perspective it relates to the structures inside a person that explains why individuals create unique impressions on others. Roberts and Hogan (2001) viewed the perspective from the actor as the functional equivalent to an individual's identity. Furnham (1997,

p.146) defined the working definition for personality as: “Personality refers to those characteristics of the person (or of people generally) that endure over time and that account for consistent patterns of responses to everyday situations. Personality traits supposedly account for the what, why and how of human functioning.” Crowne (2007) emphasised that personality has a more challenging and fundamental meaning for psychologists. “It refers to those inferred attributes and processes, visible in behaviour or not, that makes each person individually unique.” (Crowne, 2007, p.19). It is essential to define personality within the framework of the applicable personality theory. This research focuses on the personality theories of Analytic Psychology, Factor Analytic Trait Theory and an understanding of abnormal behaviour caused by personality disorders. These theories are the foundation of the holistic approach in linking personality electives to the roles and functions of the CIMIC Officer defined in par 2.6. The discussion of personality of Jung (Analytic Psychology, par 2.7.2), Cattell (Factor Analytic Trait Theory, par 2.7.3) and Millon’s abnormal behaviour (par 2.7.4.3) make a theoretical contribution on the personality profile of CIMIC Officers.

- Jung did not give a specific definition for personality within the framework of Analytic Psychology. He seldom referred to personality but rather to the psyche of an individual. He identified the total integrated personality as the self. The self includes the entire individual’s virtues and potential, irrespective of whether they have become evident or conscious at a particular stage of life. (Cloninger, 1996). Jung identified three interdependent systems in the psyche: the ego, personal unconscious and collective unconscious (Möller, 1993). These systems are discussed in par 2.7.2.1.
- Cattell’s (1950a, p.2) definition within the framework of the Factor Analytic Trait Theory stated that “personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation ... the goal of psychological research in personality is thus to establish laws about what different

people will do in all kinds of social and general environmental situations.... Personality is ... concerned with all the behaviour of the individual, both overt and under the skin.”

- Millon’s research focused on personality disorders in the development of abnormal behaviour. Millon (1996, p. 4) defined personality as “... a complex pattern of deeply embedded psychological characteristics that are largely non-conscious and not easily altered, expressing themselves automatically in almost every facet of functioning.”

2.7.2 Analytic Psychology

Jung’s theory laid the foundation for the Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) measurement instrument. The significance of the MBTI for this study is discussed in par 3.3.3.2. To apply this measurement instrument optimally, it is essential to understand the major concepts of Jung’s personality theory.

2.7.2.1 Major Concepts of Analytic Psychology

Within the structural framework of this theory, the concepts of the ego, the personal unconscious and the collective unconscious, are discussed.

- The Ego. Jung defined the Ego as “... part of personality, but it is not the centre of personality (Cloninger, 1996, p.73). Although the ego does not form the centre of personality, it is viewed as the core of the centre of consciousness (Hall et al., 1998). The ego forms the conscious core of personality, responsible for the principle functions of perceiving, thinking, feeling and remembering (Cloninger, 1996; Crowne, 2007; Hall et al., 1998). The ego forms the centre of the individual’s will, enabling the individual to strive towards conscious goals. There are restrictions to will power because of the boundaries of consciousness. Jung referred to ego

inflation when individuals identify too closely with conscious experiences and intentions. Individuals often experience crises when realising the limitations of their consciousness. (Cloninger, 1996; Möller, 1993). Jung visualised the ego as a reasonably frail entity that is frequently at the mercy of the more powerful forces between the demands of reality and those of the unconsciousness (Ewen, 1988). The CIMIC Officer must have high ego power to achieve goals, adjust to the peace support environment and manage crises and challenges (see par 2.4.9).

- The personal unconscious. The personal unconscious is a region adjacent to the ego. Although the ego and personal unconscious are adjacent, the two structures are in opposition, communicate occasionally and compete for control. The content of the unconscious is accessible to the conscious through dual communication. The content of the personal unconscious contains ideas, feelings, wishes and experiences that were once conscious. These experiences are repressed and suppressed because they were painful and stored as “unfinished business” in the unconscious. These groupings of “unfinished business” can form a complex. (Crowne, 2007; Hall et al., 1998).

A complex is an organised group of feelings, thoughts, observations and memories that are present in the personal unconscious. These complexes are psychologically significant and often a distressing collection of experiences. Complexes are the building blocks of the personal unconscious. Complexes can dominate the individual's actions and thoughts. A complex has a nucleus that acts as a magnet attracting related ideas. The stronger the core the more extensive and dominating the complex will become. A complex may have an autonomous personality that has a mental life and a motor of its own. It may seize control of the personality and utilise the psyche for its own ends. The nucleus and many of the related elements are unconscious at any specific

time, but any of the associations can and often do become conscious. (Crowne, 2007; Hall et al., 1998; Möller, 1993)

Traumatic events in PSO can trigger complexes in the unconscious mind of a soldier with disastrous effects of acting out behaviour through violent behaviour. (Crowne, 2007; Hall et al., 1998; Möller, 1993). A CIMIC Officer who has experienced traumatic events will have difficulty in adjusting and coping in the peace support operations environment. The maladjustment will manifest itself when exposed to cognitive and emotional stressors as discussed in par. 2.4.9.

- The collective unconscious. Jung described the collective unconscious as present at birth, enclosed in the human brain structure and not dependent on personal experiences to develop (Cloninger, 1996). Jung defined the collective universal unconscious as the “deposit of ancestral experience from untold millions of years, the echo of prehistoric world events to which each century adds an insignificantly small amount of variation and deviation” (Crowne, 2007, p.96). The concept of collective unconscious is the most original and controversial feature of Jung’s personality theory. “It is the most powerful and influential system of the psyche and in pathological cases overshadow the ego and personal unconscious” (Hall et al., 1998, p.85). Jung did not claim which specific memories are present at birth. He said there is a probability of these memorable experiences being rejuvenated to affect the individual’s reactions to essential aspects of the contemporary world (Crowne, 2007). The collective unconscious is shaped by remote experiences of individuals that accumulate because of repeated experiences over many generations and transmitted to each individual through genetic inheritance (Cloninger, 1996; Hall et al., 1998). Every human being has a more or less similar collective unconscious, but the content may differ. The collective

unconscious is inherited and forms the racial foundation of the whole structure of personality (Hall et al., 1998).

Culture is embedded in the collective unconscious. The collective unconscious is the psyche residue of evolutionary human development. Despite individual uniqueness and differences, individuals share common characteristics. These characteristics encompass the establishment of communities with specific individual roles, sharing of emotions, linguistic skills and communication symbols. The collective unconscious provides the link between personality and the past. (Möller, 1993). The CIMIC Officer performs tasks in a multicultural environment. Understanding the origin and dynamics of culture highlights the importance for the CIMIC Officer to be flexible and accommodating. The importance of understanding the impact of the multicultural environment on CIMIC Officers is discussed in par. 2.8.2.1.

2.7.2.2 Structural components of the collective unconsciousness

Jung claimed the collective unconscious contained “primordial images” called archetypes that are similar in all individuals (Cloninger, 1996, p.77). These archetypes are the fundamental units of the collective unconscious. The archetypes function as psychic instincts that prompt individuals to experience the world in universe ways. (Cloninger, 1996). Four archetypes are so significant for personality that they are perceived as personality structures signifying timeless experiences and human attributes. The four are the persona, animus and anima, the shadow and the self. (Crowne, 2007).

- Persona. The persona is the aspect of personality that adjusts to the world. It represents the social face of personality. It is referred to as the protective façade designed to meet the demands of society as contrasted with the private personality that exists behind the social façade.

(Cloninger, 1996; Ewen, 1988; Hall et al., 1998). The ego can mistakenly identify with the persona and this formal mask is mistaken as the true personality. The ego becomes inflated with a sense of excess importance to such an extent that it invests too heavily in the persona and the individual becomes the mask. (Crowne, 2007; Ewen, 1998; Hall et al., 1998). Changes in persona are eminent throughout life (Cloninger, 1996). A strong persona compels individuals to be successful at work and to maintain exceptional interpersonal relations (Möller, 1993). The CIMIC Officer must portray a strong persona to adjust to the dynamic peace support environment. The diverse environment in par 2.4 and the physical stressors in par 2.4.9.1 emphasise the dynamics of the environment.

- Animus and Anima. On the physiological level, the male and female individual secretes both male and female hormones. It implies that masculine and feminine characteristics are found in both male and female. The interaction by men with women throughout the ages has resulted in males becoming feminised and females masculinised. This has led to unconscious maleness in woman and femaleness in men, which has developed from the ancient experiences of the sexes with each other. Man's unconscious feminine nature is due to the archetype known as the anima, while the male archetype in a woman is called the animus. (Ewen, 1988, Hall et al., 1998).

The animus enables women to understand men by integrating customary male attributes such as independence, aggressiveness and competitiveness to overcome passivity and submission. In the male personality, the anima provides males with appreciation and understanding of women through feminine traits such as intuitiveness and tenderness. Not all archetypes of the anima and animus are good. Women can use their beauty to be deceiving and men can use their power to destroy. The animus and anima are idealised images whose existence

in real individuals is doubtful. (Crowne, 2007). Cloninger (1996) said individuals could become obsessed with the anima or animus. Jung described the obsession as a condition in which unconscious qualities control behaviour without being integrated into consciousness. Gender equality in the military and humanitarian components are emphasised in peace support operations. A CIMIC Officer with an unbalanced anima or animus can experience difficulty in understanding and interacting with the opposite sex.

- The Shadow. The shadow typifies the opposite of the persona (Möller, 1993). Jung defined the shadow as, “ the primitive and unwelcome side of personality that derives from our animal forebears” (Ewen, 1998, p.92). The shadow typifies the primitive side of human nature. It dates back to our pre-human origins and comprises a survival animal instinct that personifies evil. The shadow archetype resides in the deepest and most remote part of the psyche. It consists of material repressed into the personal unconscious because of its shameful and unpleasant nature. It plays a compensatory role with respect to the more favourably orientated persona and ego. (Ewen, 1988; Hall et al., 1998). To be a complete person, individuals must recognise the impulses of the shadow as part of the individual. The impulses that originate in the shadow must be controlled. This will ensure that socially unacceptable thoughts that enter the individuals conscious and unintended impulsive behaviour do not materialise. (Crowne, 2007). The unintended impulsive behaviour may be hidden from society by the persona or repressed into the personal unconscious (Hall et al., 1998). The shadow is the gatekeeper that mediates between the conscious and the unconscious. When integrated with consciousness, the shadow is a source of creativity and pleasure. The repulsive qualities of an individual with a conscious self-concept might be projected on other individuals. (Cloninger, 1996). The CIMIC Officer

must be aware that these projections do not become evident in racial prejudice as an example.

- The Self. Möller (1993) viewed the self as central to and the most important archetype in Jung's theory. In his earlier research, Jung considered the self to be equivalent to the psyche or total personality. He indicated in his latter research the main concept of psychology of total unity as the self. Jung referred to the psyche rather than personality (see definition in par 2.7.1). The psyche encompasses the totally integrated personality as the self. (Cloninger, 1996). The self includes all the individual's qualities and potential, irrespective of whether they are apparent or conscious at a particular stage of life (Cloninger, 1996). The self represents the centre of personality. The self holds the conscious and unconscious together and provides the personality with unity, equilibrium and stability. Although the self is between the conscious and unconscious, it is beyond the realm of awareness. The ego as the conscious part of the individual's individuality is the only aspect of selfhood that individuals experience (Crowne, 2007; Ewen, 1988; Hall et al., 1998). Through individualisation, the self differentiates a person from other human beings (Ewen, 1988). It is essential for the various components of personality to become fully developed and individuated before the self are balanced. The archetype of the self does not become evident until an individual has reached middle age (Hall et al., 1998). A balanced self that manifests in a mature personality is imperative for a CIMIC Officer. The CIMIC Officer must have a balanced self to allow new experiences into the conscious to play a facilitators role in PSO.

2.7.2.3 Four functions of personality

The four functions of thinking, feeling, sensing and intuition are present in all individuals (with the exception of those who are cognitively or emotionally

disabled) although they are not equal in all individuals. The superior function that is more differentiated than the other three plays a predominant role in the consciousness. The inferior function that is least developed is restrained in the unconscious and materialises in dreams and fantasies. The inferior function is invariably paired with the superior one. (Crowne, 2007; Hall et al., 1998).

Jung introduced two pairs of functions to account for the differences in the strategy employed by individuals in acquiring and processing information. The four primary psychological functions construct a kind of totality. Jung said: "Sensation establishes what is actually present, thinking enables us to recognise its meaning, feeling tells us the value, and intuition points to possibilities as to whence it came from and whither it is going in a given situation" (Hall et al., 1998, p. 92). The four functions are discussed in the following paragraphs:

- Thinking, feeling. Jung observed emotions and thoughts as not always constant. Think and feel are alternative ways to make judgements. Crowne (2007) said that thinking is rational in the sense that they call upon reasoning, judging and evaluating, abstracting and generalisation. Although some individuals make choices by how they feel, these individuals must learn to think things through logically as well. Individuals make choices that increase positive emotions, such as excitement, pleasure and joy or they avoid doing things that brings negative emotions such as anxiety, pain and sorrow. (Cloninger, 1996; Crowne, 2007; Hall et al., 1998). The CIMIC Officer must have a balanced thinking-feeling ability. This is important to perform in the rule bound military environment. Feeling is important to enable the CIMIC Officer to facilitate the advisory and coordinating roles described in par 2.6.
- Sensing and intuition. Jung viewed sensation and intuition as irrational. Sensation is concrete, particular and accidental, without cognitive elaboration, and intuition involve unconscious presumptions. (Crowne,

2007; Hall et al., 1998). Sensation and intuition are complimentary ways of gathering information of the world (Cloninger, 1996). Sensing is a reality function emphasising details and is aware of the five senses. The sensation type is unlikely to take hints and accept concrete facts or representation of the world. (Cloninger, 1996; Hall et al., 1998).

Intuition is the perception of unconscious processes and unintentional content. The intuitive individual explores aspects beyond facts, feelings and ideas in search of the fundamental nature of reality. (Hall et al., 1998). The intuitive individual is extraordinary in grasping the bigger picture, although they are often unable to express exactly why they understand. Intuition are perceived to be intangible, although laboratory studies on cognition reported intuition as a process that enables people to make correct presumptions on tasks without being able to identify the correct answers in words. Jung suggested that intuitive people are capable of knowing what other people experience, almost like mind readers. (Cloninger, 1996). The sensation-intuition dimension develops through adulthood. Ultimately, an adult should develop both skills, however one-sided the individual may have been when younger. (Cloninger, 1996). The CIMIC Officer should have a strong presence of both, with sensing as the dominant function, to facilitate realistic objectives and processes in the execution of advisory and project roles as discussed in par 2.6. Möller (1993) indicated that an integrated and self-actualised individual would apply all four functions in structuring personal experiences.

2.7.2.4 Different dimensions of personality

One of the personality dimensions and one of the four functions of personality can dominate an individual's conscious functioning. It provides a framework for the taxonomy of eight personality types. Jung identified three major dimensions:

introversion versus extroversion, thinking versus feeling and sensation versus intuition. To be able to identify psychological types, it is essential to determine whether a person is oriented primarily towards the inner world (introversion) or towards external reality (extroversion). Jung referred to extroversion and introversion as the fundamental personality type. He fully recognised the degrees of superiority, depending on the extent to which a personality dimension dominate consciousness. The fundamental personality dimension is combined with the four functions in eight different ways. (Cloninger, 1996; Hall et al., 1998).

- Extrovert thinking. This dimension emphasise interpretation and understanding of facts about the external world, rational rules and intellectual conclusions. These individuals repress feelings and demand objectivity, and may be morally rigid and intolerant. (Ewen, 1988). Other individuals are likely to perceive these individuals as cold and distant (Cloninger, 1996).
- Extrovert feeling. These individuals are dominated by the outer world. Thinking is reserved, while sensation and intuition are supplementary in providing contact with the world. These individuals are concerned with human relationships and make friends easily. (Cloninger, 1996). They appear sensitive towards the emotional dynamics of social situations. Others view these intense individuals as lively and highly sociable. (Crowne, 2007; Ewen, 1988). These individuals accentuate judgement that conforms to external values, are generally conservative, popular and adjust easily to the environment.
- Extrovert sensation. These individuals are realistic, unimaginative, sensual, pleasure seeking and observe the external world in the way as it actually is (Ewen, 1988). They are accustomed to sensation and are admired by other individuals because they attend to people and their well-

- being (Crowne, 2007). They emphasise the object that activates the event with facts and details, and sometimes with pleasure seeking behaviour. (Cloninger, 1996).
- Extrovert intuition. These individuals continuously seek new possibilities in the external world. They are in need of superior judgement and are unable to persevere in a profession or activity. (Ewen, 1988). They tend to jump from one new idea to another and make decisions without much conscious and deliberated thought. In harmony with the unconscious their decisions are often excellent. They are perceived by other individuals as creative visionaries and do not demonstrate much concern for others. (Crowne, 2007).
 - Introvert thinking. These individuals emphasise interpreting and understanding subjective ideas (Ewen, 1988). They are rational and impractical individuals preoccupied with abstractions. They are aloof and are interested in ideas rather than facts. (Cloninger, 1996).
 - Introvert feeling. These individuals are non-conformist who emphasise judgement related to internal subjective conditions and their views often contradict popular opinion (Ewen, 1988). They are self-centred and turned inwards on emotional experiences that are disconcerting and distressed. They are non-communicative, childish and are not much concerned with others. (Crowne, 2007).
 - Introvert sensation. They perceive the external world as banal and emphasise subjective results based on perception. (Ewen, 1988). Subjective experiences of sensory input have significant impact on these individuals. They misinterpret events, because they are not skilled at thinking or in tune with their feelings. They are passive, not readily excited and often portray an artistic side. (Crowne, 2007).

- Introvert intuition. These individuals are concerned with possibilities, rather than with reality (Cloninger, 1996). They seek new possibilities in the subjective psyche (Ewen, 1988), inner dominated and are perceived by others as artistic, eccentric, mystic and dreamers. They are preoccupied with inner experiences and do not monitor the world very well. (Crowne, 2007).

A competent CIMIC Officer's fundamental dimension must be extrovert with a balanced thinking, feeling and sensation, intuition dimensions. The ideal profile for a CIMIC Officer will highlight the importance of a balance between thinking and feeling. The thinking dimension is important for optimal functioning in the rule bound military environment. Feeling is imperative in facilitating participative and collaborative processes as highlighted in the coordination function in par 2.6.

2.7.2.5 The dynamics of personality

Jung stated that the psyche is a partially closed energy system because energy from external sources, like metabolic processes, is supplementary to the system. Psychic energy, as a manifestation of life energy, is the energy in the human psychological system. (Crowne, 2007, Hall et al., 1998). Jung referred to the term libido for life energy. This term is used interchangeably with psychic energy. (Hall et al., 1998).

The psychic energy available to personality is generally applied for two purposes. A quantity of psychic energy is expended on effort that is necessary to maintain inborn and instinctive functions of biological needs. The excess energy over and above what is required for instinctive functions may be focused in cultural and spiritual activities. According to Jung, these actions represent the highly developed purpose of life. As individuals become more efficient in satisfying biological needs, more energy is available to pursue cultural needs. As

individuals grow older, additional energy is available for psychic activities, since the aging body makes fewer demands on energy. (Hall et al., 1998).

The psychodynamics of libido energy are directed by two principles; the principle of equivalence and entropy. The principle of entropy implies that energy flow strives towards an equilibrium. If two activities are unequal, a strong one and a weak one, libido will flow from the strong activity to the weak one. The strong activity might reign superior and subsequently equilibrium is not achieved, although the principle remains. The equilibrium might be affected by external influences. The flow of libido from strong to weak structures causes tension that can result in a disruptive imbalance in personality. Satisfaction and tranquillity is more likely to prevail when the libido is distributed evenly. (Crowne, 2007).

The principle of equivalence states that if energy is removed from one system, it will appear in another system. Psychologically the principle implies that if libido withdraws from conscious activities of the ego, it will reappear elsewhere. It will be invested in the unconscious or in the persona. De-energising of the conscious is accompanied by the energising of the unconscious. Subsequently there is a continuous flow of energy in the personality from one structure to another and from one activity to another. The distribution of energy constitutes the dynamics of personality. (Crowne, 2007; Hall et al., 1998). The ideal state in which the total energy is evenly distributed throughout the various fully developed systems is the self, although the permanent balance of forces in personality can never be established. (Hall et al., 1998). The competent CIMIC Officer must have a balanced self to be able to adjust to the PSO environment and enhance the coordination tasks through facilitation.

2.7.2.6 An application of Jung's theory (Myers & Briggs)

The theory underlying the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) (which will be applied in this research, see par 3.3.3.2) is founded on Jung's theory in believing

that people are born with a predisposition for a particular type. Individuals tend to develop their favoured and secondary functions and leave the non-preferred functions undifferentiated in the early life stages. The neglected processes (as discussed in par 2.7.2.2) eventually enter consciousness in the service of the dominant process during midlife when an individual has greater command over the two functions. (Hall et al., 1998).

The most commonly used test for measuring the Jung functions is the MBTI. Myers' main concern in developing the theory was to "encourage the constructive use of differences" (Bayne, 1995, p.2). The MBTI results and the interpretation of the results help to understand and value the type of personality and suggest possible areas of development in personality (Bayne, 1995). The MBTI identified 16 personality types based on Jung's distinction between extroversion and introversion; thinking and feeling; and sensation and intuition. The test provides scores for introversion-extroversion and the two-paired functions of thinking-feeling and sensation-intuition. The scores indicate which of the four functions are dominant by means of a fourth scale that measures whether the external world is approached by a judging function (thinking or feeling) or a perceiving function (sensation or intuition). The judging-perceiving distinction measures whether an individual's orientation towards the outside world is based on the rational (judging) or irrational (perceiving) function pair. (Hall et al., 1998). Bayne (1995, p.39) associated the following behaviour with judging; "decisiveness, industrious and determined, organised and systematic, comply with deadlines, like to decide have things decided and settled." He associated the following behaviour with perceiving; "curious, flexible and tolerant, leave things open, pull things together well at the last minute, sample many more experiences than can be digested or used" (Bayne, 1995, p.39). Flexibility is an important skill for CIMIC Officers. The importance there of are emphasised in par 2.5.1.1 and 2.5.4. CIMIC Officers need to be dominant on the perceiving scale.

The MBTI specifies the auxiliary function in addition to the basic psyche type and subsequently defines sixteen types rather than only eight as depicted by Jung. The sixteen types are defined in Appendix B. (Cloninger, 1996; Hall et al., 1998).

2.7.2.7 Summary

Jung described the personality dimensions and functions not as the basis for a typology but as potentialities that exist in everyone to varying degrees. All these potentialities must be developed in the quest to achieve self-realisation. (Hall et al., 1998). Crowne (2007) said that it is easy to theorise about psychological type, the challenge remains the measure of the different personality dimensions and to demonstrate that these measures predict behaviour as the theories describe.

The Analytic Personality Theory of Jung emphasises the importance of a high ego power, low anxiety and a balance between the personal and collective unconscious for the CIMIC Officer. Competent CIMIC Officers should be predominantly extroverted with a balance between thinking and feeling, sensing and judging and dominant in perceiving.

2.7.3 Factor Analytic Trait Theory

The core concept of Raymond Cattell's theory is that personality consists out of traits. Cattell's theory is meticulously quantitative and highly dependent on statistical techniques. (Crowne, 2007). The Fifteen Factor Questionnaire (15FQ+) that were applied in this study, are founded on the Factor Analytic Trait Theory of Cattell (Psychometrics Ltd [Psytech] 2002). In order to apply the measurement instrument optimally, it is essential to be familiar with the theoretical foundation of Cattell's Factor Analytic Trait Theory.

2.7.3.1 Factor analysis

Factor analysis is a statistical procedure based on the concept of correlation. The initial concept was introduced by Spearman. He suggested that if one scrutinises any two correlated ability tests, one might expect to find two types of factors contributing to performance of tests. The first factor is a general factor (for example general intelligence or educational level) that is significant for both tests. Secondly, a specific factor (for example visual memory or spatial perception) is exclusive to each test. Factor analysis was developed as a means to determine and identify the existence of general factors. Spearman's technique of isolating a single factor provided the theoretical foundation for the development of multiple factor analysis. (Hall et al., 1998).

Factor analysis is initiated by a number of measurements taken on a large number of subjects (Crowne, 2007). The relationship between two sets of data is measured by a correlation coefficient. These correlations between all pairs of variables are computed to form a correlation matrix. The technique of factor analysis is applied to describe large numbers of variables by identifying a smaller number of factors and to evade the need of duplicating redundant information. (Cloninger, 1996). Factor analysis reduces the correlations by extracting commonalities. Correlations perceived as substantial are referred to as factor loading. The number of factors and the size of the factor loading are dependent on the structure of the original data. (Crowne, 2007).

There are two major factor analytic procedures. The one results in orthogonal factors that are not correlated with each. Cattell favoured the oblique factors that are correlated. Cattell viewed the correlated factors to be more realistic and applicable in the personality domain. He correlated each of the sixty trait ratings to produce a correlation matrix. (Crowne, 2007). Cattell systematically reduced the list of personality traits to a manageable number by applying factor analysis. (McKenna, 2000). He condensed the 4,500 trait names and filtered them by

eliminating those that are synonyms of others. He reduced the traits to 171 traits names. Cattell obtained ratings from individuals familiar with the individual members of the large group. He inter-correlated and factor analysed these ratings to produce a list of thirty-five factors and identified these traits as surface traits. Through a continuous process of factor analysis on different types of data, Cattell defined sixteen factors representing the basic traits of personality. (Crowne, 2007).

2.7.3.2 Nature of personality

Cattell identified two kinds of traits through his empirical procedure. Traits are described as patterns of observations that go together. Cattell used factor analysis to describe individuals' obvious traits, which he called surface traits. Source traits are the deeper hidden patterns of fundamental determinants of personality. (Cloninger, 1996). Pervin and John (2001) said the difference between a surface and a source trait relates to the level at which behaviour is observed. The theoretical foundations of surface and source traits are discussed in the following paragraphs:

- Surface traits. Cattell defined a surface trait as “usually the result of two or more source traits operating simultaneously to cause marked variation” (Cattell, 1950b, p.144). Surface traits can be discovered by means of subjective methods for example asking people which personality characteristics are related. (Pervin & John, 2001). Surface traits comprise patterns of inter-correlated variables. They are descriptive and originate from a number of determinants, likely two or more source traits. The term surface trait indicates that although they appear on the surface to be a trait, there is no substantiation that they are actually a trait in any lasting sense. (Cloninger, 1996; Crowne, 2007).

- Source traits. Cattell defined source traits as “it influences to a slight extent almost every aspect of personality and to a powerful extent certain personality manifestations” (Cattell, 1950b, p.148). Source traits are discovered by means of the statistical procedure of factor analysis. A source trait expresses an association among behaviours that vary to form an independent dimension of personality. (Pervin & John, 2001).

Cattell identified a number of correlation clusters that reappeared repeatedly. He referred to these correlations as a robust pattern with a single source of variance. Cattell searched for robust traits by using factor analysis and when identified he called them source traits. (Cloninger, 1996). Cattell found sixteen source traits. Because these factors he extracted were correlated, he continued his research on second order factors and identified eight. Cattell identified the first sixteen factors as the structure of personality. He distinguished between constitutional source traits that were genetic in origin and environmental-mould traits, which are source traits that are linked to environmental influences. (Crowne, 2007).

2.7.3.3 Structure of personality

It is customary in personality theory to differentiate various types of traits (Cloninger, 1996). Within the framework of the Factor Analytic Trait Theory, ability, temperament and dynamic traits encompass the key stable elements of personality (Pervin & John, 2001). These traits are discussed in the following paragraphs.

- Ability traits. Cattell (1950a, p.35) defined ability traits as “how well the person makes his way to accepted goals”. Pervin and John (2001) viewed it as the skills and abilities that allow the individual to function effectively. Cattell distinguished two types of intelligence; fluid and crystallised intelligence. Fluid intelligence is the inborn ability to learn. It is fluid

because it can be articulated in different kinds of learning, depending on the educational opportunities of the individual. (Cloninger, 1996; Crowne, 2007). Cattell succeeded in measuring fluid intelligence without confounding effects of education (Cloninger, 1996). Crystallised intelligence represents the effect of past application of fluid intelligence, thus focussing on what has been learned (Cloninger, 1996; Crowne, 2007).

- Temperament traits. Cattell (1950a, p.35) defined temperament traits as “by exclusion as those traits which are unaffected by incentive or complexity”. These traits are inherited source traits and encompass the emotional life of a person and the stylistic quality of behaviour (Cloninger, 1996; Pervin & John, 2001). Temperament traits determine how quick, full of energy, emotionally responsive versus slow, energy-less and emotionless individuals are (Crowne, 2007).
- Dynamic traits. Cattell (1950a, p 35) defined dynamic traits as “...included basic drives or ergs on the one hand, and acquired interest, such as attitude, sentiments, complexes, superego and ego formations”. Dynamic traits relate to striving and motivational life of individuals. These traits provide the energy and direction to action. Cattell recognised that some motivators are inherent and others are learned. (Cloninger, 1996; Pervin & John, 2001). Attitudes are dynamic surface traits expressing temperament to respond to individuals or objects. Attitudes originate from a more basic level environment mould source trait that Cattell identified as sentiments. (Crowne, 2007).

Sentiments are “major acquired dynamic trait structures which cause their possessors to pay attention to certain objects or classes of object, and to feel and react in a certain way with regard to them” (Cattell, 1950a, p.161).

Sentiments determine patterns of behaviour that are articulated in attitudes and linked to causal ergs (Pervin & John, 2001).

Ergs are inherent biological drives that provide basic motivational power for behaviour. They determine individuals' perception of objects, emotional response to them and are instrumental in individuals' behaviour to achieve. (Cloninger, 1996; Crowne, 2007; Pervin & John, 2001).

2.7.3.4 Sources of data

According to Cattell, there are three sources of data; life record data (L-data); questionnaire data (Q-data) and objective test data (T-data):

- L-data. This data relates to behaviour in actual everyday situations. The data may reflect actual counts of behaviour or ratings made based on observations. (Pervin & John, 2001).
- Q-data. This data includes self-report data or responses to questionnaires (Pervin & John, 2001). Crowne (2007) referred to Q-data as responses to personality questionnaires designed to measure all behaviours of personality attributes, attitudes and interests.
- T-data. It includes data that involve behavioural measurement situations in which the subject is unaware of the relationship between the response and the personality characteristic being measured (Pervin & John, 2001). T-data is gathered from test that does not make evident what is being measured. Cattell referred to T-data as objective data. (Crowne, 2007).

According to Cattell, if multivariate factor analysis research is able to identify the basic structures of personality, subsequently the same factors and traits should be obtained from the three kinds of data (Pervin & John, 2001). Cattell initially

analysed L-data and found fifteen factors that he perceived to account for most of personality. Subsequently he determined if compatible factors could be found in Q-data. The end state of his research is a questionnaire known as the Sixteen Personality Factor Questionnaire (16PF). (Pervin & John, 2001).

In Appendix C the top half of the table summarises the sixteen traits. The traits labelled Q1-Q4 are the ones unique to Q data. The first twelve are common L and Q. date. In his subsequent research, Cattell identified an additional seven source factors. (Listed in bottom half of appendix C). Four of these new factors are common to L and Q data and they are designated D, J, K and P to fill the missing alphabetic gaps on the original sixteen list. The remaining three; Q5, Q6 and Q7 emerged only from Q data. (Hall et al., 1998).

The Fifteen Factor Questionnaire (15FQ+), as applied in this study, was developed as an alternative measurement instrument to the 16PF. The test measures 15 of the core personality factors of Cattell. (Psytech, 2002). The value of the 15FQ+ for this study is founded on its ability to indicate primary and secondary personality traits that correlates with the positive and negative indicators of the CIMIC Officer's competency model. Detail on the application of the instrument in this study is discussed in par 3.3.3.1.

2.7.4 Abnormal behaviour

The description of a specific case of abnormal behaviour must be substantiated by methodical observations. The methodical observations frequently aligned with psychological tests and the individual's history provides the raw material that serves as a basis for psycho diagnosis. Psycho diagnosis is the endeavour to describe, assess, and systematically draw inferences with regard to an individual's psychological disorder. (Sue, Sue & Sue, 2000). Normal and abnormal behaviour can be measured because some disorders are clearly conceived of in terms of abnormal behaviour, such as depression and personality

disorders. The measurement of abnormal behaviour is significant to work related behaviours. (Furnham, 1997). The relevance for abnormal behaviour for this study has a specific focus to ensure that members with abnormal behaviour and personality disorders are not selected for training as CIMIC Officers.

2.7.4.1 Defining personality disorders

Personality disorders are defined in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders Fourth Edition (DSM-IV) as “an enduring pattern of inner experience and behaviour that deviates markedly from the expectations of the individual’s culture, is pervasive and inflexible, has an onset in adolescence or early adulthood, is stable over time, and leads to distress or impairment.” (American Psychiatric Association [APA], 1994, p.629). “In the simplest terms, personality would be conceived as representing the more or less distinctive style of adaptive functioning that an organism of a particular species exhibits as it relates to its typical range of environments. Personality disorders would represent particular styles of maladaptive functioning that can be traced to deficiencies, imbalances, or conflicts in species capacity to relate to the environment it faces.” (Millon, 1996, p.70).

The multi-axial system of the DSM-IV sets the framework for an all-inclusive and methodical assessment. It provides a standardised format for describing, reporting and capturing of clinical information. (APA, 1994). Everly (1995) viewed personality from a systems point of view and said that personality disorders (Axis II) and even more psychiatric disorders (depression) (Axis I) may be viewed as malfunction in the core personality’s ability to effectively adjust to society. Sue et al. (2000) described personality disorders as behaviour that is not aligned with norms and that harms the applicable individual or other individuals. As with the definition of personality, the explanations of abnormal behaviour do diverge due to psychologists’ theoretical orientation. Conceptual definitions serve as a broad outline underpinned on theoretical principles or

standards for assessing normal and abnormal functioning. Abnormal behaviour is in essence deviations from what is perceived as normal or most common in a socio-cultural context. Normality and abnormality may be judged by causal criteria for example statistical average, a notion of ideal mental health, or a notion within a universal or specific culture. (Sue et al., 2000).

Millon's research focussed on abnormal behaviours in the development of personality disorders. The Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory Third Edition (MCMI-III) will be used in this research to measure the presence of abnormal behaviour (see par 3.3.3.3). To understand the application of the measurement instrument on CIMIC Officers, it is essential to discuss the underlying theoretical concepts of Millon's theory.

2.7.4.2 Millon's Biosocial learning theory of abnormal behaviour

Millon has hypothesised how personality traits may relate to one another, what the etiology of a specific personality style may be and even how adaptive potential of the personality style may fit into the evolutionary theory. His research resulted in the Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory (MCMI). This test is not specifically linked to any of the traditional schools of psychology and can be applied by professionals with different point of views. (Choca, 2004). Everly (1995) said that Millon approached his research firstly from a theoretical framework and subsequently from an evolutionary perspective to ensure alignment with established systems in a biologic framework.

"Etiology in psychopathology may be viewed as a developmental process in which intra-organismic and environmental forces display not only a reciprocity and circularity of influence but an orderly and sequential continuity throughout the life of the individual." (Millon, 1973, p. 441). Millon (1996) indicated that the major argument of the biosocial theory is that personality and abnormal behaviour develop because of the interaction of organismic and environmental

forces. Individuals with parallel biological potentials appear with diverse personalities and psychiatric disorders based on their different experiences. “According to the theory, biological factors can shape, facilitate or, limit the nature of the individual’s experiences and learning in a number of ways.” (Millon, 1996, p.66). Millon (1996) indicated that the interaction between biological and psychological factors is unidirectional. This implies that biological determinants constantly have an impact on the course of learning experiences.

Millon’s Biosocial Learning Theory analyses personality in the context of three polarities. Central to this theory is the concept of reinforcement, applied within the framework of three functional polarities:

- Pleasure versus Pain. Motivations are aimed in one of two directions, representing potential types of reinforcement the individual may seek, either positive reinforcement versus negative reinforcement. (Choca, 2004; Millon, 1996).
- Self versus Other. Representing the potential sources within the environment that stands out and from which the individual may seek reinforcement (Choca, 2004; Millon, 1996).
- Active versus Passive. Representing the possible influential processes implemented to gain positive effects by shaping surrounding events and avoid negative consequences; or whether behaviour is largely reactive to those events (Choca, 2004; Millon, 1996).

Within the framework of the three functional polarities, Millon defined personality as coping patterns that were aligned with the detail to each of the personality disorders in the DSM-III (Millon, 1973). Millon (1973, p. 448) defined these coping strategies as “...complex forms of instrumental behaviour, that is, ways of achieving positive reinforcements and avoiding negative reinforcements.” Millon

proposed a system for structuring existing personality disorders into an articulate unit. In his original model, Millon initially examined whether an individual is strongly inclined to form strong relationships with others. The model distinguishes between individuals who are loners by intent, having no interest in interpersonal relationships (schizoids), and those individuals who isolate themselves as a protective mechanism against the likelihood of rejection (avoidants). The model further scrutinises the type of relationship shaped in terms of the postulation of the individual's construct about the self and other individuals in the environment. (Choca, 2004). Millon defined eight basic coping patterns and three severe variants by combining the nature (positive or pleasure versus negative or pain), the source (self versus other), and the instrumental behaviour (active versus passive) engaged to achieve various reinforcements (Millon, 1996).

2.7.4.2.1 Clinical Prototypal Domains of Personality

From the three polarity structures, Millon made further deduction into functional (F) and structural (S) domains of personality, each of which is characterised in the individual personality styles or disorders. This results in eight dimensions: expressive acts (F), interpersonal conduct (F), cognitive style (F), self-image (S), object representations (S), regulatory mechanisms (S), morphologic organisation (S) and mood/temperament (S). (Grossman & Rio, 2005). Millon's eight clinical prototypal domains (see Appendix D) are linked to personality profiles as well as to personality disorders.

2.7.4.2.2 Evolutionary theory

Millon described psychosynergy as the process of integrating the field of clinical psychology into the available knowledge for the individual to mature. Utilising the theory of evolution, Millon identified four ecological principles: aims of existence, modes of adaptation, strategies of replication, and processes of abstraction.

Millon derived the four ecological principles into four polarities of which three were applied to derive the MCMI-III personalities. (Choca, 2004; Millon, 1996). Evolutionary and ecological principles are applied in the four spheres of (a) existence, the unanticipated alteration of random or less structured states into possessing diverse structures of greater organisation; (b) adaptation, homeostatic processes engaged in to maintain survival in open ecological systems; (c) replicated, relates to the reproductive approach that make best use of the diversification and selection of ecologically efficient attributes; and (d) abstraction that evolves the appearance of competencies that promote preventative planning and logical decision making. (Millon, 1996).

The aim of the existence principle allows an individual to distinguish between life enhancement and life preservation. The interaction between the two aims resulted in the pleasure and pain polarity. The theory states that the same personality styles that seek enjoyment as a way of enhancing life may in other cases place a constraint at the risk of placing life in jeopardy. In contrast, other personalities accentuate the avoidance of pain and risk at the expense of constricting their survival. (Choca, 2004)

Millon's second principle related to two modes of adaptation. The second polarity of active versus passive comprise of a process that identify both the modification and accommodation of the environment. Millon indicated that individuals have a tendency towards either an active or passive approach. The active model of adaptation involves changing unfavourable aspects of the environment and accepting aspects that cannot be changed. (Choca, 2004).

The third principle, strategies of replication, relates to whether individuals prefer the promotion of the individuals or nurturance of other individuals. This self and other polarity compares the drive towards self-actualisation against the need to have regard for other individuals. Within this framework, personalities that accentuate the self (narcissistic and antisocial) are confident and forceful. In

contrasts the personalities accentuating other (the dependant and histrionic) are dependent on other individuals for satisfying their needs. (Choca, 2004).

The process of abstraction as the last of the ecological principles, address the capacity to symbolise the world. Millon distinguished between thinking and feeling as diverse modes of understanding. This polarity is not significant in the personality prototype used for the MCMI, although it was applied in the development of the Millon Index of Personality Styles. (Choca, 2004).

The CIMIC Officer must maintain a balance between the pleasure and pain polarities to cope with the various stressors in PSO (see par 2.4.9). A balance between the self and other polarities will enhance coordination and ensure that the CIMIC Officer achieves organisational goals. The CIMIC Officer must apply an active approach towards adaptation to adjust effectively to the PSO environment.

2.7.4.3 Personality disorders

Personality disorders are discussed within the framework of the DSM-IV that categorise disorders based on descriptive similarities. Personality disorders are grouped in three clusters. Cluster A comprises of individuals that appear odd and eccentric and includes paranoid, schizoid and schizotypal personality disorders. (APA, 1994).

- Paranoid personality disorder. The DSM-IV (APA, 1994, p. 629) defined paranoid personality disorder as “a pattern of distrust and suspiciousness such that other’ motives are interpreted as malevolent”. These individuals demonstrate unjustifiable suspiciousness, hypersensitivity and a disinclination to trust other individuals. These individuals may express limited affect, be inclined to be ridged and preoccupied with unsubstantiated beliefs that originate from their suspicions and sensitivity.

They view others' motives as malicious, continuously question their loyalty or credibility and constantly bear grudges. Their beliefs are tremendously opposed to change. (Sue et al., 2000).

- Schizoid personality disorder. The DSM-IV (APA, 1994, p. 629) defined schizoid personality disorder as “a pattern of detachment from social relationships and a restricted range of emotional expressions.” These individuals are characterised by social seclusion, emotional aloofness and lack of interest in others. These people are frequently described as being isolated and reserved and have a long history of impairment of social functioning. These clients' relationships in the workplace are superficial and frequently uncomfortable. (Sue et al., 2000).
- Schizotypal personality disorder. The DSM-IV (APA, 1994, p. 629) defined schizotypal personality disorder as “a pattern of acute discomfort in close relationships, cognitive or perceptual distortions, and eccentricities of behaviour.” These individuals have poor interpersonal relationships and portray irregular thoughts and behaviours. Some of these individuals believe they possess magical thinking abilities or special powers and some experience recurring illusions. Individuals with this disorder are characterised by social isolation, hypersensitivity and inappropriate emotions. (Sue et al., 2000).

Cluster B comprises of individuals who appear dramatic, emotional or erratic and includes antisocial, borderline, histrionic and narcissistic personality disorders. (APA, 1994).

- Antisocial personality disorder. The DSM-IV (APA, 1994, p. 629) defined antisocial personality disorder as “a pattern of disregard for, and violation of, the rights of others.” These individuals portray chronic antisocial behavioural patterns; failure to abide to social and legal codes, lack of

anxiety and culpability, and negligent behaviour. Individuals with this disorder show little remorse for misconduct, which includes deceitfulness. The relationships with other individuals are superficial and involve little loyalty. (Sue et al., 2000).

- Borderline personality disorder. The DSM-IV (APA, 1994, p. 629) defined borderline personality disorder as “a pattern of instability in interpersonal relationships, self image, and affects, and marked impulsivity.” This disorder is characterised by severe fluctuation in mood, self-image and interpersonal interaction. Individuals with this disorder are impulsive, experience persistent feelings of worthlessness, and shape unstable and powerful interpersonal relationships. The essence of this disorder is captured in the unpredictability of behaviour. (Sue et al., 2000).
- Histrionic personality disorder. The DSM-IV (APA, 1994, p. 629) defined histrionic personality disorder as “a pattern of excessive emotionality and attention seeking.” These individuals portray self-dramatization, exaggerated expression of emotions, and attention seeking behaviours. They are egocentric although they appear to be superficially affectionate and charming. It is important to note that individuals from different cultures differ in the degree to which they display their emotions, but the histrionic person exceeds these cultural norms. (Sue et al., 2000).
- Narcissistic personality disorder. The DSM-IV (APA, 1994, p. 629) defined narcissistic personality disorder as “a pattern of grandiosity, need for admiration and lack of empathy.” The narcissistic individual portrays clinical characteristics of inflated sense of self-importance, a manipulative attitude, and a lack of understanding. Individuals with this disorder require continuous attention and admiration and have extreme difficulty in accepting criticism. These individuals are egocentric and in conversation they primarily talk about themselves, show a lack of interest in others and

continuously overrate their talents and significance. Individuals diagnosed with this disorder show reflective reaction; idealisation relating to limitless success, sense of entitlement; sense of self-importance and subsequently expect to reign superior in all relationships. (Sue et al., 2000)

Cluster C comprise of individuals who appear anxious and fearful. This cluster includes the avoidant, dependant and obsessive-compulsive personality disorders. (APA, 1994).

- Avoidant personality disorder. The DSM-IV (APA, 1994, p. 629) defined avoidant personality disorder as “a pattern of social inhibition, feelings of inadequacy, and hypersensitivity to negative evaluation.” These individuals are reluctant to enter into social relationships because of their fear of rejection and embarrassment. They transmit low self-esteem and avoid social relationships without a guarantee of trusted acceptance by other, although they fear social contacts, they yearn for affection and an active social life. These individuals frequently feel depressed, anxious, annoyed with themselves, inferior and inadequate. (Sue et al., 2000).
- Dependant personality disorder. The DSM-IV (APA, 1994, p. 629) defined dependant personality disorder as “a pattern of submissive and clinging behaviour related to an excessive need to be taken care of.” These individuals depend on others and are reluctant to assume responsibility. They portray low self-confidence and they subordinate their need towards individuals they can depend on. Dependant personalities portray two deeply embedded assumptions that affect their thoughts, perceptions and behaviours. Firstly, they perceive themselves as inherently inadequate and incapable of coping. Secondly, they focus their attention to find someone to take care of them. Depression, defencelessness and suppressed anger are often portrayed in individuals with dependant personality disorder. (Sue et al., 2000).

- Obsessive-Compulsive personality disorder. The DSM-IV (APA, 1994, p.629) defined obsessive-compulsive personality disorder as “a pattern of preoccupation with orderliness, perfectionism, and control.” These individuals are characterised by an inclination to control interpersonally, commitment to details and inflexibility. These traits are also found in normal people, but unlike normal people, these individuals with obsessive-compulsive personality disorder shows marked impairment in work-related or societal functioning. (Sue et al., 2000).

2.7.4.4 Summary

Shapiro, cited in Kets de Vries and Miller (1986, p.266) said “in dealing with individuals one has to be aware that all individuals have specific styles, ways of thinking and perceiving, ways of experiencing emotion, modes of subjective experiences in general, and modes of activity that are associated with various pathologies”. Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) stated there is a relation between individual pathology and organisational pathology that links the style to poor performance. It implies that personality of senior leadership can influence strategy, structure and organisational culture.

Officers, with a histrionic and narcissistic personality style, are not suitable to be selected as CIMIC Officers. Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) confirmed that effective coordination is not prevented by the military bureaucratic style or centralised hierarchical power structures. It is prevented by officers with personality disorders that reflect traits of the need to dominate others, the need to display ability through major projects and the need to impress with dramatic action. Narcissistic personality disorder explains a lot of counterproductive behaviour at work. People with a narcissistic people experience more anger, more frequently and engage more in counterproductive work behaviour. Personality factors seem to be effective predictors of counter productive work

behaviour under difficult and stressful work circumstances, which is typical of the peace support operational environment. (Furnham & Taylor, 2004). Brockner, as cited by Furnham (1997), noted that compared to workers with low self-esteem, those with high self-esteem are; more apt to work harder in response to negative feedback, less likely to imitate the managerial style of their supervisors and less likely to perform differentially as a function of supportiveness. Van Dyk (1998) highlighted that a peacekeeper should have adequate levels of self-esteem to increase adjustment within the unknown environment. The challenge remains to differentiate during selection between officers with a balanced personality and those with personality disorder (Furnham, 1997). Individuals who portray characteristics of dramatic, emotional or erratic behaviour as defined in DSM-IV must not be considered for selection as CIMIC Officers. These personality disorders are defined in cluster B in par 2.7.4.3 and include antisocial, borderline, histrionic and narcissistic personality disorders.

Avoidant personalities relates to interpersonal rejection and depreciation that results in avoiding close relationships and mistrust. Individuals with schizoid personalities reflect cognitive and emotional shortfalls that cause them to be unconcerned about their social seclusion. Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) confirmed that detached style would culminate in problems with coordination, cooperation, internal rivalry and indecisive strategy. The core concept of CIMIC evolves around the concept of coordination and cooperation and subsequently individuals with a detached style must not be selected as CIMIC Officers.

Individuals with a paranoid personality disorder will have difficulty to adjust to the ever-changing dynamic peace support environment (see par 2.4) since their beliefs are opposing change (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1986). These individuals are ridged and will experience difficulty to facilitate participative and collaborative process as defined in par 2.6 in the coordination role of the CIMIC Officer. Individuals with dependant personality disorder often portray symptoms of depression. Van Dyk (1998) highlighted that individuals with a depressive

tendency could experience difficulty to adjust and cope to the PSO environment stressors in par 2.4.9.1. CIMIC Officers should not portray behaviour linked to obsessive-compulsive personality disorder. Individuals with this disorder are inflexible and obsessed with control. The military view on civil military coordination (par 2.5.4) highlights the importance of flexibility to enhance effective coordination.

2.7.5 Type behaviour

A very relevant debate in peacekeeping psychology evolves around the selection of soldiers with type A or B behavioural pattern. Van Wyk (1998) indicated that research on the type A behavioural pattern has demonstrated that type A individuals are more aggressive, more neurotic, more extrovert and more anxious. These individuals have a greater need for control than type B. Many studies have shown that type A's have feelings of insecurity and self-doubt and feel depressed or anxious about their self worth (Furnham, 1997). These behaviours imply that these individuals are not suitable for deployment in peacekeeping missions (Van Dyk, 1998). Van Wyk's (1998) research indicated that type A behaviour must be conceptualised as behavioural pattern comprising of different components rather than a personality type. The characteristics of type A behaviour include: (a) an aggressive competitive drive, (b) fascination with self imposed time limits and consciousness of extreme time urgency, (c) an extremely powerful desire for acknowledgment of performance, (d) an obsessive drive towards self chosen, (e) inadequately defined objectives, (f) feelings of guilt especially when trying to attempt to relax for a few hours, (g) scheduling of additional responsibilities in less time and subsequently making insufficient allowance for unforeseen events, (h) expressing constant impatience towards other individuals with the rate at which most events take place, (i) accentuate words in normal speech that reflects underlying aggression, hostility and impatience, (j) portray hostile and destructive feelings to all type A subjects by

expressing certain characteristic gestures such as clenching fists, or banging a hand on the table (Furnham, 1997; Van Wyk, 1998).

According to Roseman and Freidman, cited in Furnham (1997), the type B individual behaviour encompasses: (a) behaviour free of all the habits and portraying none of the traits of the type A personality, (b) no suffer from time urgency and intolerance, (c) express no need to impress others with achievements or accomplishments unless required by the situation, (d) participate to find relaxation and fun and do not strive towards achievement at all cost, (e) work without agitation and unwind without guilt.

According to Furnham (1997), type A compared to type B, rate themselves appreciably higher on negative traits (complaining, arrogant, cruel, dominant, selfish and unkind) and lower on positive traits (patient, reasonable, tolerant, and unselfish). He further argues that type A behaviours are related with a inclination to process information about the self in a manner to reinforce self-esteem. The research of Hooker confirmed that type A' tend to be aggressive and interpersonally hostile and subsequently these individuals are difficult to handle, unpredictable and touchy. (Furnham, 1997).

Although the type A/type B characteristics present many clues as to stress prone personality characteristics, many people believe the theory is not adequate to explain why some people suffer ill health because of high stress levels. The research of Howard, cited by Furnham (1997), indicated whether a particular job is characterised as stressful depends on whether the individual is type A or B. Intrinsic job satisfaction has the probability to moderate the effects. Furnham (1997) stated that type A individuals normally fit unambiguous environments and find ambiguous environments stressful, while the opposite is applicable for type B individuals. The research of Vandevveer and Menefee (2006) indicated that since an individual is a workaholic, perform task by rushing around a lot and is impatient or competitive, does not mean the individual is feeling the negative

effects of stress. They view the quick reaction to anger, the constant antagonistic viewpoint, and the sceptical mistrust of other individuals as the harmful components.

The present requirement for deployment in peace support operations dictates that it is impractical to deploy only individuals portraying type B characteristics. The research of Kobasa, cited in Furnham (1997) provides an alternative approach. Kobasa's theory stated that of all the individuals who are exposed to significant work stress, those scoring high in hardiness, will be considerably less likely to experience mental or physical illness than those individuals who are deficient in hardiness and portray isolation, helplessness and threat in face of change. (Furnham, 1997). "The key attributes of hardiness are defined as a cognitive or attributive style that expresses commitment, control and challenge" (Furnham, 1997, p.176). These individuals express a high internal locus of control. They perceive stressors as potential opportunities for change. Challenges enable hardy individuals to see undesirable events in terms of possibility rather than threat. The type A literature focussed on individuals prone to stress; the hardiness concept focus on individuals who cope well with stress. A problem with the type A literature is that the focus is more on the causes of stress rather than how people cope with it. (Furnham, 1997).

It is impractical to deploy only CIMIC Officers with a type A personality. This challenge highlights the importance of stress management programmes (see par 2.4.9.5) to equipped CIMIC Officers with the skills to adjust and cope with peace support stressors.

2.8 Culture

Jung's type theory highlighted the importance of understanding the underlying concepts of culture (see par 2.7.2.1). Since the CIMIC Officer functions in a multi-cultural environment (see par 2.4.8), it is imperative to understand the dynamics of culture in PSO. Culture is discussed within the framework of two concepts in peace support operations. The first concept relates to the multinational environment. The military deploy diverse components from various national cultures in support of the mission. It comprises of homogeneous formed units to individual specialist deployments. These groups and individuals have a unique national culture as well as a unique military culture that reflects the organisational culture. The various military cultures are guided by mission codes of conduct stipulating accepted behaviour. The second concept relates to the differences in organisational cultures of the military and humanitarian components. The humanitarian organisations have similar challenges than the military on the integration of multiple national cultures. Duffy (2000) highlighted the importance of cultural interaction and understanding between the military and humanitarian components (see par 2.5.3 and 2.5.4). She confirmed this critical phenomenon received moderate attention in cultural research. Within the framework of PSO Duffy (2000, p.144).said: "attention to culture is essential in shaping theories of conflict and developing methods for its resolution." To address these cultural complexities the underlying definitions and concepts within the broad term of culture are discussed. A definition for this study is defined where after the impact of organisational and multicultural aspects on peace support operations is analysed. In summary, the impact of culture on the CIMIC Officer is discussed.

2.8.1 Culture and organisation culture

National culture has its origin and is shaped in history, political processes, media and educational systems. Understanding national culture is imperative for enhanced coordination within and between the humanitarian and military components. (Brooks, 2006). Alvesson (2002) perceived organisational culture as an umbrella concept for a way of thinking that focuses on culture and symbolic phenomenon.

2.8.1.1 Defining culture

Stapley (1996) referred to research of Kroeber and Kluckhorn, who listed 164 definitions for culture. It highlights the complexity in defining a universally accepted definition for culture. Chiu and Hong (2006) emphasised that culture, as collective phenomenon cannot be defined in a single definition. The theory of culture originates in anthropology. Within the framework of anthropology, distinction is made between culture as a social phenomenon and a conceptually separate phenomenon. The importance for this study is on the social phenomenon. As a social phenomena, culture is viewed as a product of a social cultural systems that exist as behaviour or products of behaviour. (Stapley, 1996). Culture is observed in a material or nonmaterial way. Nonmaterial culture is less tangible than material culture but it has a strong presence in social behaviour. (Chiu & Hong, 2006; Andersen & Taylor, 2006). This study focuses on nonmaterial aspects of culture as shared rules of the social environment that includes the norms, laws, customs and beliefs of a group of people. The definition for this study encompasses the behavioural aspects of culture. Culture is defined in this study as a complex system consisting of a set of shared meanings and behaviour, which provides a common frame of reference for a given group (Chiu & Hong, 2006; Leontiev, 2006), include ways of thinking (Leontiev, 2006), coordination of activities and behaviour (Andersen & Taylor, 2006; Chiu & Hong, 2006), adapting to the external environment (Andersen &

Taylor, 2006) and manifests through social activities of a given group (Chiu & Hong, 2006).

2.8.1.2 Defining organisational culture

As within the framework of culture, there are various definitions for organisational culture. Brooks (2006, p.246) cited the early definitions by Jacques in 1952 as “the customary and traditional way of thinking and doing things which is shared and which new members learn”. Vandev eer and Menefee (2006, p.189) defined organisational culture as “individuals in an organisation having a common perception and sharing of core values. In essence, it is the basic rules or guidelines to give the group members a common basis for understanding and interaction with each other.” The emphasis for the CIMIC Officer on organisational culture relates to behaviour. The definition for this study is: organisational culture refers to an association of individuals whose behaviour encompass; symbolism, rituals, interpretation of events, shared rules, shared meanings, shared orientations (Alvesson, 2002; Stapley, 1996); attitude towards innovation and creativity, attitude towards risk taking and aggressiveness, formalization of rules and regulations, people orientation, team orientation, attitude towards gender minorities, communication language and ethical standards (Vandev eer & Menefee, 2006).

2.8.1.3 Defining organisational climate

Furnham (1997) and Sopow (2006) suggested it might be easier to change the organisational climate, rather than organisational culture. The definitions of organisational climate address the influence of people in the organisation. Forehand and Von Gilmer, cited in Furnham (1997, p.580), defined organisational climate as “the set of characteristics that describes an organisation and distinguishes the organisation from other organisations, are relatively enduring over time and influence the behaviour of the people in the

organisation.” Organisational climate encompass the rules and regulations, communication models, employee incentives and other key factors that relate to emotional and knowledge requirements of the employees. (Sopow, 2006).

The CIMIC Officer should focus on behaviour when encountering organisational cultural challenges. The CIMIC Officer must understand the complexities of organisational culture. He cannot change organisational culture and should focus on organisational climate. Addressing individual behaviour in the framework of organisational climate can result in effective coordination communication mechanisms.

2.8.2 Culture and peacekeeping

The understanding of culture and organisational culture/climate plays a critical role in facilitating and enhancing coordination within and between humanitarian and military components. To highlight the importance for the CIMIC Officer to understand culture in PSO, multicultural peacekeeping and the military and humanitarian organisational cultures are discussed in the following paragraphs.

2.8.2.1 Multicultural peacekeeping

Duffy (2000, p.144) defined the cultural framework for peacekeeping as “everyone involved in a peacekeeping operation, from those planning the mission, to the military and civilian peacekeepers deployed to carry it out, to the local population in whose surroundings it is carried out.” Duffy (2000) emphasised the importance of understanding cultural awareness in a multicultural peace support environment. It includes awareness of cultural differences and perspectives towards the conflict, verbal and non-verbal language and cultural rituals and practices.

Duffy (2000, p.146) identified the multiple role players in peace support operations as “the fusion of cultures”. Within the peacekeeping environment, the emphasis is on multinational activities involving high levels of cross-cultural contact. Within the military component, cultural differences manifest through interaction, misunderstanding, prejudice, unknown offensive behaviour and national contingent command and control challenges. Cognitive style may vary in different cultures. It is essential to develop a global mindset when considering issues from a broader approach, rather than a traditional ethnocentric approach. (Brooks, 2006; Duffy, 2000). Adler’s research, cited in Brooks (2006), confirmed a high level of selective perceptions between various cultures and countries, especially where the individual has an ethnocentric view. Ethnocentrism is the habit of seeing things only from the point of view of ones own group. This view normally results in stereotyping that reflects on nationality. Stereotyping is “attributing a specific trait to a person based on the characteristics of the group to which a person belongs” (Vandever & Menefee, 2006, p.72). An ethnocentric perspective prevents individuals from understanding the world as others experience it. It leads to bias conclusions about the worth of diverse cultures. This perspective influences the relationship between managers and employees of different nationalities when interacting in the work environment. (Andersen & Taylor, 2006; Brooks, 2006). Individuals with limited exposure to other cultures tend to have an ethnocentric view of other cultures (Brooks, 2006).

A concept opposing ethnocentrism is multiculturalism. Multiculturalism is a concept that reflects a specific way of thinking that recognises diverse cultural patterns. (Andersen & Taylor, 2006). Anderson and Taylor (2006) views multicultural education as a method to breach the gap between ethnocentrism and multiculturalism. The literature of Brummett, Wade, Ponterro, Thombs and Lewis (2007) reflected that individuals with a multicultural approach functions with sensitivity and competence in a multicultural environment. Ponteroto, Mendelsohn and Belizaire, cited in Brummett et al. (2007, p.73) defined an individual with a multi-cultural approach as individuals who “embraces diversity in

personal life; makes active attempts to learn about other cultures and interact with culturally different people; effectively negotiates and copes within a multiple cultural context; possesses the ability to live and work effectively among different groups and types of people; understands biases inherent in his own worldview and actively learns about alternative worldviews; and is a social activist, empowered to speak out against all forms of social injustice.” Brummett et al., (2007) cited the research of Ramirez who emphasised that individuals with a multi-cultural approach have strong leadership skills, fight for social justice, and actively seek opportunities to gain exposure to diverse cultures.

Another challenge in multi-cultural PSO is the mode of communication. Although the official working language is normally English, miscommunications frequently occurred because a large component of the participants came from francophone countries. Leeds (2001) identified a lack of linguistic compatibility as one of the main obstacles in interoperability in PSO. Hall (2005, p.16) defined communication as “the generation of meaning.” Hall (2005) assumed that communication is interdependent and situational in all cultures. It implies the meaning is influenced to a certain extent by the situation. He highlighted the importance of studying inter-cultural communication. The increase in multicultural knowledge and the understanding of different perspectives should result in improved relationships and a reduction in misunderstanding.

In defining a psychological profile for a CIMIC Officer it is significant that this research reflects that an individual with a universal diverse orientation appear likely to have greater levels of psychological hardness and psychological interpersonal functioning including interpersonal skills, positive social attitudes and high self-esteem. Within the framework of multicultural PSO, it is feasible that a multicultural approach will make a contribution towards coordination and cooperation in PSO.

2.8.2.2 Military and humanitarian organisation culture

Duffy (2000) viewed the understanding of multi-cultural interaction as critical to enhance coordination between the humanitarian, military and civilian components (see par 2.5.3, 2.5.4 and 2.5.5). Brooks (2006) indicated that one of the most challenging aspects in organisational behaviour is the extent to which national culture influences individual behaviour. The second challenge relates to whether behaviour must be changed when faced with interacting with another culture. This is a common phenomenon in the field of multidimensional PSO (see par 2.4.6) where individuals have to cope with a multi-cultural environment and different organisational cultures. The national culture of individuals influences the behaviour inclusive of the cognitive framework through which individuals view the individuals of other cultures.

Military organisations present a specific occupational culture that is relatively isolated from society (Leeds, 2001). Hofstede, in Soeters Winslow and Weibull (2003) indicated that most literature in the study of military culture defined military culture from the integrated cultural perspective where military commanders influence culture by means of a top down leadership approach. Direction is provided through formal communication through a top down chain of command that simply aims at the execution of orders from senior management. In the military, the departments are specialised and functionally defined with the roles of employees defined in detailed job descriptions inclusive of rules, regulations and decision-making perimeters. The organisation is characterised by an impersonal and secure environment where efficiency is emphasised. (Brooks, 2006; Martin, 1992; Soeters et al., 2003). Soeters et al. (2003) distinguish between hot and cold organisations based on risk for life and critical events. The cold organisation represents the management component of the military comprising of staff officers and civilians. This study focuses on the hot organisation where peacekeepers are performing critical, difficult, dangerous and ambiguous tasks in a stressful environment. Soldiers in the hot organisation are competitive, flexible and

emotionally stable. There are less emphasis on rules and regulations, although clear perimeters are sets for initiative and decision-making. (Soeters et al., 2003). Leeds (2001) identified linguistic skills, levels of discipline, different military traditions and customs, religion and cultural values as factors hampering interoperability. Soeters et al. (2003) perceived the critical military view towards outsiders as one of the main obstacles in enhancing coordination.

The humanitarian organisational culture is founded in matrix organisations with a project focus. Employees have autonomy and are empowered through decentralised power. Expertise and experience in PSO reign superior to official appointments. The need for authority is reduced by the existence of individual control and teamwork. (Brooks, 2006). The humanitarian organisations are more flexible to adjust rapidly to a changing PSO environment because it is characterised by fewer rules, are less dependent on a hierarchical system and allows for swift decision-making. (Brooks, 2006; Chiu & Hong, 2006).

Duffy (2000) indicated interactions in PSO are not restricted to complex interactions between the military and humanitarian component only. Other role players are diplomatic components, the military and civilian police, and a civilian component. The civilian component are categorised as international, multi-national, national and community based role players. These components operate within its own cultural framework, according to its own understanding of the situation and applying its own intervention policies and operating procedures. In dealing with unique organisational cultures of the military and humanitarian component, it is necessary to explore the possibility of changing the organisational climate to facilitate improved coordination, collaboration and co-existence. Brooks (2006) indicated that effective leaders in the international environment need to adjust to the constraints and expectations of a particular culture. Failure to adjust can result in conflict through misinterpretation. The question remains if it is necessary for the humanitarian component to adjust its culture to foster a higher level of coordination with the military component.

2.8.3 Summary

If cultural awareness is not addressed, unavoidable conflict and poor coordination will manifest between the military and humanitarians. This will impact negatively on effective coordination between the military and humanitarian components. Brooks (2006) indicated that the terms diversity and culture are perceived to be incompatible. The challenge is to merge the individual culture into the organisational culture to facilitate enhanced coordination. Although most cultures are tolerant to a degree of internal differences, there will never be complete synergy since all cultures contains diverse elements. (Brooks, 2006). The CIMIC Officer must consider the following when interacting in a multicultural environment.

- Duffy (2000) identified two interdependent components for cultural training. This first one relates to general cultural training to provide an understanding into cultural differences and the impact thereof on interpersonal interaction. Individuals should be aware of the effect of non-verbal and verbal communication when working in different cultures. (Brooks, 2006; Duffy, 2000). The second training component focuses on culture specific training and includes improvement of intercultural communication skills, cultural awareness of the military and humanitarian components culture and host country cultural awareness (Duffy, 2000).
- The organisational cultures of the military and humanitarian components are unique. Subsequently a lack of understanding these cultures can easily result in misunderstanding and miscommunication. Training opportunities for mutual beneficial exchange might provide a better understanding of cultural differences. It can be achieved through conferences, identification and conducting of joint exercises, training, planning and civil- military learning opportunities at educational institutions. (Abiew, 2003; George, 2002; Harris & Dombrowski, 2002).

- Brooks (2006) highlighted the importance of competent leaders in a multi-cultural environment. Brooks (2006) cited the study of Freeley who indicated that second language users are reluctant to participate because of uncertainty of their linguistic skills and fear of embarrassment. It can be resolved by means of language training in the mission language as well as the host nation's language, or alternatively the use of interpreters (Brooks, 2006).
- Cultural awareness before engaging in an international environment will assist the CIMIC Officer to reduce the cultural shock and to improve personal relations with internal and external role-players (Brooks, 2006).
- In order to adjust effectively to the environment, the CIMIC Officer must be aware of sensitivity to the larger societal culture, the global, regional and domestic environment (Brook, 2006).
- CIMIC Officers must be aware of cultural stereotyping and the effect it might have on working relations. Members must receive the appropriate training in cross-cultural management before interacting or engaging in cross-cultural negotiation, mediation or conflict management. (Brooks, 2006).
- CIMIC Officers must not try to implement processes that are unique to own cultures and organisational culture on individuals or groups from other cultures (Brooks, 2006).

Duffy (2000) said although cultural understanding does not automatically imply success, it remains an unrecognised dynamic that plays a fundamental role in the resolution of conflict.

2.9 Chapter summary

The views of the military and humanitarian components emphasise the dynamics of the ever-changing peace support operations environment with specific reference to the critical CIMIC function. Specific definitions were defined for this study to set clearly defined perimeters for the theoretical analysis on the profile for the CIMIC Officer. In the theoretical foundation, the dynamic peace support operations environment provides the basis for the analysis of CIMIC, peace support stressors, personality theories and culture in peacekeeping. This analysis enabled the researcher to identify the role, functions and behavioural electives for the CIMIC Officer. The theoretical foundation in this chapter and the primary data from field research (see par 3.3.1) are integrated in the competency model for the CIMIC Officer (see par 4.2).

It is evident from the literature that multiple factors prevent enhanced coordination between the military and humanitarian components. The importance of this study is founded in that it not only analyse the challenges, but also link it to behaviour that should enhance coordination. The selection of CIMIC Officers according to the indicators of the competency model should enhance the critical coordination function in multidimensional peace missions.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

This chapter addresses the hypotheses and research design for this study. The discussion on the research design encompasses the procedures, the composition of the sample, the measurement instruments and the statistical procedures that were applied.

3.1 Introduction

Babbie (2001, p.92) stated that “exploratory studies are conducted for three purposes: (a) to satisfy the researcher’s curiosity and desire for better understanding, (b) to study the feasibility of undertaking a more extensive study and (c) to develop the methods to be applied in subsequent studies.” The purpose of this exploratory study as stated in par 1.4 relates to understanding the complex environment in which a CIMIC Officer must perform assigned roles and functions. Neuman (2006) confirmed in exploratory studies results manifest themselves in formulating questions for future studies, speculate on new ideas and define possible hypotheses for future studies. Qualitative techniques are more appropriate in exploratory research because they allow for a flexible framework (Neuman, 2006).

Qualitative field research “attempts to develop an understanding of human behaviour as it is defined by the subjects themselves and/or as it is related to the situation in which behaviour occurs” (Singleton & Straits, 2005, p.340). Field research allows for flexibility in terms of the specific approach, steps and hypothesis defined during the course of the research (Babbie, 2001; Singleton & Straits, 2005). Lofland, cited in Babbie (2001) indicated that in field research, analyses of roles, relationships and organisations were some of the elements to conduct research on. This study was conducted within the framework of a

qualitative field research design with an institutional ethnography paradigm. This design is founded "... on interviewing, observations and documents as data. Institutional ethnography departs from other ethnographic approaches by treating those data not as the topic or object of interest, but as entry into the social relations of the setting. The idea is to tap into people's expertise" (Babbie, 2001, p.287).

Babbie (2001) indicated that field research provided more valid measures than experimental or survey research. He stated that reliability of field research might pose a problem due to the researcher's personal nature in measurement. To enhance the validity and reliability of this study, the concept of triangulation is integrated in the research design. Denzin, cited in Babbie and Mouton (2004), defined triangulation as "the use of multiple methods that will raise ... above the personal bias that stems from single methodologies. By combining methods and investigators in the same study, observers can partially overcome the deficiencies that flow from one investigator or method." Neuman (2006) said that triangulations could result in a combination of qualitative and quantitative research designs and data.

Babbie (2001) emphasised the ethical challenges in qualitative field research. Firstly, the researcher must decide either to observe as an outsider, or as a participant. Secondly, should the researcher identify him/herself to the participants? A researcher may adopt several field roles that are determined by the situation. Complete participation may affect the study whereby participants modify behaviour. As full participant, the researcher must be conscious of how participation affects the process under study. (Babbie, 2001; Singleton & Straits, 2005). The researcher conducted this study as a full participant in AMIS and the subjects were informed of the research. This information had limited influence on the subject's behaviour since the humanitarian and military components both focussed on life-saving actions to alleviate suffering. It implies that primary data are founded on real time experiences that enhance the validity of this study.

3.2 Hypothesis

If the SANDF wants to ensure competent CIMIC Officers are selected and trained, it is critical to answer the following hypotheses;

Hypothesis 1: CIMIC Officers selected according to a specific profile will enhance the coordination function between the military and humanitarian components.

Hypothesis 2: CIMIC Officers with characteristics of abnormal behaviour will be ineffective in civil military coordination.

3.3 Research Design

Pollick (2000) stated that despite the importance of civil military coordination in PSO, the right members are not selected and trained for the job. CIMIC is a specialist field in PSO; this task cannot be performed effectively by any soldier (see par 1.3). It is imperative that members with the correct psychological profile should be selected for training and deployment as CIMIC Officers. To address the requirements of the SANDF, this study focuses on the requirements for CIMIC Officers in the Sudan, the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC) and Ethiopia/Eritrea.

3.3.1 Procedure

The research was conducted by means of a cross-sectional study over a period of 14 months. It was conducted within the framework of a qualitative field research design with an institutional ethnographical paradigm. The design was applied within a SANDF Peace Mission (AMIS) to determine the extent of the challenges that a CIMIC Officer experiences. The study was conducted in two phases. The researcher conducted field research during phase 1. In this phase, primary and secondary data were gathered through interviewing, observations

and analysing documentation. In phase 2 the data were integrated into a competency model encompassing the roles, functions, environmental challenges and behaviours of CIMIC Officers.

In PSO, the population is divided into two well-defined groupings, the military component and the humanitarian component. The unit of analysis (Babbie & Mouton, 2004) within the military component (see par 2.5.2 for definition) are individuals and groups who are involved in CIMIC activities in the AMIS Peace Mission context. This unit's characteristics, orientations and actions form the basis for researching the military perspective regarding CIMIC. International agencies, international organisations, government organisations, non-governmental organisations and local structures in peace missions encompass the humanitarian component (see par 2.5.2 for definition) for analysis. The focus within the humanitarian component was on individual role players with whom the AMIS CIMIC role players interact. The research problem (see par 1.3) was analysed from a humanitarian and military perspective (see par 2.5.3 and 2.5.4) to identify common ground for enhanced coordination.

The researcher was a full participant for the duration of this cross-sectional study (see par 3.1). During a period of 14 months his role (depending on the security situation), fluctuated from full participant to observer. The subjects were informed of the researcher's dual appointment as participant and researcher. The researcher was appointed as the supervisor of the military participants in this research. To overcome the challenges associated with participation versus observation (see par 3.1), triangulation (see par 3.1) was applied to enhance the validity and reliability of the study. The ecological validity (Neuman, 2006) of this research was enhanced by the fluctuating roles of the researcher. In this cross-sectional study, primary and secondary data were gathered as follows:

- Primary data were obtained through the following:
 - The formal appointment of the researcher during the field research enabled him to conduct basic individual interviewing through frequent interaction with the military and humanitarian components.
 - Five in-depth individual interviews were conducted with humanitarian job incumbents and SMEs during the field research in phase one of the study. These interviews were conducted according to the competency model questionnaire (see Appendix A) of Lucia and Lepsinger (1999). With the exception of one humanitarian agency, these interviews were conducted during the early stages of the cross-sectional study. The security situation in the mission deteriorated to such an extent that the humanitarian agencies withdrew from their permanent locations in the northern region of the mission area where the field research was being conducted. Subsequently the researcher had to rely on ad hoc visits to the region by the humanitarians when the security situation allowed it.
 - The interviews with one focus group were conducted with 10 appointed officers in a military base. CIMIC Officers, Operational Planning Officers and Military Observers were represented in this group of 10 officers. These officers had frequent interaction with the humanitarian community in the mission and served a minimum of six month in the mission on the day of the interview. These interviews were conducted according to the same competency model questionnaire (see Appendix A) of Lucia and Lepsinger (1999) as had been applied during individual interviewing.

In the initial research design, it was envisaged to conduct focus group interviews with humanitarian agencies, non-governmental organisations, CIMIC training teams and CIMIC structures that are responsible for managing humanitarian relief programmes in mission. The humanitarian agencies and non-governmental organisations were reluctant to interact through focus group interviews with a researcher in the military component. The flexible qualitative field research design allowed the researcher to interview five of these individuals through in-depth individual interviews on a voluntary basis (see par above on in-depth interviews). The mission policy for CIMIC is still under development for AMIS. The implementation framework has not been formalised as yet and the CIMIC training teams and CIMIC structures could not be interviewed since they had not been established.

- Psychometric measurement was administered on 20 available African officers who performed the CIMIC functions or who had had CIMIC interaction with the humanitarian component. Biographical details of the sample are discussed in par 3.3.2.
- Secondary data (as discussed in Chapter 2) were analysed within the following framework of:
 - Documentation of the United Nations, the African Union, international and regional organisations and troop contributing countries that addresses the concepts and challenges of PSO and CIMIC.
 - Research that analyses the environmental challenges experienced by peacekeepers and CIMIC Officers in PSO.
 - Policy documents and guidelines of the United Nations on civil military coordination.

In inferential leap 1 (see Figure 2), the secondary data were integrated into a theoretical model encompassing the roles, functions and environmental challenges of CIMIC Officers. In inferential leap 2 (see Figure 2) the behaviours that enhance and prohibit coordination for the CIMIC Officer were discussed and analysed in the theoretical foundation of Chapter 2. The theoretical foundation was developed into a competency model comprising of positive indicators that enhance coordination (see hypothesis 1 in par 3.2) and negative indicators (see hypothesis 2 in par 3.2) that impede coordination. Neuman (2006) highlighted the impact of an individual researcher's bias and point of view as a potential problem with reliability in qualitative field research. This is addressed by comparing and integrating primary data into the theoretical foundation of the competency model (see results in par 4.2) to enhance the validity and reliability (see triangulation in par 3.1). Comparing and integrating the primary data with the theoretical foundation enhanced the external consistency of the model (Neuman, 2006).

The integrated competency model was rated by six SMEs on a five-point scale of 0=not important, 1=somewhat important, 2=important, 3=very important and 5=critical (Gatewood & Feild, 2001). The six judges (SMEs) completed these ratings independently (see par 4.3 for results). The six judges (SMEs), three experts from the CIMIC institutional environment and three psychologists with PSO experience, rated the competency model. The critical competencies to enhance coordination as determined by the SMEs are discussed in par 5.3. To enhance the reliability of these ratings (see triangulation in par 3.1), intraclass correlation (ICC) of the individual judges and group of judges (Gatewood & Feild, 2001) were measured (see par 4.3 for results).

The sample of military officers was divided by the researcher in a successful and an unsuccessful group (see par 4.4 for results). This division was based on end of mission reports comprising the three performance indicators of command and control, operational planning and performance of the CIMIC function. The

participants were assessed on the following scale: (a) 1= poor performance, (b) 2 = below average performance, (c) 3= average, (d) 4=above average and (e) 5=exceptional. The average performance on the three performance indicators was calculated for each subject where after the group was categorised in an above average group (successful) and a below average group (unsuccessful). The results of the psychometric measurement of the sample, successful and unsuccessful groups are reported in par 4.5, 4.6, 4.7 and 4.8. These results are compared to the integrated competency model (see par 4.2) and discussed in par 5.4.

Inferential leap 3 (see Figure 2) cannot be developed fully in this study since the restriction of the sample ($N=20$) does not allow the researcher to apply a content validity strategy to this research. A sample of several hundreds is required to report significant correlations in content validity strategy (Gatewood & Feild, 2001; SIOP, 2003). The meaningful results were summarised in a model indicating the relationship between the apparent criteria and performance variables. This model provides the foundation for additional research on inferential leap 3.

3.3.2 Participants

The study population for the research was well defined as military and humanitarian members who interacted through CIMIC within the African Mission in the Sudan. A multi-stage cluster sampling technique was considered in the initial research design (Babbie & Mouton, 2004). The flexible design of qualitative field research (see par 3.1) enabled the researcher to redefine the sampling technique as a non-probable technique of snowball sampling (Babbie & Mouton, 2004) due to location and the security situation in AMIS. Babbie and Mouton (2004) indicated that sampling in qualitative research are dependent on the nature of the study and involves 5 to 25 clearly defined participants.

Table 5. *Highest Educational Qualifications of military participants*

<i>Highest Educational Qualification</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
Grade 12	10	50.0	50.0
Diploma	3	15.0	65.0
Graduate	6	30.0	95.0
Post Graduate	1	5.0	100.0

The results in Table 5 show that 50% of the participants have post Grade 12 qualifications. In the biographical questionnaire it was reported that all the post Grade 12 qualifications were obtained from military institutions.

Table 6. *Military participants' country of origin*

<i>Country</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
Cameroon	1	5.0	5.0
South Africa	5	25.0	30.0
Egypt	2	10.0	40.0
Gabon	1	5.0	45.0
Malawi	2	10.0	55.0
Mali	1	5.0	60.0
Mauritania	1	5.0	65.0
Nigeria	2	10.0	75.0
Rwanda	1	5.0	80.0
Senegal	2	10.0	90.0
Zambia	1	5.0	95.0
Kenya	1	5.0	100.0

The sample comprises a diverse group of African Officers. The results in Table 6 show that participants represent 12 African countries. With the exception of Botswana and Namibia, these countries are representative of the Troop Contributing countries in AMIS.

The military components observation unit was restricted to 20 participants due to location and security. The sample included the following participants ($N=20$) within the mission: CIMIC Officers, Military Observers, Force Headquarters and Unit Headquarters Staff responsible for CIMIC. The participants were males representing the middle management component of the mission. The sample was representative of a multinational environment with the primary focus on the African continent. Details concerning the sample are as follows:

Table 3. *Age distribution of military participants*

<i>N</i>	<i>Range</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>
20	25	29	54	38.45

The results in Table 3 show that the average age of the participants are 38 years with a range of 25 years. The youngest participant is 29 and the oldest 54.

Table 4. *First language distribution of military participants*

<i>First Language</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
English	7	35.0	35.0
French	5	25.0	60.0
Arabic	3	15.0	75.0
Chichewa	2	10.0	85.0
Swahili	2	10.0	95.0
Kinyarwanda	1	5.0	100.0

The working language in AMIS is English (see par 2.8.2.1). Table 4 shows 35% of the participants indicated English as a first language. The remainder of the sample (see Table 4) is diverse with 25% French, 15% Arabic, 10% Chichewa, 10% Swahili and 5% Kinyarwanda as first language. During individual interviewing with the participants, it was evident that three of the participants reported English as their third language.

Table 7. *Military participants' appointments in mission*

<i>Appointments</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
CIMIC Officers	5	25.0	25.0
Military Observer	10	50.0	75.0
Operations Officers	4	20.0	95.0
Base Commanders	1	5.0	100.0

The results in Table 7 show that the sample is representative of key appointments in the mission. The 20 participants were appointed as either CIMIC Officers, or in appointments that necessitated frequent interaction with the humanitarian community.

Table 8. *Military participants' training*

<i>Training</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>Percent</i>	<i>Cumulative Percent</i>
Conventional	6	30.0	30.0
National Training*	9	45.0	75.0
International Training	5	25.0	100.0

* includes National CIMIC Training (n=1)

The importance of this research is emphasised by the fact that African Peacekeepers are deployed in specialist appointments with limited to no specialised force preparation. Table 8 shows the level of training of the participants. Six members were trained as conventional soldiers and received no prior peacekeeping training. Nine participants received national level peacekeeping training and five participants attended international peacekeeping training. Only one participant attended formal CIMIC training prior to deployment.

3.3.3 Measuring Instruments

The following psychometric measurements were administered on available subjects (see par 3.3.2) to identify possible criterion variables to be validated in inferential leap 3 (see Figure 2).

3.3.3.1 Fifteen Factor Questionnaire (15 FQ+)

The Fifteen Factor Questionnaire (15FQ+) was developed as an alternative instrument to the 16PF Questionnaire (see par 2.7.3.4). The second addition of the 15FQ+, which was administered in this research, measures fifteen of the core personality factors identified by Cattell. The 15FQ+ measures well researched source traits as defined by Cattell. The second edition of the 15FQ+ has the following features: (a) items were revised to avoid culture, sex and age bias, (b) items were written in clear, concise and modern English and (c) items were selected to maximise reliability. The only factor definition that has been altered from the original definitions proposed by Cattell is the intellectance scale (Scale β : intelligence in Cattell's version [Cattell, Eber & Tatsuoka, 1970]). The definitions of the 15 primary source traits and the five second order trait factors are represented by letters of the alphabet, namely fA , β , fC , fD , fE , fG , fH , fI , fL , fM , fN , fO , $fQ1$, $fQ2$, $fQ3$, $fQ4$, E, N, O, A and C. A high score on the personality and second order factors is indicated and described by behaviour on the right side of the profile, with a low score indicated and described on the left side of the profile. An average score on the scale indicates that the participant exhibits some of the behavioural patterns associated with both scale extremes. (Psytech, 2002). The personality and second order factors measured by the 15FQ+ are defined as follows in Table 9:

Table 9. *Definitions of personality and second order factors of the 15FQ+*

FACTOR fA	
Low score Cool Reserved , Lacking empathy, Distant, Detached, Impersonal	High Score Warm-hearted , Friendly, Personable, Participating, Empathic, Caring
Cool, distant and somewhat aloof	Friendly, warm, participating individuals
Disinclined to express feelings	Quick to offer support
Extremely private individuals	Good listeners
Lack empathy and warmth	Sympathetic, concerned, caring individuals
Low need for affiliation	Warm-hearted and attentive to others needs
Cautious in forming close relationships	
INTELLECTANCE β	
Low Score: Low Intellectance ,	High score: High Intellectance ,
Lacking confidence in own intellectual abilities	Confident of own Intellectual Abilities
Disinclined to work on intellectually demanding tasks	Enjoy working on intellectually demanding tasks
Lack a broad range of general knowledge	Keen to learn new information and acquire new skills
Uncomfortable when explaining complex	Enjoy explaining complex ideas and problems
Takes time to appreciate key points in complex arguments	Good general knowledge
FACTOR fC	
Low score Affected by Feelings , Emotional, Changeable, Moody	High score Emotionally Stable , Mature, Calm
Experience mood swings	Energetic
Lack emotional resilience	Unlikely to experience feelings of depression.
Experience anxiety symptoms	Confident
Experience sleep problems, psychosomatic symptoms,	Satisfied with life achievements
Feelings of depression	Mature, dependable individuals
'over-react' to situations	Experience few anxiety symptoms
FACTOR fE	
Low score Accommodating , Passive, Mild, Humble, Co-operative.	High score Dominant , Assertive, Competitive, Aggressive,
	Determined to get own way
Have difficulty to take charge of situations	Forceful and vocal in expressing opinions
Modest and deferential in inter-personal relationships	Not concerned about upsetting people
Passive and overly compliant	Disinclined to listen to others' points of view
Have difficulty to stand ground	Have difficulty compromising and conceding
Dislike conflict, arguments and discord	Alienate people who do not agree Generate conflict and discord

(table continue)

Table 9 (continued)

FACTOR <i>fF</i>	
Low scores	High scores
Sober Serious , Restrained, Taciturn, Cautious	Enthusiastic , Lively, Cheerful, Happy-go-lucky, Carefree
Serious minded	
Disinclined to attend social events and functions	Keen to take part in activities
Little time for light-hearted, trivial entertainment	Drawn to stimulating social situations
Lack sense of playful spontaneity	Carefree character
	Light-hearted, cheerful, easy-going
FACTOR <i>fG</i>	
Low scores	High scores
Expedient , Spontaneous, Disregarding of rules and obligations	Conscientious , Persevering, Dutiful, Detail conscious
	Strong sense of duty and responsibility.
Lack a strong sense of duty.	Neat, tidy and well organised.
Difficulty persevering with boring or repetitive tasks.	Set high standards for themselves and others.
Disregard rules, and set procedures.	Detail-conscious, precise and exact in work.
Careless when attending to detail.	Obsessive perfectionistic or rigid.
Solve problems as they arise.	Meticulous and systematic.
Untidy and disorganised.	
Flexible and spontaneous.	
FACTOR <i>fH</i>	
Low scores	High scores
Retiring , Timid, Socially anxious, Hesitant in social settings, Shy	Socially-bold , Venturesome, Talkative, Socially confident
	Self-assured and confident.
Do not find it easy to start conversations with strangers.	Quick to initiate social contacts.
Feeling embarrassed or self-conscious when becoming focus of attention.	Natural easy communicators.
Slow to express opinions in front of people.	Are likely to make a big impression on the people they meet.
Inclined to 'take a back seat' in social situations.	
FACTOR <i>fI</i>	
Low score	High score
Tough-minded , Utilitarian, Unsentimental, Lacks aesthetic sensitivity	Tender-minded , Sensitive, Aesthetic, Sentimental
	Have a strong interest in cultural and artistic activities and pursuits.
Have little interest in cultural or artistic matters.	Highly subjective in their outlook.
Tough-minded, no-nonsense approach to life.	Viewed as impractical or 'arty'.
Have little time for subjective, creative matters.	Do not approach problems in a particularly task-focused way.
Enjoy working with hands.	
Have little time for 'artistic people'.	
Decisions will be based on rational, functional considerations.	

(table continue)

Table 9 (continued)

FACTOR <i>fL</i>	
Low scores	High scores
Trusting , Accepting, Unsuspecting	Suspicious , Sceptical, Cynical, Doubting
Quick to place faith in others.	Doubtful and mistrusting of others' motives.
Have a positive view of human nature.	Not inclined to take things at face value.
Not at all suspicious or sceptical.	Adopting a suspicious and sceptical approach to life.
Naïve or somewhat unsophisticated	Inclined to believe that people are likely to take advantage of their goodwill.
Inclined to give others the benefit of the doubt.	Adopt a cynical approach to interpersonal relationships.
	Manipulative in interpersonal relationships.
FACTOR <i>fM</i>	
Low scores	High scores
Practical , Solution-focused, Realistic, Practical, Down-to-earth	Abstract , Imaginative, Absent-minded, Impractical, Absorbed in thought
concerned to ensure that things work.	creative, imaginative individuals.
Concrete thinkers.	strong interest in abstract, theoretical ideas.
Not inclined to daydream.	Lacks concern for practical, day-to-day realities.
Search for broader possibilities and perspectives.	Concerned to understand fundamental principles and concepts.
	Look beyond the obvious facts
	Orientated towards the world of fantasy and Imagination.
FACTOR <i>fN</i>	
Low scores	High scores
Forthright , Genuine, Artless, Open, Direct, Straightforward	Discreet , Diplomatic, Socially astute, Shrewd, Socially aware
Direct and to the point in social interactions.	Diplomatic and restrained in social interactions.
Open and straightforward,	Acutely aware of the subtle nuances of social settings.
Unlikely to be manipulative in interpersonal relationships.	Naturally discrete and diplomatic.
Honest, open and genuine.	Manipulative in interpersonal relationships.
Lack awareness of the nuances of social situations.	Reluctant to reveal their true feelings and opinions.

(table continue)

Table 9 (continued)

FACTOR <i>f</i> O	
Low score Self-assured , Secure, Untroubled, Unworried, - Guilt-free	High score Apprehensive , Worrying, Insecure Self doubting
Confident in dealing with life's challenges.	Self-reproaching and troubled by feelings of insecurity and self-doubt.
Secure and self-assured.	Tend to focus on anticipated dangers and pitfalls.
Overly confident	Apprehensive when faced with new, unexpected challenges.
Rarely dwell on past problems and difficulties.	Lack self-confidence and doubt own abilities.
Disregard potential opportunities for self-evaluation, self-improvement and growth.	Tentative, indecisive or lacking in resolve. Sensitive to what others think of them.
FACTOR <i>f</i> Q1	
Low scores Conventional , Traditional, Conservative	High scores Radical , Experimenting, Open to change, Unconventional
Value traditional, tried and tested methods.	Value progress, innovation and change.
Question innovation.	Reject tried and tested methods.
Accept the status quo.	Question the status quo.
Disliking change.	Comfortable working in rapidly changing environments, which require constant adaptation and adjustment.
Reject novel, innovative ideas.	
Uncomfortable in rapidly changing environments that demand constant innovation and adjustment.	
FACTOR <i>f</i> Q2	
Low score Group-orientated , Sociable, Group dependent,	High score Self-sufficient , Solitary, Self-reliant, Individualistic
Like to be surrounded by people.	Autonomous, self-sufficient
Take decisions in discussion with others	Dislike working in team settings.
Have difficulty working in environments that do not provide high levels of social contact.	Prefer spending time on their own.
Active in social affairs and teamwork.	Avoid becoming actively involved in social activities.
Have difficulty functioning independently	
FACTOR <i>f</i> Q3	
Low score Undisciplined , Uncontrolled, Lax, Follows own urges	High score Self-disciplined , Compulsive, Exacting willpower
Little concern for social reputation.	Concerned to maintain social reputation.
Questions authority.	Value self-control and self-discipline.
Important to be freethinking.	Repress any thoughts that might be considered to socially unacceptable.
Tend not to conform to traditional social values.	Respect authority and status.
Openly questions accepted moral values.	Adhere to their strict code of conduct
Lack discipline and self-control.	

(table continue)

Table 9 (continued)

FACTOR fQ4	
Low scores Relaxed , Composed, Placid, Patient	High scores Tense-driven , Impatient, Low frustration tolerance
Dealing with frustrations in a calm manner. Can work under pressure. Unlikely to become short-tempered or irritable if things go wrong. Tolerant interruptions. Not easily frustrated by setbacks or failures.	Tense, impatient and hard driving. Have low levels of frustration tolerance. High levels of personal drive. Annoyed or irritable when things go wrong. Driven to succeed, they believe that the only way to ensure that something is done properly is to do it oneself.
SECOND ORDER FACTOR E	
Low score Extraversion Orientated to the outer world of people, events and external activities. Needing social contact and outside stimulation.	High score Introversion Orientated towards their own inner world of thoughts, perceptions and experiences. Not requiring much social contact and stimulation.
SECOND ORDER FACTOR N	
Low score Low Anxiety Well-adjusted, calm, resilient, and able to cope with emotionally demanding situations.	High score High Anxiety Vulnerable, touchy, sensitive, prone to mood swings, challenged by emotionally gruelling situations.
SECOND ORDER FACTOR O	
Low score Tough Poised Influenced more by hard facts and tangible evidence than subjective experiences. May be insensitive to people and subtleties.	High score Openness (to experience) Influenced more by new ideas, feelings and sensations than tangible evidence and hard facts. Open to possibilities and subjective experiences
SECOND ORDER FACTOR A	
Low score Independence Actively self-determined in own thoughts and actions. Independent minded. Can be intractable, strong-willed and confrontational.	High score Agreeableness Agreeable, tolerant and obliging. Neither stubborn, disagreeable nor opinionated, will be happy to compromise.

(table continue)

Table 9 (continued)

SECOND ORDER FACTOR C	
Low score	High score
Low Control	High Control
Exhibiting low levels of self-control and restraint. Not influenced by social norms and internalised parental expectations.	Exhibiting high levels of self-control determined by social norms and internalised parental expectations.

(Adapted from Psytech, 2002, p.12)

The pencil and paper version of the 15FQ+ comprising 200 items was administered in this research. The questionnaire can be administered in groups or on individuals. The 15FQ+ questionnaire booklet contains detailed instructions on how to complete the test. There is no time restriction for the completion of the test, although it is expected for the respondents to complete it in 30-45 min. The question booklet and answer sheets are separate. The subjects read the question in the booklet and indicate the answer in the appropriate box on the separate answer sheet. (Psytech, 2002).

Respondents must consider three possible answers to each question. Answer A (true) corresponds to box A, answer C (false) corresponds to box C and answer B (not sure) corresponds to box B. Completeness of the answer sheets was confirmed before subjects left the test session. The scoring was administered by Psytech South Africa via the Internet using the Psytech software system. The software system automatically generates raw and sten scores for the 15 factors, intellectance (β) scale and second order factors. (Psytech, 2002)

Psytech (2002) indicated that all the factors of the 15FQ+ met acceptable levels of internal consistency (see Table 10).

Table 10. *Reliability Coefficients (alpha) for the 15FQ+ scales*

<i>Factor</i>	<i>Form A</i>	
<i>fA</i>	.83	.78
<i>B</i>	.77	.80
<i>fC</i>	.80	.77
<i>fE</i>	.80	.79
<i>fF</i>	.75	.78
<i>fG</i>	.85	.81
<i>fH</i>	.85	.81
<i>fI</i>	.74	.77
<i>fL</i>	.78	.77
<i>fM</i>	.80	.79
<i>fN</i>	.79	.78
<i>fO</i>	.82	.83
<i>fQ1</i>	.81	.79
<i>fQ2</i>	.82	.78
<i>fQ3</i>	.78	.76
<i>fQ4</i>	.84	.81
	Student sample <i>n</i> =183	Professional sample <i>n</i> =325

(Adapted from Psychometrics Ltd, 2002,p. 32)

Psytech (2002) reported good levels of internal consistency taking the length of the scales into account. Psytech (2002) reported excellent levels of reliability on the test-retest reliability coefficients. The reliability coefficients measured between .77 on *fO* (Self-assured/Apprehensive) to .89 on *fQ4* (Relaxed/Tense Driven) (Psytech, 2002).

Table 11. *Correlations of the 15FQ+ factors with 16PF (Form A)*

<i>Factor</i>	<i>16 PF Form A</i>	
		<i>(corrected)</i>
<i>fA</i>	.31	.37
<i>fB</i>	.10	-
<i>fC</i>	.59	.1
<i>fE</i>	.68	.99
<i>fF</i>	.72	.98
<i>fG</i>	.55	.89
<i>fH</i>	.78	.99
<i>fI</i>	.50	.75
<i>fL</i>	.29	.52
<i>fM</i>	.26	.65
<i>fN</i>	.30	.70
<i>fO</i>	.68	.99
<i>fQ1</i>	.29	.43
<i>fQ2</i>	.51	.85
<i>fQ3</i>	.30	.50
<i>fQ4</i>	.69	.94
FG	.49	.72
FB	.48	.73

Student sample $n=183$

(Adapted from Psytech, 2002, p. 33)

Table 11 indicates the validity of the 15FQ+ factors correlated with the equivalent factors on the 16PF (Form A). The results shows the correlations both corrected (due to measurement error) and uncorrected. These correlations are substantial with the corrected correlations of *fC*, *fE*, *fH* and *fO* approaching unity. This indicates that the 15FQ+ is measuring factors broadly equivalent to those originally identified by Cattell. (Psytech, 2002).

The reliability and validity of the 15FQ+ are substantial and acceptable for application in this study.

3.3.3.2 Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI)

The Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) was administered in this study to define the leadership preferences profiles (Kirby & Myers, 1997) of available subjects in AMIS. These results enable the researcher to compare the sample profile with the theoretical foundation of Jung's theory in par 2.7.2. The MBTI was developed to apply the theoretical foundations of Jung in practice (Myers & McCaully, 1985). The indicator comprises the four indices of attitudes, perception, judgement and dealing with the outside world that postulate 16 possible type combinations (see Appendix B). The alphabetical letters EI for extraversion-introversion, SN for sensing-intuition, TF for thinking-feeling and JP for judgement-perception indicate the four indices. These indices assess the following (Myers & McCaully, 1985):

- Extroversion-introversion (EI). This index assesses whether an individual is an introvert or extrovert. Extroverts (E) are primarily outer world oriented focussing their perceptions and judgement on people and objects. Introverts (I) rely on the inner world with their perceptions and judgements focussed on concepts and ideas.
- Sensing-intuition (SN). This index indicates individual preference between two opposing ways of perceiving. Some individuals rely primarily on the process of sensing (S) where observed facts are reported through one of the five senses. Other individuals rely on the process of intuition (N) that reports meaning, relationships and possibilities that have been created beyond the conscious mind.

- Thinking-feeling (TF). This index assesses an individual's preference between two contrasting ways of judgement. Individuals relying primarily on feeling (F) base their decisions on personal and social values. Individuals relying on thinking (T) make impersonal decisions based on logical consequences.
- Judgment-perception (JP). The final index assesses how individuals deal with the outer world. Some individuals prefer a judgement process (J) of thinking or feeling when dealing with the outside world. Others prefer a perceptive process (P) of sensing or intuition.

The abbreviated version (Form AV) comprising 32 items was administered in this research. Form AV is used to classify individuals according to type. This form is less reliable than the longer MBTI forms and is used when test time is restricted and other methods of scoring are not practical. Instructions for the respondents are indicated on the questionnaire. The respondents complete the test on the questionnaire. There is no time limit for the MBTI although slow respondents can be encouraged to work rapidly.

Respondents must consider two possible answers to each question. The respondent encircles the chosen answer as either answer A or answer B on the questionnaire. Completeness of the answer sheets was confirmed before subjects left the test session. The researcher administered the scoring.

The internal consistency of the four MBTI scales is reported as acceptable for most adult samples (Myers & McCaully, 1985). The reliability of the MBTI is influenced by factors such as age and achievement level of the respondents. An average internal consistency coefficient of .80, which is a good indicator of reliability, was reported. (Bayne, 1995). Roush and Atwater (1992), cited the research of Gardner and Martinko who reported evidence supporting both the reliability and validity of the MBTI.

3.3.3.3 Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory Third Edition (MCMI-III)

The Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory Third Edition (MCMI-III) was developed to operationalise Millon's model of psychopathology (Craig, 1999a). It measures personality traits and psychopathology (Choca, 2004). The MCMI-III was administered in this study to identify behaviours that will impede enhanced coordination of the CIMIC Officers (see par 2.7.4 and the research hypothesis 2 in par 3.2).

The MCMI-III comprise of 24 clinical scales that are grouped in six clusters: the validity scale, modifying indices, personality scales, severe personality scales, clinical syndrome scales and severe clinical syndrome scales. The characteristics of the different scales are as follows (Choca, 2004):

- Validity scale. The validity scale (scale V) contains three items that are so absurd that all respondents should indicate them as false.
- Modifying indices. Three modifying indices are included to adjust the weighted scores of some clinical scales when the respondents report defensively to alter the clinical picture. The first modifying index, the disclosure scale (scale X), provides an indication of the openness with which the respondent completed the test. The desirability index (scale Y) measures the tendency of the respondent to portray oneself in a positive light. The debasement scale (scale Z) measures the attempt by the respondent to look bad on the inventory.

- Personality style scales. The descriptions of the personality type scales are listed in Table 12.

Table 12. *Personality style scale of the MCMI-III*

<i>Scale</i>	<i>Measurement</i>
Schizoid scale (1)	Social isolation, passivity and lack of energy
Avoidant scale (2A)	Social detachment, conflict avoidance, introversion, social isolation, empty feelings.
Depressive scale (2B)	Pessimistic outlook, low opinion of themselves, feelings of hopelessness, level of experiencing pleasure in life.
Dependant scale (3)	Need for supportive relationships, submissiveness, agreeableness, and sociability.
Histrionic scale (4)	Extraversion, agreeableness, behavioural acting out,
Narcissistic scale (5)	Self sufficiency, feeling of being special, interpersonal arrogance,
Antisocial scale (6A)	Behavioural acting out, social mistrust, social independence
Aggressive scale (6B)	Aggressive interactions, independence, competitiveness, defensiveness, irritability, defensive aggression.
Compulsive scale (7)	Conscientiousness, restraint, affective stability, interpersonal ambivalence, closeness to experience, irritable tolerance and sense of virtuosity,
Negativistic scale (8A)	Intense dislike in control, resentful attitude towards authority, neurotic moodiness, disagreeableness and emotional impulsiveness.
Self-Defeating scale (8B)	Self image, dysthymia, self-abasement, agreeableness,

(Adapted from Choca, 2004, p.25)

- Severe personality scales. This cluster represents intrinsically pathological syndromes. Three scales are measured in this cluster. The first scale, schizotypal (scale S) measures a fear of human contact, suspicion, and mistrust in others. Respondents with elevated scores might have a fantasy life and appear anxious and apprehensive. The borderline scale (scale C) was developed to measure a pattern of instability in terms of moods, interpersonal relationships and self-image. The last scale, paranoid scale (scale P) measures a suspicious and mistrusting attitude and feelings of superiority.
- Clinical syndrome scales. The clinical syndrome scales measure symptoms that are superimposed on the personality style. The anxiety disorder scale (scale A) measures tension, phobic reactions, indecisiveness, restlessness and physical discomforts associated with tension. The somatoform disorder scale (scale H) measures complaints of fatigue, weakness, tension,

jumpiness, inordinate sweating, aches, pains and physical discomfort. The bipolar manic scale (scale N) measures restlessness, over-activity, elevated moods, pressured speech, impulsiveness and irritability. The dysthymia scale (scale D) measures dejected mood, feelings of discouragement, feelings of guilt and a lack of personal initiative. The alcohol dependant scale (scale B) is characterised by a history of excessive drinking that results in work and domestic related problems. The drug dependency scale (scale T) highlights impulsivity, a resentment of authority, resentment at being controlled, suspiciousness, mood swings, feelings of guilt and remorse, low self-esteem and competitive behaviour. The posttraumatic stress disorder scale (scale R) assesses the experience of a traumatic situation and the symptoms that are manifested following the experience.

- Severe clinical syndrome scales. The severe clinical syndrome scales assess the respondents for psychotic disorders. The thought disorder scale (scale SS) assesses individuals with disorganised thought processes, inappropriate affect and delusions or hallucinations. This disorder is characterised by low self-esteem, desired to hurt oneself and feelings of being unwanted and disliked. The major depression scale (scale CC) measures depressed moods characterised by feelings of hopelessness, disturbed sleeping patterns, agitation and fear of the future. The delusional disorder scale (scale PP) assesses the presence of irrational ideas, feelings of superiority and fears of being misused by other individuals.

..

The MCMI-III is a psychological inventory comprising 175 true-false self-reporting items. The questionnaire can be administered in groups or on individuals. The MCMI-III questionnaire booklet contains detailed instructions on how to complete the test. There is no time restriction for the completion of the test, although it is expected of the respondents to complete it in 60 minutes. The question booklet and answer sheet are separate. The subjects read the question in the booklet and indicate the answer in the appropriate box on the separate answer sheet.

Respondents must consider two possible answers to each question. Answer A (true) corresponds to box A, answer B (false) corresponds to box B. Completeness of the answer sheets was confirmed before subjects left the test session. The scoring was processed on a personal computer using the Pearson Assessment software. The software converted the raw scores to standardised base rate (BR) scores for the respondents. (Choca, 2004).

Millon, cited in Choca (2004) reported good stability of the test-retest correlations for the MCMI-III. The test-retest correlations ranged from .82 for the debasement scale to .90 for the somatoform scale. Choca (2004) reported that the findings on personality scales tended to be more stable than clinical syndrome scales in test-retest correlations. The internal validity of the MCMI-III scales is generally good. Millon, cited in Choca (2004) reported alpha coefficients ranging from .66 for the compulsive scale to .90 for the major depression scale. Twenty of the scales measured alpha coefficients above .80 (Choca, 2004). The reliability and validity coefficients of the MCMI-III are acceptable for application in this study.

3.3.3.4 Academic Aptitude Test (AAT)

The purpose of the Academic Aptitude test (AAT) is to serve as an objective, reliable and valid aid in guidance to a field of study. (HSRC, 1977). The interest in the measurement instrument for this study focuses on English linguistic skills only. English is the mission working language (see par 2.8.2.1 and 3.3.2). These results enable the researcher to compare the level of efficiency of the available subjects in AMIS. Two tests of the AAT battery, namely the English vocabulary and English comprehension were administered in this research. The English vocabulary test was administered to provide a valid indicator of the respondent's knowledge of English vocabulary. The English comprehension test was administered to assess the reading comprehension of the respondents.

The English vocabulary test comprises 30 sentences. A word has been omitted in each of the 30 sentences. The respondent must choose the correct word from five possible words and indicate it on the separate answer sheet. The time limit of 20 minutes for this test was strictly adhered to. The English comprehension test comprises of a number of paragraphs that the respondent must read before answering questions on the specific paragraphs. The respondent must answer 30 questions and indicate the answer on the corresponding answer sheet. The time limit for this test of 45 minutes was strictly adhered to in this study. (HSRC, 1977).

The question booklet and answer sheet are separate. The subjects read the question in the booklet and indicate the answer on the separate answer sheet in the appropriate box. The subjects choose between five possible answers indicated by a, b, c, d and e. The respondents mark the chosen answer in the corresponding alphabetical box on the answer sheet. Completeness of the answer sheets was confirmed before subjects left the test session. The answer sheets were scored manually by means of the appropriate stencil. The raw scores were recorded and converted to standard scores in the results in par 4.8.

The reliability coefficients for the AAT were calculated by means of the Kuder-Richardson Formula 20. Reliability coefficients of .85 for the English vocabulary and .81 for the English comprehension were reported. Significant validity correlations were reported with at least one test of the battery. Low significant correlations were reported on the squares and spatial perception test, although these results do not affect the tests applied in this study. The reliability and validity of the AAT are reported within excepted norms. (HSRC, 1977).

3.3.4 Statistical analysis

Statistical analysis was conducted by means of the SPSS (15th edition) software package (Field, 2000). Data sets were compiled for the sample, successful and unsuccessful groups. The participants' results in the psychometric tests are reported separately for each test as descriptive statistics in tabular format. Comparisons between the sample, successful and unsuccessful groups are reported as graphs for each of the psychometric tests. Statistics on the frequency tables for each test, provided by SPSS software, were integrated in the reporting (Chapter 4) and discussion of the results (Chapter 5) (Field, 2000).

The performance ratings of the sample, successful and unsuccessful groups are reported as descriptive statistics (see par 4.3). The comparison of the profiles of the sample, successful and unsuccessful groups is presented in a graph. Statistics on the frequency tables in SPSS were integrated in the reporting (Chapter 4) and discussion of the results (Chapter 5) on performance.

The statistical analysis of the SMEs ratings' reliability was conducted in SPSS (Field, 2000). Intra-class correlation (ICC) was preferred to Pearson's r due to the small sample size of judges ($N=6$) (Garson, 2007, Gatewood & Feild, 2001). The two-way random effects model, with consistency type and average measure reliability, was applied in determining the reliability coefficient for the SME ratings (Garson, 2007). The results of the statistical analyses are reported in Chapter 4.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

The results of the various analyses are presented in this chapter. Results are reported separately for each measurement. Firstly, the competency model for the CIMIC Officer is reported. The model was developed by integrating the theoretical foundation of Chapter 2 and the primary data gathered during field research (see par 3.3.1) in the framework of the competency model in Table 2. Secondly, the reliability coefficient and descriptive statistics of the SME ratings on the competency model (see par 4.1) are reported. Thirdly, the sample is divided in two clearly defined groups of successful and unsuccessful participants (see par 3.3.1). Performance according to the performance indicators are listed for the sample, successful and unsuccessful groups as descriptive statistics. The averages on overall performance and performance indicators of the sample, successful and unsuccessful groups are compared on a graph. Lastly, the psychometric results (see par 3.3.3) are listed separately for each measurement as descriptive statistics. Data of the sample, successful and unsuccessful groups are compared and indicated as percentages. The results are summarised in graphs comparing the sample, successful and unsuccessful groups.

4.2 Competency model for CIMIC Officer

As the outcome of the job analysis process the ideal profile for a CIMIC Officer are summarised in a competency model (see Table 13). Specific CIMIC related competencies are integrated in the framework of Kutz and Bartram (see Table 2) that focuses on the great eight competencies. The indicators reflect the theoretical foundations of the literature survey as well as the primary data gathered through interviews with job incumbents and SMEs in the humanitarian

and military components. This model provides the theoretical basis for SMEs to rate the importance and identify the critical competencies for the CIMIC Officer.

Table 13. *Competency model for a CIMIC Officer*

COMPETENCY 1 : MILITARY LEADERSHIP	
<i>Definition: Determine the CIMIC course of action necessary to reach CIMIC objectives in line with mission requirements. (Horey, Fallesen, Morath, Cronin, Cassella, Franks & Smith, 2004)</i>	
Positive Indicators	Negative Indicators
<p>Portray high ego power (see par 2.7.2.1) in leading others to success by motivating and influencing them to take initiative (Horey et al., 2004; P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007), work towards a common purpose, accomplish tasks and achieve organisational objectives within the multidimensional complex emergency environment. (Horey et al., 2004; see par 2.4.8).</p> <p>Provide guidance and maintain control over the work and CIMIC environment to ensure efficiency and effectiveness in subordinates. (Horey et al., 2004).</p> <p>Maintain and enforce high professional standards and indicate standards by leading by example. (Horey et al., 2004; Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007).</p> <p>Encourage subordinates and other role players to participate in collaborative processes to enhance effective coordination (A. Derib, personal communication, Nov 22, 2006, see summary in par 2.5.4).</p> <p>Monitor the impact of the cognitive, physical, emotional and social stressors on subordinates in the dynamic PSO environment (see PSO study definition par 2.4.8). (Horey et al., 2004; Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.4.9 and 2.7.2.1).</p>	<p>Counter productive behaviour that manifest under difficult, trying and stressful circumstances (B. Casey, personal communication, Apr 17, 2006; Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.7.4.4).</p> <p>Non-compliance with Mission Code of Conduct and Rules of Engagement (see par 2.5.5).</p> <p>Leadership style that influences strategy, structure and organisational culture negatively (see par. 2.7.4.4).</p> <p>Detached leadership style that restrains effective coordination (see par 2.7.4.4).</p> <p>Personality disorders that impede effective adjustment to the ever-changing PSO environment (see par 2.4.8 and 2.7.4.4).</p>

(table continue)

Table 13 (continued)

COMPETENCY 2: BUILDING AND PROMOTING PARTNERSHIPS ACROSS THE MILITARY , HUMANITARIAN AND CIVILIAN COMPONENT	
<i>Definition: Develops and strengthens internal and external partnerships that can provide information, assistance and support. (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007).</i>	
Positive Indicators	Negative Indicators
<p>Behave consistently with clear personal values that compliment those of the military and other organisations in the multidimensional environment. (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007, see par 2.5.4)</p> <p>Extending influence beyond military chains of command in joint, interagency, intergovernmental, multinational and other groups by encouraging teamwork and participative processes where applicable. (Horey et al., 2004; Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.5.4 2.5.5 and 2.6).</p> <p>Promote participative and consultative processes with all applicable role-players in a transparent and all-inclusive fashion (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.6).</p> <p>Allows for flexibility in building trust since coordination does not imply a change. It is based on mutual respect and coordination on consensus and not command. (See par 2.5.4, 2.5.5 and 2.6).</p> <p>Facilitate the sharing of human resources to promote understanding of organisational differences and decision-making processes (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.5.5 and 2.8.3).</p> <p>Promote synergy between the role players by focussing on common objectives (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007).</p>	<p>Counter productive behaviour due to a lack of understanding the multidimensional complex peacekeeping environment and significant role that each internal and external role player fulfils towards achievement of common mission objectives. (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.7.4.4).</p> <p>Reluctance to engage in social interaction due to low self-esteem and fear for social contact (see par 2.7.4.3).</p> <p>Social seclusion, emotional aloofness and lack of interest in others (see par 2.7.4.3).</p> <p>Unjustifiable suspicion and de-inclination to trust other individuals (see par 2.7.4.3 and 2.7.4.4).</p> <p>Poor interpersonal relationships with irregular thoughts and behaviours (see par 2.7.4.3).</p> <p>Establish networks for personal rather than organisational benefit (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007; see par 2.5.3).</p> <p>Works in isolation and makes no proactive effort to integrate with activities of external organisations. (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007).</p> <p>Is over protective towards own area of work and impedes inter organisational actions and interventions. (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007; P.Valicento, personal communication, May 4, 2006; see par 2.5.3).</p>

(table continue)

Table 13 (continued)

COMPETENCY 2: BUILDING AND PROMOTING PARTNERSHIPS ACROSS THE MILITARY , HUMANITARIAN AND CIVILIAN COMPONENT (continued)	
<p>Build and maintain mutually beneficial work relationships and alliances inside and outside the organisation (T. Morris, personal communication, Mar 12, 2006; P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007; see par 2.5.5).</p> <p>Understand role definition and institutional differences (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007; see par 2.5.3, 2.5.4, 2.5.5, 2.6, 2.7.2.1 and 2.8.2.2).</p> <p>Promote the sharing of critical mutually beneficial information that are complementary in achieving common mission objectives (B. Casey, personal communication, Apr 17, 2006; P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007; P.Valicento, personal communication, May 4, 2006; see par 2.5.3).</p>	<p>Perceive mission role players as separate entities with little impact on one another (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007, see par 2.5.3).</p>
COMPETENCY 3: ADVISOR TO THE MILITARY AND HUMANITARIAN COMPONENTS	
<p>Definition: Communicates and network effectively between the military and humanitarian (see par 2.5.2 for definition) components.</p>	
Positive Indicators	Negative Indicators
<p>Facilitate participative processes in joint operation centres and planning committees with decentralised teams appointed to ensure representation at all levels. (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; par 2.5.4, 2.5.5 and 2.6)</p> <p>Ensure shared understanding through the power of communication and practicing effective communication techniques (Horey et al., 2004; see par 2.8.2.1).</p> <p>Facilitate coordination by ensuring awareness of the military and humanitarian structure, decision-making processes and rules and regulations. (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007; see par 2.5.5 and 2.6)</p>	<p>Misunderstanding due to lack of linguistic compatibility as obstacle for interoperability and underdeveloped negotiation skills. (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.5.4 and 2.8.2.1).</p> <p>Lack of understanding organisation culture that results in miscommunication and misunderstanding (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.5.5, 2.6 and 2.8.2.2).</p> <p>Inconsistency in decision making and advice and tendency to jump from one idea to another with low regard for individuals (B. Casey, personal communication, Apr 17, 2006, see par 2.7.2.3 and 2.7.4.4)</p>

(table continue)

Table 13 (continued)

COMPETENCY 3: ADVISOR TO THE MILITARY AND HUMANITARIAN COMPONENTS
(continued)

Provide specialist CIMIC advice through superior interpersonal and communication skills. The advice includes policy implementation guidelines on the use of military in humanitarian action. (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see CIMIC study definition in par 2.5.1.1; see par 1.3, 2.5.4 and 2.6).

Facilitate and create an environment where the sharing of knowledge is encouraged to enhance coordination between the military and humanitarian components. Especially knowledge on the feasibility of community support projects and favourable security environment. (A. Derib, personal communication, Nov 22, 2006; Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.5.3, 2.5.5 and 2.6).

Egocentric behaviour by dominating individuals in other components through displaying ability through major projects and the need to impress other with dramatic action (B. Casey, personal communication, Apr 17, 2006; Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; T. Morris, personal communication, Mar 12, 2006; see par 2.7.4.3 and 2.7.4.4).

Attention seeking behaviour by exaggerating and emphasising unsubstantiated achievements through display of excessive emotions to superficially impress subordinates. (B. Casey, personal communication, Apr 17, 2006; see par 2.7.4.3 and 2.7.4.4).

COMPETENCY 4: ANALYSING & INTERPRETING THE DYNAMIC CIVIL MILITARY COORDINATION ENVIRONMENT

Definition: Shows evidence of clear analytic thinking and experience in analysing complex problems (see Table 2).

Positive Indicators	Negative Indicators
<p>Portrays a strong presence of sensing to facilitate the development of comprehensive integrated plans through joint assessments on key objectives. (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.5.4 and 2.7.3).</p>	<p>Inability to communicate effectively in the official mission language (see par 2.5.4 and 2.8.2.1).</p>
<p>Apply superior analytic skills to translate policy and guidelines into operation processes (Horey et al., 2004; see par 2.5.4 and 2.6).</p>	<p>Concerned with possibilities rather than realities (see par 2.7.2.4).</p>
<p>Analyse military capacity and ability to perform military and humanitarian tasks (see par 2.5.1.1, 2.5.3 and 2.6).</p>	<p>Inability to conduct analysis in a multi-cultural multidimensional PSO environment (see par 2.5.4 and 2.8).</p>
	<p>Implement community support initiatives that are not live saving or promoted by humanitarian principles (T. Morris, personal communication, Mar 12, 2006; see par 2.5.3).</p>

(table continue)

Table 13 (continued)

COMPETENCY 4: ANALYSING AND INTERPRETING THE DYNAMIC CIVIL MILITARY COORDINATION ENVIRONMENT (continued)	
<p>.Analyse within the framework of mandate complementary action to avoid duplication (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 1.2).</p> <p>Identification of suitable projects, determine project priority, planning, implementation and evaluation of projects, identifying role-players, communication strategy and financial management, (A. Derib, personal communication, Nov 22, 2006; Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.5.5 and 2.6).</p>	
COMPETENCY 5: PROMOTE A WORKING ENVIRONMENT WHERE CREATIVITY AND CONCEPTUALISATION IS ENCOURAGED	
<p><i>Definition: Promote a working environment where learning, innovation and creativity are encouraged (Horey et al., 2004)</i></p>	
Positive Indicators	Negative Indicators
<p>Promote a learning environment by facilitating organisational awareness through training programmes. (A. Derib, personal communication, Nov 22, 2006; see par 2.5.5 and 2.6).</p> <p>Exhibit flexibility to function in a participative environment with an understanding of the complexities between functioning in cooperation versus coexistence framework (see par 2.4 and 2.5.1.2).</p> <p>Assist others to grow as individuals and teams to enhance the achievement of common goals (Horey et al., 2004; see par 2.5.5).</p> <p>Portrays a balanced personality that promotes creativity that drives change to optimise processes (see par 2.7.2.2).</p>	<p>Dependant on others and reluctant on assume responsibility to enhance creativity (see par 2.7.4.3).</p> <p>Opposed to change and consistently questions motives and credibility for co-workers inputs (see par 2.7.4.3 and 2.7.4.4).</p>
(table continue)	

Table 13 (continued)

COMPETENCY 6: COORDINATE EFFORTS OF RELEVANT ORGANISATIONS TO BE COMPLIMENTARY	
<i>Definition: Perform the CIMIC function to enhance coordination and avoid duplication of effort (see par 2.6).</i>	
Positive Indicators	Negative Indicators
<p>Effectively perform the three CIMIC functions of liaison and information management, mission support and community support (see par 2.5.1.1, 2.5.1.2, 2.5.3 and 2.6).</p> <p>Define relevant role players' role responsibilities and decision-making perimeters to avoid duplication of effort. (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; T. Morris, personal communication, Mar 12, 2006; see par 2.5.4, 2.5.5. and 2.6).</p> <p>Establish effective coordination mechanisms to enhance flexibility through participative and consultative processes. (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.5.5 and 2.6)</p> <p>Establish and implement standing operating procedures to determine suitable projects (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007, see par 2.6).</p> <p>Establish and manage coordinating mechanisms to evaluate and prioritise community support projects (see par 2.5.3, 2.5.5 and 2.6).</p> <p>Facilitate seamless role out and handing over of completed projects (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007, see par 2.5.4).</p>	<p>Coordinating efforts without consulting with key community role players to consider the needs of society (P.Valicento, personal communication, May 4, 2006; A. Derib, personal communication, Nov 22, 2006; see par 2.5.3).</p> <p>Self-centred behaviour that are non-communicative and emphasises judgement related to internal subjective conditions (see par 2.7.2.4).</p> <p>Behaviour that impedes flexibility (see par 2.7.2.6 and 2.7.4.3).</p>
(table continue)	

Table 13 (continued)

COMPETENCY 7: EMOTIONALLY STABLE TO ADJUST AND COPE WITH THE MULTIPLE DIMENSIONS OF CIVIL MILITARY COORDINATION ENVIRONMENT.

Definition: *Adjust and respond well to change, challenging and ambiguous peace support environment. Manages pressure effectively and copes well with setbacks (see Table 2).*

Positive Indicators	Negative Indicators
Portrays high levels of ego-power, self-esteem and low anxiety levels that enhance adjustment and positive response to the ever-changing PSO environment. (Van Dyk, 1998; see par 2.4.8, 2.7.2.2 and 2.7.5)	Experience difficulty to adjust to PSO environment due to high anxiety, depression and abnormal behaviour (see par 2.7, 2.7.4.3 and 2.7.4.4).
Have good health to cope with physical stressors and be able to deal with psychosomatic complaints in stressful PSO environment. (Van Dyk, 1998; see par 2.4.9.1)	Have extreme difficulty in accepting criticism and subsequently have trouble in managing pressure and in coping with setbacks in an objective manner (B. Casey, personal communication, Apr 17, 2006; see par 2.7.4.3 and 2.7.4.4).
Low levels of anxiety and high levels of self-esteem to cope with cognitive stressors and increase adaptability and adjustment to the unknown (Van Dyk, 1998; see par 2.4.9.2 and 2.7.2.1).	
Have high levels of ego strength and high self-esteem to cope with emotional PSO stressors (Van Dyk, 1998; see par 2.4.9.3 and 2.7.2.1).	
Have high internal locus of control and dominance to perceive stressors as opportunities for change and undesirable events as possibilities rather than threats (Horey et al., 2004; Van Dyk, 1998; par 2.7.4.4).	
Portrays high ego power, low anxiety with a balanced personality. Predominately extrovert with a balance between thinking and feeling, sensing and judging and dominant in perceiving. (See par 2.7.2.1 and 2.7.2.6)	

(table continue)

Table 13 (continued)

COMPETENCY 8: PROMOTE A WORKING ENVIRONMENT WHERE PERSONAL AND ORGANISATIONAL OBJECTIVES ARE ALIGNED WITH MISSION OBJECTIVES.

Definition: *Promote mutual understanding and organisational learning to facilitate self-development and career development (Horey et al., 2004).*

Positive Indicators	Negative Indicators
<p>Promote institutional learning to facilitate mutual understanding of the importance of the achievement of common mission objectives. (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007, par 2.5.4, 2.5.5 and 2.6).</p>	<p>Pursuing personal goals instead of common mission objectives. (A. Derib, personal communication, Nov 22, 2006; see par 2.5.3)</p>
<p>Training opportunities for mutual beneficial exchange to enhance understanding through joint exercises training and planning (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.5.4, 2.5.5, 2.6).</p>	<p>Compromising ethical standards to achieve personal objectives (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007; see par 2.5.3)</p>
<p>Enhance the understanding of CIMIC through training on CIMIC policy documentation and guidelines (see par 2.6, 2.8.2.1 and 2.8.3).</p>	<p>Egocentric behaviour that appears to be superficially affectionate and charming in order to achieve personal and not organisational objectives (see par 2.7.4.3 and 2.7.4.4).</p>
	<p>Inflated sense of self-importance that manifests through a manipulative attitude and lack of understanding (B. Casey, personal communication, Apr 17, 2006; see par 2.7.4.3 and 2.7.4.4).</p>

(table continue)

Table 13 (continued)

COMPETENCY 9: RESPECTING AND PROMOTING INDIVIDUAL, CULTURAL AND ORGANISATIONAL DIFFERENCES

Definition: *Demonstrates the ability to work constructively with individuals from all backgrounds and orientations. Respects differences and value all contributions. (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007).*

Positive Indicators	Negative Indicators
Understands and respects cultural differences and gender issues and apply it in daily work environment. (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007; see par 2.7.2.2).	Is unwilling to view issues from the perspective of others (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007).
Examines own behaviour and attitudes to avoid stereotypical responses (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007; see par 2.8.2.1).	Imbalanced unconscious that manifests as discrimination and prejudice towards individuals or groups (P.Valicento, personal communication, May 4, 2006; see par 2.7.2.2).
Flexible in considering issues from others perspective by drawing on diversity skills, background and knowledge of individuals to achieve enhanced results (Horey et al., 2004; P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007; see par 2.6 and 2.8.3).	Seeks to relate only to persons of similar, culture religion, gender or level (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007).
Awareness of the fusion of cultures in peacekeeping inclusive of cultural differences, perspectives towards the conflict, verbal and non-verbal language and cultural rituals and practices (Horey et al., 2004; Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.8.2.1 and 2.8.3)	Ethnocentric views that results in stereotyping and narrow minded conclusion about the worth of other cultures and making judgements on perceived cultural stereotypes (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.8.2.1).
Portray a multi-cultural personality with high levels of interpersonal skills, positive social attitude and high self-esteem that recognises diverse cultural patterns (see par 2.8.2.1)	Creating an environment where diverse individuals are reluctant to participate due to fear of embarrassment (see par .2.7.4.3).
Conduct awareness training promoting humanitarian and military organisational cultural awareness (see par 2.6 and 2.8.3).	

(table continue)

Table 13 (continued)

COMPETENCY 9: RESPECTING AND PROMOTING INDIVIDUAL, CULTURAL AND ORGANISATIONAL DIFFERENCES (continued)	
<p>Coordinate training to the military by humanitarians on local knowledge, best practices and technical skills (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.6 and 2.8.3).</p>	
COMPETENCY 10: ENSURING EFFECTIVE USE OF RESOURCES	
<p>Definition: <i>Identify priorities in accordance with mission objectives. Develop and implements coordinated plans, allocate resources and monitor outcomes. (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007).</i></p>	
Positive Indicators	Negative Indicators
<p>Identifies, organises and effectively allocate human and material resources to achieve mission objectives. Horey et al., 2004; P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007; see par 2.5.5 and 2.6).</p> <p>Identifies priorities and defines realistic objectives and timelines (Horey et al., 2004; see par 2.6).</p> <p>Is able to quickly re-allocate resources effectively and reset priorities in response to unexpected events and change to circumstances (see par 2.6).</p> <p>Establishes measures to monitor resources and progress of activities as planned (Horey et al., 2004; P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007; see par 2.6).</p> <p>Advise on the utilisation of spare capacity and resources of the military (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.5.4, 2.5.5 and 2.6).</p> <p>Coordinate capabilities of various organisations to be complimentary (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.5.5 and 2.6).</p>	<p>Defines objectives and implement plans that are unclear or impractical (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.7.4.3).</p> <p>Fails to set priorities in advance or deviate regularly from them (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007; see par 2.7.4.3).</p> <p>Fails to identify and organise the resources needed to accomplish tasks (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007; see par 2.7.4.3).</p> <p>Ineffective competition for resources and control for emergencies that result in loss of lives due delayed response (Military Focus Group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; see par 2.5.3)</p> <p>Implementing community support initiative that is not need based (A. Derib, personal communication, Nov 22, 2006; T. Morris, personal communication, Mar 12, 2006; see par 2.5.3).</p>

The competency model provides the foundation for the discussion in Chapter 5. In Chapter 5, the results of the psychometric tests are compared to the theoretical foundation of the competency model to identify possible criteria as predictors of success.

4.3 Competency model SME ratings

The competency model was rated by six SMEs (see par 3.3.1) to identify the very important to critical competencies for the CIMIC Officer. The results of the ratings are reported in Table 14. The reliability of these ratings are reported as the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) (Gatewood & Feild, 2001).

Table 14. *Descriptive statistics on competency model ratings by SMEs*

<i>Competencies</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Competency 1*	2.00	4.00	2.8333	0.75277
Competency 2*	3.00	4.00	3.5000	0.54772
Competency 3*	2.00	4.00	3.0000	1.09545
Competency 4*	3.00	3.00	3.0000	0.00000
Competency 5*	2.00	3.00	2.5000	0.54772
Competency 6*	3.00	3.00	3.0000	0.00000
Competency 7*	2.00	4.00	3.0000	1.09545
Competency 8*	2.00	3.00	2.1667	0.40825
Competency 9*	2.00	4.00	2.8333	0.98319
Competency 10*	2.00	3.00	2.6667	0.51640

* see Table 13 for detail

Table 14 shows that competencies 2 (building and promoting partnerships), 3 (advisor to military and humanitarian components), 6 (coordination of organisations) and 7 (emotional stability) were rated as important to critical competencies for a CIMIC Officer (see Table 13 for detail on competencies). From the results in SPSS the intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) of the SMEs are reported as .334. The ICC for the three institutional CIMIC SMEs are .924. The military psychologists reported an ICC of .891. These results are discussed in par 5.3.

4.4 Performance rating of sample

Descriptive statistics are listed separately for the sample, successful and unsuccessful performers. The researcher rated the 20 subjects' performance in his official capacity as participant in the mission, on completion of their tour of duty. The participants were rated on the following scale: (a) 1= poor performance, (b) 2 = below average performance, (c) 3= average, (d) 4=above average and (e) 5=exceptional. The sample was divided in two clearly defined groups of successful performers (above average and exceptional) and unsuccessful performers (below average and poor). Participants were rated on three performance indicators: (a) command and control, (b) operational planning and (c) CIMIC. The successful group ($n=10$) of the sample comprise of participants who performed above average (50% of sample). The unsuccessful group ($n=8$) comprise of participants who performed below average (40% of sample). Average performances ($n=2$) were not taken into account in the interpretation of the results. Averages were calculated for the performance indicators and the overall performance of the sample. Descriptive statistics on the sample performance indicators and overall performance are listed in Table 15. The data includes the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation for each of the indicators.

Table 15. *Descriptive statistics for performance indicators and overall performance of sample*

<i>Performance indicators</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Command and Control	20	2.00	4.00	2.8000	0.89443
Operational Planning	20	2.00	5.00	3.5500	1.27630
CIMIC	20	2.00	5.00	3.0000	0.97333
Average Performance	20	2.00	4.30	3.0850	0.85979

Table 15 shows that the average overall performance of the participants is above average (3.085). The results in Table 15 indicate the performance on the indicators of the successful group as below average for command and control

(2.8), above average for operational planning (3.55) and average for the execution of the CIMIC function (3.0). The frequency tables of SPSS reported 10 participants' performance as above average (successful group) and 8 participants' performance as below average (unsuccessful group).

Table 16. *Descriptive statistics on the performance ratings of the successful group*

<i>Performance Indicator</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Command and Control	10	2.00	4.00	3.4000	0.84327
Operational Planning	10	3.00	5.00	4.6000	0.69921
CIMIC	10	2.00	5.00	3.8000	0.78881
Average Performance	10	3.30	4.30	3.8900	0.44585

Table 16 shows the successful group ($n=10$) measured above average ratings on the three performance indicators. Command and control ratings are the lowest (3.4) followed by CIMIC (3.8) and operational planning (4.6). The average performance of the successful group is 3.89.

Table 17. *Descriptive statistics on the performance ratings of the unsuccessful group*

<i>Performance Indicator</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Command and Control	8	2.00	4.00	2.3750	0.74402
Operational Planning	8	2.00	3.00	2.2500	0.46291
CIMIC	8	2.00	3.00	2.1250	0.35355
Average Performance	8	2.00	2.60	2.2250	0.26592

Table 17 indicates the unsuccessful group ($n=8$) performed below average on the three performance indicators. Performance on the CIMIC function are the lowest (2.125), followed by operational planning (2.25) and command and control (2.375). The three performance indicators reported below average ratings resulting in a below average performance rating of 2.225 for the unsuccessful group.

The average performance of the successful, unsuccessful and sample group is compared in Figure 3. These differences between the successful and unsuccessful groups are discussed in par 5.4.

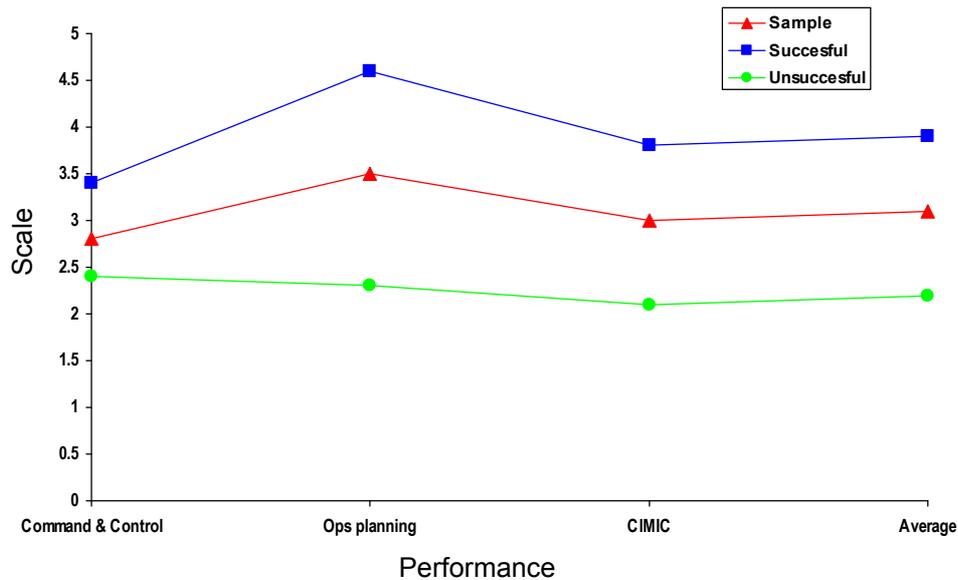


Figure 3. Average performance ratings of the sample, successful and unsuccessful group

4.5 Results of personality profile

Descriptive statistics on the primary and secondary source traits of the sample as measured by the 15FQ+ (see par 3.3.3.1) are reported in Table 18. Raw scores are converted to a sten scale distribution with a mean of 5.5. Sten scores between 1-3 and 8-10 have interpretive significance. (Craig, 1999b). The percentages indicating significant scores of the sample, successful and unsuccessful groups are derived from the frequency tables in descriptive statistics of the SPSS software (Field, 2000).

Table 18. *Descriptive statistics on primary and secondary personality traits of the sample*

<i>Traits</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Distant Aloof/Empathic (fA)	20	1.00	8.00	5.3500	1.89945
Low/High Intellectance (β)	20	2.00	10.00	5.5500	1.98614
Feelings/Emotionally stable (fC)	20	2.00	10.00	6.6000	1.95744
Accommodating/Dominant (fE)	20	4.00	8.00	5.8500	1.13671
Sober serious/Enthusiastic (fF)	20	1.00	8.00	4.3500	1.56525
Expedient/Conscientious (fG)	20	4.00	10.00	7.1500	1.81442
Retiring/Socially bold (fH)	20	2.00	8.00	5.2500	1.71295
Hard-headed/Tender minded (fI)	20	1.00	8.00	5.1500	1.89945
Trusting/Suspicious (fL)	20	4.00	9.00	7.1000	1.48324
Concrete/Abstract (fM)	20	2.00	9.00	4.8500	1.81442
Direct/Restraint (fN)	20	5.00	10.00	6.7000	1.65752
Self-assured/Apprehensive (fO)	20	2.00	7.00	4.550	1.27630
Conventional/Radical (fQ1)	20	1.00	8.00	4.5000	1.84961
Group oriented/Self-sufficient (fQ2)	20	3.00	10.00	5.9000	2.07491
Informal/Self disciplined (fQ3)	20	5.00	10.00	8.4500	1.63755
Compose/Tense driven (fQ4)	20	1.00	7.00	4.5000	1.93309
Introvert/Extrovert (E)	20	1.00	7.00	4.6500	1.69442
Low/high anxiety (N)	20	2.00	8.00	4.7000	1.62546
Pragmatic/Openness (O)	20	1.00	7.00	4.6500	1.56525
Independence/Agreeable (A)	20	3.00	9.00	5.2500	1.58529
Low/high self control (C)	20	6.00	10.00	8.4000	1.56945

Table 18 indicates that the sample reported high sten scores on emotional stability (6.6), suspiciousness (7.1), restraint (6.7), self-discipline and self-control (8.4). The remainder of the indicators measured within the range 4 < 5.5 > 6 of the mean of 5.5.

From Table 18 significant high individual scores were reported on distant aloof/empathic (fA) (15% of sample), low/high intellectance (β) (10% of sample), feelings/emotionally stable (fC) (25% of sample), accommodating/dominant (fE) (10% of sample), sober serious/enthusiastic (fF) (5% of sample), expedient/conscientious (fG) (40% of sample), retiring/socially bold (fH) (10% of sample), hard-headed/tender minded (fI) (15% of sample), trusting/suspicious (fL) (45% of sample), concrete/abstract (fM) (10% of sample), direct/restraint (fN) (40% of sample), conventional/radical (fQ1) (5% of sample), group oriented/self-sufficient

(*fQ2*) (20% of sample), informal/self disciplined (*fQ3*) (70% of sample), low/high anxiety (N) (5% of sample), independence/agreeable (A) (10% of sample), low/high self control (C) (70% of sample). No significant high individual scores were reported on self-assured/apprehensive (*fO*), compose/tense driven (*fQ4*), introvert/extrovert (E), and pragmatic/openness (O) scales.

From Table 18 significant low individual scores were reported on distant aloof/empathic (*fA*) (15% of sample), low/high intellectance (β) (15% of sample), feelings/emotionally stable (*fC*) (10% of sample), sober serious/enthusiastic (*fF*) (30% of sample), retiring/socially bold (*fH*) (20% of sample), hard-headed/tender minded (*fI*) (15% of sample), concrete/abstract (*fM*) (25% of sample), self-assured/apprehensive (*fO*) (25% of sample), conventional/radical (*fQ1*) (25% of sample), group oriented/self-sufficient (*fQ2*) (15% of sample), compose/tense driven (*fQ4*) (30% of sample), introvert/extrovert (E) (25% of sample), low/high anxiety (N) (20% of sample), pragmatic/openness (O) (20% of sample), independence/agreeable (A) (15% of sample). No significant low individual scores were reported on accommodating/dominant (*fE*), expedient/conscientious (*fG*), trusting/suspicious (*fL*), direct/restraint (*fN*), informal/self disciplined and low/high self control (C) scales.

Table 19. *Descriptive statistics on primary and secondary personality traits of the successful group*

<i>Traits</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Distant Aloof/Empathic (fA)	10	2.00	8.00	5.6000	1.64655
Low/High Intellectance (β)	10	2.00	10.00	5.5000	2.22361
Feelings/Emotionally stable (fC)	10	4.00	10.00	7.2000	2.04396
Accommodating/Dominant (fE)	10	5.00	8.00	6.2000	1.03280
Sober serious/Enthusiastic (fF)	10	1.00	8.00	4.4000	1.95505
Expedient/Conscientious (fG)	10	4.00	10.00	7.2000	1.98886
Retiring/Socially bold (fH)	10	3.00	8.00	5.7000	1.82878
Hard-headed/Tender minded (fI)	10	1.00	8.00	5.8000	2.25093
Trusting/Suspicious (fL)	10	4.00	9.00	6.6000	1.71270
Concrete/Abstract (fM)	10	2.00	8.00	4.8000	1.81353
Direct/Restraint (fN)	10	5.00	10.00	6.6000	1.57762
Self-assured/Apprehensive (fO)	10	2.00	6.00	3.9000	1.37032
Conventional/Radical (fQ1)	10	1.00	7.00	4.9000	1.79196
Group oriented/Self-sufficient (fQ2)	10	3.00	10.00	5.7000	2.11082
Informal/Self disciplined (fQ3)	10	5.00	10.00	8.4000	2.01108
Compose/Tense driven (fQ4)	10	1.00	6.00	4.0000	2.10819
Introvert/Extrovert (E)	10	2.00	7.00	4.9000	1.79196
Low/high anxiety (N)	10	2.00	7.00	4.0000	1.76383
Pragmatic/Openness (O)	10	3.00	7.00	4.9000	1.37032
Independence/Agreeable (A)	10	3.00	9.00	5.4000	1.83787
Low/high self control (C)	10	6.00	10.00	8.5000	1.64992

The sten scores of the successful group are reported in Table 19. This group reported high sten scores on emotional stability (7.2), dominance (6.2), conscientiousness (7.2), suspiciousness (6.6) and restraint (6.6). Low scores were reported on apprehensiveness (3.9). The remainder of the indicators measured within the range 4 < 5.5 > 6 of the average sten indicator of 5.5. From Table 19 significant high individual scores were reported on distant aloof/Empathic (fA) (10% of successful group), low/high intellectance (β) (10% of successful group), feelings/emotionally stable (fC) (40% of successful group), accommodating/dominant (fE) (10% of successful group), sober serious/enthusiastic (fF) (10% of successful group), expedient/conscientious (fG) (30% of successful group), retiring/socially bold (fH) (20% of successful group), hard-headed/tender minded (fI) (30% of successful group), trusting/suspicious (fL) (30% of successful group), concrete/abstract (fM) (10% of successful group),

direct/restraint (*fN*) (30% of successful group), group oriented/self-sufficient (*fQ2*) (20% of successful group), informal/self disciplined (*fQ3*) (70% of successful group), independence/agreeable (*A*) (20% of successful group) and low/high self control (*C*) (70% of successful group). No significant high individual scores were reported on self-assured/apprehensive (*fO*), conventional/radical (*fQ1*), compose/tense driven (*fQ4*), introvert/extrovert (*E*), low/high anxiety (*N*) and pragmatic/openness (*O*) scales.

From Table 19 significant low individual scores were reported on distant aloof/empathic (*fA*) (10% of successful group), low/high Intellectance (β) (20% of successful group), sober serious/enthusiastic (*fF*) (20% of successful group), retiring/socially bold (*fH*) (10% of successful group), hard-headed/tender minded (*fI*) (10% of successful group), concrete/abstract (*fM*) (30% of successful group), self-assured/apprehensive (*fO*) (50% of successful group), conventional/radical (*fQ1*) (10% of successful group), group oriented/self-sufficient (*fQ2*) (20% of successful group), compose/tense driven (*fQ4*) (40% of successful group), introvert/extrovert (*E*) (20% of successful group), low/high anxiety (*N*) (40% of successful group), pragmatic/openness (*O*) (10% of successful group), and independence/agreeable (*A*) (10% of successful group). No significant low individual scores were reported on feelings/emotionally stability (*fC*), accommodating/dominant (*fE*), expedient/conscientious (*fG*) trusting/ suspicious (*fL*), direct/restraint (*fN*), informal/self disciplined (*fQ3*) and low/high self control (*C*) scales.

Table 20. *Descriptive statistics on primary and secondary personality traits the unsuccessful group*

<i>Traits</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Distant Aloof/Empathic (<i>fA</i>)	8	3.00	8.00	5.5000	1.85164
Low/High Intellectance (β)	8	3.00	6.00	5.0000	1.06904
Feelings/Emotionally stable (<i>fC</i>)	8	2.00	8.00	5.7500	1.90863
Accommodating/Dominant (<i>fE</i>)	8	4.00	8.00	5.5000	1.30931
Sober serious/Enthusiastic (<i>fF</i>)	8	3.00	6.00	4.3750	1.18773
Expedient/Conscientious (<i>fG</i>)	8	4.00	10.00	6.8750	1.88509
Retiring/Socially bold (<i>fH</i>)	8	2.00	6.00	5.1250	1.35620
Hard-headed/Tender minded (<i>fI</i>)	8	2.00	6.00	4.6250	1.30247
Trusting/Suspicious (<i>fL</i>)	8	6.00	9.00	7.7500	1.03510
Concrete/Abstract (<i>fM</i>)	8	3.00	9.00	5.2500	1.98206
Direct/Restraint (<i>fN</i>)	8	5.00	10.00	6.8750	1.88509
Self-assured/Apprehensive (<i>fO</i>)	8	4.00	7.00	5.2500	0.88641
Conventional/Radical (<i>fQ1</i>)	8	3.00	8.00	4.5000	1.77281
Group oriented/Self-sufficient (<i>fQ2</i>)	8	4.00	9.00	6.0000	1.51186
Informal/Self disciplined (<i>fQ3</i>)	8	7.00	10.00	8.5000	1.19523
Compose/Tense driven (<i>fQ4</i>)	8	2.00	7.00	4.6250	1.68502
Introvert/Extrovert (E)	8	3.00	6.00	4.6250	1.18773
Low/high anxiety (N)	8	4.00	8.00	5.3750	1.30247
Pragmatic/Openness (O)	8	1.00	7.00	4.7500	1.83225
Independence/Agreeable (A)	8	3.00	7.00	5.1250	1.45774
Low/high self control (C)	8	6.00	10.00	8.2500	1.58114

The sten scores of the unsuccessful group are reported in Table 20. This group reported high sten scores on conscientiousness (6.875), suspiciousness (7.75), restraint (6.87), self-sufficiency (6.0), self-discipline (8.5) and self-control (8.25). The remainder of the indicators measured within the range 4 < 5.5 > 6 of the average sten indicator of 5.5.

From Table 20 significant high individual sten scores were reported on distant aloof/empathic (*fA*) (25% of unsuccessful group), feelings/emotionally stable (*fC*) (12.5% of unsuccessful group), accommodating/dominant (*fE*) (12.5% of unsuccessful group), expedient/conscientious (*fG*) (37.5% of unsuccessful group), trusting/suspicious (*fL*) (62.5% of unsuccessful group), concrete/abstract (*fM*) (12.5% of unsuccessful group), direct/restraint (*fN*) (50% of unsuccessful group), conventional/radical (*fQ1*) (12.5% of unsuccessful group),

group oriented/self-sufficient (*fQ2*) (12.5% of unsuccessful group), informal/self disciplined (*fQ3*) (75% of unsuccessful group), low/high anxiety (N) (12.5% of unsuccessful group), low/high self control (C) (75% of unsuccessful group). No significant high individual sten scores were reported on low/high Intellectance (β), sober serious/enthusiastic (*fF*), retiring/socially bold (*fH*), hard-headed/tender minded (*fI*), self-assured/apprehensive (*fO*), compose/tense driven (*fQ4*), introvert/extrovert (E), pragmatic/openness (O) and independence/agreeable (A) scales.

From Table 20 significant low individual sten scores were reported on distant aloof/empathic (*fA*) (12.5% of unsuccessful group), low/high intellectance (β) (12.5% of unsuccessful group), feelings/emotionally stable (*fC*) (12.5% of unsuccessful group), sober serious/enthusiastic (*fF*) (25% of unsuccessful group), retiring/socially bold (*fH*) (12.5% of unsuccessful group), hard-headed/tender minded (*fI*) (12.12.5% of unsuccessful group), concrete/abstract (*fM*) (12.5% of unsuccessful group), conventional/radical (*fQ1*) (37.5% of unsuccessful group), compose/tense driven (*fQ4*) (12.5% of unsuccessful group), introvert/extrovert (E) (12.5% of unsuccessful group), pragmatic/openness (O) (12.5% of unsuccessful group) and independence/agreeable (A) (25% of unsuccessful group). No significant low individual sten scores were reported on accommodating/dominant (*fE*), expedient/conscientious (*fG*) trusting/suspicious (*fL*), direct/restraint (*fN*), self-assured/apprehensive (*fO*), group oriented/self-sufficient (*fQ2*), informal/ self disciplined (*fQ3*), low/high anxiety (N) and low/high self control (C) scales.

The sten scores of the 15FQ+ profile of the successful, unsuccessful and sample group are compared in Figure 4. The scales of the 15FQ+ profile on the x-axis are: distant aloof/empathic (*fA*), low/high intellectance (β), feelings/emotionally stable (*fC*), accommodating/dominant (*fE*), sober serious/enthusiastic (*fF*), expedient/conscientious (*fG*), retiring/socially bold (*fH*), hard-headed/tender minded (*fI*), trusting/suspicious (*fL*), concrete/abstract (*fM*), direct/restraint (*fN*),

self-assured/apprehensive (*fO*), conventional/radical (*fQ1*), group oriented/self-sufficient (*fQ2*), informal/self disciplined (*fQ3*), compose/tense driven (*fQ4*), introvert/extrovert (*E*), low/high anxiety (*N*), pragmatic/openness (*O*), independence/agreeable (*A*), low/high self control (*C*).

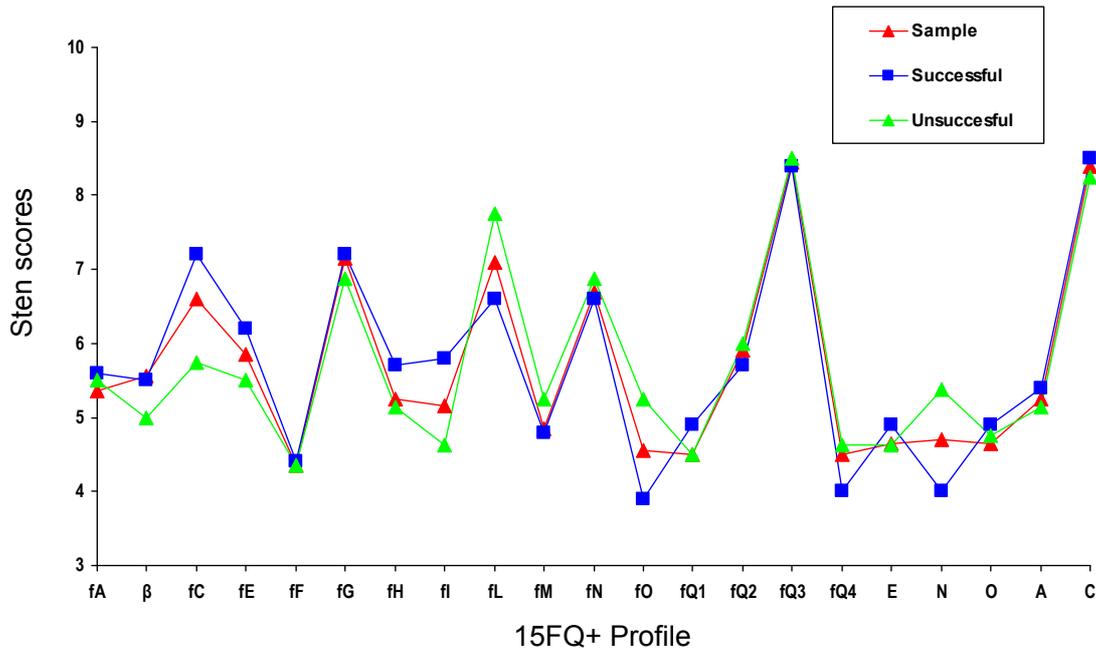


Figure 4. *Sten scores for the source and secondary traits for the 15FQ+ of the sample, successful and unsuccessful group*

Figure 4 indicates differences in sten scores between the successful and unsuccessful groups on the following scales: low/high Intellectance (β), feelings/emotionally stability (*fC*), accommodating/dominant (*fE*), retiring/socially bold (*fH*), hard-headed/tender minded (*fI*), trusting/Suspicious (*fL*), concrete/abstract (*fM*), self-assured/apprehensive (*fO*), conventional/radical (*fQ1*), compose/tense driven (*fQ4*), introvert/extrovert (*E*) and low/high anxiety (*N*). These differences between the successful and unsuccessful groups are discussed in par 5. 5.

4.6 Results of leadership preferences

The Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) (see par 3.3.3.3) results on the measurement of leadership preferences are reported in this section. Descriptive statistics on the type indicator measured of the sample as reported on the (MBTI) are listed in Table 21.

Table 21. *Descriptive statistics on personality dimensions and functions of the sample*

<i>Dimensions and functions</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Introversion	20	2.00	6.00	4.0000	1.21395
Extroversion	20	2.00	6.00	4.0000	1.21395
Sensing	20	1.00	6.00	3.7500	1.52523
Intuitive	20	2.00	7.00	4.2500	1.48235
Thinking	20	3.00	8.00	5.5000	1.35724
Feeling	20	0.00	5.00	2.5000	1.35724
Judging	20	3.00	7.00	5.2000	1.15166
Perceiving	20	1.00	5.00	2.8000	1.15166

The MBTI data reported in Table 21 indicates similar results for the sample on the personality dimensions of introversion (4.0) and extroversion (4.0). Differences were reported on the paired functions of (a) intuition (4.25), sensing (3.75), (b) thinking (5.5), feeling (2.5) and (c) judging (5.2), perceiving (2.8).

Table 22. *Descriptive statistics on personality dimensions and functions of the successful group*

<i>Dimensions and functions</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Introversion	10	2.00	5.00	3.7000	1.05935
Extroversion	10	3.00	6.00	4.3000	1.05935
Sensing	10	2.00	5.00	3.3000	1.22927
Intuitive	10	3.00	6.00	4.7000	1.15950
Thinking	10	3.00	7.00	5.2000	1.47573
Feeling	10	1.00	5.00	2.8000	1.47573
Judging	10	4.00	6.00	5.3000	0.82327
Perceiving	10	2.00	4.00	2.7000	0.82327

Table 22 shows differences in the results for the successful group on the personality dimensions of introversion (3.7) and extroversion (4.3) and the paired functions of (a) intuition (4.7), sensing (3.3), (b) thinking (5.2), feeling (2.8) and (c) judging (5.3), perceiving (2.7).

Table 23. *Personality dimensions and functions of the unsuccessful group*

<i>Dimensions and functions</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Introversion	8	3.00	6.00	4.5000	1.41421
Extroversion	8	2.00	5.00	3.5000	1.41421
Sensing	8	1.00	6.00	4.1250	1.88509
Intuitive	8	2.00	7.00	3.8750	1.88509
Thinking	8	4.00	8.00	5.8750	1.35620
Feeling	8	0.00	4.00	2.1250	1.35620
Judging	8	3.00	7.00	5.1250	1.55265
Perceiving	8	1.00	5.00	2.8750	1.55265

The results of the leadership dimension of the unsuccessful group are reported in Table 23. The MBTI data indicates differences between the personality dimensions of introversion (4.5) and extroversion (3.5) and the paired functions of (a) intuition (3.875), sensing (4.125), (b) thinking (5.875), feeling (2.125) and (c) judging (5.125), perceiving (2.875).

Table 24. *Type indicators for the sample, successful and unsuccessful group.*

<i>Type Indicator</i>	<i>Frequency</i>		
	<i>Sample (N=20)</i>	<i>Successful group (n=10)</i>	<i>Unsuccessful group (n=8)</i>
ISTJ	2	0	2
ISFJ	2	1	1
INFJ	0	0	0
INTJ	3	2	1
ISTP	1	0	0
ISFP	0	0	0
INFP	0	0	0
INTP	2	1	1
ESTP	0	0	0
ESFP	0	0	0
ENFP	0	0	0
ENTP	1	0	1
ESTJ	3	0	2
ESFJ	2	2	0
ENFJ	0	0	0
ENTJ	4	4	0

The basic leadership dimensions of the MBTI (see Appendix B for descriptions) are listed in Table 24 for the sample, successful and unsuccessful groups. The type indicators of ENTJ (20%), INTJ (15%) and ESTJ (15%) represent 50 % of the sample. The remained of the sample' type indicators are distributed as ISTJ (10%), ISFJ (10%), INTJ (10%), INTP (10%), ISTP (5%) and ESFJ (5%). The successful group reported high frequencies on ENTJ (40%). The remainder of the successful group type indicators are distributed as INTJ (20%), ESFJ (20%), ISFJ (10%) and INTP (10%). The unsuccessful group is distribution on the leadership dimension as ISTJ (25%), ESTJ (25%), ISFJ (12.5%), INTJ (12.5%), INTP (12.5%) and ENTP (12.5%).

The results of the personality dimensions and paired functions of the type indicator for the sample, successful and unsuccessful groups are compared in Figure 5.

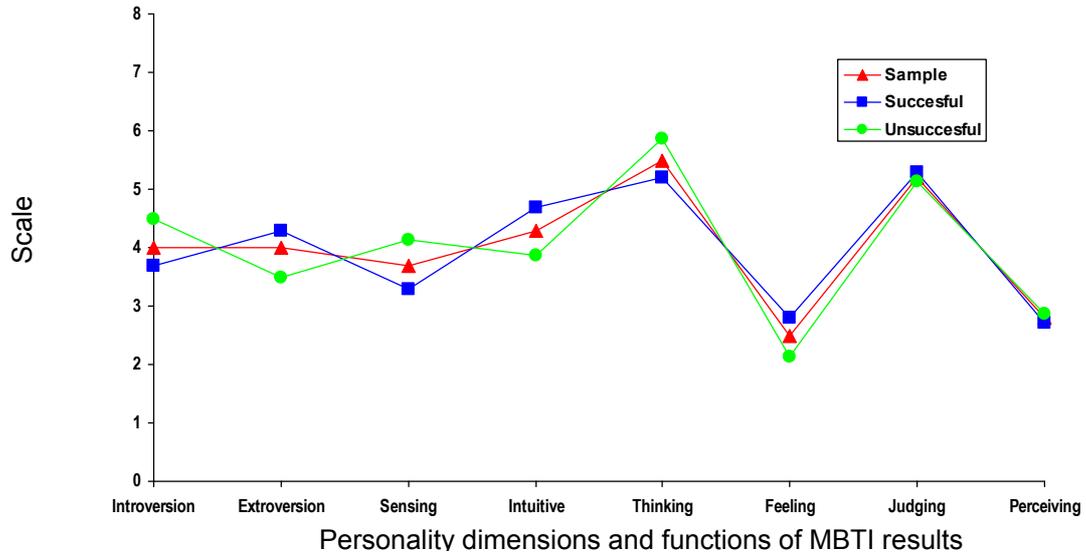


Figure 5. Leadership dimensions and functions, measured by the MBTI on the sample, successful and unsuccessful group

Figure 5 indicates differences between the successful and unsuccessful groups on the personality dimensions of introversion and extroversion and the paired functions of sensing and intuition, and thinking and feeling. Figure 5 indicates no differences on the paired function of judging and perceiving. These differences between the successful and unsuccessful groups are discussed in par 5.6.

4.7 Results of personality disorders and other clinical syndromes

The MCMI-III (see par 3.3.3.3) results on the measurement of personality disorders and other clinical syndromes are reported in this section. Millon, cited in Craig (1999b) indicated it is inappropriate to convert raw scores of the MCMI and created base rate (BR) scores to reflect the uneven distribution of personality disorders among the population. BR scores > 84 reflect characteristics that define the disorder at the diagnostic level. BR scores between 75 and 84 indicate the presence of traits associated with the disorder. A BR of 60 represents the mean score. BR scores <75 are generally considered as diagnostically insignificant. (Craig, 1999b).

The modifier indices comprise of a validity index (VI), Disclosure scale (scale X), Desirability scale (scale Y) and Debasement scale (scale Z) (Craig, 1999b). From inspection on the 20 participants answer sheets, no responses on the validity index were indicated as false on the three items that measures validity. The results show that all measurements on the VI scale are valid and can be interpreted. The remained of the modifier indices are reported in Table 25.

Table 25. *Descriptive statistics on modifying indices on the MCMI-III for the sample*

<i>Scale</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Disclosure Index (scale X)	20	0.00	75.00	50.0000	22.99886
Desirability Index (scale Y)	20	50.00	100.00	80.5000	13.65939
Debasement Index (scale Z)	20	0.00	65.00	41.5000	19.54078

A raw score measurement of < 34 and >178 on the disclosure index (scale X) indicates that the profile is invalid. Craig (1999b) said that participants with raw scores < 34 report defensively; deny personal problems, symptoms and negative feelings. From the results in Table 25 three cases in the sample reported invalid with a raw score of 0. The invalid cases were excluded to enhance the validity of

the measurement of the successful and unsuccessful groups (Choca, 2004; Craig, 1999b). Case number 3 in the unsuccessful and case numbers 14 and 15 in the successful groups were excluded in the interpretation of the results. The results in Table 25 show that no measurements were recorded on raw scores > 178 on the disclosure scale. A BR > 74 on scale Y indicates that participants portray them with few or no psychological problems (Craig, 1999b). From the results in Table 25 one participant's reported a BR higher than the cut off score. The profile of this participant is valid for interpretation since adjustments are made on scales known to be affected by high and low scores on scale Y (Choca, 2004; Craig, 1999b). On the debasement scale (scale Z) scores below 75 are not significant (Craig, 1999b). The results in Table 25 show that no scores were measured above the cut off score of 75 on the debasement scale.

Table 26. *Descriptive statistics on personality disorders of sample*

<i>Scale</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Schizoid scale (1)	17	0.00	80.00	57.6471	25.62455
Avoidant scale (2A)	17	0.00	85.00	54.7059	26.00905
Depressive scale (2B)	17	0.00	80.00	51.1765	30.49228
Dependant scale (3)	17	0.00	80.00	53.5294	28.60096
Histrionic scale (4)	17	0.00	70.00	47.6471	18.21037
Narcissistic scale (5)	17	50.00	105.00	74.7059	15.65952
Antisocial scale (6A)	17	0.00	80.00	22.6471	28.40101
Aggressive scale (6B)	17	0.00	75.00	55.0000	17.67767
Compulsive scale (7)	17	40.00	85.00	63.5294	10.11878
Negativistic scale (8A)	17	0.00	85.00	36.4706	30.70854
Self-Defeating scale (8B)	17	0.00	75.00	34.7059	32.03858

A BR score of 75 is used as the cut off score to determine if a personality scale is elevated (Craig, 1999b). In Table 26 descriptive statistics on the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation is reported for the sample. The number of individuals who reported scores above the cut off score is interpreted as a percentage of the sample based of the statistics of the MCMI-III data in the frequency tables in SPSS. Table 26 indicates that BR scores above the cut of score of 75 were reported on the schizoid scale (23.5% of sample), avoidant scale (23.5% of sample), depressive scale (5.9% of sample), dependant scale

(23.5% of sample), narcissistic scale (29.4% of sample), antisocial scale (5.9% of sample), compulsive scale (5.9% of sample) and negativistic scale (5.9% of sample). These results are meaningful and are discussed in par 5.7. Table 26 shows that scores below the cut of score were reported on the histrionic scale, aggressive and self-defeating scales.

Table 27. *Descriptive statistics on personality disorders of the successful group*

<i>Scale</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Schizoid scale (1)	8	0.00	75.00	55.0000	26.45751
Avoidant scale (2A)	8	0.00	80.00	48.7500	25.46005
Depressive scale (2B)	8	0.00	75.00	30.6250	34.16739
Dependant scale (3)	8	0.00	75.00	44.3750	28.83915
Histrionic scale (4)	8	0.00	60.00	43.7500	19.77553
Narcissistic scale (5)	8	50.00	100.00	71.8750	15.33844
Antisocial scale (6A)	8	0.00	60.00	18.7500	26.42374
Aggressive scale (6B)	8	0.00	65.00	51.2500	22.95181
Compulsive scale (7)	8	55.00	85.00	66.2500	10.93814
Negativistic scale (8A)	8	0.00	80.00	31.8750	35.34903
Self-Defeating scale (8B)	8	0.00	70.00	13.7500	26.69270

Table 27 shows descriptive statistics on the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation on personality disorders of the successful group. The number of participants who recorded scores above the cut off scores is interpreted as a percentage of the sample based of the statistics of the MCMI-III data in the frequency tables in SPSS. Table 27 indicates that BR scores above the cut of score of 75 were reported on the avoidant scale (25% of successful group), narcissistic scale (25% of successful group), compulsive scale (12.5% of successful group) and negativistic scale (12.5% of successful group). These scores are meaningful for this study and will be discussed in par 5.7. Table 27 shows that scores on and below the cut of score were reported on the schizoid, depressive, dependant, histrionic, antisocial, aggressive and self-defeating scales. These scores are not meaningful and will not be discussed in Chapter 5.

Table 28. *Descriptive statistics on personality disorders in the unsuccessful group*

<i>Scale</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Schizoid scale (1)	7	0.00	80.00	56.4286	28.82624
Avoidant scale (2A)	7	0.00	85.00	62.1429	30.25684
Depressive scale (2B)	7	60.00	80.00	69.2857	7.31925
Dependant scale (3)	7	0.00	80.00	62.1429	29.41898
Histrionic scale (4)	7	10.00	65.00	48.5714	17.96160
Narcissistic scale (5)	7	60.00	95.00	76.4286	12.14986
Antisocial scale (6A)	7	0.00	80.00	24.2857	30.47247
Aggressive scale (6B)	7	35.00	75.00	56.4286	12.81740
Compulsive scale (7)	7	40.00	65.00	58.5714	8.52168
Negativistic scale (8A)	7	0.00	85.00	40.7143	31.54739
Self-Defeating scale (8B)	7	0.00	75.00	55.0000	27.08013

Table 28 shows descriptive statistics on the minimum, maximum, mean and standard deviation on personality disorders of the unsuccessful group. The number of individuals who recorded scores above the cut off scores is interpreted as a percentage of the sample based of the statistics of the MCMI-III data in the frequency tables in SPSS. Table 28 indicates that BR scores above the cut of score of 75 were reported on the schizoid scale (14% of unsuccessful group), avoidant scale (28% of unsuccessful group), depressive scale (14% of unsuccessful group), dependant scale (43% of unsuccessful group), narcissistic scale (57% of unsuccessful group), antisocial scale (14% of unsuccessful group) and negativistic scale (14% of unsuccessful group). These scores are meaningful for this study and will be discussed in par 5. 7. Table 28 shows that scores below the cut of score were reported on the histrionic, aggressive, compulsive and self-defeating scale. These scores are not meaningful and will not be discussed in Chapter 5.

The mean scores of the clinical patterns of personality disorders for the sample, successful and unsuccessful groups are compared in Figure 6. The scales of the clinical patterns on the x-axis are: schizoid scale (1), avoidant scale (2A), depressive scale (2B), dependant scale (3), histrionic scale (4), narcissistic scale (5), antisocial scale (6A), aggressive scale (6B), compulsive scale (7), negativistic scale (8A) and self-defeating scale (8B).

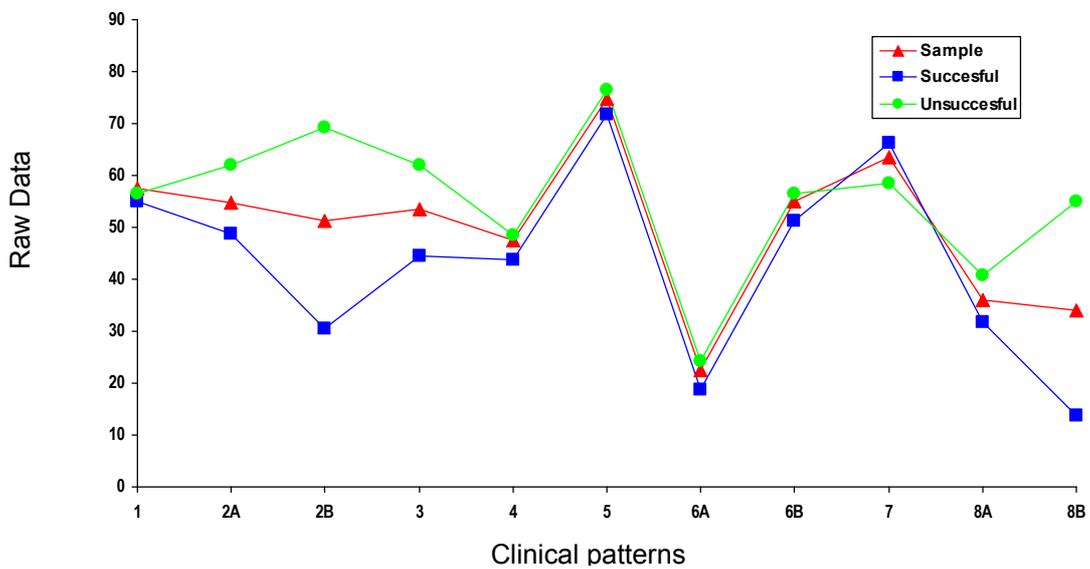


Figure 6. *Clinical patterns for sample, successful and unsuccessful group*

Figure 6 shows differences in clinical patterns on the avoidant (2A), depressive (2B), dependant (3), compulsive (7), negativistic (8A) and self-defeating (8B) scales. The meaningfulness of these differences between the successful and unsuccessful groups are discussed in par 5. 7.

Table 29. *Descriptive statistics on severe personality disorders*

<i>Severe Personality scales</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Schizotypal scale (S)	17	0.00	80.00	50.2941	29.17997
Borderline scale (C)	17	0.00	65.00	25.8824	29.11375
Paranoid scale (P)	17	0.00	90.00	65.0000	18.28592

Severe personality patterns were measured on three scales: (a) schizotypal (scale S), borderline (scale C) and (c) paranoid (scale P) (Choca, 2004, Craig, 1999b). Table 29 indicates that no participant measured above the cut off score (BR > 84) on the schizotypal scale (scale S). No participants measurements were above the cut off score (BR > 75) for the borderline scale (scale C). One participant (14% of the unsuccessful group) measured above the cut off score of BR > 75 on the paranoid scale (scale P). (Craig, 1999b).

Table 30. *Clinical syndromes of the unsuccessful group*

<i>Clinical syndrome scale</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Anxiety disorder scale (A)	17	0.00	100.00	55.2941	34.79721
Somatoform scale (H)	17	0.00	65.00	36.4706	30.35028
Bipolar scale (N)	17	0.00	75.00	49.4118	25.24148
Dysthymia scale (D)	17	0.00	75.00	37.9412	33.63679
Alcohol dependant scale (B)	17	0.00	80.00	22.0588	31.47712
Drug dependency scale (T)	17	0.00	65.00	28.2353	31.17196
PTSD scale (R)	17	0.00	70.00	40.8824	28.29727

The suggested cut off scores for the clinical syndromes is BR > 84 (Craig, 1999b). Table 30 shows that an elevated score were measured on the anxiety disorder scale (scale A). The measurement on the remainder of the clinical syndrome scales reported below the cut off score. Twelve percent of the sample measured above the cut off score on scale A. This measurement is represented by 28% in the unsuccessful group.

Table 31. *Descriptive statistics on the severe syndrome of the sample*

<i>Severe syndrome scale</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Thought disorder scale (SS)	17	0.00	70.00	41.7647	28.66516
Major depression scale (CC)	17	0.00	65.00	27.0588	30.46816
Delusional disorder scale (PP)	17	0.00	75.00	59.7059	22.73974

The results on severe syndromes are reported in Table 31. Severe syndromes were measured on three scales: though disorder scale (scale SS), major depression scale (scale CC) and delusional disorder scale (scale PP). All participants measured below the cut off score of BR > 84. (Craig, 1999b).

4.8 Linguistic skills results

The results of the Academic Aptitude Test (AAT) (see par 3.3.3.4) are interpreted on a nine point scale (stanine) where 1 indicates very poor ability, 2-3 poor ability, 4-6 average ability, 7-8 good ability and 9 indicates very good ability. Stanines have a mean of 5 and a standard deviation of 1.96. (HSRC, 1977). Descriptive statistics for the results of the English ability test on the maximum, minimum, mean and standard deviation is reported in Table 32.

Table 32. *Descriptive statistics on English Ability of the sample, successful and unsuccessful groups*

<i>Groups</i>	<i>English ability</i>				
	<i>N</i>	<i>Minimum</i>	<i>Maximum</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>Std. Deviation</i>
Sample Vocabulary	20	2.00	9.00	6.2000	1.93581
Sample Comprehension	20	1.00	9.00	5.5000	2.35081
Successful group Vocabulary	10	2.00	9.00	5.9000	2.33095
Successful group Comprehension	10	3.00	9.00	5.8000	2.34758
Unsuccessful group Vocabulary	8	5.00	9.00	6.5000	1.51186
Unsuccessful group Comprehension	8	3.00	9.00	5.7500	2.18763

The results in Table 32 show sten scores between 2 and 9 were reported on the English vocabulary test for the sample with a mean indicating an average ability

of 6.2. The frequency tables of SPSS indicated that 20% of the sample reported below average sten (<4) and 50% measured above average (>6) on the English vocabulary test. Sten scores between 1 and 9 were reported on the English comprehension test for the sample with a mean indicating an average ability of 5.5. The frequency tables of SPSS indicated that 30% of the sample reported below the average sten (<4) and 30% measured above average (>6) on the English comprehension test.

The results in Table 32 show sten scores between 2 and 9 were reported on the English vocabulary test for the successful group with a mean indicating an average ability of 5.9. The frequency tables of SPSS indicated that 20% of the sample reported below average sten (<4) and 50% measured above average (>6) on the English vocabulary test. Sten scores between 3 and 9 were reported on the English comprehension test for the successful group with a mean indicating an average ability of 5.8. The frequency tables of SPSS indicated that 30% of the sample reported below the average sten (<4) and 30% measured above average (>6) on the English comprehension test.

The results in Table 32 show sten scores between 5 and 9 were reported on the English vocabulary test for the unsuccessful group with a mean indicating an average ability of 6.5. The frequency tables of SPSS indicated that 50% measured above average (>6) on the English vocabulary test. No below average scores were reported for the English vocabulary test. Sten scores between 1 and 9 were reported on the English comprehension test for the unsuccessful group with a mean indicating an average ability of 5.5. The frequency tables of SPSS indicated that 25% of the sample reported below the average sten (<4) and 37.5% measured above average (>6) on the English vocabulary test.

The results indicate the unsuccessful group outperformed the successful group on the English vocabulary test. There is a moderate difference between the ability of the successful and unsuccessful groups on the English comprehension test. The meaningful results are discussed in par 5. 8.

4.9 Chapter summary

The results on the empirical research for this study were presented in this chapter. The integration of the theoretical foundation of this study and the primary data in the competency model provides the foundation for the discussion in Chapter 5. The competency model's ratings were reported as reliable by the two groups of judges (SMEs). The critical and very important competencies as identified by the SMEs will be interpreted in the discussion of the psychometric test results. The discussion in Chapter 5 will include the results on the performance indicators that reported meaningful differences on the performance of the successful and unsuccessful groups. This division between the two groups is instrumental in the discussion on the psychometric test results. The results of this chapter are integrated with the theoretical foundation in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION OF RESULTS

5.1 Introduction

The results of the various analyses are discussed in this chapter. Results are discussed separately for each measurement reported in Chapter 4. Firstly, the results of the competency model are discussed. Secondly, the critical and very important competencies as rated by the SMEs are discussed. The meaningfulness of the reliability coefficients reported for the SMEs, CIMIC experts and psychologists are discussed. Thirdly, the results on the performance of the sample, successful and unsuccessful groups are discussed. Fourthly, the results of the psychometric tests are integrated with indicators of the competency model. The discussion on each psychometric test are summarised by highlighting the meaningful indicators. Lastly, the meaningful results are summarised per competency.

5.2 Integrated competency model

The competency model, reported in Table 13, is the result of the comprehensive job analysis. The competency model is based on the theoretical foundation of Chapter 2 and the primary data from the field research. The roles and functions of the CIMIC Officer (see par 2.6) were integrated in the framework of Bartram (2005) and Kutz and Bartram (2002). Ten broad competencies, founded on the theoretical foundation of Chapter 2 and interviews with job incumbents and SMEs, were defined. Electives identified in the theoretical discussion were linked to the competencies. These electives are indicated as positive and negative indicators for each competency (Arnold et al., 2005; Brown, 2006). Positive indicators represent behaviour that enhances the CIMIC Officers performance. Negative indicators indicate behaviour that impedes performance. The inclusion of negative indicators is imperative for selection in demanding work environments

(Crowne, 2007; Flin, 2001). Individuals reporting significant results on criteria associated with negative indicators should not be considered for selection (Flin, 2001). These indicators are inclusive of characteristics and behaviour of the CIMIC Officer associated with: (a) the dynamic PSO environment, (b) concept of civil military coordination, (c) PSO environmental challenges that manifest as stressors, (d) personality theories and (e) culture. The validity of the indicators from the theoretical foundation was enhanced through triangulation by comparing and integrating the primary data from field research in the positive and negative indicators (Babbie & Mouton, 2004; Neuman, 2006). The competency model provides the foundation for the discussion on the reported results from the psychometric tests in Chapter 4.

5.3 Competency model SME ratings

The results from Table 14 indicate competency 2 (mean of 3.5), 3 (mean of 3.0), 6 (mean of 3.0) and 7 (mean of 3.0) as very important to critical. Competency 2 (Building and promoting partnerships across the military, humanitarian and civilian components) are defined as: *Determine the CIMIC course of action necessary to reach CIMIC objectives in line with mission requirements* (see Table 13). The importance of this competency is confirmed by the research of Cockell (2002). He suggested that effective partnerships could be established through participative processes in joint planning committees and joint operations centres.

Competency 3 (Advisor to the military and humanitarian component) are defined as: *Communicates and network effectively between the military and humanitarian components* (see Table 13). The research of Abiew (2003) and Newland and Meyers (1999) confirm the importance of this competency. They indicated that consultation, coordination and communication are critical functions in CIMIC.

Competency 6 (Coordinate efforts of relevant organisations to be complimentary) is defined as: *Performing the CIMIC function to enhance coordination and avoid duplication of effort* (see Table 13). Pugh (1998) highlighted the importance of coordination at all execution levels. Lindenberg and Bryant (2001) confirmed Pugh's statement and said that support to the effected population is significantly more effective through enhanced coordination.

Competency 7 (Emotionally stable to adjust and cope with the multiple dimensions of the civil military coordination environment) is defined as: *Adjust and respond well to change and the challenging and ambiguous peace support environment. Manages pressure effectively and copes well with setbacks* (see Table 13). The research of Furnham (1997) and Ketz de Vries and Miller (1986) reflected that individuals who are emotionally unstable would manifest in counter productivity at work. Möller (1993) confirmed the importance of emotional stability that manifests in a strong persona. Individuals with a strong persona tend to be successful at work and maintain exceptional interpersonal relations.

The results from Table 14 indicate an intraclass correlation coefficient (ICC) of .334 for reliability of the ratings. Garson (2007) indicated an ICC between .4 to .59 reflects moderate reliability. The results from Table 14 indicate an ICC below the moderate norm. The low coefficient can be contributed to the diversity of the two clearly defined groups of judges. The results from Table 14 show that the ICC (.924) for the three institutional CIMIC SMEs reflects outstanding norms of reliability (Garson, 2007; Gatewood & Feild, 2001). Outstanding reliability was reported on the ICC (.891) for the three psychologists (Garson, 2007; Gatewood & Feild, 2001). It appears from the results that the one group of CIMIC SMEs rated the model from a humanitarian institutional background with the primary focus on the coordination function. It seems that the second group of psychologists rated the model from a behavioural perspective. Although acceptable results were reported on the separate ICCs for the institutional CIMIC

and psychologist SMEs, the overall reliability is below the acceptable norm (Garson, 2007; Gatewood & Feild, 2001).

5.4 Performance of sample

The results from Table 15 indicated the overall performance of the sample as above average (3.08). This overall performance indicator is founded on three indicators: command and control, operational planning and the CIMIC function. Irrespective of the need for enhanced participative and collaborative processes (Abiew, 2003; De Coning, 2005; Military focus group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007; Newland & Meyers, 1999), command and control remains an important function for the military component (Cockell, 2002; JP, 2003). Superior operational planning skills enable the CIMIC Officer to perform the CIMIC function in an organised and systematic manner (JP, 2003). The need for superior analytic and planning skills is central to the definition of CIMIC as defined in par 2.5.1.1. The importance thereof is confirmed by the research of Abiew, 2003; Burckle, 2006; Pugh, 1998 and Rollins, 2001. Coordination is the central function in CIMIC (De Coning, 2005). It emphasises the need for a flexible officer to function within the spectrum of relationships in the coexistence and cooperation paradigm (see par 2.5.1.2). The research of Abiew (2003) and Spence (2002) confirmed the need for flexibility.

The results from Table 15 show above average performance on operational planning (3.5), average performance on CIMIC (3.0) and below average performance on command and control (2.8). The low score reported on command and control could be contributed to the composition of the sample (see Table 7). The results in Table 7 indicate that only one participant (base commander) was appointed in a supervisory command and control appointment. The remainder of the sample were appointed as staff officers. Command and control is not a critical function for staff officers since they execute instructions of superiors within clearly defined perimeters (Brooks, 2006; Martin, 1992; Soeters

et al., 2003). The sample was divided in a successful and unsuccessful group based on overall performance. From the results in Table 15, 10 participants reported above average overall performance (50% of sample) and 8 participants reported below average overall performance (40% of sample). Table 16 shows the average overall performance of the successful group ($n=10$) as 3.89, with above average scores on command and control (3.4), operational planning (4.6) and CIMIC (3.8). Table 17 indicates the average overall performance of the unsuccessful group ($n=8$) as below average (2.25) with command and control (2.37), operational planning (2.25) and CIMIC (2.12). These results indicate a clear distinction between the performance of the successful and unsuccessful group. The competency model makes provision for the inclusion of positive and negative behavioural indicators (Arnold et al., 2005; Brown, 2006). This enabled the researcher to list desirable and undesirable criteria for measurement in the selection of CIMIC Officers. This distinction is linked to the positive and negative indicators of the competency model (Table 13) in the discussion of the psychometric test results in the remainder of this chapter. The positive skills include the specialist coordination skills that soldiers require to be successful as CIMIC Officers (Abiew, 2003; Brooks, 2006; De Coning, 2005). Siegel (2001) confirmed that support to the affected population would be more effective if cooperation is enhanced by the military with the humanitarian component. The negative indicators of the competency model are linked to behaviour that impedes coordination. The importance of including negative indicators in selection is highlighted by the research of Crowne (2007) and Flin (2001). They said by including negative indicators, inefficient leaders are prevented from assuming critical appointments. Lindenberg and Bryant (2001) confirmed the importance of including negative indicators. They said that poor coordination might result in severe consequences of loss of lives.

5.5 Personality profile

The value of the Fifteen Factor Questionnaire Second Edition (15FQ+) is founded on its ability to indicate primary and secondary personality traits that correlate with the positive and negative indicators of the competency model for a CIMIC Officer in Table 13. The meaningful results from the 15FQ+, reported in Chapter 4, are discussed in this section.

Figure 4 indicates differences in sten scores between the successful and unsuccessful groups on the following scales: Low/high intellectance (β), feelings/emotionally stable (*fC*), accommodating/dominant (*fE*), retiring/ socially bold (*fH*), hard-headed/tender minded (*fI*), trusting/suspicious (*fL*), concrete/ abstract (*fM*), self-assured/apprehensive (*fO*), conventional/radical (*fQ1*), compose/tense driven (*fQ4*), introvert/extrovert (E) and low/high anxiety (N). The differences reported between the successful and unsuccessful group on the 15FQ + scales are discussed in the following section.

The results from Table 18 indicate 25% of the sample reported significant sten scores on the low/high intellectance (β) scale. Individuals with low scores lack confidence in their own abilities, have a low need for affiliation (Psytech, 2002), think concretely, have poor judgment and do not persevere (Craig, 1999b). High scores reflect fast learning, adaptable individuals who are keen to learn new information, acquire new skills (Psytech, 2002) and have high levels of perseverance (Craig, 1999b). The importance of high scores on the intellectance scale are confirmed by the definition on CIMIC that highlights the importance of superior analytic, decision-making and planning skills for a CIMIC Officer (UN DPKO, 2002). These skills are essential for the execution of the CIMIC Officers' functions of adviser (Abiew, 2002; Burckle, 2006; Harris & Dombrowski, 2002; Jackson, 2005; Jeong, 2005; Newland & Meyers, 1999; Pugh, 1998; OIOS, 2005; Spence, 2005), coordinator (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002), project officer (Jenny, 2001; Newland & Meyers,

1999; OIOS, 2005) and training coordinator (George, 2002; Harris & Dombrowski, 2002; IASC, 2005; Pollick, 2000; Pugh, 1998). Horey et al. (2004) confirmed the importance of perseverance as a critical skill for military leaders to be successful in challenging environments. High scores on the intellectance scale correspond with positive indicators of the competency model in Table 13. In competency 1, Horey et al. (2004) indicated the importance for military leaders to maintain and enforce high professional standards by leading by example. The importance of this skill is confirmed by the Military focus group (personal communication, Jan 15, 2007). In competency 2, Horey et al. (2004) said a CIMIC Officer should have the ability to extend influence beyond the military chain of command through participative and collaborative processes to perform the coordination function (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002) effectively. Superior communication skills are required by the CIMIC Officer in providing specialist advice to the humanitarian and military components (Leeds, 2001). Psytech (2002) confirmed high scores on the intellectance scale are associated with individuals who enjoy communicating complex ideas and problems. Horey et al. (2004) emphasised the importance of superior analytic skills for military leaders to translate policy and guidelines into operational processes. The importance of analytic thinking in competency 4 is confirmed in the definition of CIMIC for this study (UN DPKO, 2002). Psytech (2002) reported that high-scoring individuals enjoy analysing demanding tasks. Subsequently CIMIC Officers reporting high scores on the intellectance scale should excel in performing competency 1, 2, 3 and 4. Low scores on the intellectance scale correspond with negative indicators on the competency model in Table 13 on competency 1, 2, 3, 6, 7 and 10. B. Casey (personal communication, Apr 17, 2006) reported that an inappropriate leadership style manifests in counterproductive behaviour (competency 1). This is confirmed by the research of Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) who reported that inappropriate senior leadership styles could be linked to poor performance. Psytech (2002) confirmed that individuals with low scores on intellectance are reluctant to work on intellectually demanding tasks. This could manifest in a counterproductive

work environment. Low self-esteem and working in isolation, in competency 2, are associated with individuals who lack confidence in their own abilities (Psytech, 2002). High levels of self-confidence are imperative in building and promoting partnerships beyond the military chain of command (Horey et al., 2004). Psytech (2002) reported low scoring individuals lack a broad range of general knowledge. This could manifest in miscommunication in the advisory role of the CIMIC Officer (Abiew, 2002; Burckle, 2006; Harris & Dombrowski, 2002; Jackson, 2005; Jeong, 2005; Newland & Meyers, 1999; Pugh, 1998; OIOS, 2005; Spence, 2005) due to a lack of understanding individual and organisation culture (Brummett et al., 2007). Van Dyk (1998) reported that individuals with low self-confidence could experience difficulty in adjusting and coping with the challenging PSO environment (competency 7). The Military focus group (personal communication, Jan 15, 2007) reported that ineffective CIMIC Officers defines unclear and impractical plans in the allocation of resources. Psytech indicated that this behaviour could be associated with low intellectance since these individuals tend to take time in appreciating key points in complex arguments. Linderberg and Bryant (2001) confirmed the importance of swift decision-making in supporting the affected population. Subsequently individuals with low scores on the intellectance scale would be ineffective in performing the CIMIC function. Results from Table 19 indicate that significant low scores for 20% and high scores for 10% of the successful group were reported. These results are not meaningful since low scores are associated with unsuccessful CIMIC Officers. It seems from inspection of the result the high scores on scale β are not an apparent predictor of the positive indicators of competencies 1, 2, 3 and 4. Results from Table 20 shows 12.5% of the unsuccessful group reported low scores and no high scores were reported. These results correlate with the negative scales of the unsuccessful group as reported by Psytech (2002). From inspection on the descriptive statistics, it seems that the low scores on the low/high intellectance scale (β) are an apparent predictor of the negative indicators for competencies 1, 2, 3, 6, 7 and 10. Figure 4 indicates differences for scale β on the sten scores between the successful (5.5)

and the unsuccessful group (5.0). Although the results correlate with the negative indicators on the competency model, minor differences are reported on the significant sten scores on scale β between the successful and unsuccessful groups. These results are not meaningful since it does not clearly discriminate between the successful and unsuccessful groups. The research reported by Psytech (2002) indicated the intellectance scale measure individual differences on how individuals approach cognitive tasks. This measurement is different from the intelligence scale reported in the research of Cattell et al. (1970). Cattell et al. (1970) measurement gave an indication of intelligence ability by means of a power indicator. Although Psytech (2002) reported sufficient reliability between the 15FQ+ and 16PF, the validity of scale β in the 15FQ+ is not clearly indicated since the definitions of the measurement scales differ.

Knuth (1999) and Natsios (1995) characterised complex emergencies as a dynamic and ever-changing environment. Within the dynamic PSO environment CIMIC Officers need to cope with physical, cognitive, emotional and social stressors (Orsillo et al., 1998; Vogelaar et al., 1997). Van Dyk (1998) highlighted the importance of emotional stability for peacekeepers to be able to adjust and cope with the dynamic and challenging PSO environment. The results from Table 18 indicate 35% of the sample reported significant sten scores on the feeling/emotional stability (*fC*) scale. Horey et al. (2004) reported that military leaders with high ego power are successful in leading others to success through motivation and influencing them to take initiative (competency 1). Cattell et al. (1970) confirmed that individuals who are emotionally stable are able to maintain high levels of group moral. Hall et al. (1998) confirmed the importance of a balanced personality to enhance creativity. Creativity is an essential skill for the CIMIC Officer in creating an environment where learning, innovation and creativity are encouraged (competency 5) (Horey et al., 2004). Craig (1999b) and Van Dyk (1998) confirmed the importance of high ego-strength to enable the CIMIC Officer to cope with emotional mission stressors (competency 7) (Bramsen et al., 2000; Deahl et al., 2000; Litz, 2004; Orsillo et al., 1998;

Rosebush, 1998; Shigemura & Nomura, 2002; Vogelaar et al., 1997). Brummett et al. (2007) reported that individuals with a multi-cultural personality with high levels of interpersonal skills, positive social attitude and high self-esteem recognise diverse cultural patterns. Respecting organisational culture and organisational differences are important in the multicultural PSO environment (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007). To be successful, CIMIC Officers must report high scores on the emotional stability scale to be able to adjust to the dynamic PSO environment (Van Dyk, 1998). Subsequently, high scores on the feeling/emotional stability (*fC*) scale correspond with positive indicators of the competency model in Table 13 on competency 1, 5, 7 and 9. Individuals with low scores tend to be emotionally unstable and experience difficulty to adjust to society (Cattell et al., 1970; Craig, 1999b). CIMIC Officers who are emotionally unstable tend to portray counterproductive behaviour (competency 1) under difficult and stressful circumstance (B. Casey, personal communication, Apr 17, 2006; Military focus group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007). Individuals with low scores tend to have low ego-strength (Cattell et al., 1970) and limited ability to tolerate stress (Craig, 1999b). These results are supported by the research of Van Dyk (1998). He confirmed the importance of high ego strength, low state anxiety and adequate self-confidence to be able to adjust to the PSO environment. Subsequently low scores are associated with unsuccessful CIMIC Officers. Figure 4 indicates differences (scale *fC*) on the sten scores between the successful (7.2) and the unsuccessful group (5.7). These differences indicate that scale *fC* discriminates between the successful and unsuccessful groups. The results from Table 19 indicate that no significant low scores and high scores for 40% of the successful group were reported. The results from Table 20 indicate 12.5% of the unsuccessful group reported low and 12.5% reported high significant scores. These results indicate the successful group reported more significant high scores and less significant low scores than the unsuccessful group. These results are supported by the research of Furnham (1997) who reported that individuals with high self-esteem, compared to those with low self-esteem, are likely to report higher performance levels. From

inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems that the low scores on scale *fC* are an apparent predictor for negative indicators on competencies 1 and 7. From inspection of the results from Table 20 it seems that high scores on the feeling/emotional stability (*fC*) scale are apparent predictors of positive indicators on competencies 1, 5, 7 and 9.

The CIMIC Officer is a military officer who performs CIMIC roles and functions (De Coning, 2005). The CIMIC Officer should have skills over and above the military skills to be successful in interacting with the humanitarian component (Abiew, 2003; Brooks, 2006; De Coning, 2005). An important task of the CIMIC Officer is to facilitate participative and collaborative processes to achieve common mission objectives (Cockell, 2002; Pugh, 1998). The CIMIC Officer needs a balance between accommodating and dominating to enhance the coordination function through participative and consultative processes (De Coning, 2005; Keating & Knight, 2004). From the results in Table 18, 10% of the sample reported significant sten scores on the accommodating/dominating (*fE*) scale. High scoring individuals are dominant, assertive, competitive, aggressive (Psytech, 2002), impatient and attention seeking (Craig 1999b). This behaviour could manifest in counterproductive behaviour (competency 1) in the CIMIC environment (B. Casey, personal communication, Apr 15, 2007). These individuals prefer to be in command of situations (Craig, 1999b) and can be forceful in dominating other individuals (Psytech, 2002). This behaviour could be detrimental to the coordination role (competency 6) of the CIMIC Officer (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002). Individuals with significant low sten scores have difficulty to take charge of a situation, are passive and compliant (Psytech, 2002). Sue et al. (2000) confirmed that these characteristics are often associated with a detached personality disorder. Cattell et al. (1970) and Craig (1999b) reporting that individuals dominant in accommodating are often submissive and dependant. Horey et al. (2004) said that individuals who depend on others and are reluctant in assuming responsibility, would have a negative impact on promoting a learning and

creative CIMIC working environment. Subsequently low scores by a CIMIC Officer on the accommodating/dominating (*fE*) scale correspond with negative indicators on the competency model in Table 13 on competency 1 and 5. Figure 4 indicates differences for the *fE* scale on the sten scores between the successful (6.2) and the unsuccessful group (5.5). These results are not meaningful since both the successful and unsuccessful reported high mean scores on domination. The results from Table 19 indicate that no significant low scores and high scores for 10% of the successful group were reported. Cattell et al. (1970) reported that dominance is positively correlated with social status and is higher in established leaders than followers. He stated that groups with effective role definition and democratic procedures tend to report high averages on the *fE* scale. These characteristics of role definition and democratic procedures typify the military (Soeters, et al., 2003). Although the sten score of the successful group favours domination, it is within acceptable range for the CIMIC Officer based on the abovementioned explanation by Cattell et al. (1970). Van Dyk (1998) confirmed the importance of dominance in PSO. He said it enables the peacekeeper to draw on unknown circumstances to his own advantage. The results from Table 20 indicate no significant low scores and 12.5% high scores were reported for the unsuccessful group. The abovementioned results indicate the successful and unsuccessful group reported similar significant high scores and similar significant low scores. These results indicate that the *fE* scale does not clearly discriminate between the successful and unsuccessful groups. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems that the low scores on the accommodating/dominating (*fE*) scale for negative indicators on competencies 1, 3, 6 and 9, and high scores for positive indicators on competencies 1 and 5, are not apparent predictors of the competency model. The results are confirmed by Jeong (2005) who highlighted the importance of a balance between accommodating and dominating to be successful in facilitating mutual agreements in CIMIC.

Interacting and communicating with people is central to the coordination function of the CIMIC Officer as advisor (Abiew, 2003; Burckle, 2006; Jackson, 2005; Harris & Dombrowski, 2002; Jeong, 2005; Newland & Meyers, 1999; Pugh, 1998; OIOS, 2005; Spence, 2005), coordinating officer (Cockell, 2002; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002), project officer (Jenny, 2001; Newland & Meyers, 1999; OIOS, 2005) and training coordinator (George, 2002; Harris & Dombrowski, 2002; IASC, 2005; Pollick, 2000; Pugh 1998). The results from Table 18 indicate 30% of the sample reported significant sten scores on the retiring/socially bold (*fH*) scale. High scoring individuals are carefree (Craig, 1999b), adventurous, tend to take risks (Cattell et al., 1970; Craig, 1999b), are socially confident, natural communicators and initiate social contact (Psytech, 2002). Superior communication skills are required by the CIMIC Officer in promoting consultative and participative processes (Cockell, 2002; Pugh, 1998; Siegel, 2001) in building partnerships across the military, humanitarian and civilian components (competency 2 and 3). The Military focus group (personal communication, Jan 15, 2007) highlighted the importance of establishing effective communication mechanisms to enhance flexibility in coordination (competency 6) through participative and consultative processes. Communication is vital in coordinating the capabilities (competency 10) of the various organisations to be complimentary (Abiew, 2003; Hatzenbichler, 2001; Pugh, 1998; Spence, 2002). Individuals with low scores lack self-confidence (Craig 1999b), are cautious, shy and withdrawn (Cattell et al., 1970; Craig, 1999b). This could result in a detached leadership style (competency 1) that has a negative impact on the achievement of mission objectives (Horey et al., 2004). Individuals who are self-conscious and inclined to withdraw in social situations (Psytech, 2002) and unable to keep in contact with surroundings (Cattell et al., 1970), would experience difficulty in building and promoting partnerships (competency 2) across the various PSO CIMIC role-players (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007). Subsequently the CIMIC Officer should report high scores on the *fH* scale to be effective in the execution of the abovementioned functions. The importance of high scores for the CIMIC Officer

is confirmed by Cattell et al. (1970). They highlighted the importance of high scores on the *fH* scale for individuals who frequently deals with people. Figure 4 indicates differences for scale *fH* on the sten scores between the successful (5.7) and the unsuccessful group (5.1). These results are not meaningful since both groups reported scores related to a balance between retiring and socially bold. The results from Table 19 indicate no difference on the frequency of significant low scores (20%) and significant high scores (20%) on scale *fH*. These results indicate that scale *fH* does not discriminate between high and low scores for the successful group. From the results in Table 20, 12.5% of the unsuccessful group reported low significant scores and no significant high scores on scale *fH*. The results in Table 20 indicate a positive correlation between the *fH* scale and the negative indicators of the competency model. The results on the negative indicator correlate with the research of Van Dyk (1998). He confirmed that individuals with low levels of self-confidence would experience difficulty to adjust to the dynamic and ever-changing PSO environment. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems that the *fH* scale is not an apparent predictor for positive indicators on competencies 2, 3, 6 and 10. The results indicate that the retiring/socially bold (*fH*) scale is an apparent predictor for negative indicators on competency 1, 2 and 6.

The CIMIC Officer performs an advisory role to the military and humanitarian components (Abiew, 2003; Burckle, 2006; Jackson, 2005; Harris & Dombrowski, 2002; Jeong, 2005; Newland & Meyers, 1999; Pugh, 1998; OIOS, 2005; Spence, 2005). This advice is founded on policy guidelines (IASC, 2005; OCHA, 2004; OIOS, 2005; UN DPKO, 2005) and joint mission analysis (Cockell, 2002; JP, 2003; Pugh, 1998). The analysis of the abovementioned guidelines are founded in realistic (Craig, 1999b) and practical evidence (Cattell et al., 1970). Subsequently the CIMIC Officer should report low scores on the *fI* scale to be effective. The results from Table 18 indicate 30% of the sample reported significant sten scores on the hard-headed/tender minded (*fI*) scale. Individuals with low scores are realistic, tough minded, self-reliant (Craig, 1999b),

unsentimental, takes responsibility (Cattell et al., 1970; Psytech, 2002) and acts on practical logical evidence (Cattell et al., 1970). Horey et al. (2004) emphasised the importance for the military leader (competency 1) to take responsibility (Cattell et al., 1970) in monitoring the impact of cognitive, physical, emotional and social stressors on subordinates in the dynamic PSO environment. The CIMIC Officer needs to take responsibility for promoting a learning environment (competency 5) (A. Derib, personal communication, Nov 22, 2006; Cockell, 2002; JP, 2003). The CIMIC Officer is responsible for creating effective coordination mechanisms (Siegel, 2001; Spence, 2002) to enhance the CIMIC coordination function (competency 6) (Cockell, 2002; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002). The CIMIC Officer needs to take responsibility for facilitating organisational awareness training (competency 8) (George, 2002; Harris & Dombrowski, 2002; IASC, 2005; Pollick, 2000; Pugh 1998). This training enhances the understanding of the differences in the humanitarian and military organisational cultures (Duffy, 2000). The importance of respecting and promoting organisational and cultural differences are confirmed in competency 9 (Horey et al., 2004; Military focus groups, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007). The importance of high scores for realism (Craig, 1999b) and acting on practical logical evidence (Cattell et al., 1970) in the CIMIC Officer are confirmed in competency 4 where identification of suitable projects and determining project priorities are based on the needs of the affected population (A. Derib, personal communication, Nov 22, 2006; Military focus group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007). Individuals with high scores are subjective in their outlook and tend to have disregard for rules (Craig, 1999b). It is imperative for a CIMIC Officer to comply with the mission code of conduct and the rules of engagement (competency 1) (Jeong, 2005). High scoring individuals are impractical and not task focused (Psytech, 2002). This will result in counterproductive behaviour and non-achievement of mission objectives (Military focus group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007). These individuals are unrealistic (Cattell et al., 1970) and this could imply a concern with possibilities rather than realities (Cloninger, 1996). This would have a negative impact in analysing the mission

guidelines (competency 4) into operational processes (Horey et al., 2004). It would have a negative impact on the allocation of resources (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007) and the implementation of community support initiatives (competency 10) (A. Derib, personal communication, Nov 22, 2006; T. Morris, personal communication, Mar 12, 2006). The results from Table 19 reported significant high scores for 30% and significant low scores for 10% of the successful group on scale *fI*. These results indicate the *fI* scale does not correlate positively with the characteristics of the successful group. From the results in Table 20, 12.5% of the unsuccessful group reported low on scale *fI* and no high significant scores were reported. The results from Table 20 indicate the *fI* scale does not correlate positively with negative indicators on the unsuccessful group. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems the hard-headed/tender minded (*fI*) scale are not an apparent predictor for positive indicators on competencies 1, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9 and 10 and negative indicators on competencies 1, 2, 3, 4 and 10. Although the results indicate no meaningful correlations, Lindenberg and Bryant (2001) indicated that in the absence of joint analysis, response to the affected populations is delayed. Severe consequences of such a delay could manifest in the loss of lives.

The CIMIC Officer facilitates participative and collaborative processes to enhance the coordination function (Cockell, 2002; OIOS, 2005; Pugh, 1998). Horey et al. (2004) confirmed the importance of integrating all the relevant role players into an effective team that pursues common mission objectives. Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) reported that CIMIC Officers who are suspicious of others motives are unable to enhance coordination and participative processes between the military and humanitarian components. Subsequently the CIMIC Officer should report high scores on the trusting/suspicious scale to be effective in enhancing coordination. From the results in Table 18, 45% of the sample reported significant sten scores on the trusting/suspicious scale (*fL*). Individuals who are suspicious of other individuals have a de-inclination to trust others (Psytech, 2002). This will have a negative impact for the CIMIC Officer in

building and promoting partnerships (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007). These individuals tend to blame others for failure and are easily offended (Craig, 1999b). The CIMIC Officer who has difficulty in accepting criticism would experience difficulty in managing pressure and coping with setbacks (competency 7) (B. Casey, personal communication, Apr 17, 2006). These individuals are poor team players (Psytech, 2002) and would rather pursue personal goals than mission objectives (A. Derib, personal communication, Nov 22, 2006). Poor team players would also be unwilling to view aspects from other individuals' perspective (P. Valincenzo, personal communication, May 4, 2006). Successful CIMIC Officers promote cultural awareness and values the inputs of diverse cultural individuals (Horey et al., 2004; Military focus group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007). Individuals with low scores have a positive outlook on life, are quick to place faith in others, inclined to give other the benefit of the doubt (Psytech, 2002), tolerant (Cattell et al., 1970; Craig, 1999b), good team players and trust and accept people (Craig, 1999b). By trusting and accepting people, the CIMIC Officer promotes (competency 2) an environment where coordination is enhanced (Horey et al., 2004). Individuals with low scores have a positive outlook on life, are quick to place faith in others, inclined to give others the benefit of the doubt (Psytech, 2002), tolerant (Cattell et al., 1970; Craig, 1999b), good team players and trust and accept people (Craig, 1999b) through participative processes (Cockell, 2002; Pugh, 1998; Siegel, 2001) (competency 1). It is critical for the successful CIMIC Officer to trust the culturally diverse individuals in considering issues from others perspective (competency 9) in achieving enhanced results (Military focus group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007). Duffy (2000) confirmed the importance of accepting the various cultures in PSO. Individuals with low scores are inclined to give others the benefit of the doubt (Psytech, 2002), are tolerant (Cattell et al., 1970; Craig, 1999b), good team players and trust and accept people (Craig, 1999b). These characteristics are central to the CIMIC role of enhanced coordination through promoting participative and collaborative processes (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002).

Figure 4 indicates differences for the *fL* scale on the sten scores between the successful (6.6) and the unsuccessful group (7.75). These results indicate both the successful and unsuccessful groups reported dominant on suspicion. The results from Table 19 reported significant high scores for 30% of the successful group and no significant low scores for scale *fL*. These results on the *fL* scale do not correlate positively with positive indicators of the competency model. From the results in Table 20, 62.5% of the unsuccessful group reported significant high scores on scale *fL*, with no low significant scores. The results from Table 20 indicate that high scores on the *fL* scale correlate positively with negative indicators of the unsuccessful group. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems the trusting/suspicious scale (*fL*) is not an apparent predictor for positive indicators on competencies 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 8 and 9. It seems that the *fL* scale is an apparent predictor for the negative indicators on competencies 1, 7, 8 and 9. Kets de Vries and Miller' (1986) research confirmed the results on the negative indicator. They reported that individuals who are suspicious of others motives would be ineffective to enhance the coordination function.

CIMIC Officers function in an environment where a delayed response could result in loss of lives (Lindenberg & Bryant, 2001). This emphasises the need for a practical objective individual who are concerned with immediate issues (Cattell et al., 1970). From the results in Table 18, 25% of the sample reported significant sten scores on the concrete/abstract scale (scale *fM*). Cattell et al. (1970) reported individuals with low scores tend to show dissatisfaction for group unity, rules and procedure. It is imperative for the CIMIC Officer to perform the CIMIC roles and functions within the perimeters of the mission code of conduct and rules of engagement (competency 1) (Cockell, 2002; Jeong, 2005). It could also impact on ethical standards where unsuccessful CIMIC Officers pursue personal rather than mission objectives (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007). High scores on the abstract scale are associated with individuals who are unconventional (Cattell, et al., 1970; Craig, 1999b), imaginative (Craig, 1999b; Psytech, 2002), interested in theoretical ideas and who lacks concern for

practical activities (Psytech, 2002). This behaviour in a CIMIC Officer could impact negatively on analytic thinking (competency 4) when the individual is concerned with possibilities rather than realities (Cloninger, 1996). CIMIC Officers dominant on the abstract scale could define impractical plans resulting in inefficient use of resources (competency 10) (Military focus group, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007). It could imply that the CIMIC Officer misuses resources by implementing projects that are not need based (A. Derib, personal communication, Nov 22, 2006; T. Morris, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007). Individuals with low scores are dependant, objective and practical (Craig, 1999b; Psytech, 2002). Low scores enable the CIMIC Officer to perform the advisory (Abiew, 2002; Burckle, 2006; Harris & Dombrowski, 2002; Jackson, 2005; Jeong, 2005; Newland & Meyers, 1999; Pugh, 1998; OIOS, 2005; Spence, 2005) and coordination roles (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002) successfully. The military leader (competency 1) must enforce and maintain high professional standards. The CIMIC Officer must be objective and practical in communicating and networking (competency 3 and 6) between the military and humanitarian components (UN DPKO, 2002; Military focus group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007). Individuals dominant on the concrete scale are solution focused (Psytech, 2002) and concerned with immediate issues (Cattell et al., 1970). This is important for the CIMIC Officer in competency 4 where organisational capabilities of the CIMIC role players are analysed to determine areas for complimentary action (Harris & Dombrowski, 2002). The CIMIC Officer analyses the immediate needs of the affected population where after resources are allocated to suitable projects (Horey et al., 2004). Low scores on the concrete/abstract (*fM*) scale correspond with positive indicators on the competency model in Table 13. Subsequently the CIMIC Officer should report low scores on the *fM* scale to be effective. Figure 4 indicates differences (scale *fM*) on the sten scores between the successful (4.8) and the unsuccessful group (5.25). These results correlate with low scores for the successful group. The results from Table 19 indicate significant high scores for 10% and significant low scores for 30% on scale *fM* for the successful group.

Cattell et al. (1970) reported that high scores on the *fM* scale have been reported by planning executives. Table 7 indicates that operational planning officers comprise 20% of the sample. The high scores reported by the successful group could possibly be contributed by the operational planning officers. This result is similar to the finding above reported by Cattell et al. (1970). The results from Table 19 indicate that some participant's low scores correlate positively with the results of the successful group, although the results are not substantial for the whole group. From the results in Table 20, similar frequencies of 12.5% for significant high and low scores were reported on the unsuccessful group. The results from Table 20 do not differentiate between the low and high scores of the unsuccessful group. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems the concrete/abstract scale (*fM*) are not an apparent predictor for positive indicators on competencies 1, 3, 4, 6 and 10, and negative indicators on competencies 1, 4, 8 and 10. Although no clear relationship between this scale and competencies are indicated, the research of De Coning (2005) confirmed that individuals, who portray behaviour associated with low scores on this scale, are not effective in identifying and coordinating the needs of the affected population.

The importance of an emotionally stable CIMIC Officer is critical to enable the individual to adjust and cope with the challenging PSO environment (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1986; Van Dyk, 1998). Furnham and Taylor (2004) reported that individuals who are emotionally unstable would portray counterproductive behaviour due to their inability to adjust to stressful environments. Orsillo et al. (1998) and Vogelaar et al. (1997) reported multiple stressors in the PSO environment that a CIMIC Officers need to cope with. From the results in Table 18, 25% of the sample reported significant sten scores on the self-assured/apprehensive (*fO*) scale. Individuals with high scores have low self-esteem, are emotionally unstable, sensitive towards criticism (Craig, 1999b) and feel inadequate to meet daily demands (Cattell et al., 1970). Military leaders (competency 1), with characteristics of personality disorders, would be

responsible for counterproductive behaviour in the difficult and stressful PSO environment (B. Casey, personal communication, Apr 17, 2005; Military focus group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007). Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) confirmed that individual pathology and poor performance are related. High scores on apprehensiveness are associated with individuals who lack self-confidence, doubt own abilities, are indecisive, insecure (Psytech, 2002) and depressed (Craig, 1999b; Psytech, 2002). Subsequently CIMIC Officers, dominant on apprehensiveness, would experience difficulty to adjust and cope in the challenging and ambiguous PSO environment. This is supported by the research of Van Dyk (1998) who indicated that peacekeepers with low self-confidence would experience difficulty in adjusting to the challenging PSO environment. Individuals with low scores have high self-esteem, are self-sufficient, dependant, objective, practical (Craig, 1999b), confident, self-assured (Craig, 1999b; Psytech, 2002) and secure (Psytech, 2002). Horey et al. (2004) indicated that military leaders (competency 1) with high levels of confidence and high ego power are able to motivate and influence subordinates to achieve success. CIMIC Officers with a balanced personality (Hall et al., 1998), high self-esteem and a high internal locus of control (Horey et al., 2004) should be able to adjust and cope with the challenging PSO environment. Van Dyk (1998) supported the importance of a high internal locus of control and dominance. He indicated that these characteristics would enable peacekeepers to perceive stressors as opportunities for change and undesirable events as possibilities, rather than threats. To be able to adjust to the challenging PSO environment and cope with the various stressors, the CIMIC Officer should report low scores on the *fO* scale to be able perform optimally. Figure 4 indicates differences for the *fO* scale on the sten scores between the successful (3.9) and the unsuccessful group (5.25). These results correlate with the positive indicators of the competency model in Table 13. The results from Table 19 reported no significant high scores and significant low scores for 50% for the successful group on scale *fO*. These results indicate that low scores does correlate positively with the results of the successful group. From the results in Table 20,

no significant low scores and high scores were reported for the unsuccessful group. These results do not discriminate between significant high and low scores for the unsuccessful group. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems the self-assured/apprehensive (*fO*) scale is an apparent predictor for positive indicators on competencies 1 and 7. The importance of a balanced personality, associated with low scores on scale *fO*, is confirmed in the research of Hall et al. (1998) and Möller (1993). It appears from inspection of the results from Table 20 that the *fO* scale is not an apparent predictor of negative indicators on competencies 1 and 7.

The CIMIC Officer should maintain a balance between the rule bound military environment (Brooks, 2006; Martin, 1992; Soeters et al., 2003) and flexibility in interacting with the humanitarian community (Cockell, 2002; Pugh, 1998; UN DPKO, 2002). Superior analytic skills are essential for the CIMIC Officer in performing the advisory role for the military and humanitarian components (Abiew, 2003; Burckle, 2006; Jackson, 2005; Harris & Dombrowski, 2002; Jeong, 2005; Newland & Meyers, 1999; Pugh, 1998; OIOS, 2005; Spence, 2005), and identifying essential community support projects (Jenny, 2001; Newland & Meyers, 1999; OIOS, 2005). From the results in Table 18, 25% of the sample reported significant sten scores on the conventional/radical (*fQ1*) scale. Cattell et al. (1970) reported that high scores on this scale are associated with analytical individuals. Superior analytic skills are essential for the CIMIC Officer in executing competency 4. Horey et al. (2004) emphasised the need for superior analytic skills to translate policy and guidelines into operational processes (competency 4). The CIMIC Officer must analyse the military capacity to determine if spare capacity is available to support humanitarian action (Jenny, 2001; Munslow & Brown, 1999). Individuals with high scores on the conventional/radical scale are critical towards traditional solutions (Craig, 1999b), values progress and change and question the status quo (Psytech, 2002). These characteristics are associated with a flexible CIMIC Officer (UN DPKO, 2002). The CIMIC Officer should be flexible to build trust and promote

partnerships (competency 2) across the military, humanitarian and civilian components (Abiew, 2003; Newland & Meyers, 1999). De Coning (2005) emphasised the importance of flexibility in a CIMIC Officer to function within the spectrum of conflict between a cooperative and coexistence framework. Flexibility is critical for the CIMIC Officer in creating a work environment where diverse cultures are integrated (Duffy, 2000; Horey et al., 2004). In the ever-changing dynamic PSO environment (Durch et al., 2003; Lautze et al., 2004), the CIMIC Officer must be able to quickly re-allocate resources and redefine priorities in response to unexpected events and change in circumstances (Reimann, 2006; Rollins, 2001). Individuals with low scores are conservative (Cattell et al., 1970; Craig, 1999b), inflexible, resist change, value traditional methods, accept status quo and reject innovative ideas (Psytech, 2002). CIMIC Officers, who are conventional, will have a negative impact on CIMIC strategy and organisational culture (competency 1) (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1986). Low scoring CIMIC Officers would be unable to analyse (competency 4) the complex multicultural multidimensional PSO environment (Cockell, 2002; Pugh, 1998). The importance of flexibility for the CIMIC Officer is reflected in the definition of CIMIC (UN DPKO, 2002) and policy documents (IASC, 2005; OIOS, 2005). Inflexible CIMIC Officers would experience difficulty in performing the role of coordinator (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002). Subsequently the CIMIC Officer should report high sten scores on the *fQ1* scale to be effective in analysing the dynamic CIMIC PSO environment. Figure 4 indicates differences for the *fQ1* scale on the sten scores between the successful (4.9) and the unsuccessful group (4.5). These results are not meaningful since similar scores were reported for the successful and unsuccessful groups. The results from Table 19 reported no significant high scores and 37.5% significant low scores for the successful group on the *fQ1* scale. Cattell et al. (1970) reported high scores in research on policeman and nurses who perform their tasks in a rule bound environment that are founded in tradition, rather than change. The results from Table 19 do not correlate positively with the positive indicators of the competency model. These high

scores for the successful group could be explained by the abovementioned results reported by Cattell et al. (1970) that rule bound organisations tend to report high on this scale. From the results in Table 20, 37.5% of the unsuccessful group reported low significant scores on scale *fQ1* and 12.5% reported high significant scores. These results indicate that the *fQ1* scale correlates positively with negative indicators of the competency model. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems the conventional/radical (*fQ1*) scale is not an apparent predictor for positive indicators of competencies 1, 2, 4, 5, 9 and 10. The abovementioned results indicate that the *fQ1* scale seems to be an apparent predictor on the negative indicators of competencies 1, 4 and 6. The results on the negative indicators are supported by Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) who confirmed that behaviour associated with inflexibility (low scores on scale *fQ1*) will result in counterproductive behaviour.

Ewen (1988) confirmed the importance of high ego power for the CIMIC Officer to deal with the challenging PSO environment. Möller (1993) said individuals with high ego-power and a balanced personality would be successful at work. These individuals experience low anxiety, can deal with setbacks and are able to adjust to the PSO environment (Crowne, 2007; Ewen, 1998; Hall et al., 1998). From the results in Table 18, 30% of the sample reported significant sten scores on the compose/tense driven (*fQ4*) scale. High scoring individuals are emotionally volatile (Craig, 1999b). CIMIC Officers with these characteristics of emotional volatility would experience difficulty to adjust and cope with the ever-changing PSO environment (competency 1 and 7) (Furnham & Taylor, 2004). Individuals with high scores tend to be impatient (Craig, 1999b; Psytech, 2002), have low levels of tolerance, are annoyed when things go wrong and tend to centralise tasks to ensure proper execution (Psytech, 2002). CIMIC Officers who centralise tasks would have a negative impact on the CIMIC working environment where participation and creativity are encouraged (competency 5) (Horey et al., 2004; Kets de Vries & Miller, 1986). CIMIC Officers, who are intolerant towards other cultures, could be perceived as ethnocentric (Anderson

& Taylor, 2006; Brummett et al., 2007). Individuals with low scores show low levels of anxiety, are relaxed and composed (Craig, 1999b). CIMIC Officers with low levels of anxiety are able to adjust and cope (Van Dyk, 1998) with multiple cognitive, social, emotional and physical stressors (Orsillo et al., 1998; Vogelaar et al., 1997). High scoring individuals deal with frustration in a calm manner, can work under pressure and are not easily frustrated by setbacks (Psytech, 2002). This is important for the military leader (competency 1) in leading others to achieve success in an ambiguous PSO environment (Horey et al., 2004). These characteristics enable the CIMIC Officer to create and promote a learning environment (competency 5) that is conducive to team development, participation and collaboration. (A. Derib, personal communication, Nov 22, 2006). Low scoring CIMIC Officers are aware of the fusion of cultures in PSO, respects cultural differences and draw on diverse skills and knowledge (Anderson & Taylor, 2006; Brooks, 2006; Brummett et al., 2007; Duffy, 2000). A balanced personality (Hall et al., 1998) is associated with the characteristics of a low score on the *fQ4* scale. Figure 4 indicates differences (scale *fQ4*) on the sten scores between the successful (4.0) and the unsuccessful group (4.6). These results are not meaningful since both the successful and unsuccessful groups reported low mean scores on the *fQ4* scale. The results from Table 19 reported no significant high and 40% significant low scores for the successful group on the *fQ4* scale. These results indicate a positive correlation between the *fQ4* scale and the positive indicators of the competency model. The results from Table 20 indicate 12.5% of the unsuccessful group reported low on scale *fQ4* and no high significant scores were reported. These results on the *fQ4* scale indicate that no high scores of the unsuccessful group correlate positively with negative indicators of the competency model. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems the compose/tense driven (*fQ4*) scale are an apparent predictor for positive indicators on competencies 1, 2, 5, 7 and 9. Inspection of the abovementioned results indicates that the *fQ4* scale is not an apparent predictor for negative indicators on competencies 1, 5, 7 and 9. As indicated above, behaviour associated with low scores (positive competency model indicators) on

scale *f*Q4 enhances the roles and functions of the CIMIC Officer. The research of Van Dyk (1998) confirmed these results. He highlighted the importance of good health and low state anxiety to adjust successfully to the PSO environment. These results are supported by Furnham (1997) who indicated the importance of high ego-power to enable peacekeepers to cope with setbacks in PSO.

Coordination is one of the roles of the CIMIC Officer in PSO (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002). Social interaction is a primary function in the coordination of the military and humanitarian components (Horey et al., 2004). The theoretical foundation in Chapter 2 indicated that the fundamental dimension of extrovert behaviour is more suited to enhance social interaction (Cloninger, 1996; Crowne, 2007; Ewen, 1988). From the results in Table 18, 25% of the sample reported significant sten scores on the introvert/extrovert (E) scale. Individuals with high scores are reserved, (Craig, 1999b) and have low need for social contact (Psytech, 2002). Introverted CIMIC Officers would experience difficulty in developing and strengthening internal and external partnerships (competency 2) that can provide information, assistance and support (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007). CIMIC Officers who are introspective and focus on inner thoughts (Craig, 1999b), would portray self-centred behaviour that is not conducive for promoting a working environment where creativity is required (competency 5) (Sue et al., 2000). Low scoring individuals need social contact and outside stimulation (Psytech, 2002). They are good at making interpersonal contacts, enthusiastic and achievement oriented (Craig, 1999b). The importance of low scores for the CIMIC Officer are founded in the CIMIC coordination role (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002) in competency 2. It is imperative for the CIMIC Officer to extend influence beyond the military component to build and promote partnerships with the humanitarian and civilian components (Horey et al., 2004; Military focus group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007). Low scores on the E scale are associated with extrovert behaviour. Subsequently, the successful CIMIC Officer should report low scores on the E scale. Figure 4

indicates differences for the E scale on the sten scores between the successful (4.9) and the unsuccessful group (4.6). These results indicate that the E scale does not discriminate on the mean scores between the successful and unsuccessful groups. The results from Table 19 reported no significant high scores and significant low scores for 20% of the successful group on scale E. The results from Table 19 indicate a positive correlation between high scores on the E scale and the positive indicators of the competency model. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems the introvert/extrovert (E) scale is an apparent predictor for positive indicators on competency 2. The results from Table 20 indicate, 12.5% of the unsuccessful group reported low on scale E and no significant high scores were reported. The results from Table 20 indicate a negative correlation between high scores on the E scale and negative indicators of the competency model. Inspection of the abovementioned results indicates that the E scale is not an apparent predictor for negative indicators on competencies 2 and 5. Ewen (1988) and Cloninger (1996) confirmed the importance of an external world approach (extrovert) to be effective in social interaction. This relates to the essential role of coordination of the CIMIC Officer (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002).

The CIMIC Officer should have low anxiety to adjust and cope with the challenging PSO environment (Hall et al., 1998; Rosebush, 1998; Stanley, 2003; Van Dyk, 1998). From the results in Table 18, 20% of the sample reported significant sten scores on the low/high anxiety scale (scale N). High scoring individuals are anxious, overwhelmed by problems (Craig, 1999b), vulnerable to and challenged by emotional situations (Psytech, 2002). CIMIC Officers with high levels of anxiety would experience difficulty to adjust (Sue et al., 2000) to the ever-changing PSO environment (competency 7). The maladjustment could manifest in counterproductive behaviour that would impact negatively on the achievement of mission objectives (Furnham & Taylor, 2004). Individuals with low scores are composed and experience low levels of anxiety (Craig, 1999b), are well adjusted and able to cope with emotionally demanding situations

(Psytech, 2002). Van Dyk (1998) indicated that peacekeepers with low anxiety levels are able to cope with the multitude of stressors (Orsillo et al., 1998; Vogelaar et al., 1997). Subsequently CIMIC Officers should report low scores on the low/high anxiety (N) second order personality scale to be successful in PSO. Figure 4 indicates differences (scale N) on the sten scores between the successful (5.8) and the unsuccessful group (4.6). These results indicate that the successful group had lower levels of anxiety. The results from Table 19 reported no significant high scores and 20% significant low scores for the successful group on the N scale. The results indicate a positive correlation between low scores on the E scale and the positive indicators of the competency model. From the results in Table 20, 12.5% of the unsuccessful group reported high significant scores and no low scores on the N scale for the unsuccessful group. The results from Table 20 indicate a positive correlation between high scores on the N scale and the negative indicators of the competency model. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems the low/high anxiety scale (N) is an apparent predictor for positive indicators on competency 7 and negative indicators on competencies 1 and 7. These results are confirmed by Van Dyk (1998) who indicated the importance of low levels of anxiety to adjust and cope effectively to the PSO environment. The negative impact of high levels of anxiety on work performance are supported by Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) who confirmed that behaviour associated with high anxiety could be linked to poor performance.

From the results on the descriptive statistics for the 15FQ+, it appears that the following scales are apparent good predictors of negative indicators on the competency model (Table 13) of a CIMIC Officer:

- Feelings/emotionally stable (*fC*) scale for competencies 1 and 7.
- Retiring/socially bold (*fH*) scale for competencies 1, 2 and 6.
- Trusting/suspicious (*fL*) scale for competencies 1, 7, 8 and 9.
- Conventional/radical (*fQ1*) scale for competencies 1, 4 and 6.

- Low/high anxiety (N) scale for competencies 1 and 7.

From the results on the descriptive statistics for the 15FQ+, it appears that the following scales are apparent good predictors of positive indicators on the competency model of a CIMIC Officer:

- Feelings/emotionally stable (*fC*) scale for competency 1, 5, 7 and 9.
- Self-assured/apprehensive (*fO*) scale for competency 1 and 7.
- Compose/tense driven (*fQ4*) scale for competency 1, 2, 5, 7 and 9.
- Introvert/extrovert (E) scale for competency 2.
- Low/high anxiety (N) scale for competency 1.

5.6 Leadership preference profile

The value of the Myers Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) for this study is founded in its ability to indicate the correlation of leadership preferences with the positive and negative indicators of the competency model for a CIMIC Officer in Table 13. The meaningful results from the MBTI, reported in Chapter 4, are discussed in this section.

The results indicated in Table 21 reported similar results on the personality dimensions of introversion (4.0) and extroversion (4.0). Differences were reported on the paired function of intuition (4.25)/sensing (3.75), thinking (5.5)/feeling (2.5) and judging (5.2)/perceiving (2.8). The meaningfulness of these results is evident in Figure 5 where the leadership profiles of the sample, successful and unsuccessful groups were indicated.

Introverts are persistent, cautious in new situations (Bayne, 1995), reflect before speaking (Bayne, 1995; Myers, 1993) and "... interest in clarity of concept and ideas" (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p.13). Extroverts prefer the outer world, are active, understand things through experience (Bayne, 1995), sociable and

expressive (Myers, 1993) and "... attention seems to flow out, or to be drawn out, to objects and people of the environment" (Myers & McCaulley, 1985, p.13). Cloninger (1996) and Ewen (1998) indicated that the CIMIC Officer's fundamental dimension should be extrovert. This will enable the CIMIC Officer to perform the key function of social interaction in coordination (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002) between the military and humanitarian components. Introverted behaviour corresponds with the negative indicators of the competency model for CIMIC Officers in Table 13 on competency 2 and 5. Cattell et al. (1970) reported that introvert individuals could be reluctant to engage in social contact due to fear of rejection. These individuals portray self-centred behaviour with a low need for social interaction (Psytech, 2002). Extroverted behaviour corresponds with positive indicators of the competency model (Table 13) on competency 2 where Horey et al. (2004) highlighted the importance of extending influence beyond the military component in building relationships. The results in Table 22 reported a mean score of 3.7 on introversion and 4.3 on extroversion for the successful group. These results indicate a positive correlation between high scores on extroversion and positive indicators in the successful group. The importance of high scores on the extroversion scale are supported by the Military focus group (personal communication, Jan 15, 2007). The results in Table 23 reflect a mean score of 4.5 on introversion and 3.5 on extroversion for the unsuccessful group. These results indicate a positive correlation between high scores on introversion and negative indicators in the unsuccessful group. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems that the personality dimension of extroversion/ introversion is an apparent predictor for positive indicators of competency 2 and negative indicators of competencies 2 and 5. Ewen (1988) and Cloninger (1996) confirmed the importance of an external world approach (extrovert) to be effective in social interaction. This relates to the essential role of coordination of the CIMIC Officer (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002).

Individuals who are dominant in sensing on the paired function of sensing/intuition, observe through their senses (Myers, 1993). These individuals focus on real aspects, are present oriented, require information systematically (Myers, 1993), dislikes new problems, are impatient on complex issues, seldom make errors of fact (Myers & McCaully, 1985) and are practical (Bayne, 1995). Intuitive individuals are good at identifying new possibilities (Bayne, 1995; Myers, 1985) and alternative ways of doing things (Myers, 1993). They are abstract and theoretical, future-oriented (Myers, 1993), value imaginative insight, like solving new ideas, dislikes repetitive work and reach conclusions quickly (Myers & McCaully, 1985). The theoretical foundation in Chapter 2 indicated that the CIMIC Officer should have a presence of both with sensing dominating the paired function (Cloninger, 1996; Hall et al., 1998). This will enable the CIMIC Officer to facilitate realistic objectives and processes in the execution of the advisory (Abiew, 2002; Burckle, 2006; Harris & Dombrowski, 2002; Jackson, 2005; Jeong, 2005; Newland & Meyers, 1999; Pugh, 1998; OIOS, 2005; Spence, 2005) and project roles (Jenny, 2001; Newland & Meyers, 1999; OIOS, 2005). Sensing corresponds with the negative indicators of the competency model for CIMIC Officers in Table 13 on competency 2 and 5. CIMIC Officers who are dominant in sensing might experience difficulty in analysing the complex PSO environment (Myers & McCaully, 1985). This could result in counterproductive behaviour by the CIMIC Officer (competency 1) since a lack of understanding the multidimensional complex PSO environment could impact negatively on the achievement of mission objectives (Military focus group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007). Sensing individuals dislike new problems (Myers & McCaully, 1985). CIMIC Officers dominant in sensing might be opposed to change (Myers, 1993). This would impact negatively on the CIMIC work environment (competency 5) where learning, innovation and creativity are encouraged (Horey et al., 2004). Intuition corresponds with positive indicators of the competency model (Table 13) on competency 1, 4 and 10. Horey et al. (2004) reported that individuals dominant in sensing motivates and influences subordinates to take initiative. As project officer (Jenny, 2001; Newland &

Meyers, 1999; OIOS, 2005), the CIMIC Officer has to create a working environment where initiative is promoted (Horey et al., 2004). Intuitive individuals excel in identifying new possibilities (Bayne, 1995; Myers, 1993). This is an essential requirement for the CIMIC Officer in the role of project officer (Jenny, 2001; Newland & Meyers, 1999; OIOS, 2005). The CIMIC Officer has to identify suitable projects that address the immediate needs of the affected population (A. Derib, personal communication, Nov 22, 2006; Military focus group, personal communication, Jan 15, 2007). Intuitive individuals are good in responding to unexpected change (Bayne, 1995). The CIMIC Officer dominant in sensing would be able to quickly re-allocate resources (competency 10) effectively and reset priorities in response to unexpected events (Pugh, 1998; Siegel, 2001). The results in Table 22 reported a mean score of 3.3 on sensing and 4.7 on intuition for the successful group. These results indicate a positive correlation between high scores on intuition and positive indicators in the successful group. Hall et al. (1998) confirmed the importance of intuition in individuals who need to explore beyond the fundamental nature of reality. The results from Table 23 indicate a mean score of 4.1 on sensing and 3.8 on intuition for the unsuccessful group. These results indicate a positive correlation between high scores on sensing and negative indicators in the unsuccessful group. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems that the paired function of sensing/intuition is an apparent predictor for positive indicators of competencies 1, 4 and 10 and negative indicators of competencies 2 and 5. Although the results indicate a slight dominance on intuition over sensing, Möller (1993) said that a self-actualised individual would apply both in structuring personal experiences.

Individuals, who are dominant in thinking on the paired function of thinking/feeling are analytical, good problem solvers (Myers, 1993), have clear principles (Bayne, 1995), make impersonal decisions and are tough-minded (Myers & McCauly, 1985). Feeling individuals are people oriented, conscious of impact of decisions on people, compassionate (Myers, 1993), have clear values (Bayne, 1995; Myers, 1993), trusting (Bayne, 1995) and promote a participative

environment (Myers & McCaully, 1985). The theoretical foundation in Chapter 2 indicated that the CIMIC Officer should have a presence of both thinking and feeling with feeling dominating the paired function (Cloninger, 1996; Crowne, 2007). The thinking dimension is important for the CIMIC Officer to function optimally in the rule bound military environment (Cockell, 2002). Feeling is imperative in facilitating participative and collaborative processes (Abiew, 2003; Cockell, 2002; OIOS, 2005; Pugh, 1998) as highlighted in the coordination role of the CIMIC Officer (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002). The thinking dimension corresponds with the negative indicators of the competency model for CIMIC Officers in Table 13 on competency 1, 3, 6 and 9. The CIMIC Officer, dominant in thinking, could restrain effective coordination with the humanitarian component (competency 1) due to an impersonal tough-minded decision-making style (Myers & McCaully, 1985). The CIMIC Officer, dominant in thinking, might not be compassionate and conscious of the impact of decisions on people (Myers, 1993). This could result in miscommunication and misunderstanding (Military focus group, personal communication, Jan, 15, 2007), especially when the CIMIC Officer lacks understanding of the humanitarian organisational culture (Brooks, 2006; Chiu & Hong, 2006). Coordination through consultative processes (competency 6) with key role players is imperative in determining the needs of society (P. Valicento, personal communication, May 4, 2006; A. Derib, personal communication, Nov 22, 2006). CIMIC Officers, dominant in thinking, would experience difficulty to facilitate consultative processes, since they do not value participative processes (Myers & McCaully, 1985). CIMIC Officers, dominant in thinking, would prefer an impersonal environment (Myers & McCaully, 1985). This approach might impede interaction with diverse cultural individuals (competency 9) in a multidimensional PSO environment (Brummett et al., 2007; Leeds, 2001). Feeling corresponds with the positive indicators of the competency model for CIMIC Officers in Table 13 on competency 2, 3, 5 and 6. Horey et al. (2004) highlighted the importance of participative processes and promoting synergy among the role players to be successful as a CIMIC Officer (competency 2 and 3). Myers and McCaully

(1985) confirmed that CIMIC Officers, dominant in thinking would be able to perform this role effectively. CIMIC Officers, dominant in feeling, is flexible since they are people orientated and conscious of the impact of their decisions (Myers, 1993). Flexibility is an important skill for successful CIMIC Officers in performing the advisory (Abiew, 2002; Burckle, 2006; Harris & Dombrowski, 2002; Jackson, 2005; Jeong, 2005; Newland & Meyers, 1999; Pugh, 1998; OIOS, 2005; Spence, 2005), coordination (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002) and project roles (Jenny, 2001; Newland & Meyers, 1999; OIOS, 2005). The results in Table 22 reported a mean score of 5.2 on thinking and 2.8 on feeling for the successful group. These results do not indicate a positive correlation between high scores on feeling and positive indicators in the successful group. The results in Table 23 indicate a mean score of 5.8 on thinking and 2.1 on feeling for the unsuccessful group. These results indicate a positive correlation between high scores on thinking and negative indicators in the unsuccessful group. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems that the paired function of thinking/feeling is not an apparent predictor for positive indicators of competencies 2, 3, 5 and 6. It seems from the results from Table 23 that the paired function of thinking/feeling is an apparent predictor of negative indicators of competencies 1, 3, 6 and 9. Although no positive correlation between feeling and positive competency indicators are reported in this study, Roush and Atwater (1992) reported that individuals with high scores on feeling are committed to developing a climate of openness and trust. They confirmed that individuals reporting high on thinking are insensitive towards other individuals' feelings. As indicted above, these results are similar to Myers and McCaully (1985) who indicated an individual dominant in thinking would prefer an impersonal environment. These results correlate with the positive and negative indicators of the competency model in Table 13.

Individuals, who are dominant in judging on the paired function of judging/perceiving are decisive, comply with deadlines (Bayne, 1995), like to have things settled and completed (Bayne, 1995; Myers & McCaully, 1985) are

organised and systematic (Bayne, 1995; Myers, 1993) make hasty decisions, are ignorant to new things to be done and dislikes interruptions (Myers & McCaully, 1985). Perceiving individuals are curious, tolerant, pull things together well at the last minute (Bayne, 1995), are flexible (Bayne, 1995; Myers, 1993) and adjust well to changing situations (Myers & McCaully, 1985). The theoretical foundation in Chapter 2 indicated that the CIMIC Officer should be dominant in perceiving since it encompasses flexibility (Bayne, 1995). The importance of a flexible CIMIC Officer is central to the roles and functions of the CIMIC Officer (De Coning, 2005). The judging dimension corresponds with the negative indicators of the competency model for CIMIC Officers in Table 13 on competency 4 and 6.

Analysing the multidimensional PSO environment is an important skill in the advisory role of the CIMIC Officer (Abiew, 2002; Burckle, 2006; Harris & Dombrowski, 2002; Jackson, 2005; Jeong, 2005; Newland & Meyers, 1999; Pugh, 1998; OIOS, 2005; Spence, 2005). Individuals, dominant in judging tend to be ignorant to new things to be done (Myers & McCaully, 1985). Subsequently CIMIC Officers, dominant on the judging dimension, would be ineffective in performing the coordination function. Perceiving corresponds with the positive indicators of the competency model for CIMIC Officers in Table 13 on competency 2, 5 and 9. Flexibility is central to performance on these competencies. Bayne (1995) and Myers (1993) confirmed that flexibility is associated with dominance on the perceiving dimension. Abiew (2003) and Newland and Meyers (1998) confirmed the importance of a flexible officer to build trust that is based on mutual respect and consensus. De Coning (2005) indicated a CIMIC Officer should exhibit flexibility to function in a participative environment with an understanding of the complexities between functioning in a cooperative versus coexistence framework with the humanitarians. Horey et al. (2004) highlighted the importance of flexibility from a cultural perspective in considering issues from others perspective by drawing on skills, background and knowledge of culturally diverse individuals to achieve enhanced results. The results in Table 22 reported a mean score of 5.3 on judging and 2.7 on

perceiving for the successful group. These results do not indicate a positive correlation between high scores on feeling and positive indicators in the successful group. The results from Table 23 indicate a mean score of 5.1 on judging and 2.8 on perceiving are reported for the unsuccessful group. These results indicate a positive correlation between high scores on thinking and negative indicators in the unsuccessful group. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems that the paired function of judging/perceiving is not an apparent predictor for positive indicators on competency 2, 5 and 9. Inspection of the results from Table 23 indicates that the paired function of judging/perceiving is an apparent predictor of negative indicators on competency 4 and 6. The results reported above on the negative indicators are supported by the research of Roush and Atwater (1992). They confirmed that individuals who are dominant on judging strictly comply with schedules and are often inflexible.

From the results on descriptive statistics for the MBTI, it appears that the following scales are good positive indicators on the competency model of a CIMIC Officer.

- Extroversion/introversion for competencies 2 and 5.
- Sensing/intuition for competencies 2 and 5.
- Thinking/feeling for competencies 1, 3, 6 and 9.
- Judging/perceiving on competencies 4 and 6.

From the results on descriptive statistics for the MBTI, it appears that the following scales are good negative indicators on the competency model of a CIMIC Officer.

- Extroversion/introversion for competency 2.
- Sensing/intuition for competencies 1, 4 and 10.

Cloninger, (1996), Crowne, (2007) and Hall et al. (1998) indicated the ideal leadership profile of the CIMIC Officer as extroverted on the fundamental dimension, with a balance on sensing/intuition, thinking/feeling and dominant in perceiving on the paired functions. Individuals dominant on the extrovert dimension are sociable individuals (Myers, 1993) who can extend their influence beyond the military chains of command to humanitarian and civilian role players (Horey et al., 2004) by encouraging and facilitating participative and collaborative processes (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002). The CIMIC Officer should be slightly dominant on the intuition function. Identifying new possibilities (Bayne, 1995; Myers, 1993) and continuously solving new challenges are key components of the CIMIC Officer's tasks as project officer (Jenny, 2001; Newland & Meyers, 1999; OIOS, 2005). A high presence of sensing remains imperative in setting and managing realistic practical objectives (Bayne, 1995; Myers, 1993) in the role as adviser to the military and humanitarian components (Abiew, 2002; Burckle, 2006; Harris & Dombrowski, 2002; Jackson, 2005; Jeong, 2005; Newland & Meyers, 1999; Pugh, 1998; OIOS, 2005; Spence, 2005). Although both thinking and feeling are important to the CIMIC Officer, slight dominance on feeling enables the CIMIC Officer to facilitate the coordination function more effectively. Thinking is an important dimension in the rule bound military environment where codes of conduct and rules of engagement set the perimeters for decision-making (Cockell, 2002). Slight dominance on feeling is imperative in facilitating participative and collaborative processes as indicated in the coordination function (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002). Flexibility is a key characteristic for the CIMIC Officer (Abiew, 2002; De Coning, 2005; Horey et al., 2004; Newland & Meyers, 1999). CIMIC Officers, dominant in perceiving are flexible (Bayne, 1995; Myers, 1993). This enables them to adjust (Myers & McCaully, 1985) to the ever-changing PSO environment (Durch et al., 2003; Lautze et al., 2004). From the analyses in the theoretical foundation of this study, the type indicator for the CIMIC Officer is verified as E (extrovert), S (sensation), F (feeling) and P (perceiving) (ESFP). The characteristics

associated with this indicator (ESFP) are warm-hearted, conscientious, good at creating harmony, interesting in things that visibly effect people lives (see Appendix B). The last characteristic typifies the PSO environment in alleviating suffering of victims of war (Durch et al., 2003).

The results from Table 24 indicate the type indicator of the successful group as 40% ENTJ, 20% INTJ, 20% ESTJ, 10% ISFJ and 10% INTP. The group reported high on extroversion. The characteristics associated with the ENTJ (40% of successful group) indicator are natural leaders who translate possibilities into action. They define their own high standards and are forceful in achieving it (see Appendix B). This result on extroversion is supported by Roush and Atwater (1992) who cited the study of McCaulley who indicated that extroversion is an essential quality in military leadership. They also reported high scores on the intuition and thinking scales for military leaders. These results differ from the ideal leadership preference of ESFP defined in the theoretical foundation of this study. These results confirm the notion that any soldier cannot perform the CIMIC function (Abiew, 2003; Brooks, 2006; De Coning, 2005). It is clear that CIMIC Officers need skills over and above the normal skills associated with military leadership.

5.7 Personality disorders and other clinical syndromes

The value of the Millon Clinical Multiaxial Inventory Third Edition (MCMI-III) for this study is founded on its ability to indicate personality traits that correlates with negative indicators of the competency model in Table 13. Individuals with elevated scores on MCMI-III should not be considered for selection as CIMIC Officers. The meaningful results from the MCMI-III, reported in Chapter 4, are discussed in this section.

From the results in Table 26, participants reported elevated scores on the schizoid (23.5% of sample), avoidant (23.5% of sample), depressive (5.9% of sample), dependant (23.5% of sample), narcissistic (29.4% of sample), antisocial (5.9% of sample), compulsive (5.9% of sample) and negativistic (5.9% of sample) scales. These elevated scores indicate the presence of traits that meet the criteria for the personality disorder (Craig, 1999b). No meaningful results were reported from Table 26 on the histrionic, aggressive and self-defeating scales.

Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) indicated that individuals with an avoidant personality style, must not be selected as CIMIC Officers since their style will impede the coordination function (competency 6 in Table 13). The CIMIC Officer must be able to interact efficiently with the humanitarian community in performing the coordination role (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002). From the results in Table 27 it is evident that elevated scores was reported for the successful group (25%) on the avoidant scale. These results differ from the research of Kets de Vries and Miller (1986). These results are supported by Choca (2004) who reported that individuals with elevated scores on the avoidant scale could be understanding, compassionate and reserved individuals whose perfectionism causes them to shy away from social contact (Choca, 2004). Table 13 (competency 6) indicates individual decision-making (Jenny, 2001; Munslow & Brown, 1999), self-centred behaviour that are non-communicative (Crowne, 2007) and behaviour that impedes flexibility (Bayne, 1995; Sue et al., 2000) as negative indicators that prevents enhanced coordination. P. Valicento (personal communication, May 4, 2006) and A. Derib (personal communication, Nov 22, 2006) confirmed the negative impact on the affected society of individual decision-making without consultation. This behaviour is reflected in individuals with elevated scores on the avoidant scale (Craig 1999b). Individuals that portray these behaviours should not be considered for selection as CIMIC Officers (Crowne, 2007; Flin, 2001). The results in Table 28 indicate that 28% of the unsuccessful group reported elevated scores on the avoidant scale. These unsuccessful individuals are sensitive

towards rejection and fear interpersonal humiliation (Choca, 2004). They are withdrawn, introvert, self-conscious and tend to withdraw from social interaction to avoid rejection (Craig, 1999b). Individuals portraying this behaviour should not be considered for selection as CIMIC Officers since it would be detrimental to the coordination function (Crowne, 2007; Flin, 2001). Figure 6 indicates differences (scale 2A) in the mean scores between the successful (BR=48) and the unsuccessful group (BR=62). These results are not meaningful since both groups reported scores below the cut off score of < 75. Inspection on the descriptive statistics indicates marginal differences between the scores of the successful and unsuccessful groups. This marginal difference between the successful and unsuccessful groups indicates that the avoidant scale does not clearly discriminate between the groups. From inspection of the results of the descriptive statistics, it seems that the avoidant scale is not an apparent predictor of negative indicators for competency 6. The inability to discriminate between the successful and unsuccessful group could be contributed to the fact that successful individuals might portray characteristics of an avoidant personality (Craig, 1999b). Individuals with characteristics of the disorder (not elevated scores associated with the disorder) could maintain a good social appearance irrespective of fear of rejection (Craig, 1999b). Subsequently, CIMIC Officers with elevated scores on the avoidant scale might be able to perform the CIMIC function.

Furnham (1997) indicated that individuals with a narcissistic personality style will manifest themselves in counterproductive behaviour at work. This behaviour is reflected in the negative indicators in Table 13 of competency 1, 5, 6, 8 and 10. B. Casey (personal communication, Apr 17, 2006) and the Military focus group (personal communication, Jan 15, 2007) confirmed individuals with a narcissistic personality style that manifests under difficult and stressful circumstances in PSO, would manifest in counterproductive behaviour. Jeong (2005) indicated that CIMIC Officers with elevated scores would disregard mission codes of conduct and rules of engagement. CIMIC Officers with elevated scores would

impact negatively on competency 5. These individuals expect to reign superior in all relationship and does not allow creativity and initiatives in subordinates (Sue et al., 2000). Subsequently they consistently question motives and the credibility of subordinates' inputs (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1986). Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) confirmed that self-centred behaviour (competency 6) prevents effective coordination. B. Casey (personal communication, Apr 17, 2006) confirmed that an inflated sense of self-importance that manifest through a manipulative attitude is detrimental in facilitating a collaborative working environment between the military and humanitarians (competency 8). Sue et al., (2000) said that this manipulative behaviour is associated with a narcissistic personality disorder. The inflated sense of self-importance (Sue et al., 2000) could result in ineffective competition for resources and control of emergencies (competency 10) that result in the loss of lives due to delay in response (Lindenberg & Bryant, 2001). The elevated scales of the successful group (29.4%), reported in Table 27, is in line with the research reported by Craig (1999b). His empirical research indicated that elevated scores had been reported frequently among non-clinical patients. Choca (2004) cited the research of Leaf, Ellis, DiGiuseppi, Mass and Alington, Retzlaff and Deatherage, and Strack, Lorr and Campbell indicating that the narcissistic scale has correlated positively with measures of mental health. Craig (1999b) indicated that individuals who were confident, had high egocentricity and were socially charming, might have an attention seeking personality and not a narcissistic disorder. It confirms the concern of Furnham (1997) who highlighted the difficulty of differentiating between a balanced personality and personality disorders on the narcissistic scale. Choca (2004) reported that the narcissistic scale represented a healthy personality for many individuals. The results from Table 28 indicate 57% of the unsuccessful group reported elevated scores on the narcissistic scale. The unsuccessful individuals seemed to perceive themselves as superior to others, tend to inflate their own worth and exaggerate their abilities (Choca, 2004; Craig, 2005). They were self-centred, selfish, blamed others for failures (Craig, 2005) and depreciated those who oppose their self-image (Choca, 2004). This type of behaviour results in counterproductive behaviour

that impedes the coordination function (Furnham & Taylor, 2004). Figure 6 indicates small differences for scale 5 on the mean scores between the successful (BR=71) and the unsuccessful group (BR=75). These differences are not meaningful due to the small differences in scores. However, from inspection of results from the descriptive statistics, differences were reported in frequencies of elevated individual scores between the successful (29.4%) and unsuccessful (57%) groups. It seems from these differences that the narcissistic scale does discriminate between the successful and unsuccessful groups. From inspection of the results on the descriptive statistics, it seems that the narcissistic scale is an apparent predictor of negative indicators for competencies 1, 5, 6, 8 and 10. These results are confirmed by the research of Furnham and Taylor (2004) who reported that individuals with elevated scores would manifest in counterproductive work behaviour.

From the results in Table 27, elevated scores were reported on the obsessive-compulsive personality scale for 5.9% of the successful group. These individuals are normally perceived as inflexible and obsessed with control (Craig, 1999b; Sue et al., 2000). CIMIC Officers with elevated scores on the obsessive-compulsive scale should not be considered for selection as CIMIC Officers where flexibility is a key attribute for success (Abiew, 2003; De Coning, 2005; UN DPKO, 2002). Elevated scores for the compulsive personality scale are related to the negative competency indicators on competency 3, 5, 6, 9 and 10 in Table 13. The negative indicators, reported in competency 3, indicated that obsession with control would impede flexibility (APA, 1994; Sue et al., 2000) in the advisory role of the CIMIC Officer (Abiew, 2002; Burckle, 2006; Harris & Dombrowski, 2002; Jackson, 2005; Jeong, 2005; Newland & Meyers, 1999; Pugh, 1998; OIOS, 2005; Spence, 2005). Competency 5 indicates that these individuals oppose change and prefer to apply trusted processes to achieve success (Sue et al., 2000). Their behaviour impedes flexibility (Sue et al., 2000) that is an important skill in the coordination role of the CIMIC Officer (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002) as indicated in

competency 6. Competency 9 indicates the negative impact of an obsessive-compulsive personality disorder on individual and organisational culture. Individuals with this disorder might have an ethnocentric point of view and a disregard for the value of inputs from other cultures (Anderson & Taylor, 2006). These individuals prefer centralised decision-making (Sue et al., 2000) that might result in the implementation of projects and allocation of resources that are not needs based (A. Derib, personal communication, Nov 22, 2006; T. Morris, personal communication, Mar 12, 2006). The elevated scores in the successful group are contributed to the results reported by Craig (1999b). He reported that elevated scores on scale 7 (obsessive-compulsive scale) correlated positively with mental health. Non-clinical patients, especially men, frequently reported elevated scores. Craig (1999b) suggested that individuals with elevated scores could be conscientious, rule bound and orderly. These characteristics typify the military environment of the successful group (Brooks, 2006; Martin, 1992; Soeters et al., 2003). These elevated scores for the successful group might indicate a compulsive personality style and not a compulsive disorder (Craig, 1999b). From the results in Table 28, no elevated scores were reported for the unsuccessful group. Figure 6 indicates minor differences for scale 7 on the mean scores between the successful (BR=66) and the unsuccessful group (BR=58). These results are not meaningful since both groups reported scores below the cut off score of < 75. Although differences in frequencies of elevated individual scores between the successful (5.9%) and unsuccessful (0%) are reported above, the compulsive scale did not indicate a positive relation between the negative indicators of the competency model and the unsuccessful group. This could be contributed to the fact that traits of obsessive-compulsive behaviour are also found in normal people (Sue et al., 2000). From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems that the compulsive scale is not an apparent predictor of negative indicators for competencies 3, 5, 6, 9 and 10.

From the results in Table 27, 12.5% of the successful group reported elevated scores on the negativistic scale. Individuals with elevated scores on the negativistic scale display mixed behaviour between relying on other individuals versus cannot afford to depend on others. These individuals seem to be flexible in adjusting to their environment, although they could become unpredictable and moody. (Choca, 2004; Craig, 1999b). The behaviour of negativistic individuals constantly changes from agreeable to hostile and aggressive behaviour (Choca, 2004). Inconsistent behaviour implies an imbalanced self (Cloninger, 1996; Crowne, 2007) that would impact negatively on the coordination role of the CIMIC Officer (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002). This behaviour correlates with the negative indicators in Table 13 for competency 1, 2 and 3. Unpredictable and moody behaviour that manifest in military leaders (competency 1) might result in counterproductive behaviour (Military focus group, personal communication, Feb 15, 2007). Furnham and Taylor (2004) confirmed that personality factors seem to be effective predictors of counterproductive behaviour under difficult and in stressful environments. Sue et al. (2000) indicated that poor interpersonal relationships with irregular thoughts and behaviours would impede on building and promoting partnerships (competency 2). In the advisory role of the CIMIC Officer (competency 3), consistency in decision-making and advice to the military and humanitarian components are imperative (Abiew, 2002; Burckle, 2006; Harris & Dombrowski, 2002; Jackson, 2005; Jeong, 2005; Newland & Meyers, 1999; Pugh, 1998; OIOS, 2005; Spence, 2005). Individuals with elevated scores on the negativistic scale tend to be inconsistent in decision-making and are inclined to jump from one idea to another (Craig, 1999b). The results from Table 28 indicate 14% of the unsuccessful group reported elevated scores on the negativistic scale. Figure 6 indicates small differences for scale 8A on the mean scores between the successful (BR=31) and the unsuccessful group (BR=40). These results are not meaningful since both groups reported scores below the cut off score of < 75. Minor differences in frequencies of elevated individual scores between the successful (12.5%) and unsuccessful (14%) groups are

reported above. The insubstantial difference between the successful and unsuccessful groups indicates that the negativistic scale does not discriminate between the groups. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems that the negativistic scale is not an apparent predictor of negative indicators for competencies 1, 2 and 3.

From the results in Table 28, elevated scores for the unsuccessful group were reported on the schizoid scale (14% of unsuccessful group), depressive scale (14% of unsuccessful group), dependant scale (43% of unsuccessful group), and antisocial scale (14% of unsuccessful group). The successful group reported no meaningful scores on these scales. Individuals with elevated scores on the schizoid scale lacks close relationships and prefer to be alone (Choca, 2004). These individuals are introverted, with low need for social involvement (Choca, 2004; Craig 1999b) and distant in interpersonal relationships (Craig, 1999b). It is imperative for the CIMIC Officer to interact with the humanitarian component to enhance the coordination role (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002). The negative indicators associated with isolation are reported in Table 13 in competency 1 and 2. CIMIC Officers with elevated scores could have a detached leadership style that restrains effective coordination (Sue et al., 2000). Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) confirmed that the personality of leaders could influence strategy, structure and organisational culture negatively. Reluctance to engage in social interaction due to low self esteem, social seclusion and emotional aloofness (Sue et al., 2000) and working in isolation (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007) are associated with negative indicators in building and promoting partnerships between the military and humanitarians (competency 2). Figure 6 indicates a small difference for scale 1 on the mean scores between the successful (BR=55) and the unsuccessful group (BR=56). These results are not meaningful since both groups reported scores below the cut off score of < 75. Minor differences in frequencies of elevated individual scores between the successful (0%) and unsuccessful (14%) are reported above. This minor difference between the

successful and unsuccessful groups indicates that the schizoid scale does not discriminate clearly between the groups. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems that the schizoid scale is not an apparent predictor of negative indicators for competencies 1 and 2. Although no meaningful results are reported, Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) confirmed that elevated scores on detached styles would culminate in coordination problems and indecisive strategy.

Individuals with depressive episodes are pessimistic and preoccupied with negative events. They feel inadequate and have low self-esteem. (Craig, 1999b). The research of Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) confirmed that individuals with depressive episodes would experience difficulty to adjust to the dynamic PSO environment. It implies that individuals with elevated scores on the depressive scale should not be considered for selection as CIMIC Officers. These adjustment problems are reflected in the negative indicators in Table 13 in competency 1 and 7. The theoretical discussion on PSO highlighted the dynamics of the ever-changing environment (Knuth, 1999; Natsios, 1995). CIMIC Officers have to cope with a magnitude of physical, cognitive, emotional and social stressors (Orsillo et al., 1998; Vogelaar et al., 1997) in the PSO environment. Crowne (2007) and Hall et al. (1998) highlighted the importance of a balanced personality to enable the CIMIC Officer to adjust and cope with the dynamic PSO environment. High anxiety and inability to cope with setbacks are often associated with depressive episodes (Craig, 1999b). Van Dyk (1998) indicated the importance of low state anxiety to be able to adjust to the PSO environment. Subsequently individuals with a depressed episode should not be considered for selection as a CIMIC Officer. Figure 6 indicates substantial difference for scale 2B on the mean scores between the successful (BR=30) and the unsuccessful group (BR=69). These results are not meaningful for the interpretation of elevated scores since both groups reported scores below the cut off score of < 75. Minor differences in frequencies of elevated individual scores between the successful (0%) and unsuccessful (14%) are reported above. This

minor difference between the successful and unsuccessful groups does not clearly indicate that the depressive scale discriminates between the groups. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems that the depressive scale is not an apparent predictor of negative indicators for competencies 1 and 7. Although these results do not indicate differences between the successful and unsuccessful groups, Van Dyk (1998) reported individuals with a depressive tendency could experience difficulty to adjust and cope with the PSO environment. Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) confirmed that individuals with a depressed personality could often portray symptoms of depression.

Individuals with elevated scores on the dependant personality disorder scale are unable to take care of themselves and depend on others to support them (Craig, 1999b). The research of Vollrath, Alnaes and Torgensen, cited in Choca (2004) reported that these individuals have low self-esteem and show a lack of active intervention as a coping style when in a stressful environment. Craig (1999b) reported that they are prone to develop anxiety, depressive disorders and substance abuse when stressed. Individuals with dependant personality disorder would experience difficulty to adjust to the dynamic PSO environment (Kets de Vries & Miller, 1986). These adjustment problems are reflected in the negative indicators in Table 13 in competency 1, 5 and 7. Horey et al. (2004) reported that effective military leaders who are emotionally stable are able to adjust to the military environment. Ineffective leadership behaviour manifests in counterproductive behaviour at work (Furnham and Taylor, 2004). Leaders with dependant personality disorder have low levels of self-confidence and are unable to cope with challenges associated with the PSO environment (Sue et al., 2000; Van Dyk, 1998). These individuals are reluctant to assume responsibility and they tend to subordinate their responsibilities towards individuals they can depend on (Sue et al., 2000). The CIMIC Officer must take ownership of the CIMIC roles and functions and assist others to grow as teams to enhance the achievement of common goals (Horey et al., 2004). As with the depressive scale, high anxiety is associated with dependant personality disorders. Van Dyk

(1998) indicated the importance of low state anxiety to be able to adjust to the PSO environment. Subsequently individuals with a dependant personality disorder should not be considered for selection as a CIMIC Officer. Figure 6 indicates substantial difference for scale 3 on the mean scores between the successful (BR=44) and the unsuccessful group (BR=62). These results are not meaningful for the interpretation of elevated scores since both groups reported scores below the cut off score of < 75. Substantial differences in frequencies of elevated individual scores between the successful (0%) and unsuccessful (43%) groups are reported from the descriptive statistics. This substantial difference between the successful and unsuccessful groups indicates that the dependant scale discriminates between the groups. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems that the dependant scale is an apparent predictor of negative indicators for competencies 1, 5 and 7. Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) reported that individuals with a dependant personality often portray symptoms of depression. As reported above, individuals with a dependant personality would experience difficulty to adjust to the PSO environment.

Individuals with an antisocial personality tend to be assertive, competitive, mistrustful (Choca, 2004), determined, aggressive, vindictive (Craig, 1999b) and suspicious of others motives (Choca, 2004; Craig, 1999b). The CIMIC Officer must have a balanced personality (Crowne, 2007; Ewen, 1988; Hall et al., 1998) to perform the coordination and facilitation roles (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002) effectively. The impact of antisocial behaviour on the CIMIC Officer is reflected in the negative indicators in Table 13 in competency 2, 5, 8, 9 and 10. Unjustifiable suspicion and de-inclination to trust subordinates (Craig, 1999b; Sue et al., 2000) have a negative impact on building relationships and promoting partnerships in CIMIC (competency 2). In competency 5, individuals who consistently questions motives and the credibility of subordinates inputs (Craig, 1999b), would impede the growth of individuals and the development of effective teams (Horey et al., 2004). Antisocial individuals tend to pursue personal goals rather than mission

objectives (Munslow & Brown, 1999). They often compromise ethical standards to achieve personal objectives (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007). These individuals could be vindictive towards other cultures (Craig, 1999b) and often prevent the participation of diverse cultural individuals (Brooks, 2006). Due to the determination to succeed in achieving personal objectives (Craig, 1999b), individuals with elevated scores could implement counterproductive initiatives and projects (competency 10) for personal gain (De Coning, 2005). Figure 6 indicates minor difference for scale 6A on the mean scores between the successful (BR=18) and the unsuccessful group (BR=24). These results are not meaningful for the interpretation of elevated scores since both groups reported scores below the cut off score of < 75. From the descriptive statistics, minor differences in frequencies of elevated individual scores between the successful (0%) and unsuccessful (14%) are reported above. This minor difference between the successful and unsuccessful groups on the individual elevated scores indicates that the antisocial scale does not clearly discriminate between the groups. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems that the antisocial scale is not an apparent predictor of negative indicators for competencies 2, 5, 8, 9 and 10. These results are confirmed by the description of Sue et al. (2000) of antisocial behaviour. They indicated that individuals with elevated scores fail to abide to social and legal codes. The importance for the military to comply with rule bound mission codes of conduct and rules of engagement are confirmed by Cockell (2002). Subsequently individuals with elevated scores on the antisocial scale should not be considered for selection as CIMIC Officers.

Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) reported individuals with a paranoid personality would experience difficulty to adjust to the dynamic PSO environment. Millon, cited in Craig (1999b) indicated that individuals with elevated scores have conflicting issues between affiliation and control. They mistrust others and attack individuals who are perceived to control them. These individuals are independent and tend to be provocative in interpersonal relationships. (Craig,

1999b). Social interaction is an important skill for the CIMIC Officer in executing the coordination role (Cockell, 2002; De Coning, 2005; JP, 2003; Pugh, 2001; Weinberger, 2002). Horey et al. (2004) confirmed the importance for the CIMIC Officer to extend influence beyond the military chains of command to enhance coordination. Subsequently, individuals reporting elevated scores on the paranoid scale should not be considered for selection as CIMIC Officers. Paranoid behaviour is reflected in the negative indicators in Table 13 in competency 2 and 7. CIMIC Officers with elevated scores could portray unjustifiable suspicion that could manifest in counterproductive behaviour at work (Furnham & Taylor, 2004). This behaviour could be detrimental in building and promoting partnerships between the military and humanitarian components (P. Aboa, personal communication, Feb 9, 2007). Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) indicated that individuals with paranoid personality disorder would have difficulty to adjust to the ever-changing PSO environment since their beliefs oppose change. From the results indicated in Table 29, one case of an elevated score is reported on the paranoid scale from the severe personality disorder cluster. This case represents 5% of the sample and is not substantial to determine if the paranoid scale are an apparent predictor of negative indicators for competencies 1 and 7.

Peacekeepers must have low state anxiety to adjust and cope with the challenging PSO environment (Hall et al., 1998; Stanley, 2003; Van Dyk, 1998). Individuals with elevated score on the anxiety disorder scale (scale A) on the clinical syndrome cluster are restless, anxious and apprehensive. Van Dyk (1998) confirmed the importance of low state anxiety to enable peacekeepers to adjust and cope with the dynamic PSO environment. Subsequently, CIMIC Officers with elevated scores on the anxiety scale are not suited to deployment since they will experience difficulty in adjusting. Elevated scores on the anxiety disorder are reflected in the negative indicators in Table 13 in competency 1 and 7. Kets de Vries and Miller (1986) confirmed that individuals with personality disorders would perform poorly in challenging environments. These military

leaders (competency 1), with personality disorders, would be unable to guide and maintain control over the CIMIC roles and functions (Horey et al., 2004). Sue et al. (2000) indicated that individuals with high levels of anxiety could experience difficulty in adjusting to a stressful environment. The research of Orsillo et al. (1998) and Vogelaar et al. (1997) indicated that the CIMIC Officer had to deal with a multitude of PSO stressors (competency 7). The results from Table 30 indicate that 12% of the sample reported elevated scores on the anxiety disorder scale (scale A). This measurement was reported in 28% of the unsuccessful group. No elevated scores were reported for the successful group. These results indicate that the anxiety disorder scale discriminates between the successful and unsuccessful groups. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it seems that elevated scores on the anxiety disorder scale are an apparent predictor of negative indicators on competencies 1 and 7. These results are confirmed by the research of Rosebush (1998). He reported the individuals with high levels of anxiety would experience difficulty in adjusting to the dynamic PSO environment.

From the results on descriptive statistics for the MCMI-III, it appears that the following scales are good negative indicators on the competency model of a CIMIC Officer.

- Dependant scale (3) on competencies 1, 5 and 7.
- Narcissistic scale (5) on competencies 1, 5, 6, 8 and 10.
- Anxiety disorder scale (A) on competencies 1 and 7.

From inspection of the results on descriptive statistics, it seems that individuals with elevated scores on these scales should not be considered for selection as CIMIC Officers since they will not be able to perform the roles and functions (see par 2.6) efficiently.

5.8 Linguistic skills

English and French are the official languages of the UN. The mission language is determined by the composition of the Troop Contributing Countries contributions. In missions where only Francophone countries participate, the mission language is normally French. In missions with a fusion of cultures of Anglophones and Francophones (see par 2.8.2.1), English is normally the mission language. The mission language in AMIS, where the field research was conducted, was English. The value of the Academic Aptitude Test (AAT) for this study is founded in its ability to measure English language ability. Language ability is critical in executing the roles and functions of the CIMIC Officer. Individuals who are not proficient in the mission language should not be considered for selection as CIMIC Officers. Leeds (2001) indicated inefficiency in a mission language as one of the main obstacles in interoperability. Low scores on the AAT correlates the negative indicators in Table 13 in competency 3 (misunderstanding due to lack of linguistic compatibility). High scores do not correlate with specific positive indicators in the competency model in Table 13. It is however a critical underlying imperative in achieving the positive indicators on competency 1 to 10. The results from Table 32 show the unsuccessful group (mean of 6.5) outperformed the successful group (mean of 5.9) on the English vocabulary test. These results indicate average to good ability for the unsuccessful group and average ability for successful group. From the results, it seems that the AAT discriminates moderately on the English vocabulary scale between successful and unsuccessful groups. From Table 32 similar results were reported for the successful (mean of 5.8) and the unsuccessful (mean of 5.75) groups on the English comprehension test. These results indicate average ability on the English comprehension scale for both groups. From the results, it seems that the English comprehension scale does not clearly discriminate between the successful and unsuccessful group. These results indicating higher ability on the unsuccessful group could be contributed to the first language distribution reported in Table 4. Three participants reported English as their third

language and could have experienced difficulty in analysing the questionnaire within the time limit prescribed for the test. From inspection of the descriptive statistics, it appears that the English vocabulary and English comprehension scales of the AAT are not apparent indicators of success for the CIMIC Officer.

5.9 Meaningful indicators for the competency model

The apparent good positive and negative indicators of the competency model in Table 13 are summarised as follow per competency.

Competency 1: Military leadership

- Positive indicators:
 - 15FQ+ Feelings/emotionally stable (*fC*)
 - 15FQ+ Self-assured/apprehensive (*fO*)
 - 15FQ+ Compose/tense driven (*fQ4*)
 - 15FQ+ Low/high anxiety (N)
 - MBTI Thinking/feeling scale (TF)
- Negative indicators
 - 15FQ+ Feelings/emotionally stable (*fC*)
 - 15FQ+ Retiring/socially bold (*fH*)
 - 15FQ+ Trusting/suspicious (*fL*)
 - 15FQ+ Conventional/radical (*fQ1*)
 - 15FQ+ Low/high anxiety (N)
 - MBTI Extroversion/introversion scale (EI)
 - MCMI-III Dependant scale (3)
 - MCMI-III Narcissistic (5)
 - MCMI-III Anxiety disorder scale (A)

Competency 2: Building and promoting partnerships across the military, humanitarian and civilian component

- Positive indicators:
 - 15FQ+ Compose/tense driven (fQ4)
 - 15FQ+ Introvert/extrovert (E)
 - MBTI Sensing/intuition scale (SN)
- Negative indicators
 - 15FQ+ Retiring/socially bold (fH)
 - MBTI Extroversion/introversion scale (EI)
 - MCMI-III Dependant scale (3)

Competency 3: Advisor to Military and humanitarian components

- Positive indicator:
 - MBTI Thinking/feeling scale (TF)

Competency 4: Analysing and interpreting the dynamic civil military coordination environment.

- Positive indicator:
 - MBTI Judging/perceiving scale (JP)
- Negative indicators
 - 15FQ+ Conventional/radical (fQ1)
 - MBTI Extroversion/introversion scale (EI)

Competency 5: Promote a working environment where creativity and conceptualisation is encouraged.

- Positive indicators:
 - 15FQ+ Feelings/emotionally stable (fC)

- 15FQ+ Compose/tense driven (fQ4)
- MBTI Sensing/intuition scale (SN)
- Negative indicator
 - MCMI-III Dependant scale (3)
 - MCMI-III Narcissistic scale (5)

Competency 6: Coordinating efforts of relevant organisations to be complimentary.

- Positive indicators:
 - MBTI Thinking/feeling scale (TF)
 - MBTI Judging/perceiving scale (JP)
- Negative indicators
 - 15FQ+ Retiring/socially bold (fH)
 - 15FQ+ Conventional/radical (fQ1)
 - MCMI-III Narcissistic scale (5)

Competency 7: emotionally stable to adjust and cope with the multiple dimensions of Civil Military Coordination.

- Positive indicators:
 - 15FQ+ Feelings/emotionally stable (fC)
 - 15FQ+ Self-assured/apprehensive (fO)
 - 15FQ+ Compose/tense driven (fQ4)
- Negative indicators
 - 15FQ+ Feelings/emotionally stable (fC)
 - 15FQ+ Trusting/suspicious (fL)
 - 15FQ+ Low/high anxiety (N)
 - MCMI-III Dependant scale (3)
 - MCMI-III Anxiety disorder scale (A)

Competency 8: promote a working environment where personal and organisational objectives are aligned with mission objectives

- Negative indicators:
 - 15FQ+ Trusting/suspicious (*fL*) for competency
 - MCMI-III Dependant scale (3)
 - MCMI-III Narcissistic scale (5)

Competency 9: respecting and promoting individual, cultural and organisational differences.

- Positive indicators:
 - 15FQ+ Feelings/emotionally stable (*fC*)
 - 15FQ+ Compose/tense driven (*fQ4*)
 - MBTI Thinking/feeling scale (TF)
- Negative indicators
 - 15FQ+ Trusting/suspicious (*fL*) for competency
 - MCMI-III Dependant scale (3)

Competency 10: Ensuring effective use of resources.

- Negative indicators
 - MBTI Extroversion/introversion scale (EI)
 - MCMI-III Dependant scale (3)
 - MCMI-III Narcissistic scale (5)

The SMEs rated the competency model (Table 13) to identify the very important to critical competencies for the CIMIC Officer. The Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection (Section 60-3, 1978) stipulated that the knowledge, skills and behaviour measured in selection are very important in assessing critical work behaviour. From the results in Table 14 very important to critical ratings were

reported on competency 2 (3.5), 3 (3.0), 6 (3.0) and 7 (3.0) by the SMEs. From inspection of the results and the apparent indicators identified above, it seems that the following are meaningful indicators in selection of CIMIC Officers:

- 15FQ+ scale *fC* (feelings/emotionally stability), scale *fH* (retiring/socially bold), scale *fL* (trusting/suspicious), scale *fO* (self-assured/apprehensive), scale *fQ1* (conventional/radical), scale *fQ4* (compose/tense driven), scale *E* (introvert/extrovert) and scale *N* (low/high anxiety).
- MBTI scale *EI* (extroversion/introversion), scale *SN* (sensing/intuition), scale *TF* (thinking/feeling) and scale (*JP*) judging/perceiving).
- MCMI-III scale 3 (dependant scale), scale 5 (narcissistic scale) and scale *A* (anxiety disorder scale).

From inspection of the results and discussion in this chapter, it seems that the meaningful positive indicators confirm hypothesis 1 as defined in par 3.1. The meaningful results of the MCMI-III on the negative indicators of the competency model seem to confirm hypothesis 2 as defined in par 3.1.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSIONS, LIMITATIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

In this chapter, the important conclusions to the study are discussed and its limitations are indicated. The chapter concludes with recommendations for future research.

6.1 Conclusion

The following aims have been achieved (see par 1.4) in this research:

- The roles and functions of the CIMIC Officers were defined.
- The behaviours that impede effective performance and adjustment of CIMIC Officers were identified.
- The profile for the CIMIC Officer was defined in a competency model.
- Critical competencies were identified and linked with apparent performance criteria.

This research contributed to the concept of civil military coordination(CIMIC) in a unique way since it was the first research project that addressed the challenges synonymous with CIMIC in a holistic way. In the theoretical discussion, the concept of civil military coordination was analysed from a humanitarian and military component perspective. The challenges identified by these components were addressed by integrating possible solutions suggested by both the military and humanitarian components. The roles and functions of the CIMIC Officer were defined by integrating the CIMIC concept, definitions, military and

humanitarian perspectives and possible solutions that could enhance coordination.

The uniqueness of this study is based on the results of the competency model. The results of the theoretical discussion were integrated with primary data from field research in a competency model for a CIMIC Officer. The model encompasses positive indicators that enhance coordination and negative indicators that impede coordination. The inclusion of negative indicators is of critical importance to this study. The results from this research indicated that the successful group reported some characteristics that correlated with the positive indicators in the CIMIC Officer's competency model. Some negative indicators were found to correlate positively with characteristics of the unsuccessful group. The link between the negative indicators of the competency model and the unsuccessful group is of critical importance in selecting CIMIC Officers. Individuals reporting abnormal behaviour associated with negative indicators should not be selected as CIMIC Officers. If applied during selection, it could prevent the manifestation of psychopathology in individuals.

The results of the psychometric tests that were administered on the successful and unsuccessful groups indicated the following apparent predictors for the positive and negative indicators of the competency model:

- 15FQ+ scales for positive indicators: scale *fC* (feelings/emotionally stability), scale *fO* (self-assured/ apprehensive), scale *fQ4* (composed/ tense driven) and scale *E* (introvert/extrovert).
- 15FQ+ scales for negative indicators: scale *fH* (retiring/socially bold), scale *fL* (trusting/suspicious), scale *fQ1* (conventional/radical) and scale *N* (low/high anxiety).

- MBTI scales for positive indicators: scale SN (sensing/intuition), scale TF (thinking/feeling) and scale (JP) judging/perceiving).
- MBTI scales for negative indicators: scale EI (extroversion/introversion) and scale TF (thinking/feeling).
- MCMI-III scale for negative indicators: scale 3 (dependent scale), scale 5 (narcissistic scale) and scale A (anxiety disorder scale).

The relationship between the meaningful scales reported from the results and the apparent indicators are presented as a model in Figure 7.

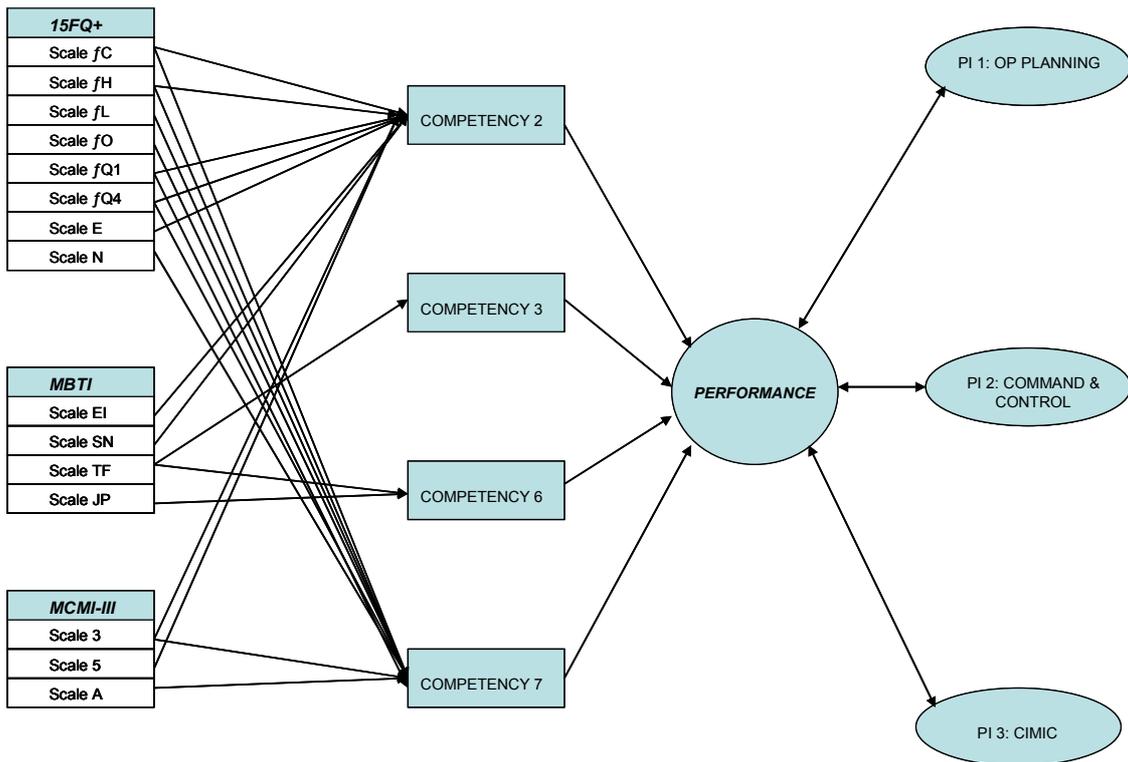


Figure 7. Model for CIMIC Officers indicating apparent relationship between possible predictors and performance

From the results in this research, Figure 7 indicates the apparent relationship between criteria that seem to be provisional criteria, and competencies (variables) in selection of CIMIC Officers. The competencies represent the four very important to critical competencies as rated by the SMEs. The scales of the 15FQ+, MBTI and MCMI-III represent the meaningful scales of these tests. It seems that these scales correlate with the positive and negative indicators of the competencies identified by the SMEs. It seems that if CIMIC Officers are selected according to these provisional criteria, they should be able to perform more successfully on the three performance indicators of command and control, operational planning and the CIMIC function.

6.2 Limitations

Babbie (2001) reported representativeness as one of the main limitations of exploratory research. He indicated that the individuals under study in exploratory research were not necessarily representative of the larger populations. Exploratory research is normally conducted within the framework of a qualitative research design. Babbie (2001) indicated that qualitative research was not an appropriate scientific process in arriving at statistical descriptions of the larger populations. Babbie and Mouton (2004) indicated that sampling in qualitative research were dependent on the nature of the study and involved 5 to 25 clearly defined participants. The research design and sample size of participants in this study ($N=20$), limited the researcher to generalising the results reported in this study in the larger population.

The apparent criterion for performance reported in the results of this study could not be statistically validated owing to restriction of the sample size. Gatewood and Feild (2001) reported that a sample of several hundreds is required to report meaningful correlations in a content validity strategy. This implied that inferential leap 3, indicated in Figure 2, could not be finalised in this study. Subsequently the criterion was reported as provisional criterion.

The sample frame was influenced by the security situation during the field research. The researcher had to apply a snowball sampling technique due to the impact of the security situation on the availability of the subjects. This limited the number of in- depth individual and focus group interviews.

The sample comprised a diverse group representing 12 countries with six different first languages. The psychometric tests that were administered in this research were available in English only. Subsequently only 35% of the participants completed the psychometric tests in their first language. The researcher assisted the participants in the test without a time restriction. However, this was not possible in the time restricted Academic Aptitude Test (AAT) since this test has to be completed within a certain time. The AAT results could have been influenced by a lack of understanding of English by non-English first language participants.

The biographical name list did not request information about previous experience in PSO. Previous experiences in PSO could have impacted specifically on the performance of the successful group. Such details should be included in the biographical questionnaire in future research.

The limitation involved in the division of the successful and unsuccessful group was the completion of the performance indicators by the researcher in his official appointment in the mission. Although the researcher was aware of possible bias and therefore applied triangulation in this study, the absence of objective criteria implied that the bias might not have been eliminated.

Choca (2004) emphasised the importance of interpreting the results of the MCMI with information from other sources in determining the level of functioning of assessed individuals. No historical data on the participants were available. Subsequently elevated scores on the MCMI-III were interpreted on a one-point scale only.

6.3 Recommendations

Although the research focused on the SANDF's involvement in the Sudan, there will be significant differences between the missions conducted in other countries owing to the multidimensional approach to complex emergencies. The different perspectives resulting from the various missions can be used to verify the AMIS experience in future studies. The strict religious and ethnic foundation of the Sudanese implied that alcohol was banned and sexual misconduct was not tolerated. It has been reported in other missions outside the Sudan that peacekeepers frequently misbehave sexually and misuse alcohol. It is suggested that electives measuring social misconduct be included in future research in order to generalise the results for the larger population.

To finalise the selection criteria for a CIMIC Officer, inferential leap 3 (Figure 2) should be completed through a content validity study. The following technical standards stipulated in the Uniform Guidelines on Employee Selection should be adhered to in the future study (Section 60-3, 1978):

- It is essential for the sample to be representative of the job content.
- A selection procedure developed to measure the work behaviour may be developed specifically for the job in question.
- The work behaviour demonstrated in the selection procedure should be a representative sample in terms of the job in question.
- The knowledge, skill and ability measured in selection are very important in assessing critical work behaviours.
- The reliability of the procedures should be measured statistically.

Although this research did not indicate the impact of the selection criteria on performance, the following hypotheses should be considered in selecting CIMIC Officers:

- CIMIC Officers selected according to the criteria of the competency model outperform randomly appointed officers.
- CIMIC Officers selected according to the criteria of the competency model enhance coordination between the military and humanitarian components.
- Randomly appointed CIMIC Officers are less effective than Officers selected according to the criteria of the competency model due to elevated levels of abnormal behaviour.

6.4 Chapter summary

The importance of coordination between the military and humanitarian components was highlighted as the central theme for CIMIC throughout this research. To perform optimally as a CIMIC Officer in the dynamic multidimensional peace support operations environment requires an officer with specialist skills over and above the generic peacekeeping skills.

The objective of defining a psychological profile was achieved through this research. The dynamics of the peace support operations, the ever-changing peace support environment, various perspectives and personality theories were analysed in defining a competency model for the CIMIC Officer. This model is inclusive of positive and negative indicators that will not only enhance coordination, but also ensure that selected officers are able to cope and adjust to the dynamic peace support operations environment.

The SANDF should develop similar models for all specialist appointments involved in peace missions. Selection according to a specific psychological profile will not only enhance performance, but also prevent the possible manifestation of psychopathology in randomly appointed officers.

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APPENDIX A: COMPETENCY MODEL QUESTIONNAIRE

Nature of Work

- 1 *What is your role and key responsibility?*
 - 2 *What are the primary challenges your are faced within interacting with the military/humanitarians.?*
 - 3 *What are the obstacles to meeting the challenges?*
-

Work-related Competencies

- 1 *Describe a problem you work on that was resolved successfully between the military and humanitarians.*
 - 2 *Describe a problem your work on that was not resolved.*
 - 3 *Describe one or more frustrations you encountered working with military/humanitarians.*
 - 4 *Provide an example of something you have done that exemplifies a positive contribution*
 - 5 *What are some of the factors that limit successful interaction?*
 - 6 *What are some of the behaviours and skills required that must be maintained to be successful?*
 - 7 *What are some of the behaviours that need to be changed to enhance success?*
-

Additional Focus group questions

- 1 *What describes the behaviour of more successful than less successful individuals in coordination?*
 - 2 *What are the skills, knowledge and abilities necessary to enhance coordination?*
-

(Adapted from Lucia & Lepsinger, 1999, p.72)

APPENDIX B: MEYRS BRIGGS TYPE INDICATOR DESCRIPTIONS

		<i>Sensing type</i>		<i>Intuitive types</i>			
<i>Introvers</i>	ISTJ	ISFJ	INFJ	INTJ	<i>Introvers</i>		
	Serious, quiet, earn success by concentration and thoroughness. Practical, orderly matter-of-fact, logical, realistic, and dependant. See to it that everything is well organized. Take responsibility. Make up their own minds as to what should be accomplished and work towards it steadily, regardless of protests or distractions	Quiet, friendly, responsible, and conscientious. Work devotedly to meet their obligations. Lend stability to any project or group. Thorough, painstaking, accurate. Their interests are usually not technical. Can be patient with necessary details. Loyal, considerate, perceptive, concerned with how other people feel.	Succeed by perseverance, originality, and desire to do whatever is needed or wanted. Put their best efforts into their work. Quietly forceful, conscientious, concerned for others. Respected for their firm principles. Likely to be honoured and followed for their clear conditions as to how best to serve the common good.	Usually have original minds and great drive for their own ideas and purpose. In filed that appeal to them, they have a fine power to organise a job and carry it through with or without help. Sceptical, critical, independent, determined, sometimes stubborn. Must learn to yield less important points in order to win the most important.			
<i>Extrovers</i>	ISTP	ISFP	INFP	INTP	<i>Extrovers</i>		
	Good onlookers-quiet, reserved, observing and analyzing life with detached curiosity and unexpected flashes of original humour. Usually interested in cause and effect, how and why mechanical things work, and in organizing facts using logistical principles.	Retiring, quietly friendly, kind, modest about their abilities. Shun disagreements; do not e their opinions or values on others. Usually do not care to lead but are often loyal followers. Often relaxed about getting things done, because they enjoy the present moment and do not want to spoil it by undue haste or exertion	Full of enthusiasm and loyalties, but seldom talk of these until they know you well. Care about learning, ideas, language, and independent projects of their own. Tend to undertake too much, and then somehow get it done. Friendly but often too absorbed in what they are doing to be sociable. Little concerned with possessions or physical surroundings.	Quiet and reserved. Especially enjoy theoretical or scientific pursuits. Like solving problems with logic and analysis. Usually interested mainly in ideas, with little liking for parties or small talk. Tend to have sharply defined interests. Need careers where some strong interest can be used and useful.			
<i>Extrovers</i>	ESTP	ESFP	ENFP	ENTP	<i>Extrovers</i>		
	Good at on the spot problem solving. Do not worry, enjoy whatever comes along. Tend to like mechanical things and sports, with friends on the side. Adaptable, tolerant, generally conservative in values. Dislike long explanation. Are best with things that can be worked, handled, taken apart, or put together.	Outgoing, easygoing, accepting, friendly, enjoy everything and make things more fun for others by their enjoyment. Like sports and making things happen. Know what is going on and join in eagerly. Find remembering facts easier than mastering theories. Are best in situations that need sound common sense and practical ability with people as well as with things.	Warmly enthusiastic, high-spirited, ingenious, imaginative. Able to do almost anything that interests them. Quick with a solution for any difficulty and ready to help anyone with a problem. Often rely on their ability to improvise instead of preparing in advance. Can usually find compelling reasons for whatever they want.	Quick, ingenious, good at many things. Stimulating company, alert, outspoken. May argue for fun on either side of a question. Resourceful in solving new and challenging problems, but may neglect routine assignments. Apt to turn to one new interest after the other. Skilful in finding logical reasons for what they want.			
<i>Extrovers</i>	ESTJ	ESFJ	ENFJ	ENTJ	<i>Extrovers</i>		
	Practical, realistic, matter-of – fact, with a natural head for business or mechanics. Not interested in subjects they see no use for but can apply themselves when necessary. Like to organise and run activities. May make good administrators, especially if they remember to consider others' feelings and points view.	Warm-hearted, talkative, popular, conscientious, born co-operators, active committee members. Need harmony and may be good at creating it. Always doing something nice for someone. Work best with encouragement and praise. Main interest is in things that directly and visibly affect people's lives.	Responsive and responsible. Generally feel real concern for what others think or want and try to handle things with due regard for the other person's feelings. Can present a proposal or lead a group discussion with ease and tact. Sociable, popular, sympathetic. Responsive to praise and criticism.	Hearty, frank, decisive, leaders in activities. Usually good in anything that requires reasoning and intelligent talk, such as public speaking. Are usually well informed and enjoy adding to their fund of knowledge. May sometimes appear more positive and confident that their experience in an area warrants.			

(Adapted from Hall et al., 1998, p. 117)

APPENDIX C: SUMMARY OF CATTELL' MAJOR SOURCE TRAITS

Source Trait Index	Low Score Description	High Score description
A	<i>Sizia</i> : Reserved, detached, critical, aloof, stiff	<i>Affectia</i> : Outgoing, warm-hearted, easygoing, participative
B	<i>Low Intelligence</i> : Dull	<i>High Intelligence</i> : Bright
C	<i>Lower ego strength</i> : at mercy of feelings	<i>Higher ego strength</i> : emotionally stable, mature, faces reality, calm.
E	<i>Submissiveness</i> : Humble, mild, easily upset, changeable.	<i>Dominance</i> : Assertive, aggressive, competitive, and stubborn.
F	<i>Desurgency</i> : Sober, taciturn, serious.	<i>Surgency</i> : Happy go lucky, gay, enthusiastic.
G	<i>Weaker super ego strength</i> : Expedient, disregard rules.	<i>Stronger super ego strength</i> : Conscientious, persistent, moralistic, and staid.
H	<i>Threctia</i> : Shy, timid, threat, sensitive.	<i>Parmia</i> : Venturesome, uninhibited, and socially bold.
I	<i>Harria</i> : Tough minded, self-reliant, realistic.	<i>Premisia</i> : Tender-minded, sensitive, clinging, overprotected.
L	<i>Alaxia</i> : Trusting, accepting conditions.	<i>Protension</i> : Suspicious, hard to fool.
M	<i>Praxernia</i> : Practical, down to earth, concerns.	<i>Autia</i> : Imaginative bohemian, absent minded.
N	<i>Artlessness</i> : Forthright, unpretentious, genuine, but socially clumsy.	<i>Shrewdness</i> : Astute, polished, and socially aware.
O	<i>Untroubled adequacy</i> : Self-assured, placid, secure, complacent, and serene.	<i>Guilt proneness</i> : Apprehensive, self-reproaching, insecure, worrying, troubled.
Q1	<i>Conservatism of temperament</i> : Conservative, respecting traditional ideas.	<i>Radicalism</i> : Experimenting, liberal, freethinking.
Q2	<i>Group adherence</i> : Group-dependant, a joiner and sound follower.	<i>Self-suffering</i> : Self-sufficient, resourceful, prefers own decisions.
Q3	<i>Low self-sentiment integration</i> : undisciplined, self-conflict, lax, follows own urges, careless of social rules.	<i>High strength of self-sentiment</i> : Controlled, exacting will power, socially precise.
Q4	<i>Low ergic tension</i> : Relaxed, tranquil, torpid, unfrustrated, and composed.	<i>High ergic tension</i> : Tense, frustrated, driven, overwrought.

(Appendix continue)

Appendix C (continued)

<i>D</i>	<i>Insecure excitability</i>
<i>J</i>	<i>Coasthenia vs Zeppia</i>
<i>K</i>	<i>Mature socialization vs boorishness</i>
<i>P</i>	<i>Sanguine casualness</i>
<i>Q5</i>	<i>Group dedication with sensed inadequacy</i>
<i>Q6</i>	<i>Social panache</i>
<i>Q7</i>	<i>Explicit self-expression</i>

(Adapted from Hall et al., 1998, p.322)

APPENDIX D: EXPRESSION OF PERSONALITY DISORDERS ACROSS THE DOMAINS OF CLINICAL SCIENCE

		<i>Domain</i>							
		Expressive Acts	Interpersonal Contact	Cognitive Style	Self-Image	Object Representation	Regulatory Mechanisms	Morphologic Organisation	Mood/ Temperament
Disorder	Schizoid	Impassive	Unengaged	Impoverished	Complacent	Meager	Intellectualisation	Un-differentiated	Apathetic
	Avoidant	Fretful	Aversive	Distracted	Alienated	Vexatious	Fantasy	Fragile	Anguished
	Depressive	Disconsolate	Defenceless	Pessimistic	Worthless	Forsaken	Asceticism	Depleted	Melanchotic
	Dependant	Incompetent	Submissive	Naïve	Inept	Immature	Introjection	Inchoate	Pacific
	Histrionic	Dramatic	Attention seeker	Flighty	Gregarious	Shallow	Dissociation	Disjointed	Fickle
	Narcissistic	Haughty	Exploitive	Expansive	Admirable	Contrived	Rationalisation	Spurious	Insouciant
	Antisocial	Impulsive	Irresponsible	Deviant	Autonomous	Debased	Acting-out	Unruly	Callous
	Sadistic	Precipitate	Abrasive	Dogmatic	Combative	Pernicious	Isolation	Eruptive	Hostile
	Compulsive	Disciplined	Respectful	Constricted	Conscientious	Concealed	Reaction formation	Compatimentalised	Solemn
	Negativistic	Resentful	Contrary	Sceptical	Discontented	Vacillating	Displacement	Divergent	Irritable
	Masochistic	Abstinent	Deferential	Diffident	Undeserved	Discredited	Exaggeration	Split	Dysphoric
	Schizotypal	Eccentric	Secretive	Autistic	Estranged	Chaotic	Undoing	Fragmented	Distraught
	Borderline	Spasmodic	Paradoxical	Capricious	Uncertain	Incompatible	Regression	Split	Labile
Paranoid	Defensive	Provocative	Suspicious	Inviolable	Unalterable	Projection	Inelastic	Irascible	

(Adapted from Millon, 1996, p. 139)