

Section V Cross-Cultural Collaboration and Interoperability

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Preparing Officers and Soldiers for the Increasingly Multi-Lateral Character of Conflict: A Case Study of the African Peace Support Trainers Association

Abstract: This chapter examines the six core objectives of the African Peace Support Trainers Association (APSTA), which is designed to coordinate peacekeeping training, doctrine and research across different Centres of Excellence in Africa. It demonstrates the useful insights that have been generated through the implementation of these objectives, regarding the methods through which such associations can contribute to better Peace Support Operations, the type of challenges that these associations must face in seeking to deliver military educational reform, the bureaucratic procedures required to achieve this goal, and the financial inhibitors that may affect the ability for such associations to achieve significant reforms.

Keywords: PME, military education, peacekeeping, centre of excellence, APSTA, peace support operations, PSO

Introduction

In order to harmonize the peacekeeping capabilities of troop-contributing countries across the African Continent, it is vital for relevant Centres of Excellence (CoE) to provide realistic, individualized and well-coordinated training in Peace Support Operations (PSO). These institutions serve as invaluable training resources for troops preparing for the in-theatre peacekeeping environment. This chapter considers the challenges and successes of the African Peace Support Trainers Association (APSTA) in coordinating training, doctrine and research across Centres of Excellence in Africa.

In the 1992 report *An Agenda for Peace*, the serving UN Secretary General Boutros Boutros-Ghali defined four primary concepts for dealing with peace and security. These four elements, designed to create, support and strengthen peace, were Preventive Diplomacy, Peacemaking, Peacekeeping, and Post-conflict Peace-building (UN Secretary

General, 1992, Art.II.20–21). Many related concepts exist within and around these four elements, such as peace-enforcement, implementation of comprehensive peace settlements, protection of humanitarian operations, sanctions, and disarmament. This chapter focuses on the four key elements of the *Agenda for Peace*, however, as they form the core of PSO training. This training is vital for dealing with the complex emergencies, including population displacement, breakdown of fragile governments, and failed states, that can be generated by interstate and intrastate conflicts.

Although these conflicts can be found across the world, the study will focus on the African continent. The continuing need for multi-lateral PSO in Africa specifically can be seen in operations such as AMISOM (Somalia), UNAMID (Darfur), AU-RTF, AFISMA (Mali), and MISCA (CAR), among others. To meet this need, the African Union (AU), in coordination with Regional Economic Communities (RECs) and Regional Mechanisms (RMs), has designated various institutions as Centres of Excellence for PSO in its five sub-regions: North Africa, West Africa, East Africa, Central Africa, and Southern Africa.¹ These CoE are tasked with conducting PSO training “in four key areas, namely: foundation training, pre-deployment training, specialized training and leadership training” (Aboagye, 2014, p.2).

This concept of regional CoE has been recognized by many regional and sub-regional institutions for a number of years (APSTA, 2012, pp.7–8). As noted in its Constitution and its *Strategic Plan 2014–2019*, APSTA exists to facilitate this development of African capacity for peace and security operations through “multidimensional coordination”, advocacy, harmonization, and standardization of training among member institutions (APSTA, 2014, p.4). This chapter considers APSTA’s six key objectives, and how they are designed to prepare officers and soldiers (male or female) for the increasingly multi-lateral character of conflict in the African continent and beyond. In doing so, it will also provide an insight into the methods by which an association dedicated to professional military education can

1 It should be acknowledged here that there are many notable training institutions across the African continent that conduct PSO training that are not Centres of Excellence.

contribute to the development of contemporary peacekeeping operations, as well as the bureaucratic procedures and financial inhibitors which may affect its capacity to achieve significant reforms.

Historical Background

This chapter would be incomplete if it did not provide a perspective on the historical contexts that have led to peace support operations today. According to the Commission on Human Security (2003, p.21), we can include among the “key factors that cause violent internal conflict:

- Competition over land and resources.
- Sudden and deep political and economic transitions.
- Growing inequality among people and communities.
- Increasing crime, corruption, and illegal activities.
- Weak and instable political regimes and institutions.
- Identity politics and historical legacies, such as colonialism.”

Security forces provide a potentially significant means of avoiding, mitigating, or resolving such internal conflict. As argued by Martin Rupiya (2005, p.1) in his editorial for *Evolutions and Revolutions*:

“In all emerging states that were released from colonial bondage, the most important structure of the government bureaucracy to be created was the armed forces. This is because the armed forces are seen not only as an instrument to address security concerns, but also as a concrete national symbol that represents and participates in ceremonies which confirm the status of the new nation.”

Yet, due to the fact that the “security forces are also the most basic means of gaining and maintaining political power” (Chuter, 2008, p.2), it should be borne in mind that this same political leadership may use the armed forces to preserve their grip on power for personal benefits. Nhema and Zeleza (2008, p.7), for example, argue that

“Wars of regime change are those often engineered by self-described revolutionary movements that seek to overthrow the existing government and establish a new socio-economic dispensation, including conditions and content of citizenship.”

These conflicts have many negative social, political, economic, cultural, and environmental impacts including: undermining social-economic development, collapse of political order, inter-ethnic conflict, oppression, death,

and displacement of populations. These negative impacts have prevented the realization of sustainable human development and security for many innocent human beings who have borne the brunt of conflicts (Bromwich, 2009, pp.309–311). Such scenarios are unbearable for the oppressed and the disadvantaged and thus require an operating environment that gives a voice or at least a breathing space for communities and individuals. This operating environment must take into account the multi-layered nature of conflict. The Darfur conflict, for example, has three levels of fighting, that can be broadly defined as tribal, national (between Darfur rebel groups and the government), and regional (including rivalries amongst Sudan, Chad, the Central African Republic and Libya).

The relationship between the state and its people, and the legitimacy of the government and ability to provide for the needs of its peoples can either be strengthened or undermined by this range of structural factors. Despite the remarkable efforts and progress being made in conflict resolution and mitigation on the African continent, some areas continue to experience serious challenges; such as South Sudan, Somalia, the Central African Republic, Nigeria, and Darfur in Sudan. Understanding the specificities of various conflicts requires thorough training by specialized institutions, such as those affiliated to APSTA. Without such preparedness, nations, civilians, and even security forces can easily be exploited by the enemies of peace who wish to harm vulnerable populations in conflict areas. In order to enhance the preparedness of security forces across Africa, APSTA has focused on enhancing peacekeeping education through six key objectives (APSTA, 2010, p.2).

Objective 1

“To facilitate the ability of peace support training centers to dialogue with each other”

The core purpose of APSTA is to be a centre for coordination, harmonization, and standardization of the activities of its member training institutions, to help them attain common goals. Key to those goals is the training of leaders that will carry out the mandate of the UN or AU in peace support operations in Africa. Initially, the main challenges that troops and other organizations faced in this regard were the result of a

lack of coordination mechanisms in-theatre, as each contributing country had its own national defence doctrine. Literature and doctrine on peace operations also focus on the interoperability of different militaries from different countries, nationalities, and cultures. This emphasis on creating interoperability at the “field level” is emphasized by Troeller (2008, p.8), who confirms the need to create a foundational understanding and interface “between the military and humanitarian organizations, their differing roles, institutional ethos, management cultures, agendas and operating imperatives”.

In line with this challenge, APSTA seeks to emphasize the need for its member institutions to engage in regular talks and coordination activities. In order for peace support operations to succeed, this interoperability must be well coordinated at three levels, the Strategic, Operational, and Tactical. As Mark Malan (2000, p.29) observed:

“Military doctrine has a different content and emphasis at various levels of application. At the supranational level, doctrine manifests itself in various tenets of international law – the most overarching, of course, being the UN Charter itself. At a national level, doctrine is often articulated by white papers that explain broad policy guidelines from a political perspective. Operational level doctrine has a somewhat different focus. It concerns itself with the principles that govern the conduct of campaigns and major operations, and imparts understanding. At the tactical level, doctrine focuses more on instruction and training and ensures that commanders have a common foundation on which to base plans for the execution of their mission.”

The agreement to evolve a shared glossary of peace operations terminology to ensure common understanding, adopted by Chiefs of Defence Staff within the Organization of African Unity (OAU), now named the African Union, underscores this critical need for dialogue (OAU Secretariat, 1999). We will consider further recommendations from the OAU meeting in relation to Objective 2 and 3 of the APSTA.

Objectives 2 and 3

“To facilitate meetings and exchange of information and communication between members in training” and “To facilitate efforts in the harmonization of the doctrine and training policies of member institutions in order to have a standardized training program for peace support operations”

In line with its second and third key objectives, the APSTA Secretariat facilitates meetings at various levels between member institutions, donors, and other stakeholders. Such meetings focus mainly on information for doctrine and training policies. At the highest level is the Annual General Meeting (AGM), which from 2002 to 2012 has been held nine times by different members in all five sub-regions of the African Continent (Chirwa and Kimani, 2012, pp.25–31). As well as consolidating and sharing information that will help member institutions prepare officers and soldiers for PSO, these meetings provide direction to the Executive Committee and the Secretariat to coordinate and implement new resolutions. As such, the AGM acts as a regional extension of wider international aims to share PSO information on a global level. Due to this, in 2001 the APSTA became a chapter of the International Association of Peacekeeping Training Centers (IAPTC). Chirwa and Kimani (2012, p.7) note that

“as far back as 1998 in Malta, a number of African military officers participated in the Annual General Meeting (AGM) of the International Association of Peacekeeping Training Centers (IAPTC). As a natural development, the African delegates to the 2001 AGM of the IAPTC proposed to create an African Chapter of the IAPTC in order to sharpen the debate on peacekeeping training on the continent.”

Since that meeting in Malta all subsequent meetings have been attended by at least one member of the APSTA. The APSTA Secretariat then shares all IAPTC resolutions with its own member institutions, as well as including them on the agenda for the Executive Committee before being tabled at the APSTA AGM. This system has ensured that resolutions are aligned with the recommendations on PSO which were proposed to the AU by an appointed ‘Group of Military Experts’ and which were adopted by the Chiefs of Defence Staff in the 1999 OAU Secretariat meeting in Harare. As noted by Malan (2000, p.34), these recommendations are that:

- “All peace support operations in Africa should be conducted in a manner consistent with both the UN and the OAU Charters and the Cairo Declaration.
- The OAU should evolve a glossary of OAU peace operation terminology to ensure common understanding.
- As a principle, the OAU should take the first initiative in approaching the UN to deploy a peace operation in response to an emergency on the continent. If the UN is unresponsive, the OAU must take preliminary action while continuing its efforts to elicit a positive response from the world body.

- All peace support operations conducted by sub regional organizations in Africa should be endorsed by the OAU.
- Where the OAU deploys a peace operation, this should be an all-African force. In the event of a UN operation in Africa, the UN principle of universality should be respected. Where Africa provides the majority of troops, the force commander must be an African.”

To help achieve these recommendations, the APSTA conducts and coordinates training and research through its member institutions, in conformity with the AU and UN requirements. This ongoing compliance process relies on regular meetings for coordination and standardization, between the APSTA, AU, UN, and other international training institutions (either bilaterally or multilaterally).

Objective 4

“Serve as a depository that offers advisory services to the AU (the Commission and Peace and Security Council) on peace support operations issues”

In order that the aforementioned ideals set forth by the African Chiefs of Defence Staff were implemented, and that African forces were suitably prepared for peace support operations, it was necessary to organize a range of meetings. The engagements between the AU and APSTA date back to August 2006 at the Kofi Annan International Peacekeeping Training Centre (KAIPTC), in Accra, Ghana. The meetings were designed to provide solutions for the AU’s need to develop and influence conflict resolution across the continent. The AU also wished to build appropriate partnerships with training institutions to enhance the development capability of the African Standby Force (ASF) – an international, continental, and multidisciplinary African peacekeeping force with military, police, and civilian contingents. It was felt that the APSTA could play a key role in capacity building and the development of successful institutional frameworks and training support for the ASF.

This process was coordinated with the Peace Support Operations Division (PSOD), within the Peace and Security Department of the African Union, which is tasked with planning, launching, sustaining, monitoring, and liquidating all PSO authorized by the AU. As noted by Chirwa and

Kimani (2012, p.10), this started with the proposal by the PSOD for collaboration with APSTA in the following areas:

- i. “Coordination and harmonization of ASF capacity building and training among the various regional Centers of Excellence;
- ii. ASF Training Needs Analysis (TNA);
- iii. Curriculum development for ASF training and harmonization of curriculum among various African training providers;
- iv. Training Standards, Evaluation, Accreditation and Recognition training courses/institutions;
- v. Development and maintenance of an ASF Training Database of training courses, institutions, and resource persons in various areas of specialization.”

As a follow up to the deliberation of proposals between the PSOD and APSTA after the AGM in Ghana, the APSTA facilitated the coordination of training support for the African Standby Force in Addis Ababa in August 2007. This enabled the signing of a Memorandum of Understanding between the APSTA and AU in 2008 that set out the modus operandi of the training, coordination, harmonization, and standardization of ASF training. Through that agreement, several activities have taken place between the APSTA and PSOD. As noted by the AU Commission (2014, v), this model of “collaboration between the AU PSOD, RECs/RMs and ATCEs, is an example that should be sustained in the development of other training materials in the future”.

Two notable results of this process include the ASF Training Needs Analysis and, more recently, the AU’s *Revised Harmonized Standards* for PSO (Aboagye, 2014). The *Revised Harmonized Standards* especially, are an example of how training harmonization workshops can affect strategic-level policy outcomes. In this instance, the newly adopted standards were the result of two workshops. Firstly, the APSTA Civilian Peacekeepers Foundation Training Harmonization Workshop (Nairobi, Kenya, December 2013), involving civilian trainers and subject matter experts. Secondly, the Police Pre-Deployment Training Harmonization Workshop (Accra, Ghana, May 2014), involving Police training experts drawn from the AU Commission, Regional Economic Communities/Mechanisms (RECs/RMs), the African Mission in Somalia (AMISOM), other training centres and CoE with APSTA membership, and officials from Save the Children (West Africa).

Yet it is not enough simply to set standards and assume that they will be adopted. In order to enhance harmonization and standardization of

training for the ASF, UN, and wider PSO across the African continent, these standards require a more accessible format. As a result, the Secretariat of the APSTA is undertaking a project for the development and publication of a Reader's Manual for the ASF, African-led PSO, and UN Peacekeeping forces. This PSO Manual (Reader) will support the *Revised Harmonized Standards* for Civilian, Police, and Military Pre-Deployment Training.

Objective 5

“To act as a sounding board for the African Union Commission on peace support operations”

As an AU sounding board, the APSTA has participated in a range of ‘sounding board’ initiatives to strengthen the capacity of PSO training. As part of its *Strategic Plan* the APSTA prioritized several key areas for engagement with the AU, including the need to:

- “Enhance, deepen and widen APSTA’s engagement with the AUC, especially the Peace Support Operations Division (PSOD), in the implementation of specific aspects of the ASF Roadmap III and other relevant policies relating to peace and security generally. [...]
- Enhance multidimensional coordination between all components (civilian, police and military) and crosscutting aspects of the ASF and PSO training generally. [...]
- Sustain and enhance the capacity of APSTA as a key regional institution in the areas of policy development support towards the operationalization of the ASF, as well as PSO capacity building training, research, publications and dissemination.”

(APSTA, 2014, p.4)

In addition to the above, the APSTA has undertaken many initiatives to enhance cooperation with the PSOD in its capacity building efforts – for instance, in Darfur and Somalia, two key focus areas for the PSOD. Other training initiatives include an AU-EU study on the needs and capabilities of African Training Institutions, participation in Exercise AMANI Africa, and contributions to several meetings and workshops on civilian training in the context of Exercise AMANI Africa. Although this role as a ‘sounding board’ has allowed the APSTA to gain considerable experience over the course of many years, there remains an important need for a common strategic framework for the APSTA to support the AU in its PSO endeavours.

Objective 6

“To serve as an instrument for dissemination of research and expert-oriented training particularly within Africa.”

As noted within the APSTA Constitution (APSTA, 2010, p.3), membership to the association “is voluntary and shall be open to all African training centres and institutions whose core activities include the provision of peace support training, rostering and associated research.” As a result, the APSTA counts among its members a range of institutions that train soldiers for PSO. As part of this, the APSTA helps research and submit the findings of their training to key stakeholders, in order to help assess areas such as their training status, the upcoming PSO missions of their trainees, the lessons learned, and evaluation of mission findings. One example of such an institution within the APSTC’s membership is the Malawi Peace Support Operations Training Centre (MPSOTC), which is co-located with the Malawi Armed Forces College (MAFCO).

The MPSOTC provides PSO preparation and training for the Malawi Defence Forces (MDF), as well as Police and Civilian personnel. The MDF participated in peacekeeping operations in 1994 in Rwanda and subsequent operations in various countries such as Democratic Republic of the Congo, the Ivory Coast, Kosovo, and Darfur. The experience and challenges from these operations resulted in the establishment of the MPSOTC in 2004. In line with APSTA recommendations on harmonized training standards for PSO, the MPSOTC conducts various courses for officers including the UN Staff Officer Course (UNSOC), designed to provide officers with an understanding of AU/UN policies, procedures and structures for PSO. This course also provides participants with greater awareness of UN integrated mission planning processes and exposes officers to agencies involved in an integrated PSO environment. During pre-deployment training, the MPSOTC provides UN-standard training modules, produced by the Integrated Training Services (ITS) and approved by the UN Department for Peacekeeping Operations (DPKO). Additionally, various other subjects are taught such as international humanitarian law, sexual exploitation and abuse, stress management, and the escorting of VIPs.

In addition to institutions such as the MPSOTC, with direct training responsibilities, the APSTC membership includes a number of organizations whose sole focus is conducting research work and organizing seminars, workshops and meetings in order to deepen understanding and expertise on PSO. The research papers from such institutions address many subjects that are often overlooked by international PSO personnel and practitioners. This includes socio-economic and political analyses of the effects of PSO in the mission area. This research provides a firmer foundation for future conflict prevention. It also helps provide recommendations to mitigate potentially negative perceptions of the presence of PSO personnel in host countries, including hostile reactions by a host population. The core goal of such assessments is to prepare officers from all the three components (Military, Police and Civilian) in the mission area. Depending on the specific mission, the research may focus on topics such as the dynamics of integration in the host society, or even the means by which organized criminality and a state of insecurity within the host nation has affected vulnerable populations in rural areas. These areas of research have implications for the Responsibility to Protect (R2P) held by peacekeeping contingents in theatres of operation. Last, but not least, such research can consider the challenges of nation building and social reconstruction, with a view to assessing the opportunities and threats facing PSO designed to assist with national development processes.

Outstanding Challenges

The nature of PSO challenges and requirements vary between peacekeeping operations. Trained and ready forces must adapt to the changing environment of the specific operation at hand, in line with the doctrine and mandate of the UN and/or African Union. The APSTA is still in the early stages of its full potential, and its members face obstacles that need to be addressed and that require further interoperability and common understanding. The most pervasive challenge is that of language. For example, soldiers or officers who come from either a Francophone or Anglophone nation may not be able to understand English or French respectively to a proficient level. Thus, troops deployed in the mission area can have difficulties understanding the languages used locally. This may become a

dangerous operational issue, and hence officers and soldiers need to possess basic skills in the language or dialect most widely spoken in theatre.

Most APSTA members face obstacles in resource mobilization and the MPSOTC is no exception. In addition to language barriers, challenges are faced in overcoming cultural differences between the troop-contributing country and the host nation. Standard PSO training usually includes principles of planning and organization for the protection of civilians and vulnerable groups, including protection of UN property and personnel. The practical training includes the actual planning and implementation of protection measures for existing threats to the general population. Officers and soldiers are trained in neutrality, reliability, and impartiality during this pre-deployment training. However, national budgets provided to member institutions is limited, and can inhibit officers' and soldiers' preparedness for the multi-lateral and multi-cultural character of conflict faced in PSO.

Conclusion

This chapter has attempted to look critically at what the APSTA and its members can contribute in the preparation of trained and ready officers and soldiers. In this endeavour, it has sought to establish the methods which have been used at the policy and doctrinal level for the standardization, harmonization, and coordination of various training institutions across the continent of Africa. The chapter has also addressed the need for the APSTA's primary stakeholders, the AU, to support the activities of the APSTA, by adopting and approving the work that the APSTA undertakes on behalf of the AU. Alongside this, the chapter has examined the role that APSTA members have in the preparation of officers and soldiers, with particular reference to the MPSOTC.

Ultimately, the responses to current conflicts faced in the African continent may necessitate the deployment of peacekeeping missions with troops that are trained and ready, mandated by the UN and the AU. This requires a foundational level of support for PSO training institutions such as the MPSOTC and others affiliated to the APSTA. Due to the challenges involved in gaining suitable financial resources that have been highlighted in this chapter, it does not appear probable that PSO training can be made wholly efficient and effective with the available means. In the meantime,

current training institutions must continue to maintain an emphasis on the neutrality, impartiality, reliability, and general discipline of their troops. This is especially the case, considering that training for PSO remains different from the traditional military duties. Make peace happen.

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Professor Silvia Cristina Bernava y Rosas

Training, Integration and Jointness for Complex Scenarios and Multilateral Conflicts: Experiences in the Education of Argentine Army Officers

Abstract: This chapter contends that contemporary states face an increasing range of external and internal threats to their vital interests, and that this in turn necessitates a pedagogical focus on interoperability and interconnectivity within professional military education. Taking the Colegio Militar de la Nación (National Military College) of Argentina as its focal point, the chapter outlines a number of potential teaching and learning frameworks suited to this requirement. These frameworks incorporate intellectual, ethical and competency-based training, and operational and policy roleplaying scenarios. The chapter concludes that these methods can help to provide officers with the skillsets necessary to adapt to new security threats and to appreciate alternative socio-political and cultural perspectives, as a means of enhancing interoperability.

Keywords: PME, military education, interoperability, military ethics, Colegio Militar, competency-based education, Argentine Army

Introduction

Contemporary armed conflicts differ substantially from past wars. Political, social, ethnic, religious, cultural, scientific and technological factors, among others, can result in permanent changes in the international system as well as revolutions in military affairs. Different regional scenarios across the world can also present complex challenges that cannot be solved through linear or uniform thinking in the management and operation of the military. Battles occurring in cyberspace have also led to a revolution in various areas of military activity, such as strategic planning, leadership, command and control, tactics, as well as impacting upon the fields of psychology and international humanitarian law, amongst other areas. In addition to these contexts, the multilateral nature of armed conflicts, the strong predominance of multiculturalism, multi-causality and hybridity in

many confrontations, framed within a context of uncertainty, increases the urgency required for the correct management and operationalization of pedagogical changes in the training of officers within the armed forces and wider military personnel.

In classical wars, the determining causes of conflicts were generally border struggles, sovereignty disputes and territorial annexations. Such conflicts usually began with a formal declaration. In contrast, contemporaneous armed conflicts result from a series of diverse causes, including control of strategic resources (especially energy sources) as a method of achieving politico-economic predominance and power. Many of these conflicts also have roots in 'identity' politics, including confrontations over ethnic differences in which, in addition to other causes, non-state actors are involved, such as insurgent and terrorist groups, who conduct their activities through guerrilla warfare as well as through the use of virtual space. These so-called 'hybrid conflicts' can result in confrontations between both state and non-state actors. As argued by Bartolomé (2006, p.19):

"The Agenda for International Security in relation to previous eras, is broader and more complex, encompassing actors of a non-state nature, transnational dynamics, the use of violence through alternative and non-traditional means and increased flexibility regarding the criteria of non-interference".¹

Undoubtedly, the system of international relations is a complex and uncertain one of an open and dynamic nature. In this system, interdependencies are growing ever deeper and various threats, risks and transnational dangers are jeopardizing the strategic interests of nation states. According to the Argentinian General Evaristo de Vergara (2012, p.121), it is possible to distinguish and characterize three types of threat within the international framework, namely: traditional threats, transnational threats and irregular threats. Traditional threats motivated the wars of the 19th and 20th centuries, while transnational threats encompass issues such as drug trafficking, money laundering, illegal arms trafficking, narco-terrorism, lack of migration control, human trafficking, cyberterrorism, large-scale

1 All quotes, which were originally written in Spanish, have been translated into English by the author of this chapter. Although it has not been explicitly indicated which quotes were originally in Spanish, the bibliography has retained the original publication language for all articles used within this chapter.

refugee incursions, among others (Ibid.). Finally, irregular threats are the same as the aforementioned hybrid conflicts that characterize current conflict scenarios across the world.

Given this contemporary state of affairs, the armed forces must adapt to ensure successful performance and active participation in different scenarios, across different geographical areas with a diversity of cultures. This includes adapting to the social contexts that are, in many cases, characteristic of failed states, state actors with a lack of governance or situations of institutional vulnerability in which non-state actors engage in hybrid conflict. The Argentine Republic has already taken steps to adapt its military personnel and prepare its forces for the different missions to which they may be assigned, across both international scenarios and local or internal activities. In addition to describing the new risks and dangers that states may face in protecting their vital interests, this chapter relates these contexts to the growing impact of interoperability and interconnectivity on the teaching methods used within the Colegio Militar de la Nación (National Military College). Using experiences in the training of Argentine Army officers, the chapter argues that military educational reform is necessary to provide answers to these challenges in this new century.

Modern Operations and Interoperability

Having professionalized and highly trained armed forces is the essential goal of military educational reform. In order to achieve this, in 1998, the Argentine Republic adapted its military educational system to match the frameworks of the National Educational System (Ley N°24948, 1998, Art.13 and Art.33.c.1). This resulted in a series of pedagogical changes for the training and professionalization of all personnel integrated within the military hierarchy. In broad terms, these reforms were designed to support the Argentine Armed Forces in their performance in the following situations:

- 1) Defence of the vital interests of the nation, in accordance with Article 51 of the Charter of the United Nations (United Nations, 1945, VII.51) and the National Defence Law of 1998 (Ley N°23554, 1988, Art.2), by which the military component of the Argentine state must defend the nation from armed attack by another state actor.

- 2) Participate in international missions of the United Nations, peace-keeping operations, peace-building operations (i.e. the construction or establishment of peace) and peace-enforcement operations (i.e. the imposition of peace), operating jointly with the armed forces of other states.
- 3) Provide support to the police and security forces in matters of internal order, when said forces are overwhelmed in situations in which internal security is affected, and in accordance with the Law of Internal Security (Ley N°24059, 1992, Art.31).
- 4) Subsidiary tasks of support to the national community or friendly countries in emergency situations due to natural catastrophes, floods, earthquakes, etc.

In line with this, the Argentine Armed Forces have participated for several years in MINUSTAH in Haiti with their military personnel and are currently serving in Cyprus and in other international operations and missions. In such missions, as in all tactical operations, the armed forces must act jointly and in combination. This includes the coordination of all combat and support functions, with specialties responsible for logistical support, such as armouries and quartermasters, to which must be added the medical corps. In addition to this, lawyers specializing in the international law of armed conflict and international humanitarian law, usually accompany these military forces, in order to provide advice in operational theatres in particular. This helps to avoid collateral damage to protected persons, by focusing the military's actions onto combatants and military objectives.

This combined action is reflected in the act of integration between the armed forces of different nations, in which the troops of various states with various cultural differences are coordinated under a unified command. This performance of joint and combined tactical operations characterizes what has been called "interoperability" (Bartolomé, 2006, p.166). For this interoperability to occur, the preparation of military personnel and the creation of a multicultural perspective is crucial. Proof of this can be seen in the international coalition formed by thirty-four states, including pan-Arab nations, that occurred in the second Gulf War in 1991. This coalition included assistance from the Argentine Navy, who participated in

the United Nations' blockade named Operativo Alfíl (Operation Bishop), which provided an important contribution to the war effort.

Synergizing such efforts in terms of interoperability requires a unified command, such as that led by General Norman Schwarzkopf in Desert Storm. At the time of Desert Storm, the U.S. Joint Staff defined interoperability as “the ability of systems, units or forces to provide services to, and to accept services from other systems, units or forces, and to use the exchanged services to operate effectively together” (Domínguez and Bloch, 2004, p.38; Sessions and Jones, 1993, p.9). As we will now consider, to create the capacity required to operate in a multilateral environment, the Argentine Army has made a series of reforms in its education and training, in which the role of the Colegio Militar de la Nación as the cradle of officer education is highly relevant.

The Colegio Militar De La Nación

The Colegio Militar de la Nación is responsible for training the future officers of the Argentine Army. This institution is classed as a ‘university’ college, in line with its position as one of the academic units of the current faculty of the army (formerly the Instituto Universitario del Ejército), which in turn is part of the Universidad de la Defensa Nacional (National Defence University – UNDEF), created by the Law of the National Defence University (Ley N°27015, 2014). UNDEF provides a centralized institute for all military education, including undergraduate, graduate and post-graduate institutes. In order to gain the rank of Second Lieutenant, the officers of the Argentine Army receive professional education of excellence, both in terms of academic and practical standards, in the Colegio Militar de la Nación. Specifically, this is achieved through a university-level degree entitled the Licenciatura en Conducción y Gestión Operativa (Bachelor of Operational Conduct and Management). This degree is composed of three subjects aligned with the three fundamental lynchpins of an officer’s career:

- A) Military sciences;
- B) Social sciences;
- C) Natural and mathematical sciences.

Through this means, the future officer is given an integral preparation that incorporates the physical and military operational aspects required

for their role, as well as intellectual, ethical-spiritual and competency-based training through which they may acquire valuable cognitive skills and abilities. This education creates an officer who is capable of making decisions and resolving highly complex situations and problems, as well as maintaining the inner strength required to operate effectively in critical scenarios with courage, integrity and morality.

Graduating after four and a half years, the future officer is awarded a double degree that identifies them as an officer, licensed in their respective field. From the ethical perspective, this system of military education tends to the reaffirmation and permanent consolidation of moral values and virtues. Importantly, however, officers are also trained for the defence of the Argentine constitutional order, including the fundamental and supreme laws of the republic, the fundamental rights and individual freedoms of its population, and the republican and federal systems designed to uphold these laws and freedoms, as have been enshrined in the Constitution of Argentina since 1853 (*Constitución de la Nación Argentina*, 1994).

In addition to providing this integral training to its command corps, the *Colegio Militar de la Nación* educates the officers who form the professional corps of the Argentine Army (i.e. professionals who enter the service with pre-existing university qualifications, and who are then provided with the requisite military training and education in subjects related to military matters). The professional corps also has its own military training exercises in accordance with the specificities of each force and the environment in which each officer must operate. Regarding interoperability, the armed forces train their personnel through external tours relevant to the operational terrain they will face. In the case of the *Colegio Militar de la Nación*, the cadets of the command corps also experience periodic operational tours to prepare them in the arts of tactics and management. This constitutes the practical side of their education.

Formative Academic Experiences in the Colegio Militar De La Nación

For a few years, the *Colegio Militar de la Nación* has developed interdisciplinary seminars as part of its competency-based training process. The cadets participate directly in these seminars, especially during the third and fourth year of the *Licenciatura en Conducción y Gestión Operativa*.

The Battle of Tobruk, which occurred in 1941 during the Second World War, was used as the central historical case study during these seminars for some years, to provide the necessary tactical and interdisciplinary training for the cadets. Since 2015, however, the staff selected a new case study with more contemporary relevance and more connection with interoperability: Operation Desert Storm of 1991.

As has been referred to previously in this chapter, Operation Desert Storm required the combination of different disciplines and expertise, and a joint approach to various operational aspects. In line with this, the interdisciplinary seminars included the participation of cadets from the Colegio Militar de la Nación, alongside cadets of the Escuela Naval Militar (Naval Military School) and Escuela de Aviación Militar (School of Military Aviation) of Argentina. It also featured the participation of students from several civil universities, both private and public. Since the commencement of these seminars in 2015, the school has been able to change the specific battles that are used as case studies, within each annual iteration.

These seminars provide a tangible framework for joint operations that require the insertion of military officials from all three military services with civilian personnel from wider universities. They take place over three intense days, and cover relevant issues including tactics, management, command, leadership, geographical environment, electronics, military technology, psychology, gender issues, religious and cultural factors, as well as international humanitarian law and operational military law. In homage to this joint participation in 2015, 2016 and 2017, these seminars were named the ‘Seminarios Tormenta Conjunta’ (Joint Storm Seminars).

Although a group of specialist teachers provide presentations, including the author of this chapter, the annual seminars revolve around the cadets themselves who, after studying the subject matter at hand, demonstrate their conclusions through personal and coordinated presentations with the students of the other participating institutes. In this way, the cadet is the protagonist of their own learning process. In addition to the fruitful academic outcomes of this experience, it is also worth highlighting the positive effects achieved in creating camaraderie and integration between civilian and military students.

In line with the significant benefits of such roleplaying methods, there is no reason why this form of work should be limited only to these

inter-institutional events. Indeed, the Colegio Militar de la Nación also uses didactic and pedagogical techniques and strategies in its classrooms on a daily basis, including roleplaying scenarios to a significant degree. As an example of this, a practice roleplaying session was developed by fourth-year cadets of the bachelor's degree, framed around the concept of "negotiation and problem solving".

The case study used was the ongoing conflict between Armenia and Azerbaijan for possession of the Nagorno-Karabakh enclave, which is currently recognized by the international community as part of Azerbaijan but is claimed by the self-titled Republic of Artsakh. In line with the interdisciplinary nature of the seminar, fifteen days before the practice session commenced, the professor of the respective course delivered a dossier to students. This dossier was prepared by teachers from a range of participating courses, in order to provide a synthetic expository presentation of the conflict. The dossier contained relevant maps to provide students with a better illustration and understanding of the scenario, as well as information on the historical evolution of the dispute. The cadets worked in separate teams, each representing different countries as well as other state actors related to the conflict. Through this exercise the students demonstrated and applied the negotiation skills that they had previously learned in the classroom environment.

A second example used within the college involves an exercise in hermeneutics, argumentation and rationale. Importantly, this exercise involves each team of cadets changing their roles during the course of the session itself. The session focusses on the issue of missile tests of North Korea, and is coordinated by the author of this chapter, given that its subject matter focus on Public International law is a topic delivered to fourth-year cadets by this author. Despite this focus, the session is preceded by presentations that bring together differing perspectives in order to highlight the interdisciplinary mindset and knowledge base required to address this subject.

The exercise was designed to occur chronologically and was structured in the following way: a team of four cadets defended North Korea's interests in the debate, another team of four cadets defended the interests of the U.S., a third group of cadets represented Russia's interests, a fourth team represented the interests of China, and another team was added to

represent Iran's interests in relation to this scenario. The rest of the cadets were allocated as advisors, with one advisor for each country (i.e. team).

On the day of the debate, the cadets demonstrated their argumentative skills with their respective rationales, in the following manner: each group of cadets had to elaborate their argument based upon a resolution of the United Nations Security Council that was provided to them by the teacher. Four resolutions were designed, one was selected by lot and on that basis, the cadets had to debate it and resolve its approval. For this part of the exercise, the cadets undertook an exchange of roles. Specifically, they formed a group of fifteen people to represent the fifteen members of the Security Council. Five cadets were given the role of the five permanent members of the council, and ten other cadets fulfilled the role of non-permanent members. This method was designed to simulate for the cadets the argumentative processes that surround the foundation and interpretation of such scenarios.

In addition to teaching cadets about specific topics and the functioning of security communities and political powers, there exists an additional benefit in the realization of these exercises, which is of particular relevance for the future officers of the Argentine Army. Specifically, this relates to the skillset of 'creative thinking'. In the military system, the delivery of commands, both in combat missions and other areas in which military personnel work, occurs within a set of specific legal and regulatory frameworks. Despite this, in carrying out the orders that one is given, the creativity to apply one's previous learning is a vital skill. This is especially the case, given that this creativity will need to be managed multiple times when appropriate decisions need to be made. This may include any number of unforeseen situations that can arise in time of peace or war, or in United Nations operations (in which Argentina remains a key contributor). As shown in this section, competency-based training provides a unique and vital method to test and reinforce these skills.

Developing a Pedagogy of Interoperability

As highlighted above, to successfully teach the principles and the importance of interoperability within the military environment, it is necessary to ensure the convergence of two critical aspects of contemporary education.

Firstly, a conceptual understanding of the significance of multidisciplinary, transdisciplinary and interdisciplinary perspectives in understanding warfare. Secondly, a practical understanding of the threats and opportunities of utilizing new systems (and technologies) for the creation of joint learning experiences – especially for students with different backgrounds and perspectives, from across the full civil-military spectrum.

In seeking to approach issues of military education from multidisciplinary, transdisciplinary and interdisciplinary perspectives, it is important to contextualize these terms. Domínguez and Bloch's (2004, p.41) definitions are of particular value in this scenario. Specifically, they define multidisciplinary as "the necessary approach to the analysis of an object based on the theoretical and methodological vision of various disciplines to achieve a broad understanding of the object". Transdisciplinarity represents a scenario in which "the context and cooperation between various disciplines takes place when they have adopted the same methodology for research and analysis". Finally, interdisciplinarity requires "the encounter and cooperation between two or more disciplines, each one contributing (in terms of theoretical and empirical research) their own conceptual schemes, their problem-solving styles and their research methods".

Whether it takes the form of competency-based learning or unidirectional lectures, educators must also emphasize the fact that war, as a process of armed conflict, is a complex phenomenon. This phenomenon requires one to account for military and political sciences, international relations, systems theory, chaos theory, philosophy and metaphysics (in order to attempt to discover the 'Dasein' or 'Being' of war), philosophical and cultural anthropology, sociology, history, geography, geopolitics, geo-strategy, economics, military and general history, law (both comparative and international), and professional ethics, among a host of other disciplines. The necessary combination of these disciplines reveals that, in military affairs, learners are trained in subjects dealing with complex phenomena and methodologies of approach.

Secondly, educators must possess a practical understanding of the threats and opportunities of utilizing new systems (and technologies) for the creation of joint learning experiences for students with different backgrounds and perspectives, both across the military services and across the civil-military spectrum. In this second instance, the technological advances that

contribute to the ‘revolution in military affairs’, should also be addressed in the training of future officers to ensure a better understanding of the scenarios in which they may have to act.

Such techno-scientific advances increase the importance of incorporating innovative technological developments and other products into professional training activities for military officers. Such activities are not only applicable to the military but are also useful for the civil sector and are, therefore, worth developing for educational programmes with a dual civil-military character and purpose. This would also contribute to further integration between civilians and military officials dealing in scenarios that require knowledge of technological innovation, in such a way as to enhance logistical coordination, economic advantages, improvements in the civil-military relationship when engaging in joint work, and a source of professional jobs and activities for military officers after their retirement from the armed forces.

In addition to receiving education on the application and benefits of new technologies, however, educators must reinforce the principle that war is a means of last resort to students. This principle is rooted in the Kellogg-Briand Pact of 1928, following on from which most nation states renounced the use of war to resolve disputes. It is also enshrined in Chapter VI of the Charter of the United Nations Organization, which advocates that “parties to any dispute, the continuance of which is likely to endanger the maintenance of international peace and security, shall, first of all, seek a solution by negotiation, enquiry, mediation, conciliation, arbitration, judicial settlement, resort to regional agencies or arrangements, or other peaceful means of their own choice” (United Nations, 1945: Art.33 Cap.VI). This policy must, of course, account for the existence of non-state actors on the international stage, with whom negotiations or other peaceful means are often more difficult to apply, as seen with the self-styled Islamic State.

Conclusion

Preparing professional officers for the conflicts of the 21st century is a challenging field, requiring continuous curricular reform, an expansion of joint training exercises, adaptation to new technological realities and

multidisciplinary, transdisciplinary and interdisciplinary approaches. Such training must cover a multitude of aspects related to human existence and must seek to ensure that, in the heat of battle, armed conflicts and complex international missions, officers will excel not simply due to their formative operational knowledge but also (even more importantly) their status as dignified and honourable individuals, who show a respect and understanding for other cultures in both their service to their homeland and to the populations of diverse cultures in the varying international scenarios in which they serve.

However, the fundamental requirement to achieve this occurs long before the creation of educational programmes for such officers. Instead, it occurs in the training and mentality of the educators themselves. To contribute to the achievement of academic excellence, the Colegio Militar de la Nación of the Argentine Republic provides its team of teachers with continuous, updated didactic and pedagogical training. This task is carried out through workshops and seminars designed to support existing teaching strategies and techniques, to reinforce the value of competency-based training for the cadets, and to address educational questions regarding the importance of the neurosciences in the training of the future officers. In addition to these updates, teachers must undertake continuous postgraduate, specialization, master's and doctoral studies in order to heighten their levels of achievement and skillsets related to the different disciplines to which each one belongs. This process of continuing education is vital for teachers, in ensuring that they are able to deal with increasingly well-educated and highly trained officers.

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Cross-Cultural Decision-Making in International Peacekeeping Operations

“Their professional background as well as their cultural heritage vary and their social and educational experiences are likewise different. They are brought together far from their own settings and asked to work in an unknown and foreign culture and a sometimes hostile climate.”

Christian Härleman (1998, p.102),
Former Chief of Training
UN Department of Peacekeeping Operations

Abstract: Taking as its starting point the increasingly non-Western nature of contemporary peacekeeping operations, this chapter considers how cultural differences can influence the decision-making of soldiers in-theatre. Based on a quantitative analysis of 241 Indonesian and 83 French peacekeepers deployed in the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL), the chapter demonstrates how individuals are better at thinking and making decisions in their native cultural style during operations. In line with this data, the authors contend that centres for peacekeeping training must shape curricula around psychological training on decision-making and cross-cultural competencies.

Keywords: PME, military education, peacekeeping, UNIFIL, cross-cultural competencies, decision-making, Indonesian Armed Forces, TNI

1 The views expressed in this writing are those of the authors and do not necessarily reflect those of the Indonesian Ministry of Defence or the Indonesian Armed Forces.

The Internationalisation of Modern Peacekeeping Operations

The United Nations was established after the Second World War with the aim of maintaining international peace, in order to “save succeeding generations from the scourge of war” (United Nations, 1945, Preamble). The deployment of peacekeeping troops into conflict areas, in which local authorities are unable to maintain security and public order, has become one of the main tools to achieve this purpose (United Nations, 2008, pp.13–14). There are three main characteristics of such peacekeeping operations that one can observe today. The first is the increasing scope and size of operations that are now seen in local military conflicts all over the world. As of 30 September 2018, for example, UN peacekeeping operations involved 89,937 peacekeepers from 125 countries, deployed in 22 missions across 5 continents, with budget allocation for the year totalling \$6.7 billion (United Nations, 2018a and 2018b). One corollary result of this is that peacekeepers have become one of the fastest-growing expatriate categories, in comparison to other traditional expatriate groups such as international business managers and the diplomatic corps (Kealey and Protheroe, 1996, p.143).

The second characteristic is that the conduct of military operations has become more international and multilateral in nature, and it has become harder for a single country to conduct military operations unilaterally without international support (Bloch, 2010, pp.29–31). Talentino (2005), for example, found that post-Cold War multilateral intervention has risen by 356 % since the Cold War era, while unilateral action has decreased significantly (p.26), in line with the international community’s development of norms that limit the use of force and put emphasis on multilateral action with the UN as the legitimizing agent (p.30).

The third characteristic of international peacekeeping is that it is an increasingly non-Western phenomenon. For example, as of 30 September 2018, less than 9 % of all UN peacekeepers came from European and Northern American countries, with 49 % of peacekeepers provided by African nations and 39 % from Asian nations (United Nations, 2018a). The number of troops contributed by such countries is also notable, with an average of 1,168 troops per country provided by Africa, in comparison to 114 troops per country provided by North

America (Ibid.). In the list of top 25 countries in terms of number of troops provided, there was only one Western country: Italy, ranked No. 19 (United Nations, 2018a). Moreover, the majority of conflict areas where these peacekeepers are deployed are non-Western, with 84 % of all UN personnel deployed in Africa and 13 % in Asia (United Nations, 2018a). Despite this, UN peacekeeping doctrine is historically rooted in culturally Western doctrine (Findlay, 2002, pp.121–123), which has been seen as undesirable by some UN member nations (Ibid., p.384) and may not be appropriate to the social and cultural conditions present in the theatre of operations.

In contrast with other military sciences, peacekeeping research is fairly new. Initially it focused on the macro level of peacekeeping processes, such as the foreign policy implications and politics of United Nations mandates (Autesserre, 2014, p.495). Over the past two decades, however, researchers have focused on the micro level, exploring topics such as day-to-day interactions between peacekeepers and locals, peacekeepers' behaviours and the impact of peacekeeping on the quality of peace on the ground (Gizelis et al., 2016, p.3). Initially, most research was qualitative and ethnographic, conducted by peacekeeping practitioners in the field, with theoretical underpinnings similar to contemporary conflict resolution studies (Diehl, 2014, p.481), and often lacking statistical evidence and thus generalizability (Autesserre, 2014, p.495). Quantitative studies in the form of large-n surveys and experimental research on the conduct of peacekeepers remain limited and are generally found in the fields of cross-cultural competencies and psychological adjustments (Al Shdaifat, 2014), mental health (Castro, 2014) and sleep deprivation (Gunia et al., 2015).

While many of the problems encountered with the behaviour of peacekeepers on international missions are undoubtedly centred around psychological contexts, the contribution of psychology to the research field is still very minimal. This is especially the case when it comes to the psychology of decision-making within the cross-cultural scenarios integral to international peacekeeping operations. In order to overcome this comparative lack of published research, and considering the changing strategic environment that many militaries now face, this chapter discusses how military trainers and educators can prepare soldiers with the necessary cultural competencies to conduct international assignments effectively. It will

present a range of research data from 2010 to 2012, including primary survey data gained in situ in Southern Lebanon.

Decision-Making in Cross-Cultural Settings

One of the most important questions facing peacekeeping trainers is how to enable potential peacekeepers to act and make decisions in accordance with the social and cultural conditions they may face in-theatre. As noted by Weber and Lindemann (2008), there are many “qualitatively different ways in which people make decisions” (p.191), and these different “decision modes” can be affected by motivations associated with “cultural differences” (p.205). As a result, cultural conflicts between peacekeepers from different countries may occur during operations due to divergence in decision-making styles. For example, when researching Operation Harvest in Bosnia-Herzegovina, which held the objective of collecting and confiscating guns and explosive devices held by citizens, Klein Associates discovered that:

“Some soldiers will act only when they have complete information, even if it means fewer collections. They want to meticulously script each home visit and specify many variations. Officers from other countries are critical of this caution. They want a general plan and the flexibility to respond to deviations along the way. This attitude troubles the first group of officers: ‘When we sit down to plan, they drive us nuts! They want to keep everything open. We have to make decisions and we should do it when we have the time to think!’” (Klein, 2004, p.251)

While research in military settings is still limited, two things stand out from Hidayat’s (2012, pp.7–9) review of the literature in the field of cross-cultural decision-making. The first is Weber and Morris’ (2010, pp.412–415) constructivist assessment that, given certain task conditions and the possibility of applicability and accessibility, there exist a range of distinct differences in decision-making between individuals from Western and Asian cultures. Analysis by Weber, Ames and Blais (2004, pp.112–113) of decision-making in classical and best-selling Chinese and American novels, for example, found that collectivist Asian thinking styles tend to choose social or case-based decision modes (e.g. using a strategy, based on its previous application in a similar case), while individualist Western thinkers tend to utilize calculation-based decision modes (e.g. basing a decision on

a calculation of the possible consequences). Using students recruited from Columbia University, Weber and Lindemann's (2008, p.192) findings reinforce these results by showing that those with analytical or reasoning-based thinking styles will be motivated to choose calculation-based decision modes. On the other hand, for more familiar situations people tend to choose intuitive case-based decision modes based on an 'if-then' condition (i.e. 'if' this scenario occurs, 'then' I will deal with it in this way), while for decisions related to ethics, individuals choose social or role-based decision modes (Ibid., pp.197, 199).

Secondly, it is necessary to assess the psychological factors that can help build the cross-cultural competencies required to predict decisions made by individuals from different cultural backgrounds. Research by Selmeski (2007, p.12) confirms that soldiers who are deployed abroad must possess an ability to quickly and accurately understand individuals from different cultural backgrounds. Moreover, they must be aware of the potential reactions of those individuals to their specific actions and wider engagement. As highlighted by Ames, Flynn and Weber (2004, p.472), for example, human beings react differently to a person who is helping them, depending on their assessment of that person's intentions. Thus, in considering the importance of ethical and effective decision-making in intercultural peacekeeping operations, it is vital to better understand how peacekeepers make decisions in foreign environments and how training centres can prepare effective curricula for peacekeepers on cross-cultural decision-making.

Research Background

The research conducted by the authors was aimed at evaluating the structural relationships of psychological constructs which were deemed supportive in building cross-cultural cognitive competencies. Research participants were recruited from two groups of peacekeepers and the total number of participants were 241 Indonesian and 83 French peacekeepers who served as peacekeepers in the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL) mission in Southern Lebanon. They were chosen because their Areas of Responsibility (AOR) were next to each other, resulting in regular interaction.

The model used for the research was adapted from one created by Weber and Lindemann (2008, p.193), the foundations of which were outlined by Weber, Ames and Blais (2004). This taxonomy of decision-making modes is seen in Tab. 13.1 below, and is grouped qualitatively into two main categories: planned, rational and analytical models, and automatic and intuitive models based on feeling or experience.

In the taxonomy shown in Tab. 13.1, we found three different decision modes. The first is decisions made ‘by the head’, which is an analytical mode that seeks to maximize the end result through *traditional cost-benefit analysis*, or through *anticipated emotion*. The second method of deciding ‘by the book’ relies on “categorization and assimilation to previous learning and experience” (Bennis, Medin and Bartels, 2010, p.193). In essence, the decision maker creates a mental representation of an if-then condition, so that if a certain condition is met, a certain action will be implemented (Klein, 1993, p.140). Within the ‘by the book’ method, we found three sub-modes. The first sub-mode, which is often called *naturalistic decision-making*, is case-based and stems from research on scenarios in which time-constraints force field commanders to make quick decisions, rather than using analytical decision-making (Ibid., pp.139–140).

Tab. 13.1: Taxonomy of decision-making modes. Adapted from Weber and Lindemann (2008, p.193).

Mode/Submode	Psychological Process	Decision Type
Calculation	1. Evaluation of Utility	Analytical
– Traditional	2. Comparison of options	(Decision by the head)
Cost-Benefit		
Recognition	1. Pattern recognition	Intuitive
– Case-Based	2. Execution of Pattern based	(Decision by the book)
– Rule-Based	If-Then Condition	
– Social-Based	1. Rule Recognition	
	2. Execution of Rule based	
	If-Then condition	
	1. Role Recognition	
	2. Execution of Role based	
	If-Then condition	
Affect	Operant Conditioning	Intuitive
– Immediate Emotion		(Decision by the heart)

The second sub-mode is rule-based, which, according to Weber and Lindemann (2008, p.193), occurs when someone tries to make a decision “Doing the right thing”. The third sub-mode is social-based, in which “a decision maker considers his or her formal or organizational duties and obligations” and bases their decision upon these perceived duties (Ames, Flynn and Weber, 2004, p.462). The final category of decision-making is the *affect-based* decision mode (i.e. decision ‘by the heart’), in which decisions are informed by emotion and affect (Frijda, 1988, pp.349–350; Peters et al., 2006, pp.80–81). In this final category, positive emotions such as happiness will produce an *approach* decision, while negative emotions such as anger, hate or fear will produce an *avoidance* decision (Weber and Lindemann, 2008, p.194).

Research Method

Assessment of decision modes of the UNFIL peacekeepers was conducted using a scenario-based self-report assessment instrument. Assessment instruments were distributed within the headquarters (HQ) of the Indonesian peacekeepers and took approximately two hours to complete. For the French contingent, materials were distributed via a French operations officer, alongside a detailed explanation of how to complete the survey. The operations officer administering the survey reported that participants needed more than a few hours and the results were returned after one day.

Five different scenarios were distributed to the research participants. The first three scenarios were related to culture-specific peacekeeping encounters, while the last two scenarios were controlled variables about mundane day-to-day activities (such as purchasing toothpaste and choosing weekend leisure activities). The first scenario described a situation where a leader of a joint patrol team had to decide whether to take a local pregnant woman to the Armoured Personnel Carrier (APC) or ignore her, as it was not permissible under the Standard Operating Procedures (SOP) to transport unauthorized persons. The second scenario is related to Chief Protection Force of the Peacekeeping Mission HQ, who had to decide whether to allow a well-known commander of the host country’s armed forces to enter the HQ without following all standard procedures, or to ask for him to follow the

proper procedures. The last scenario was about a military observer who either had to accept an offer of alcoholic drinks from the local militia as a sign of friendship or reject it in line with the SOP's rule that they were not allowed to drink on duty. For each scenario, participants were asked to complete a 7-point Likert-type scale for five decision modes. The options were affect-based, recognition-based (social, rule and culture) and cost-benefit-based. Participants were later asked to predict which decision mode had been chosen by the participants from the other country.

In addition to the five scenarios, several personality measurements were included in the research. The first is what Novak and Hoffman (2009, p.4) term the Situation Specific Thinking Style (STSS). This consists of a rational thinking style, characterized by rational, analytical and planned thinking behaviours, alongside an experiential thinking style which is more intuitive, fast and related to instinct. The next measurement is Cultural Intelligence (CQ), a psychological construct that was found to have a positive correlation with effective cross-cultural decision-making, and which consists of three mental abilities (metacognitive, cognitive and motivational), plus one behavioural ability (Ang et al., 2007, p.335). It is worth mentioning three studies with regards to this measurement. Firstly, Thomas et al. (2008, p.127) consider the metacognitive ability to be the central locus of CQ, regulating the cognition and behavioural abilities for cross-cultural interaction. Secondly, Epstein (2010, pp.304, 310) asserts that cultural intuition can be developed through prior experience. Finally, Cheng et al. (2010, pp.6–7) found that, even if an individual has experienced a different cultural setting, there is no guarantee that they will gain a positive impact from it, unless they are able to implement the appropriate Intercultural Learning Strategy (ILS) required to expand their cultural cognition. According to Cheng et al. (2010, p.14), an expanded cultural cognition will only occur when the individual recognizes the existence of cultural differences, and implements cognitive and behavioural switching between cultures.

Results

Employing a One Way Analysis of Variance (One Way ANOVA) procedure, statistically significant differences regarding the decision-making

mode were found for the five different scenarios ($F = 27.985$; $p < .05$). Post-hoc analysis using Bonferroni type-1 error correction found that decision-making mode with regard to the three peacekeeping scenarios had no significant differences with each other. The same result was found between the two day-to-day routine activities. On the other hand, statistically significant differences were found between the fourth and fifth scenarios. Overall, these results indicate the rejection of the null-hypothesis that there exist no differences in decision-making modes between peacekeeping (1, 2 and 3) and non-peacekeeping (4 and 5) scenarios.

The personality inventories that were used in the research were also tested for validity and reliability. However, since they were adapted from English to Indonesian and French respectively, semantic and measurement equivalence was conducted to minimize the impact of translation. Semantic equivalence was conducted through forward and backward translation with the help of professional translators of the respected target languages. Measurement equivalence was investigated using a Multi Group Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) approach with Partial Least Squares (PLS) procedures, conducted through Smart PLS 2.0 M3 software. The analysis was performed in two stages, based on Hulland's (1999, pp.196–197) measurement and structural models, to find out whether the three psychological constructs predict the decision-making mode chosen by participants from the two different cultures.

Goodness Of Fit (GOF) for the model in Fig. 13.1 was found to be at 0.4803, meaning that the model is fit for large effect size (≥ 0.36) and can explain 48.03 % of the variance. The result of this structural model test shows that metacognitive cultural intelligence together with intercultural learning strategy may have a positive role in forming cultural intuition through an experiential thinking style. The higher the MCQ of Indonesian participants, the higher the ability to implement the correct cultural strategy when experiencing intercultural interaction. This experience may expand their cultural cognition, which in turn would help to develop cultural intuition. Consequently, the more intuitive the Indonesian participants, the more accurate their prediction will be. In comparison to the Indonesian sample, the French sample showed an opposite correlation. The more intuitive the French participants, the less accurate their prediction will be.

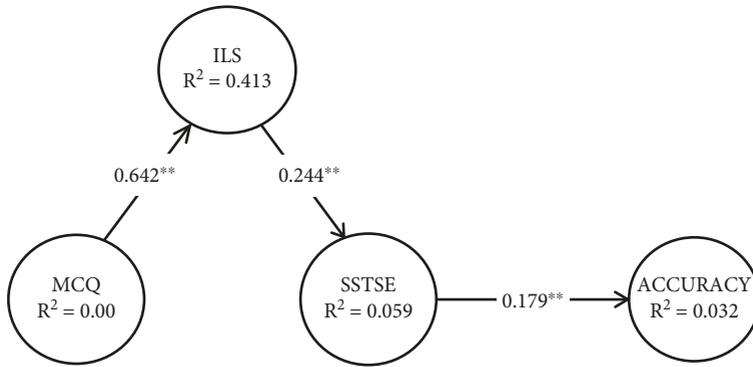


Fig. 13.1: Structural Model of Indonesian Sample (** P<.01).

MCQ: Metacognitive Cultural Quotient; ILS: Intercultural Learning Strategy; SSTSE: Situation Specific Thinking Style - Experiential; ACCURACY: Accuracy of Prediction as calculated by Standardized Loading times Root Mean Square Deviation (RMSD) between the prediction made by the Indonesian survey participants versus the actual decision chosen by the French participants.

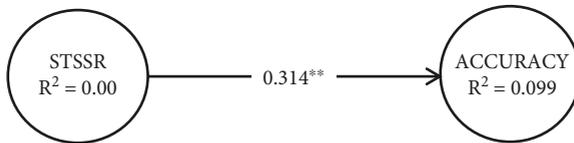


Fig. 13.2: Structural Model of French Sample (** P<.01).

STSSR: Situation Specific Thinking Style – Rational; ACCURACY: Accuracy of Prediction as calculated by Standardized Loading times Root Mean Square Deviation (RMSD) between the prediction made by the French survey participants versus the actual decision chosen by the Indonesian participants.

Similar to experiential thinking style, in terms of rational thinking style the results of the research reveal two strikingly different results for the Indonesian and French structural models. Fig. 13.2 shows the rational thinking style of the French participants. Rational thinking style is a positive predictor for accuracy of prediction across French participants, with Standardized Loading (SL) of 0.314 and a t-value of 2,890 > |1.96|.

Since none of the cultural personality measurements showed any significant result, Fig. 13.2 indicates that the French sample achieved their predictions purely based on their analysis of the scenarios. These predictions

were not affected by their cross-cultural experiences with the Indonesian peacekeepers. Therefore, the more rational the French peacekeepers' thinking style, the more accurate their prediction was. As can be seen from the fact that they had a higher loading factor of 0.314 in comparison to the Indonesian sample (which was 0.179), overall the French prediction was more accurate than the Indonesian sample's intuition. Moreover, similar to the previous sample but in reverse, for the Indonesian participants the rational thinking style model showed no significant relation to the accuracy of the predictions made.

Research Implications

The first takeaway from the research is that, in a cross-cultural setting, individuals will perform better when they are using their normative or 'familiar' thinking style. The Indonesian peacekeepers tend to use their intuition, whilst the French prefer rational thinking styles. The question then is which one is better for international peacekeeping operations? It could be argued that the intuitive style is better suited for soldiers in the field, as they must have the ability to engage people directly and use their intuition to predict quickly and accurately what to do next. On the other hand, the analytical thinking style would be better to formulate policies related to cross-cultural engagement at the staff officer/HQ level.

Another finding of the study is that individuals who have high metacognitive cultural intelligence will be able to use it in the intercultural interactions they encounter. This allows them to implement the correct intercultural learning strategy and to experience expanded cultural cognition. In this instance, cross-cultural experience, as represented by the intercultural learning strategy, is found to have a useful role in creating accurate cultural intuition. These findings confirm previous research which shows that direct experience of other cultures does not automatically improve intercultural competencies, but that such improvement is more directly related to the individual's experience in changing or adapting their own cultural perspective in accordance with the cultural demands they face.

The third is the role of the intercultural learning strategy as a mediator of MCQ and ILS in supporting cross-cultural competence. Consistent with the hypothesis of Miller and Moskos (1995, p.634) regarding US

peacekeepers who were deployed in the Unified Task Force (UNITAF) in Somalia, research by Bosman, Richardson and Soeters (2007, p.341) on the Dutch military, and Ballone et al. (2000, p.911) on Italian peacekeepers in Bosnia-Herzegovina, this study of Indonesian-French peacekeepers reveals that units with a more heterogeneous background may be more effective in conducting international missions. The reason for this is that they would have a stronger ability to place culture and “certain religion-dependent habits and activities into the right context” (Bosman, Richardson and Soeters, 2007, p.341).

Practical Implications for Military Educators and Trainers

There are several practical implications of this research that are relevant for military educators and trainers seeking to prepare their officers and soldiers for international peacekeeping deployments. The first is an awareness that cultural differences can influence the decision-making mode used by soldiers in the field. Rigid application of Standard Operating Procedures, therefore, can be detrimental to the success of the mission, as there is no one-size-fits-all SOP for every cultural landscape. Flexibility is required to adjust to the cultural realities of the mission area.

The research also shows that there are several culture-related flexible personality types (MCQ, ILS and SSTSE) that affect cross-cultural competencies. This means that those responsible for selecting foreign-bound soldiers should consider using these psychological constructs in their selection process. This need is reinforced by the fact that, in many cases, cultural incompetencies of soldiers can result in fatal consequences and even overall mission failure, as they can have a multiplier effect with wider political implications (Lewis, 2006, p.2). Provided that there are enough resources and funding, and that culturally flexible “state-like” personalities can be developed over time (Ang, van Dyne and Koh, 2006, pp.101–102), training centres should create curricula to improve such cross-cultural competencies.

Most pre-deployment training materials include area studies or cultural awareness training (Haddad, 2010, pp.567–568, 570; Kealey and Protheroe, 1996, pp.145–147), that can increase the conceptual understanding and awareness of culturally appropriate behaviour in the host

country. Although this kind of training may help with “increasing participants’ knowledge of a target country or region” it is not sufficient to affect “participants’ attitudes” towards other cultures or their “feelings of self-efficacy” in a foreign environment (Bird, Heinbuch, Dunbar and McNulty, 1993, pp.430–432). Therefore, psychological-based training such as “experiential learning activities which combine cognitive and behavioral techniques” should be considered (Kealey and Protheroe, 1996, pp.147). Sorcher and Spence (1982, p.570), for example, found that this kind of training for white and black participants in South Africa could improve and maintain sensitivity and cross-cultural communication. In terms of cultural intuition, meta-cognitive training based on the recognition model, where participants are trained to quickly recognize the cross-cultural situation being experienced and then to conduct reflective learning on how to solve cross-cultural problems related to that situation, should also be considered (Earley and Ang, 2003, pp.278–282).

Research Limitations

The limitations of this study include the narrow number of groups involved, meaning that the results do not provide a comprehensive picture of the international nature of modern-day peacekeeping. For example, research by French et al. (2001, pp.151–157) showed that French and American samples produced strikingly different decision-making results on the problem of ethical conflicts. Therefore, further study involving more groups that are known to have different cultural cognitions are warranted. Another limitation is that the data collected was self-reported, meaning that control was achieved at the nominal level, and as such may contain biases. Consequently, the results may be influenced by the effect of uncontrolled variables. In line with these limitations, a more controlled study involving multi source assessment should be conducted in the future. Field experimentation during international joint exercises also provides a plausible area for further exploration.

Conclusion

For many militaries around the world, peacekeeping operations have become the main scenario for operational deployments. In line with

increasing internationalisation of such missions, peacekeepers should possess cross-cultural competencies to work effectively across different cultural settings. Various research has shown that individuals from different cultural backgrounds have different ways of thinking, resulting in different decision-making styles. The current research shows that individuals will be better at thinking and making decisions in their native cultural style. Yet in order to enable their students to work effectively in multicultural settings, training centres that prepare peacekeepers for international deployment should create curricula which contain psychological training, capable of providing experiential learning on how to think, how to make decisions and how to behave in different cultural scenarios.

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