Military deployment: Do Core Value Priorities change? About Moral Responsibility and the Differences between Leaders and Subordinates following Military Deployment to Afghanistan

Katharina Lohse

Bachelor thesis Psychology

February 2012

University of Twente

Department of Psychology of Conflict, Risk and Safety

1st supervisor: Prof. dr. E. Giebels

2nd supervisor: Miriam de Graaff MSc (doctoral candidate)

UNIVERSITY OF TWENTE.

Abstract

In recent years there is a growing alertness for effects of military deployment on soldiers, since the number of peacekeeping missions grew after the end of the cold war. The present study aimed at investigating, whether deployment has an effect on personal value priorities of the soldiers. In this context we took into consideration moral responsibility as related to group cohesion processes, social identity theory and leadership responsibility. Participants of this study were 70 soldiers from three different platoons, who filled in a 24- item value questionnaire prior and subsequent to the deployment abroad. Factor analysis was used to categorize the 24 items according to Schwartz classification of value types. Seven value types were extracted; four of them were classified as types of Benevolence and the other three as Conformity, Achievement and Universalism. In the following we examined whether Benevolence values, which are concerned with the welfare of one's in-group, gain greater importance than do the other value types as related to group cohesion and social identity and furthermore if leaders attach more priority to achievement related values than do their subordinates connected with their greater responsibility. Results showed that in general values remained stable across the deployment process and no significant differences could be found with reference to our research questions.

Military deployment: Do Core Value Priorities change? About Moral Responsibility and the Differences between Leaders and Subordinates following Military Deployment to Afghanistan

Since the 1990ies the number of peace missions and as a consequence thereof the number of soldiers, policemen and civilian employees participating in those missions grew, due to the amplification of those missions to domestic conflicts. In this context many questions arise concerning the consequences of deployment for the peace workers. Many studies have been conducted about the psychological consequences as related to Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD),(see, e.g. Brailey, Vasterling, Proctor, Constans, & Friedman, 2007; Engelhard et al., 2007; Hoge, Auchterlonie, & Milliken, 2006) but little research has been done about the effects of deployment on personal value priorities.

Values define what we deem to be important in our lives. Every individual holds values encompassing their personal or cultural ideals and attaching different levels of importance to them. According to Rokeach (1973), actions gain meaning through values and values can be understood as a guiding mechanism toward a way of behaving that is more preferable for the individual than another way of behaving. The armed military culture particularly stands for values such as respect, solidarity or tolerance, so as to maintain the order or carrying out their tasks responsibly. Considering that the armed forces are in action in conflict areas to keep or enforce the peace, such moral values have to be internalized to act in decent ways. Yet, the priorities people attach to core values can be very different. Furthermore, prioritizing some values at the expense of others in a moral dilemma can lead to severe psychological consequences like depression or as mentioned above PTSD, caused by feelings of guilt or regret. This in turn can lead to problems concerning the dealings with moral issues (Meijer, 2009).

Considering the fact that the morality of every individual is based on his or her own

personal values, norms and attitudes and values are the guiding principle in our lives (Bilsky & Schwartz, 1994; Schwartz, 1992) we have to take into account that experiences in the deployment process can have an impact on personal value priorities and as a consequence thereof on the morality of the soldiers. Peace operations or interventions of the armed forces in general, in a strange country and in a foreign culture, are exceptional circumstances. The daily routine in such a deployment, as for example in Afghanistan, is not the same as it is in the Netherlands. This may concern fear about IED strikes (Wilson, 2006), distress and misery of the population, and worries about the loved ones who remained at home. Also, one may be wary of the legacy of a country scarred by war, which has to be rebuilt and newly structured with the assistance of foreign military forces. Moral values are what the soldiers should appeal to in case of a moral dilemma. In a situation where a soldier faces a moral dilemma, it can be the question of: do I try to achieve my mission goal and take care of my men and myself or do I take the risk of not accomplishing the mission correct in order to save innocent lives. Those decisions are hard to make and the soldier of authority has to be able to realize that he or she is facing a moral dilemma and therefore a "lose-lose" situation and either of the possible choices can lead to impactful consequences on ones' own psychological well-being, thinking of feelings as guilt or regret. The confrontation with such lose-lose dilemmas may also change one's (priority) of values.

The research project described in this article aims at investigating whether changes in the ratings of importance of values occur following deployment abroad. Furthermore, and considering their different responsibilities in the deployment process, we examine whether these changes are the same for leaders and subordinates. Our approach to moral values or morality is that it concerns a concept, which social scientists, philosophers and laypeople conceptualize alike, namely in terms of being concerned about actions that affect directly or indirectly the welfare of others (Schwartz, 2007). The aspect of morality during deployment

gives rise to examine changes in value priorities, considering that different types of values are seen as more moral than other value types. In general, especially the values helpfulness, loyalty and obedience are judged to be moral, whereas values as success, pleasure or wealth are categorized as less moral and expressing more the self- interests of people (Schwartz, 2007). In the following sections, we first introduce a framework for examining values followed by more specific hypotheses about changes in the priority of core values following military deployment of both leaders and subordinates.

Human Core Values

Values are trans-situational goals or criteria given different priority to and serving as a guiding principle in our live (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1999). While the types of values we recognize are almost the same in cultures worldwide, the priorities we place on values differ between cultures as well as within cultures. Our value priorities are a reflection of our genetic heritage, social locations and personal experiences (Schwartz & Bardi, 2001). Values are generalized to other life domains and adapted to accord with the requests and opportunities of meaningful societal institutions (Schwartz & Sagie, 2000).

"Specifically, values represent, in the form of conscious goals, responses to three universal requirements with which all individuals and societies must cope: needs of individuals as biological organisms, requisites of coordinated social interaction, and requirements for the smooth functioning and survival of groups"(Schwartz, 1994, p. 3). According to Schwartz, those requirements are represented cognitively as specific values by people and they use them to communicate so as to coordinate, rationalize and explain behavior (Schwartz, 1996). He identified ten universal value orientations (see Table 1), universal in the sense that they are recognized in cultures worldwide, trying to conceptualize the basic human values (Schwartz, 2009).

Table 1

Values Schwartz presented in his Value Theory with their Corresponding Goals

Self- direction:	Independent thought and choosing of action, exploring, creating.
Stimulation:	Excitement, novelty and challenge in life.
Hedonism:	Pleasure or sensuous gratification.
Power:	Social status and prestige, control or dominance over people.
Achievement:	Personal success through demonstrating competence according to social standards.
Universalism:	Understanding, appreciation, tolerance and protection for the welfare of others. Concerned with the environment and the whole humankind and thus incorporating the out-group.
Benevolence:	Preservation and enhancement of the welfare of people with whom is in frequent contact, those who are close to us and part of the in- group.
Tradition:	Respect, commitment, and acceptance of the customs and ideas that traditional culture or religion provide.
Conformity:	Restraint of actions, inclinations and impulses likely to upset or harm others and violate social expectations or norms.
Security:	Safety, harmony and stability of society, of relationships and one self.

Value orientations are motivationally distinct from each other and Schwartz (1992, 2007) furthermore highlights the fact that some values are compatible with each other, while others are more contradicting, which is reflected in two underlying dimensions.. The first dimension contrasts self- transcendence values (Universalism, Benevolence) concerned with the welfare of groups and communal live with. self-enhancement values (Achievement,

Power) expressing or promoting a sense of self- interest. Individuals who place high priorities on self- enhancement values are intended to reach their goals, without much regard to others or even in competition with them. The second dimension includes conservation values (Security, Conformity, Tradition) prioritizing order, resistance to change and restriction of the self versus openness to change values (Hedonism, Stimulation, Self- direction) emphasizing independent thought and action and openness for new experiences. Conservation and self-transcendence values are considered to be moral values concerned with the promotion or protection of positive relations of the self to others. A person giving high priorities to values as Benevolence or Universalism is likely to place less priority on values like Achievement or Power. See Figure 1 for the two dimensions depicted in a circular.

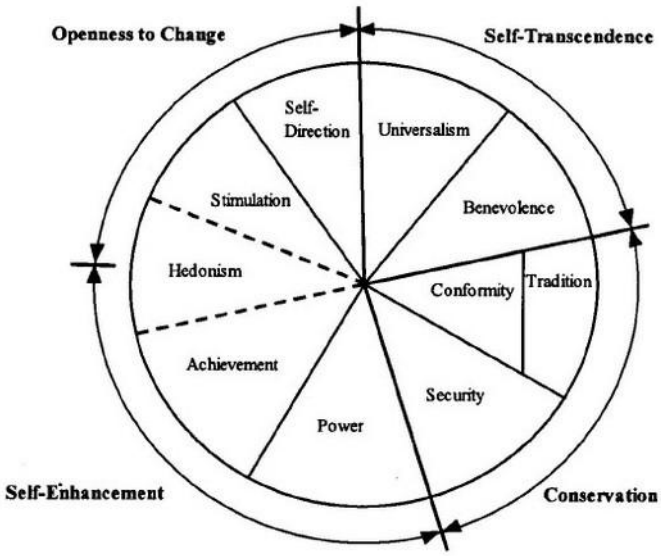

Figure 1: Theoretical model of relations among the ten motivational types of values (Schwartz, 2009).

Values by themselves are relatively stable, but the influence of social expectations or experience can lead to a re-prioritizing of one's own personal values. Two processes which may lead to a displacement of value priorities in a military context will be discussed and further explained in the following section. The first issue addresses group cohesion processes which result from stressful experiences during deployment. Secondly, we focus on differences

in feelings of responsibility following the role of leaders versus subordinates.

Group Cohesion Processes

Highly stressful experiences can lead to the blurring of moral standards and the therewith connected norms and values. Soeters, Winslow and Weibull (2006) found that sub-cultural patterns can evolve ranging from lying, stealing or the utterance of political incorrect behavior to sexual harassment and violence against local people.“In these circumstances, groups can generate their own values, beliefs and ideologies that may have little or nothing to do with the formal military culture.”(Soeters et al., 2006, p. 249). One phenomenon arising from critical situations in such military organizations is the “collective mind” which is associated with the need to build a cohesive and strong group (Soeters et al.,). This collective mind can lead to problems in terms of in- and out-group which in turn is correlated with value priorities in the sense that some types of values are concerned with ones in-group while other types also include the out-group. In extreme situations, where for instance an attempt is made (e.g. IED strike) on the group and comrades got injured or even died it is possible that afterwards people tend to attach less importance to tolerance (Universalism) toward the local population and instead focus more on the welfare of the own group (Benevolence). The phenomenon of the collective mind can best be explained with regard to social identity theory and group cohesion processes.

Social identity theory. In social identity theory people are defined in terms of their self-conceptions as members of a group. Being a group in this context means a construct of three or more people sharing the same attributes and distinguishing themselves in this sense from other people. Phenomena as leadership, conformity, discrimination, ethnocentrism, prejudice, normative behavior and group cohesiveness are addressed by this theory. The theory was developed by Henri Tajfel and John C. Turner (Tajfel & Turner, 1979) and postulates that people of the same group have the same definition of who they are. They share

the same attributes and evaluate and identify themselves in the same manner. Some kind of depersonalization takes place within groups, which is not meant in the same sense as dehumanization. Depersonalization finds expression in social categorization, whereby attributes of an individual are categorized and consequently a prototype of a group member is built. The in-group members have positive attributes which match largely with this kind of prototype, whereas the out-group members are seen in a more negative light for not showing the prototypical attributes. Consequently this derogation of the out-group members can lead, in the worst case, to dehumanization. A sense of "we" versus "them" is created and stereotyping of out- group members is common. One motive for a social identity is uncertainty reduction (Hogg & Terry, 2000), because it is the striving of every individual to reduce uncertainty about their social environment and a clear group imperative can guide an individual in how to behave in an uncertain situation (Hogg, 2006).

The very basis of social identity is self-categorization, it diminishes uncertainty by converting ones self-concept and the adjustment of oneself to the prototype that dictates and accounts for your perceptions, feelings, behaviors and attitudes (Hogg & Terry, 2000). "Self categorization produces within a group, conformity and patterns of in-group liking, trust and solidarity."(Hogg, 2006, p. 119). The values of trust and solidarity, which are important in a military setting considering the work circumstances soldiers face during deployment, become more intense within the group. A spirit of force is provided through interpersonal relationships in times of stress and this sense of solidarity or cohesion created under uncertain circumstances enables groups to work effectively toward group tasks and missions. But group cohesion is more an enabler of performance than it is an enhancer (Griffith, 2007). Kerr and Tindale (2004) stated that groups under stress show a strong need for uniformity of opinion and a heightened need for closure which ultimately leads to the accepting of those who conform and the rejection of those who derogate. Kerr and Tindale talk about a "closing of

the group mind". When soldiers come in dangerous and unfamiliar situations, where uncertainty is high, a great level of interdependence is present and it comes to "swift trust", where less emphasis is paid on rules and regulations. That is, they are not absent, but fade into the background (Soeters et al., 2006) Compared to civilian institutions the armed forces are more collectivistic, which finds expression in the fact that military employees are more dedicated to their institutions and have lesser problems with making sacrifices for their work (Soeters, 1997). Training of loyalty to ones' colleagues and the organization belongs to the training-programs of military personnel (de Graaff & van den Berg, 2010), which is on the one hand essential to perform their tasks appropriate and on the other hand can lead to a strengthening of the in-group feeling.

Taken together, this importance of in-group feeling may particularly have consequences for one of the value categories often referred to as Benevolence. According to Schwartz the focus of Benevolence values is the enhancement and the preservation of welfare of those who are close to us in everyday life, those with whom we are in frequent interaction. In the foreground stands the promotion of the prospering of the group and it derives from a need for affiliation. Values of this type are for example helpfulness or forbearance (Schwartz, 1992). While universalism values concern tolerance and understanding of all groups and the environment, particularly benevolence has a smaller focus and is concerned with the welfare of one's in-group. Schwartz further states that members of a collectivist culture have a tendency to place more emphasis on the benevolence type of values (Schwartz, 1992) and as mentioned above military cultures tend to be relatively collectivistic,. Therefore and due to a stronger social identity which is acquired through the stressful experiences during deployment, the expectation is that benevolence values gain more priority than the other value types, during the deployment process.

Leadership Responsibility

Leadership is an everyday proceeding in military settings. It is one of the most practiced tasks, since military settings are hierarchically ordered. Traditionally, the chain of command goes from the higher ranks downwards to the lower ranks. However, in the last years the decision- making process more and more shifted from the higher ranks to also involving the lower ranks, thus reflecting a decentralization of command. This also enables the soldiers in the lower ranks to make their own decisions when needed, as for example in stressful and morally challenging situations.

To stimulate a "good moral" there usually exist moral codes; in the military, such moral codes are usually the same for all ranks. However, leaders can – by showing moral competencies – influence the moral climate of their unit. Particularly leaders also play a role-model function in this respect (Van Egmond, 2010).

Furthermore, leadership is about target-oriented execution of tasks to reach the goals. This also finds expression in the fact that commanders have the responsibility for discipline of their personnel, their welfare, health and also their morality. Leaders carry a responsibility towards their organization; they have a mission that has to be accomplished and the leader has the obligation to keep their tasks running with the provided materials and subordinates. If the ultimate goal of the mission is not reached or things do go wrong, leaders can be held liable (Van Egmond, 2010). It is the assignment of the commander to manage discipline and order in a way that the goals are reached and damage is prevented (van Baarda, 2010). A second expectation is thus, that leaders give more priority to achievement related values than do their subordinates, due to the leaders' responsibility toward the organization to run a successful mission.

Summary of the Aims of this Research and Hypotheses

The aim of this research is to examine to what extend core values, i.e. benevolence and achievement, change following deployment abroad in Afghanistan. More specifically we will

test two hypotheses:

1. Benevolence values gain greater priority in value ratings compared to the other value domains, due to social identity and group cohesion processes.

2. The priority given to achievement values is higher for leaders than for subordinates, particularly following deployment, due to their different responsibilities in the deployment process.

Method

This study is conducted in the scope of a broader research on the effects of deployment. Results were investigated on the basis of two measurements. The first measurement took place before the deployment of troops to Uruzghan/Afghanistan and the second measurement took place subsequent to the deployment, when the platoons were back in the Netherlands.

Participants

Of the Royal Netherlands Armed Forces 70 military personnel were requested to fill in a Value Questionnaire at two points in time (before and after deployment). Participants belonged to three different platoons, the infantry platoon (29 participants), the marines (22 participants) and the recce platoon (19 participants). All participants were male.

In the course of the first measurement 63 of the 70 requested persons filled out the questionnaire due to some random drop out. Of the 63 questionnaires 6 questionnaires were not sincerely or completely filled in, so 57 questionnaires (81.43%) could be taken into account. The mean age of the respondents was 23.63 years (SD= 5.78).

At the time of the second measurement all of the 70 participants who were requested for the first measurement filled in the questionnaire. Sixty- five participants (92, 86%) completely filled in the questionnaire. The mean age of the respondents at that time was 24.60 years (SD= 5.42).

Leaders and subordinates. To test our second hypothesis all participants were classified in connection with their rank as a leader or a subordinate. This classification was made in due consideration of the decentralization of command, which as described earlier also empowers the lower ranks with power of decision. The Dutch equivalents of the ranks can be found in parentheses. The classification was made as follows: of the Royal Netherlands Army all participants holding the rank of a private (soldaat, soldaat der 1e klasse) were classified as subordinates. Holding the rank of a sergeant (sergeant), warrant officer class II (sergeant-majoor), warrant officer class I (adjutant) or lieutenant (luitenant) meant being classified as a leader. In the Royal Netherlands Navy all participants who held the rank of marine or corporal (Matroos der 3de Klasse, Matroos der 2de Klasse, Matroos der 1ste Klasse) were classified as subordinates and participants holding the rank of sergeant (korporaal), petty colour sergeant (sergeant), gunnery sergeant (sergeant-majoor), warrant officer (adjutant) or lieutenant (luitenant) were classified as leaders. Finally in the course of the first measurement 32 participants (56.1%) were classified as subordinates and 25 (43.9%) as leaders. In the course of the second measurement one participant belonged to the Royal Netherlands Military Police and he could be classified as a leader. Ultimately, 37 participants (56.9%%) were classified as subordinates and 28 (43.1%) as leaders during this measurement.

Instruments

A value questionnaire was used for this study. The Value questionnaire is one section of an already existing questionnaire which was, as mentioned above used in a broader study on the effects of deployment on soldiers. Based on literature studies about organizational culture and values within the armed forces, this questionnaire was created in consultation with professionals and experts in the field.

For this study only the Value questionnaire (see Appendix) was of relevance. Twenty-four value items had to be rated by the participants in terms of their importance to them. For

the ratings a 5- point Likert scale was used ranging from "*very unimportant*", "*not important*", "*neutral*", "*important*" to "*really important*".

On the 24 items a principal component analysis has been conducted using orthogonal rotation (varimax). As the critical value for the factor loadings .45 was chosen. To verify the sampling adequacy the Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure was used resulting in KMO = .73, which is a good result (Field, 2009). Correlations between the items were sufficiently large for a principal component analysis as indicated by Bartlett's test of sphericity, χ^2 (276) = 842.34, $p < .001$. By looking at the scree plot and an initial analysis that was ran, we could identify seven factors which had eigenvalues over Kaiser's criterion of 1. Those seven factors explain altogether 72.20% of the variance. Items which provided no significant loadings (> .45) on any of the factors and items with cross- loadings were removed. Finally 21 of the 24 items were allocated to the seven extracted factors. Their reliabilities can be found in Table 2. Spearman's rho was calculated when a factor only contains two items.

For this study the seven extracted factors were categorized according to Schwartz's (1992) value theory. The first factor agrees with Schwartz value type Universalism, including e.g. the items tolerance and appreciation. Factor two, three, four and five can be defined as belonging to the Benevolence value type and are classified further in conjunction with the three universal requirements from which basic values derive. The second factor is labeled Organism-Benevolence and can be linked to the individuals need as biological organisms containing items as e.g. helpfulness and forbearance. Factor 3 got the label Group-Benevolence according to the requirements for survival and smooth functioning of the in-group containing items as e.g. solidarity. Furthermore, factor four is labeled Interaction-Benevolence with regard to universal requisites of coordinated social interaction and included items like respect and trust. The fifth factor could also be categorized as a kind of Benevolence and is according to the military context labeled Military-Benevolence. The items

included in this factor were team spirit and reliability, which are considered as important in stressful situation where group cohesion is needed. Achievement is the sixth extracted factor containing more performance related values. The last included factor is conformity and the corresponding values (e.g. integrity, responsibility) have also been identified as crucial in deployment settings.

Table 2

The Seven Factors of the Value Questionnaire and the Appertaining Items With Reliabilities per Factor

Factors with items	Reliability
1. *Universalism*	α= .72
1.1 Appreciation	
1.2 Propriety	
1.3 Freedom	
1.4 Tolerance	
2. *Organism-Benevolence*	α= .78
2.1 Openness	
2.2 Justice	
2.3 Helpfulness	
2.4 Forbearance	
3. *Group-Benevolence*	α= .76
3.1 Loyalty	
3.2 Comradeship	
3.3 Solidarity	
4. *Interaction Benevolence*	r= .54
4.1 Respect	

	4.2 Trust	
5.	*Military-Benevolence*	r= .5
	5.1 Team spirit	
	5.2 Reliability	
6.	*Achievement*	α= .74
	6.1 Outcome Intention	
	6.2 Militancy	
	6.3 Performance Intention	
7.	*Conformity*	α= .63
	7.1 Integrity	
	7.2 Clarity	
	7.3 Responsibility	

Procedure

Seventy soldiers from three different platoons were asked to take part in a study about deployment experience. All of them were participants of the deployment, their participation was voluntary and commonly with the whole peloton. They were asked to fill in a questionnaire, which contained the 24-item value survey used to conduct this study. Both measurements took place when the whole peloton was together in the barrack and researchers were present for probable questions. The first measurement took place before soldiers left for deployment abroad and the second measurement was conducted after the expiration of deployment. The timeframe between the two measurements was approximately six month, four of whom the peloton ran deployment.

Analysis Procedure

Unfortunately not all respondents indicated their registration number on the questionnaire, due to the fact that the participants were not recognizable at an individual level,

no changes on the individual level were measured. We used the group-level in order to gain insight in possible shifts in value prioritization within the unit. So, first the mean scores and standard deviations of the seven factors were calculated in order to make the comparisons. A multivariate analysis of variances (MANOVA) was conducted to test if changes took place in the given value priorities between the first and the second date of measurement. Age was included as the covariate, because it was expected that the connection to the in-group strengthens due to experience values, which older soldiers gain in the course of their professional career. Also, leaders are expected to be older than subordinates.

To test our second hypothesis, whether there are differences in the ratings between leaders and subordinates relating to Achievement, we ran the MANCOVA again but this time included leadership (well/no) as a second factor.

Results

Overall Importance of Value Types

In order to illustrate how soldiers rated the importance of the different value types in general the Means and Standard Deviations were calculated and shown in table 3.

Table 3

Means (M) & standard deviations (SD) for the seven value types before and after deployment

	before deployment			after deployment		
Value type	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Organism- Benevolence	57	4.16	.42	65	4.12	.45
Group-Benevolence	57	4.34	.42	65	4.37	.45
Interaction-Benevolence	57	4.53	.44	65	4.53	.47
Military-Benevolence	57	4.55	.44	65	4.47	.47
Universalism	57	4.12	.40	65	3.98	.51
Achievement	57	4.34	.47	65	4.23	.47

Conformity	57	4.16	.38	65	4.09	.47

Note. Scales ranged from 1 (very unimportant) to 5 (really important).

Table 2 shows that both before and after deployment all value types were rated relatively high. Before deployment, all mean scores fell between *"important"* and *"really important"* with mean scores ranging from 4.12 for Universalism to 4.55 for Military-Benevolence. After deployment nearly the same results were found with one exception that Universalism values were rated somewhat lower (M = 3.98, SD = .51) while the mean scores of the other value types ranged from 4.09 for Conformity to 4.53 for Interaction-Benevolence. In the course of the first measurement as well as in the course of the second measurement Universalism was rated lowest in importance. Finally, the mean score on Achievement before deployment (M = 4.33, SD = .38) slightly decreased after deployment (M = 4.10, SD = .47).

Benevolence Values and Priority

Hypothesis 1 predicts that Benevolence values gain greater importance in value ratings compared to other value domains, where no changes were expected, in conjunction with deployment effects. To test this hypothesis we ran a repeated measures MANCOVA. Therefore deployment was included as the independent variable with two levels, namely before deployment and after deployment and age was used as a covariate.

Running the MANCOVA led to the result that deployment had no significant overall effect on the importance ratings of the values (F= .898, df= 7/113, p= .510 n.s.). Since we did not expected a change in all of the tested value types we took a closer look on the univariate analyses as well. First we were interested in the four types of Benevolence (Interaction-Benevolence, Group-Benevolence, Interaction-Benevolence and Military-Benevolence). No significant effects were found in either of the four value types. Furthermore the other three value types were taken into account and again no significant changes could be found. Considering the small differences in mean scores between the first and second measurement

(Table 3) this result was not unexpected. Our first hypothesis is thus not confirmed. Results of the univariate analyses are shown in Table 4.

Table 4

Univariate Analyses of Variance on the Importance Ratings of the Seven Value Types (Factor: Deployment)

Dependent Variable	*F*	*p*
df= (1/119)		
Organism- Benevolence	.506	.478
Group-Benevolence	.071	.791
Interaction-Benevolence	.010	.921
Military-Benevolence	1.223	.271
Universalism	2.599	.110
Achievement	1.599	.208
Conformity	1.141	.288

Leadership and Achievement

To test the second hypothesis, whether there are differences between subordinates and leaders according to the importance given to achievement values the MANCOVA was ran again but this time a 2x2 (deployment [before, after] x leadership [leader, subordinate] design was used and age again added as a covariate. To check whether there are effects concerning the other value types we have conducted the MANCOVA including those variables as well. Table 5 and 6 display the means and standard deviations of the seven value types for subordinates and leaders before and after deployment.

Table 5

Means (M), standard deviations (SD) and differences between subordinates and leaders

before deployment

	subordinate			leader		
Value type	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Achievement	32	4.27	.37	25	4.43	.41
Universalism	32	4.09	.36	25	4.14	.45
Organism- Benevolence	32	4.13	.40	25	4.21	.45
Group-Benevolence	32	4.31	.38	25	4.37	.46
Interaction-Benevolence	32	4.45	.46	25	4.62	.39
Military-Benevolence	32	4.52	.43	25	4.60	.46
Conformity	32	4.13	.34	25	4.21	.43

Note. Scales ranged from 1 (very unimportant) to 5 (really important).

Table 6

Means (M), standard deviations (SD) and differences between subordinates and leaders after deployment

	subordinate			leader		
Value type	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*n*	*M*	*SD*
Achievement	37	4.17	.51	28	4.32	.48
Universalism	37	3.97	.57	28	3.99	.44
Organism- Benevolence	37	4.08	.48	28	4.18	.43
Group-Benevolence	37	4.36	.46	28	4.39	.44
Interaction-Benevolence	37	4.57	.50	28	4.48	.42
Military-Benevolence	37	4.42	.49	28	4.54	.45
Conformity	37	4.06	.44	28	4.13	.52

Note. Scales ranged from 1 (very unimportant) to 5 (really important).

By looking at table 5 and 6 it becomes apparent that overall leaders rated the value

types as slightly more important than did their subordinates, this is the case for all value types before measurement and for six out of seven during the second measurement. In general all mean scores fell between *"important"* and *"really important"*.

Running the MANCOVA led to the result that no significant main effects were found for neither of the two factors deployment (F= .804, df= 7/111, p= .586) and leadership (F= .605, df=7/111), p= .750). Nor was an interaction effect observed between deployment and leadership (F= .425, df= 7/111, p= .885). By taking into account the univariate analyses as well, no significant difference can be found on any of the seven value types. Even though the greatest difference in scores between subordinates and leaders can be found in achievement values, as related to the other value types, this difference is still not significant with an $\alpha < .05$ (F= 2.951, df= 1/117, p= .088). The importance attached to achievement values furthermore slightly decreased after deployment for leaders and subordinates similarly (table 5 and 6). Results are shown in table 7. Our second hypothesis is thus likewise not confirmed.

Table 7

Multivariate and univariate analyses of covariance on the importance ratings of Achievement whilst taking into account the other six value types (factors: deployment, leadership; covariate: age)

MANCOVA			ANOVA		
Factor	*F*	*p*	Dependent Variable	*F*	*p*
			df= (1/117)		
			Achievement	.007	.932
Age	2.178	.041	Universalism	.039	.845
df= 7/111)			Organism-Benevolence	5.355	.022
			Group-Benevolence	4.296	.040
			Interaction-Benevolence	.301	.585

			Military-Benevolence	.882	.349
			Conformity	2.416	.123
			Achievement	1.475	.227
Deployment	.804	.586	Universalism	2.562	.112
df= (7/111)			Organism-Benevolence	.474	.492
			Group-Benevolence	.049	.826
			Interaction-Benevolence	.007	.932
			Military-Benevolence	1.090	.299
			Conformity	1.113	.289
			Achievement	2.951	.088
Leadership	.605	.750	Universalism	.112	.739
df= (7/111)			Organism-Benevolence	.344	.559
			Group-Benevolence	.005	.941
			Interaction-Benevolence	.370	.544
			Military-Benevolence	.867	.354
			Conformity	.341	.560
			Achievement	.004	.951
Deployment	.425	.885	Universalism	.038	.845
X			Organism-Benevolence	.002	.960
Leadership			Group-Benevolence	.098	.755
df= (7/111)			Interaction-Benevolence	2.194	.141
			Military-Benevolence	.017	.895
			Conformity	.052	.819

Discussion

Since 1948 when the first peacekeeping operation (PKO) was established by the United nations in the Middle East the number of such operations increased steadily, under which operations in Bosnia- Herzegovina, Kosovo, Macedonia, Lebanon, Somalia and Iraq (Contributions, n.d.). From 2003 on the Netherlands sent troops to Afghanistan within the framework of the peacekeeping mandate ISAF (Ministry of Foreign Affairs, 2006). Even though the lead responsibility for the Dutch army in Uruzghan, in the south of the country ended at 1st August 2010 and all the troops were withdrawn by February 2011, another mission has started recently in Kunduz, namely the European Police mission (EUPOL Afghanistan), where afghan police officers are trained by Dutch officers and officers from other European countries (Afghanistan, n.d., para. 2). At present Dutch troops and military experts also contribute to UN- mandated peacekeeping operations in the Middle East and Sudan (Current, n.d.). All this gives rise to further examine the effects of deployment on soldiers in the future, in order to e.g. react appropriately on possible problems or the improve pre-deployment training or aftercare.

The goal of the present study was to examine whether deployment had an effect on the soldiers' personal value priorities. More specifically, we first expected that benevolence values gain greater importance following deployment. Second, we expected leaders to attach more importance to achievement related values than their subordinates as related to their different responsibilities in the deployment process. In the following the results of this study will be reviewed and subsequently follows a general discussion about this study and its limitations.

Overall the seven value types were rated quite high with most of the scores between important and very important. This was the case before deployment, as well as after deployment. A slight decrease in importance ratings could be registered in five out of the seven value types, namely in Universalism, Organism-Benevolence, Military-Benevolence,

Achievement and Conformity. Universalism was rated the lowest (M = 3.98, SD = .51) after deployment with scores that fell between *"neutral"* and *"important"* a possible explanation therefore might be group cohesion or maybe experiences made in the deployment process, as e.g. the loss of a comrade as a consequence of an IED strike. However differences are not statistically significant and values are still rated as important. The importance rating of Group-Benevolence slightly increased, while for Interaction-Benevolence ratings remained the same, which is in line with a group cohesion explanation. That is, particularly Group-Benevolence and Interaction-Benevolence are concerned with survival and smooth functioning of groups and coordinated social interaction (Schwartz, 1992) which is essential in the deployment process. However, as the results from the analyses of variance showed, none of the registered differences turned out to be significant. Therefore the first hypothesis cannot be confirmed. One possible explanation for the absence of differences might be the pre-deployment training Dutch soldiers receive before they leave for deployment abroad. This training encompasses next to the traditional war fighting skills, training in e.g. the legal aspects of deployment, stress & trauma, Rules of Engagement and cultural awareness. Especially this training in cultural awareness is useful to overcome stereotyping and stigmatizing of the local population (Gooren, 2006), which can result from group cohesion and social identity processes. Another possible explanation might be effects of social desirability in the ratings of importance. Normally, the motivation to present oneself in a social desirable manner in anonymous questionnaires is low. However, since participants had to fill in their registration numbers, motivation for self-presentation could have increased, even though they were assured that their answers will be treated confidential (Schwartz, Verkasalo, Antonovsky, & Sagiv, 1997). For the main part, the result that value importance ratings remain stable over deployment can be viewed as positive outcome and can be indicative for the well-preparedness of Dutch soldiers.

The second aspect of our research was the difference in ratings of importance of Achievement values between subordinates and leaders. As we look at the results of the comparison between subordinates and leaders no significant difference can be found. Compared to the other value types the difference in value ratings between subordinates and leaders is greatest for achievement values. However, since differences turned out to be non-significant our second hypothesis cannot be confirmed. As mentioned earlier the peace supporting operations of the present time bring up different challenges and require another style of leading. Responsibilities are delegated throughout the whole commanding hierarchy in order to make appropriate decisions. Small-unit leadership became more important because those units are dispersed over large areas to fulfill their tasks as e.g. patrolling or observation. (Vogelaar & Kramer, 2004). This decentralization of command may be a possible explanation for our findings in the sense that the empowerment of also the lower ranks leads to a greater feeling of responsibility concerning the mission goal in the whole unit. Another possible explanation for the fact that achievement is rated fairly equal by subordinates and leaders can be the group cohesiveness. Cohesive groups share common goals for which they strive. They furthermore have the tendency to be close to each other and stay united in order to reach their instrumental objectives, in this case their mission goal. This cohesiveness is manifested in groups as sport teams or military units (Carron & Brawley, 2000; Carron, Brawley, & Widmeyer, 1998). Altogether the fact that achievement is rated roughly equal in importance and scores fell between *"important"* and *"really important"* indicates that all individuals of the group have an interest in achieving the mission goal, which can also be judged as a positive finding. Achievement values were rated slightly less important after expiration of deployment by subordinates as well as by leaders. A possible explanation for the decrease in value importance ratings can be the acquisition of the deployment process, when soldiers come to rest, because the mission is already completed.

In general the importance attached to all of the value types remains relatively stable over the deployment process. With all values rated as important or really important for the individual. Nonetheless, this study has several limitations. The sample size of our research is small as compared to the total amount of troops belonging to the Royal Netherlands Armed Forces. Respondents in this study were all part of the infantries, participants of the Royal Netherlands Air Force or the Royal Netherlands Maritime Force were unrepresented. In consideration of the sample size and the unequal presence of the different parts of the armed forces, conclusions about differences between them could hardly be drawn. Considering the fact that the different parts of the military organization develop in some sense their own "culture" (Soeters, et al., 2006) this should be taken into account in further studies. Another limitation of this study with regard to the sample size is that a relatively little amount of participants held one of the higher military ranks, most of the classified leaders held the rank of sergeant (before deployment 88.46% and after deployment 79.31%). To really check for differences between leaders and subordinates in further research it would be best to have a roughly equal number of participants of each rank, which can only be achieved by extending the study to a greater sample size. The higher ranks are always less represented related to the military hierarchy.

This leads us to another limitation of this study, the fact that not all respondents filled in their registration numbers. The results gained in this study are based on the mean scores of all participants; this fact does not allow us to check whether there are significant differences in the importance ratings of the value types for the individual. To examine whether there are real abnormalities, thus differences that aberrate significant from the groups mean, this study has to be conducted on an individual basis.

Furthermore the generalizability of this research is limited. In recent years the alertness for military ethics grew continuously, which is related mainly to the shift of the

military tasks in the "new" missions. After the end of the cold war, the military participation in peace operations, let it be peacekeeping or peace enforcing missions like the ISAF mission in Afghanistan, steadily increased. These kinds of new missions require another kind of preparation, than did the missions in the traditional war- fighting context of the military. Nowadays in most of the Western European countries, army schedules also encompass behavioral and social sciences. Additionally, programs and methods of teaching were brought closer to a civilian curriculum and humanitarian imperatives are strongly required, besides the usual war- fighting training, to deal with the situation in an appropriate way. Gaps in education for these new missions are most mentioned by soldiers from several Eastern European countries and also officers from the US feel more unprepared than do colleagues from other nations. This is can be related to the more traditional war- fighting training they receive (Caforio, 2007; Tripodi, 2006). Training of military personnel is thus not at the same standard across the different countries, which contribute to PSOs. In consideration of the aforementioned, results of such a research can be fairly different across armies worldwide.

Another point to mention here is the used survey in this study. The survey contains 24 value-items that had to be rated on a 5-point Likert scale. The 24 items are related mostly to only two of the four constructs Schwartz mentioned in the two dimensions of values that he had identified. Except the value type Achievement, which belongs to the Self-enhancement category, all other value types measured the constructs self-transcendence and conservation. In order to clarify whether the importance attached to certain values goes at the expense of other values, all of the four constructs should be measured in further research.

Besides the above mentioned considerations some further recommendations can be made in the context of this study. Rating a value as important for oneself in a given situation, is not a prerequisite for recalling and reflecting on it when necessary (Meijer, 2009). In addition, not only our values determine if we act in a moral responsible way, it is also the

norms and attitudes we hold and the knowledge we have about certain situations and especially moral dilemmas. Since basic human values are nearly the same in cultures worldwide and they are the guiding principles in our lives (Rokeach, 1973; Schwartz, 1992) further research on values in a military context should be placed in a greater research context which also lays focus on the abovementioned things.

References

Afghanistan. (n.d.). In *Government of the Netherlands*, from http://www.government.nl/issues/international-peace-and-security/the-netherlands-military-missions/afghanistan

Bilsky, W., & Schwartz, S. H. (1994). Values and personality. *European Journal of Personality, 8,* 163-163. doi: 10.1002/per.2410080303

Brailey, K., Vasterling, J. J., Proctor, S. P., Constans, J. I., & Friedman, M. J. (2007). PTSD symptoms, life events, and unit cohesion in US soldiers: baseline findings from the neurocognition deployment health study. *Journal of Traumatic Stress, 20,* 495-503. doi: 10.1002/jts.20234

Caforio, G. (2007). Officers' professional preparation and issues posed by new military missions. *International Review of Sociology—Revue Internationale de Sociologie, 17,* 87-104. doi: 10.1080/03906700601129657

Carron, A. V., & Brawley, L. R. (2000). Cohesion: conceptual and measurement issues. *Small Group Research, 31,* 89-106. doi: 10.1177/104649640003100105

Carron, A. V., Brawley, L. R., & Widmeyer, W. N. (1998). The measurement of cohesiveness in sport groups. In J. L. Duda (Ed.), *Advances in Sport and Exercise Psychology Measurement* (pp. 213-226). Morgantown: WV: Fitness Information Technology.

Contributions. (n.d.). In The *Permanent Mission of the United Kingdom of the Netherlands to the United Nations.*, from http://www.netherlandsmission.org/article.asp?articleref=AR00000201EN

Current. (n.d.). In *United Nations Peacekeeping*, from http://www.un.org/en/peacekeeping/operations/current.shtml

de Graaff, M. C., & van den Berg, L. C. C. E. (2010). Moral professionalism within the Royal Netherlands Armed Forces. *MILITARY ETHICS,* 1-24.

Engelhard, I. M., Van Den Hout, M. A., Weerts, J., Arntz, A., Hox, J. J. C. M., & McNally, R. J. (2007). Deployment-related stress and trauma in Dutch soldiers returning from Iraq. *The British Journal of Psychiatry, 191*, 140-145. doi: 10.1192/bjp.bp.106.034884

Field, A. P. (2009). *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (3 ed.). London: SAGE publications Ltd.

Gooren, R. H. E. (2006). Soldiering in unfamiliar places: The Dutch approach. *Military Review, 86*, 54-60.

Griffith, J. (2007). Further considerations concerning the cohesion-performance relation in military settings. *Armed Forces & Society, 34*, 138-147. doi: 10.1177/0095327X06294620

Hoge, C. W., Auchterlonie, J. L., & Milliken, C. S. (2006). Mental health problems, use of mental health services, and attrition from military service after returning from deployment to Iraq or Afghanistan. *JAMA: The Journal of the American Medical Association, 295*, 1023-1032. doi: 10.1001/jama.295.9.1023

Hogg, M. A. (2006). Social identity theory. In P. J. Burke (Ed.), *Contemporary social psychological theories* (pp. 111-136). Stanford: Stanford University Press.

Hogg, M. A., & Terry, D. J. (2000). Social identity and self-categorization processes in organizational contexts. *The Academy of Management Review, 25*, 121-140. doi: 10.2307/259266

Kerr, N. L., & Tindale, R. S. (2004). Group performance and decision making. *Annual Review of Psychology, 55*, 623-655. doi: 10.1146/annurev.psych.55.090902.142009

Meijer, M. (2009). Morele vraagstukken en de geestelijke gezondheid van uitgezonden militairen. *Nederlands Militair Geneeskundig Tijdschrift, 62*, 169-172.

Rokeach, M. (1973). *The Nature of Human Values*. New York: Free press.

Schwartz, S. H. (1992). Universals in the content and structure of values: Theoretical advances and empirical tests in 20 countries. *Advances in experimental social psychology, 25*, 1-65.

Schwartz, S. H. (1994). Are there universal aspects in the structure and contents of human values? *Journal of Social Issues, 50*, 19-45. doi: 10.1111/j.1540-4560.1994.tb01196.x

Schwartz, S. H. (1996). Value priorities and behavior: Applying a theory of integrated value systems. *The Psychology of Values, 8*, 1-24.

Schwartz, S. H. (1999). A theory of cultural values and some implications for work. *Applied Psychology, 48*(1), 23-47.

Schwartz, S. H. (2007). Universalism values and the inclusiveness of our moral universe. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 38*, 711-728. doi: 10.1177/0022022107308992

Schwartz, S. H. (2009). Basic human values. *Sociologie, 42*, 249-288. doi: 10.1177/0022022101032005001

Schwartz, S. H., & Bardi, A. (2001). Value hierarchies across cultures: taking a similarities perspective. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 32*, 268-290. doi: 10.1177/0022022101032003002

Schwartz, S. H., & Sagie, G. (2000). Value consensus and importance: a cross-national study. *Journal of Cross-Cultural Psychology, 31*, 465-497. doi: 10.1177/0022022100031004003

Schwartz, S. H., Verkasalo, M., Antonovsky, A., & Sagiv, L. (1997). Value priorities and social desirability: much substance, some style. *British Journal of Social Psychology, 36*, 3-18. doi: 10.1111/j.2044-8309.1997.tb01115.x

Soeters, J. L. (1997). Value orientations in military academies: a thirteen country study. *Armed Forces & Society, 24*, 7-32. doi: 10.1177/0095327X9702400101

Soeters, J. L., Winslow, D., & Weibull, A. (2006). Military culture. *Handbook of the Sociology of the Military*, 237-254. doi: 10.1007/0-387-34576-0

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. C. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In W. G. Austin & S. Worchel (Eds.), *The social psychology of intergroup relations* (pp. 33-47). Monterey, CA: Brooks/Cole.

Tripodi, P. (2006). Peacekeepers, moral autonomy and the use of force. *Journal of Military Ethics, 5*, 214-232. doi: 10.1080/15027570600913338

van Baarda, T. A. (2010). Ethiek, commandanten- verantwoordelijkheid en enkele dilemma's bij militaire operaties. In T. A. van Baarda, Verweij, D.E.M. (Ed.), *Praktijkboek militaire ethiek : ethiek en integriteit bij de krijgsmacht, morele vorming, dilemmatraining.* (pp. 73- 127). Budel: DAMON.

Van Egmond, C. P. M. (2010). Leiderschap in de praktijk. In T. A. van Baarda & D. E. M. Verweij (Eds.), *Praktijkboek militaire ethiek : ethiek en integriteit bij de krijgsmacht, morele vorming, dilemmatraining.* (pp. 49- 71). Budel: DAMON.

Vogelaar, A. L. W., & Kramer, E. H. (2004). Mission command in Dutch peace support missions. *Armed Forces & Society, 30*, 409-431. doi: 10.1177/0095327X0403000305

Wilson, C. (2006). *Improvised explosive devices (IEDs) in Iraq: effects and countermeasures*. Washington, DC: DTIC Document.

Appendix

This survey is about what you consider to be important in your daily life.

State for the following conceptions as how important you would rate them, by indicating on the scale. 1 means very unimportant 5 means really important.

	1 Very unimportant	2 unimportant	3 neutral	4 important	5 Really important
Respect	O	O	O	O	O
Integrity (to conform to the regulations)	O	O	O	O	O
Loyalty	O	O	O	O	O
Trust	O	O	O	O	O
Openness	O	O	O	O	O
Clarity	O	O	O	O	O
Appreciation	O	O	O	O	O
Honesty	O	O	O	O	O
Responsibility	O	O	O	O	O
Outcome Intention	O	O	O	O	O
Comradeship	O	O	O	O	O
Team spirit	O	O	O	O	O
Militancy	O	O	O	O	O
Performance Intention	O	O	O	O	O
Commitment	O	O	O	O	O
Justice	O	O	O	O	O

Reliability	o	o	o	o	o
Self-Control	o	o	o	o	o
Propriety	o	o	o	o	o
Freedom	o	o	o	o	o
Tolerance	o	o	o	o	o
Solidarity	o	o	o	o	o
Helpfulness	o	o	o	o	o
Forbearance	o	o	o	o	o