



Morale as a Protection Factor against Mission Related Stress

Ms. Garrido M.J Subdelegación de Defensa de Málaga-Málaga 29016 Paseo de la Farola, 10 SPAIN **Ms. Muñoz M.J** USBA "Conde de Gazola"- León 24071 El Ferral del Bernesga Spain

mjganton@yahoo.es

mariacenjor@hotmail.com

ABSTRACT

Considering the importance that stress has in the armed forces, it is necessary to study those factors that reduce the probability of apparition of it. From the prevention point of view, the studies show different factors that can reduce the negative impact of this phenomenon (Distress). Among these factors, morale plays a fundamental role.

Since Spain began in 1988 its participation in operations of peace and human aid, by mandate of the UN, to our days, we can verify the increase of the same and the importance that in them has the role of the psychologist reflected in the memories of the units of psychology unfolded in the operation zones.

Given the extensive investigation of this phenomenon in the sanitary and educational environments, we intend, through a retrospective study, to determine as morale is constituted like a protection factor that could come to reduce the first symptoms of the labor stress in military units. We propose a new model based on the positive psychology principles, to be developed during the peacekeeping operations.

1.0 INTRODUCTION

As many other countries, Spain is currently involved in a number of international missions – Afghanistan, Bosnia, Kosovo, Haiti, etc.

Compared with traditional combat missions, peacekeeping operations have historically been viewed as relatively benign although they frequently involve changing goals, ambiguous roles and other adverse circumstances that may result in negative psychological and physical symptoms.

Soldiers assigned those missions undergo changes in working conditions, the impact of a different climate, the cultural gap, and especially the distance from their families.

Separation can be particularly experienced as a stressful vital event.

Adaptation to a new environment involves an extra effort, regardless of the individual job.

Both officers and soldiers may be vulnerable to mission related stress.

While deployed, peacekeepers have often to face traumatic events, characteristic of war zones, for example, service members may witness death, may be in charge of clearing civilian wounded or killed, or may be involved in serious accidents.

Garrido, M.J.; Muñoz, M.J. (2006) Morale as a Protection Factor against Mission Related Stress. In *Human Dimensions in Military Operations – Military Leaders' Strategies for Addressing Stress and Psychological Support* (pp. 10-1 – 10-20). Meeting Proceedings RTO-MP-HFM-134, Paper 10. Neuilly-sur-Seine, France: RTO. Available from: http://www.rto.nato.int/abstracts.asp.



All types of operations, whether combat, peace enforcing, peace keeping, humanitarian and non-governmental, lower the morale of service personnel [1].

Even worst, as Bramsen et al. [2] reported, 85% of peacekeepers had witnessed shooting, and 47% had seen people dead or wounded.

Brett and Litz [3] examined the different psychological problems resulting from both low stressors and extreme stressors:

Low Stressors	Extreme Stressors
Boredom	Extreme powerlessness
Role-conflict	Guilt
Confinement	Terror
Risk of terrorism	Moral conflict

2.0 RATIONALE

Once we have described how stress impacts peacekeeping missions [2,4,5], and how high morale can influence the success of a mission [6], it is necessary to understand moral all a way of avoiding stress.

Therefore, we suggest a specific program, the use of positive psychology as a means of influencing performance.

As Former Secretary General of UN (1953-1961) Dag Hammarskjold stated: "*Peacekeeping is not a job for soldiers, but only soldiers can do peacekeeping*" [7].

3.0 GENERAL OBJETIVE

The general aim of this study is to develop a specific program to maintain and/or increase peacekeeper morale. This program is based on the principles of positive psychology.

We expect that this paper contributes to an open dialogue about the psychological demands of peacekeepers by generating information useful both for training and for treating stress related problems.

4.0 SPECIFIC OBJETIVES

To analyse, according to the principles of positive psychology, how morale can change the negative effects of mission-related stress.

To Analyse the characteristics and causes of mission related stress, and the different ways of coping with it.

5.0 THE PSYCHOLOGIST'S ROLE

The psychologist plays a crucial role in the international missions. The main functions to be performed are as follows:

•Evaluation of psychological fitness of service personnel at the beginning of the mission.

•Providing behaviour guidelines and information as to how to communicate with theirs relatives.

•Psychological interventions in the zone of operations.

•Evaluation of personnel at the end of a mission.

6.0 EVALUATION OF (PHYSICAL AND PSYCHOLOGICAL) APTITUDE LEGISLATION

At present, in the Armed Forces, a psychological evaluation of the personnel which is going to be sent to a mission is conducted by means of the psychological testing called "Test of Adaptation 6R". It is applied by the psychologists in the quarter preceding the beginning of the mission. A report with the results is drafted. The report is sent as confidential form to the unit where the evaluated person is destined. Another copy of this report is sent to the Directorate of Medical Services in Madrid. The "purpose of the test is to detect possible alterations, that are suspect of be incompatible with the enlistment to a certain mission" (Technical Directive 03/03 of the MAPER on "Protocol of medical and psychological examination for the displaced personnel in operation areas outside the national territory"). In the event that the person would have a psychological disorder, a psychiatric examination would be required (Medical Psychiatric Court) to evaluate in a stricter way the current psychological status of the patient (message of JEME/CMOT reference 517/PER, no. 994922571, 25th of October of 1999). In the phase of concentration, prior to the mission, a psychologist (typically, the one who will accompany the international mission) sets behavioral standards for the military staff and their families. Advice is also offered on the way and the procedures to contact relatives, partners, etc, at distance. Once in operations area, the psychologist can work on different fronts. The mental health prevention plan (primary prevention) is very important [8]. It's necessary to implement intervention programs, whilst not forgetting the clinical intervention (secondary and tertiary prevention) when problems have already arisen.

After the mission, the same Test of adaptation 6R is carried out, and like at the beginning, the results of the psychological reports are evaluated, proceeding accordingly.

Regarding the Spanish legislation on the evaluation of the medical and psychological fitness, the Royal Decree 944/2001, 3rd of August 2001, approves the Regulation to determine the psychophysical aptitude of the Armed Forces personnel.

Since 1974, when the clinical psychologist Freudenberger coined the term "burnout" to describe the professional wearing down or overload, many authors understand this syndrome as a form of labor stress [9] and study it accordingly, relating it to the jurisprudence and effective legislation [10,11]. It is important to consider that the "Burnout" is a result of chronic stress [12].

The economic and human consequences of the stress in private companies (organizations) have motivated the studies about this phenomenon. So we can find examples like the one of

"European Conference on Stress at Work", conducted in Brussels in 1993 [13], where several studies were presented evaluating the economic costs of stress for the organizations.

7.0 CONCEPTUALIZATION

7.1 The concept of stress

The term stress was used for by Cannon [14] the first time in 1911, Selyes [15] (1920) considers stress as a non-specific answer of the organism to any demand.

The stress can be then considered as an emergency-adaptive survival process that generates emotions.



Stress unchains from any stimulation change or alteration of routine, whether the circumstances are positive or negative, Stress also mobilizes a wide range of coping, energizing and instigating behaviour. Mason (1975) emphasizes the importance of the emotional factors, in the stress answer.

7.2 Stress triggering

Common Stressors

Among common combat and peacekeeping-related stressors there are the sudden changes in lifestyle, separation from family, exhaustion, adverse climatic conditions, uncertainty about the mission length, and demoralization about mission efficacy.

Unique stressor

Peacekeeping-related stress include:

- Feeling of helplessness about reducing people's suffering and improving their security.
- Boredom
- Conflict about rules and duties
- Taunting and harassment by civilians
- Uncertainty about roles and conditions under which offensive action is defined as acceptable.

Additional stressors

Stressors unique to peacekeeping include proximity to potentially hostile individuals necessary to provide humanitarian assistance, protection and deterrence [16].

7.3 Consequences of stress

Cannon (1914) talks about the response of attack or avoidance, as one of the main consequences of stress, a mechanism of emergency that in a very short period of time will energise the organism to respond against the threat by attacking or avoiding. Physiological mechanisms, discharge of the SNA: facilitates liberation hormones by the Suprarenal marrow (adrenaline and noradrenalin). Activation system somatic, increasing muscular tone and respiratory frequency.

Selye takes advantage of Cannon's theory and develops the GAS (General Adaptation Syndrome) which displays three stages – alarm, resistance and exhaustion.

A. Alarm reaction. Immediate reaction to a Stressor. "Fight of Flight".

B. <u>Stage of Resistance or Stage of Adaptation</u>. During this phase, if the stress continues the body adopts to the Stressor. It is exposed to.

Huether [17]: suggested that this stress might allow persons to change the way they think and act for the better.

C. <u>Stage of exhaustion</u>. The stress has continued for some time. The body's resistance to the stress may gradually be reduce or may collapse quickly.

Soldiers who experience long-term stress may need to be evacuated.

Lazarus and Folkman (1984) [18] introduces cognitive aspects in the stress development. According to this model, stress depend upon a person's cognitive appraisal of events and circumstances

and the ability to cope, the end result of the person's transaction with the environment.



Personality variables such as hardiness, have been offered for explaining individual differences in the cognitive appraisal of novel and threatening situations and consequent reactions (Lazarus, 1993).

McCrae [19] also highlighted the influence of neuroticism, a personality trait predisposing an individual toward experiencing negative affect, another characteristic potentially influencing an individual's appraisal of stress.

7.4 Ways of coping

COPING STRATEGIES: concrete processes in each context, highly moneychangers depending on the triggering situations.

STYLES OF COPING: personal predisposition's to face up the situations.

A) Method:

- Active: mobilises efforts
- Passive: does not do anything, wait
- Avoidance: to avoid or to flee the situation.

B) Focalisation:

- Directed al problem
- Directed to the emotional answer
- Directed to modify the revaluation initial problem.

C) Activity mobilised:

- Cognitive efforts
- Behaviour efforts.

8.0 STRESS IN THE WORK PLACE: AN INTEGRATIVE MODEL

Throughout the years, different models have been proposed to study stress [13], trying to introduce all the relevant variables or factors [20]. In this field Peiró [12]proposed an integrative model of labor stress that articulates six factors:

- 1. Environmental variable (stress factors and resources).
- 2. Characteristics of the person
- 3. Subjective experience.
- 4. Responses of the people: ways of coping
- 5. Results of the experience of stress.
- 6. Stress consequences.

8.1 Stressful Factors in the Working Environment

When studying the stress factors in the work scope, it is important to divide them in different groups [21] in order to facilitate their approach later during the treatment programme.

1. The INTRINSIC FACTORS AT WORK are:

- a) Poor working conditions.
- b) Shift allocation.
- c) Working hours.
- d) Salary.



- e) Displacements.
- f) Labor risks.
- g) New technologies.
- 2. The STRESS FACTORS are:
- a) Role Ambiguity [22].
- b) Conflict of roles [22].
- c) Degree of responsibility.
- 3. The RELATIONS AT WORK are:
- a)Difficulties with the boss, colleagues, subordinates, etc.

4. The RELATION BETWEEN WORK AND THE FAMILY.

5. The STRESS RELATED TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF THE PROFESSIONAL CAREER:

a) Lack of security at work.

6. The ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE AND CULTURE:

- a) Organizational style.
- b) Lack of participation.
- c) Poor communication.

8.2 Stress at the Work Place: Means of Evaluation

The following methods evaluate stress [23, 24]:

Listings ("checklists").

Administrative data.

Questionnaires.

The project "ESTRESA" [25] allowed the development of a valid instrument for the evaluation of stress and anxiety at international level. It has been validated in many samples and adapted to several countries.

Concerning the instruments of measurement [26,13] of work stress, we can mention, amongst others:

- Inventory of situations and answers of anxiety (ISRA) [27].
- Questionnaire of labor adaptation [26].
- SCOPE [28].
- Occupational Stress Inventory [29].
- Maslach Burnout Inventory [30].
- Work Stress Inventory Scale [31].
- Ways of Coping [32,33].
- COPE Inventory [34].



- Inventario de Valoración y Afrontamiento (IVA) [35].
- Cuestionario de Satisfacción Laboral [26].
- Cuestionario sobre el Estrés en el lugar de trabajo [24].

9.0 MORALE

In order to increase morale, it is necessary to define and understand morale. It has been a load of definition, the Real Dictionary of Spanish Tongue defines morale as "the mood in a given moment, whether individual or collective. Related to the troops, spirit or trust in victory." But this definition is too generic for useful military application.

What is meant by morale in the military context?

Among the numerous definitions of morale, the one provided by John Baynes [36] offers a good starting point. He defines morale as *"the enthusiasm and persistence with which a member of a group engages in the prescribed activities of that group"*.

The ability of the soldier to place the mission ahead of his own personal concerns, even when death may result, is fundamental to maintain the morale in a military unit.

Doctor Schneider, a faculty member at the School of Advance Military Studies, provides a good macro explanation of morale and the impacts of its loss. He writes, "Morale can be viewed as the magnitude of will within the army. Will is the engine of all actions. A demoralized army cannot act in a positive fashion.

In the military milieu, "morale" and "motivation" are frequently used interchangeably. However, morale highlights the condition of the group (or the unit), while motivation describes principally the attribute of an individual).

Frederick Manning defines morale as "a function of <u>cohesion and esprit de corps</u>." Unit cohesion always has been necessary in combat, because each member of the unit relies on the other in order to survive and to carry out successful combat operations.

History gives us abundant examples to show that the decline of the morale can be <u>relatively independent</u> of the state of physical fatigue and of the strategic position of the army at a moment given [37].

The Dr. Mira y López, defined the moral differences among the soldiers of battle and the ones that are in rearguard.

Soldiers <u>soldiers in the battle front</u> were characterised by camaraderie, friendship and confidence (measures which it has been shown, are directly correlated with morale), whereas the soldiers in rearguard were characterised by diffusion of rumours, decline of the morale, pessimism and increase the number of drops).

Following what doctor said, the effort to preserve the morale in missions should be focused on that zone. Including recourses to agents, in order to detect and isolate those who speak too much and act as leaders in the decline of the moral.

"the fight against the rumours is as important as the fight against the enemy". (Mira y López, 1944).

There are many factors that influence the morale of an individual or a unit.

Baynes suggests that the indicators of good morale during peacetime are

Cheerfulness, behaviour (conversely no chronic behaviour problems), and good treatment accorded to visitors. The wartime indicators of morale include cheerfulness, health (comprised of good field hygiene and low sick call rates), willingness to patrol and victory in battle.



Cheerfulness, physical courage, esprit of corps and endurance personify morale.

Other Authors as Knowlton, include in his morale definition: leadership, pride in unit, patriotism and unit cohesiveness.

In a study, conducted by the ARI (Army Research Institute), determined that morale was a sum of three major components: motivation, satisfaction and group cohesion.

To the major Burwell [38], from the school of Advanced Military Studies (United States), morale is a measure of how people feel about themselves, their team and their leaders. High morale comes from good leadership, shared and mutual respect. Morale enables a soldier to place accomplishment of the mission above his own personal needs, even when death is eminent. Morale's component are cohesion, motivation and satisfaction.

There is three classical theorists that establish morale as a viable candidate to be a United States Army principle of war: Clausewitx, Fuller and Marshall.

C.V.CLAUSEWITZ

Carl Von Clausewitz talks about the significance of morale in his classical writing *On War*, written at the conclusion of the Napoleonic Wars in the early 1800's. To Clausewitz the objective of war is the imposition of your will on your opponent. The way to achieve your objective is the destruction of your enemy's army through battle. In his opinion the continued maintenance of morale is a primary consideration. Clausewitz writes that the lack of morale is usually the main factor for defect in battle.

To Clausewitx, morale, coupled with leadership, cohesion and discipline provides the iron-will to overcome the fog and friction present on the battlefield, the theorist must bear in mind the part that morale factors may play in it.

J.F.C.FULLER

In The foundations in the Science of Warfare, printed in 1926, it is possible to find Fuller's writings.

Fuller talks about three spheres of warfare, based on the threefold order of man. The morale sphere is comprised of three forces: fear, morale and courage. The sum of these forces equates to will. Will provides the direction to movement. But it should be noted that this movement could be, in Clausewitzian terms, positive or negative. If the movement is aligned with the commander's intent, there is positive movement.

Fuller establishes the framework of the moral sphere as it relates to the leader and the led. He invokes reason, imagination and courage for the soldiers.

S.L.A MARSHALL

Brigadier General S.L.A. Marshall, the historian for the European Theater of War, during World War Two, came to his conclusion about morale through his analysis of tactical units shortly after their involvement in battle.

Marshall offers three essential of combat moral incentive

-Knowledge of the National Cause and maximum knowledge of the forfeits in the battle which is being fought.

-Faith in the power of the company and the higher tactical commands power.

-The above must be combined with the confidence in leadership and with the acceptance of the basic philosophy governing human relationships within an army.



Marshal says that morale is a collective human emotions. Marshall suggests that cohesion, communication, and leadership are the key to maintaining and preserving morale.

GENERAL GEORGE S. PATTON

To him, the cornerstone of morale was founded in discipline and leadership. Discipline enabled a man to overcome his fears and leadership provided the direction for his action.

Historically the most studied variables influencing morale has been:

- Cohesion
- Esprit de Corps
- Individuals Factors
- Group Factors: (Communication).

Cohesion

"Four brave men who do not know each other, will never be able to attack to a lion. Four less brave men who know each other enough, and they are sure about their possibilities, and helping each other, will attack efficiently to the lion [39].

The most popular definition of group cohesion was offered by Festinger in 1950. Festinger defined cohesion quite broadly as "the resultant of all the forces acting on all the members to remain in the group". Festinger's definition grew out of his study of the cohesion of voluntarily formed social groups. As a result, it seems overinclusive in the military context, since military personnel have only a limited role in choosing their unit memberships.

Some military Researchers [40,41] draw a distinction between:

- Horizontal Cohesion (members of a unit)

- Vertical Cohesion (units members ant their leaders).

Some others use the terms "morale" and "cohesion" as interchangeably. But Others distinguish morale from cohesion in two ways:

1. Cohesion is generally viewed as a characteristic of small groups [42,41], some view morale as a characteristic of individuals as well as groups [6,43].

2. Morale is generally viewed as a more general, diffuse, and inclusive concept than cohesion, it is though to reflect the general level of motivation and satisfaction among members of a group or organization [44].

Cohesion is also very important because of their effects on Psychological Coping.

A number of empirical studies [45,47] report a positive correlation between unit cohesion and psychological coping.

Esprit de corps

Patriotism, ideology and politics areas are important to incentives to the soldiers, talking about peacekeeping and also combat operations [48].

Soldiers [49] need to have a justification to do something legal.

Individual factors

Biologic and psychological needs. Good health, good food, adequate tranquillity, and dream. Clean and dry ropes, facilitates to take a shower, and protection are the more describes variables to describe high morale.

Mission Accomplishment: "For each soldier, a goal, a role, and a reason for self confidence.



Rules of Engagement: The role in peacekeeping missions or in a combat situation is also crucial in maintaining high motivation.

Self-Confidence

A Soldier's role and self-confidence are both developed through the extensive training.

Training is a key ingredient to increasing or maintaining the soldier's morale [50].

Group Factors

Numerous authors talks about how group factors (cohesion, identification with a group, unit feeling) are probably the more important components to develop a good motivation [51].

- Leadership:

According to Burwell [38]. High morale comes from good leadership, shared hardship, and mutual respecto.

Donald Bradshaw [52] said: "A leader's professional competency is the primary leadership factor that soldiers say decreases their stress".

Leaders become a model of inspiration.

Communication

Another important role that the leader must take on is that information provider for his subordinates. Communication and trust between the provider and recipient are crucial. Knowledge, reduce the uncertainty factor which often plays on the soldier stress.

An important measure is to control the communication with relatives.

- 1. To avoid all the information that can be used for the enemy if they read the letter.
- 2. Do not worry relatives with unpleasant stories, give them good impression of its state of spirit.
- 3. Advancing three or four days the date of its letter so that seem but recent.
- 4. Shipment of smiling photos, even with some jokes.

9.1 How to increase morale

Transfer of people (soldiers, recruits...) to the rearguard.

Sending to the rearguard a hero of the front line, with the objective of increasing the morale, and vice versa with recruits from the rearguard to the front, to distract the troops and stimulate exchange of information [37].

Labuc give as a brief util protocol to be used on peacekeeping operations.

Knowing their soldiers

- Be friendly and open-minded
- To know some details from her or his personal life (wife's name, place of birth...)
- To Pay Attention to the personal problems
- To be worried about their well-being
- To share bad moments
- To show trust
- To regard good actuations, and never criticism him in front of their colleagues.
- To match experts soldiers with inexpert ones.

Be careful with following signals

- Inexperience and young soldiers.
- Soldiers with personal problems.
- Soldiers uncommunicative or negative.
- Pessimistic soldiers.



9.2 How to Animate the Esprit de Corps

Know the military unit

- To praise the soldiers and to the equip for good actuations.
- To highlight the importance of the unit role
- To express trust
- Involve the unit to elaborate future plans
- To distribute task justly
- To animate, to motivate, and to give sense of the purpose.

Be careful with following signals

- Lack of esprit de corps
- Low productivity
- Particular or general no satisfaction
- Hypersensitive to the criticisms
- Do not obey orders, or do not pay attention to what superior says.

9.3 Morale Evaluation

Two different means can be used to explore collective morale:

- Observation (direct or indirect)
- Experimentation (interviews, questionnaires and discussions).

Observation of morale high indices

High percentage of voluntary enlistment for the positions of combative danger.

Rain of letters, projects, suggestions and inventions voluntarily offered to the official institutions, to enlarge the efficiency AMBITIONS/ PROACTIVE SOLDIERS.

Exhibition of all types of insignia, flags, portraits and military emblems.

•Applauses and cheers to the representatives to the armed forces or to the STATE representatives, whether physically present or in monuments

•Optimistic jokes

•Absence of rumours

•Plans and projects back home.

Observation of morale low indices

•Increase of the number of drops and requests to quit or to elude risks and/or obligations

- •Increase of discussions and criticism about governmental politics
- •Progressive indifference
- •Lack of help for meetings, magazines and parades of the FAS

•Jokes about the own defects of national organization

- •Apparition of shell shock (war neurosis) as problem among the combative forces
- •Easy diffusion of rumours with respect to losses, or fading away decreasing the morale.

Questionnaires

CRMQ The study utilized the Combat Readiness Morale Questionnaire (CRMQ), which is frequently utilized by Israeli Defense Forces (IDF). The method used during this study was to administer the CRMQ to two.

U.S. armored cavalry units with similar composition and one IDF unit.



10.0 THE POSITIVE PSYCHOLOGY APPROACH

Before Word War Two the two world war the objectives of psychology were [53].

- 1.Healing diseases.
- 2.Developing intelligence and talent.
- 3.Helping people have more productive and realizes lives.

After Word War Two the objectives of psychology were:

1. Mental Disorders and the human suffering.

This focus on the negative theoretical pathogenic framework has a negative impact on the study of the human mind and forgets/denies any positive characteristics of the human being. Prevention is made very difficult since it is always understood as the need to avoid or eliminate negative aspects or emotions [54].

In the 1960's, humanist psychologists (Rogers, Fromn, Maslow) returned to the positive tendencies.

Seligman introduces the term *positive psychology*, with the main objective to improve the quality of life and prevent the onset of mental disorders. He insists on the need of building competences to achieve greater progress in prevention.

Seligman founded the Positive Psychology Center, a new branch of psychology which focuses on the empirical study of such things as positive emotions, strengths-based character, and healthy institutions. His research has demonstrated that it is possible to be happier (to feel more satisfied, to be more engaged with life, find more meaning, have higher hopes, and probably even laugh and smile more, regardless of one's circumstances. Positive psychology interventions can also lastingly decrease depression symptoms.

Seligman [55] describes three pillars in positive psychology:

First: The study of subjective well-being

- When about the past:
- Life satisfaction
- Contentment.
 - When about the present:
- Happiness
- Joy
- Exuberance
- Happiness.
- Pleasure.
 - When about the future
- Faith
- Optimist
- Hope.

•Second: The study of positive individual traits:

- Intimacy
- Integrity
- Leadership
- Altruism



- Vocation
- Wisdom.

•Third: the study of positive institutions

Positive psychology is "a branch of the psychology that tries to understand, through the scientific research, the process that underlie the positive emotions and qualities of the human being, ignored for a long time by psychology".

Positive psychology remembers the great human capacity to adapt, and make sense of the most (terrible) traumatic experiences, which has been ignored for years.

10.1 Positive Emotions

Positive Emotions solve relative related questions to personal growth, the social connection and improve that way of thinking. Positives Emotions improve the ability to cope with adversity (Psychological Resilience) [56,57,58,59].

Barbara Frederickson refers Positives Emotions adaptive value [60,61].

<u>Optimism</u>

People who are more optimistic tend to have a better mood, they are more perseverant and are more successful. They tends to find a good answer in traumatic and stressful situations [62,63,64,65,66,67,68].

Resilience

It is the capacity to project yourself in the close future, in spite of stressful situations, difficult conditions and traumatic situations, Healthy Adjustment to the adversity [69,70].

Hardiness appears for the first time in 1972, when Kobasa y Maddi developed the concept. They found that hardiness people has a very big engagement sense, a very strong control sensation about events and they are more opened to the life changes. They usually understand stressful situations and painful experiences, as a part of the life.

Happiness/Well-being

Happiness includes other kinds of emotions. Some of them do not need to be absolutely positives, for example: fight, engagement, hope, or even pain [71].

Flow

This term has been developed by the psychologist Mihalyi Csikzentmihalyi [72], who has defined it as an stage where the person is completely absorbed in one activity, getting his own pleasure and joy by itself. In this stage, time goes by so fast, and people feel a very big enormous satisfaction.

Creativity

The capacity to create, to produce new projects, to have answers. Some authors say creativity is the basic principle to develop the personal intelligence and to get progress in the society [73,74].

Tony Buzan [75] created a new technique called Mental Maps. It is a graphic representation of one idea, project, conference... It is a new thinking way: <u>irradiating thinking</u>. The principal application is to explore problems and generation of solutions and ideas in order to solve it.

<u>Humour</u>

Numerous studies have supported the anecdotal view that humour and laughter are therapeutic for relieving tension and anxiety [76,77].



Whereas stress is linked to psychological distress [78,79], humour appears to buffer an individual against the negative effects of stress.

The positive effects of humour may be explained by the role of humour in the cognitive appraisal of threatening, hence stressful, situations and its function as a coping strategy in general.

Kuiper [76] suggest that a better sense of humour does facilitate more positive cognitive appraisals. They found that humour is associated with healthier coping by reappraising stressful events as less threatening and more challenging.

10.2 Barbara Frederickson's Model

The Importance of the positive emotions as the way to settle many of the problems that generate negative emotions and how, through them, the human being can manage to recover to the difficult moments and to leave fortified.

The positive emotions can be channelled toward the prevention, the processing and the coping, so that they be transformed into true weapons to face problems [58].

10.3 How to Measure Positive Emotions

• Instrument of measure based on the positive resources classification [79]:

•"Inventory of fortresses" (VIA), developed by the value in action institute under the direction of Martin Seligman and Christopher Peterson. *5 main fortresses exist (study with 4000 people) : "The gratitude, the optimism, the enthusiasm, the curiosity and the capacity to love and of to be loved".

•Emotion Questionnaires

•Authentic Happiness Inventory

- •CES-D Questionnaire
- •General Happiness Scale

•Engagement Questionnaires

- •Brief Strengths Test
- •The Gratitude Survey
- •The Grift Survey
- •Optimism Test
- •Transgression Motivations Questionnaire

•VIA Signature Strengths Survey "Inventory of fortresses" (VIA), developed by the value in action institute under the direction of Martin Seligman and Christopher Peterson. *5 main fortresses exist (study with 4000 people) : "The gratitude, the optimism, the enthusiasm, the curiosity and the capacity to love and of to be loved".

- •Work-Life Questionnaire
- Meaning Questionnaire
- Close Relationships Questionnaire
- Meaning in Life Questionnaire
- •Life Satisfaction Questionnaire
- •Approaches to Happiness Questionnaire

•Satisfaction with Life Scale.

11.0 OBJECTIVES FOR THE FUTURE

Creation of new evaluation tools focused on identifying individual fortresses, to be able to orient prevention and to promote personal development [53].

Design of intervention programs and techniques directed to develop the valuable resources that the people, the groups and the communities [53].



11.1 To Potenciate Positive Emotions during Peacekeeping Missions

We pretend to develop a program for military personnel deployed on peacekeeping operations that will focus on:

- 1. Optimism
- 2. Psychological Resilience
- 3. Flow
- 4. Happiness/ Well-Being
- 5. Creativity
- 6. Humour.

12.0 PROPOSAL FOR RESEARCH

1. Elaboration of an ad hoc evaluation battery consisting of the following instruments:

- Labor stress evaluation questionnaire.
- Questionnaire of morale based on positive emotions.
- 2. Pre Mission measure.
- 3. Use of experimental and control groups in the operation theatre.
- 4. Implementation of the activities that increase morale (workshops with psychologist).
- 5. Post mission measurement.
- 6. Checking the efficacy of the processing.

Following Maslach [80,81,82,30] from a Biopsychosocial and the Positive Psychology views, we suggest several techniques to operate in three different levels:

- Individual level
- Social Level
- Institutional Level.

Intervention at individual level

"working better rather than working harder"

1.Realistic goals.

2. Doing the same thing in a different way (try to avoid routines).

3.Reflecting instead of acting out.

4. Taking situations from perspective.

"to take care of oneself first, then of others"

We must take care of ourselves, to be able to take care of the others. The proposed strategies would be, amongst others:

1. To highlight positive aspects (if nobody regards us, let regard ourselves for the good work done). Positive Emotions workshop.

Through an emphatic communication, and an active listening, we treat to increase the emotional ventilation of feelings, restructuring perceptions and ideas related to traumatic experiences, trying to avoid post-traumatic disorder in the near future. (Debriefing, validation and decompression: to relieve soldiers from anxieties, and strain. Daily meeting with psychologist to talk about everything... even with a cup of coffee, a coke or a glass of wine.)

2. To know yourself (Analysing our reactions, acknowledging our limits, learning from our faults, developing abilities to relax ourselves -physical and psychological-. Relaxation techniques, imagination training, breathing techniques.



3. Maintaining private life (nothing can invade it; if relatives are very far away from us, help establish good communications net).

- 4. Treatment of psychological disorders by medical service.
- 5. Evacuate if necessary.

Intervention at social and institutional levels

Reporting the importance of the social support (relatives, friends, colleagues, immediate superior, chaplain, psychologist, etc.).

Reducing leisure time in order no to ruminate and increasing the time with psychologist in group activities (noxious habit avoiding).

Paying attention to the importance of the conditions or facilities (beds, showers, illumination, climatic conditions, gym, noise, insects).

Inform about the importance of the social support (relatives, friends, colleagues, immediate superior, sacerdotal, psychologist, etc.)

Reduce personal free time in order not to think too much, and increase the time with the psychologist in group activities (avoiding noxious habits).

Pay attention at the importance of the installations (beds, showers, illumination, climatic conditions, noise, insects).

13.0 REFERENCES

[1] Kirkland, F., Harverson, R., Bliese, P. (1996). Stress and psychological readiness in post-cold war operations. *Parameters*, 79-91.

[2] Bramsen, I., Dirkwager, A.J.E., & Van der Ploeg, H.M. (2000). Predeployment personality traits and exposure to trauma as predictor of posttraumatic stress symptoms: A prospective study of former peacekeepers. *American Journal of Psychiatry*, 157(7), 1112-1119.

[3] Brett, T. & Litz. (1996). The psychological demands of peacekeeping for military personnel. *NCP Clinical Quarterly* 6(1).

[4] O'Brien. L.S. (1994). What will be the psychiatric consequences of the war in Bosnia? A bad war from the psychiatric point of view, leading to hidden pathology. *British Journal of Psychiatry*, 164, 443-447.

[5] King, D.W., King, L.A., Foy, D.W., Keane, T.M., Fairbank, J.A. (1999). Posttraumatic stress disorder in a national sample of female and male Vietnam veterans: Risk factors, war-zone stressors, and resilience-recovery variables. *Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, 108, 164-170.

[6] Manning, F. J. (1991). Morale, cohesion, and esprit de corps. In R. Gal & A. D. Mangelsdorff (Eds.), *Handbook of Military Psychology*: 453-470. New York: Wiley.

[7] Moskos, C.C: (1975). UN peacekeepers: The constabulary ethic and military professionalism. *Armed Forces And Society*, *1*, 388-401.

[8] De Pablo, J. M. (1986). La asistencia psicológica clínica en las Fuerzas Armadas. *Temas para Debate*, *ler* trimestre, 4-5.



[9] Fredenberger, H. J. (1974). Staff burnout. Journal of Social Issues, 30, 159-165.

[10] Tejero, R., Graña, J. L, Muñoz-Rivas, M. J., and Peña, M. E. (2002). Consideraciones sobre el síndrome del "burnout" como una forma de estrés laboral. Jurisprudencia y legislación relacionadas. *Psicopatología Clínica, Legal y Forense, 2(1),* 95-115.

[11] Graña, J. L., Peña, M. E. and Tejero, R. (2002). Informe pericial: un caso de estrés laboral. *Psicopatología Clínica, Legal y Forense, 2(1),* 117-139.

[12] Fuertes Rocañín, J. C. and De la Gándara, J. J.(1998). El Bournout en el Ejército. En De la Gándara (Ed.), *Estrés y Trabajo. El síndrome del burnout* (pp.159-186). Madrid: Cauce Editorial.

[13] Merín Reig, J., Cano-Vindel, A. And Miguel Tobal, J. J. (1995). El Estrés laboral: Bases teóricas y marco de intervención. *Ansiedad y Estrés, 1, (2-3),* 113-130.

[14] Cannon, WB. 1914. The emergency function of the adrenal medulla in pain and other emotions. *American Journal Physiology l* 33: 356-372.

[15] Selye H, The Physiology and Pathology of Exposure to Stress. A Treatise Based on the Concepts of the General Adaptation Syndrome and the Diseases of Adaptation, Montreal, Acta Inc 1950;2-13.

[16] Bolton, E. (2005). Traumatic Stress and Peacekeepers. A National Center for PTSD Facto Sheet.

[17] Huetner, G. (1996). The central adaptation syndrome: Psychosocial stress as a trigger for adaptive modifications of brain structure and brain function. *Progress in Neurobiology* 48: 569-612.

[18] Lazarus, R. & Folkman, S. (1984). Stress, Appraisal and Coping. New York: Springer.

[19] Costa, P. T., J.R., y McCrae, R. R. (1990). Personality: Another "hidden factor" in stress research. *Psychological Inquiry*, *1*, 22-24.

[20] De Dios, A. (1998). Burnout: Un Modelo de Estrés laboral. En De la Gándara (Ed.), *Estrés y Trabajo. El síndrome del burnout* (pp.89-136). Madrid: Cauce Editorial.

[21] García, C. (1998). Estrés y Trabajo. En De la Gándara (Ed.), *Estrés y Trabajo. El síndrome del burnout* (pp.15-88). Madrid: Cauce Editorial.

[22] Peiró, J.M. (1993): Desencadenantes del Estrés Laboral. Madrid. Eudema Psicología.

[23] Kompier, M. A. (1993). *Company Instruments for Monitoring Stress*. European Conference on Stress at work. A call for action: Proceedings.

[24] Kompier, M. and Levi, L.(1995). *Estrés en el trabajo: causas, efectos y prevención*. Fundación europea para la mejora de las Condiciones de Vida y de Trabajo.

[25] Brengelmann, J. C. (1987). Estrés y Terapia contra el Estrés: Un Proyecto Internacional. En M.C. López-Altschwager y F. Alcalá-Toca: *Progresos en Análisis y Modificación de Conducta*. J. C. Brengelmann: Publicaciones en España. Valencia: IFT Publicaciones (v.o. 1981).

[26] Melia, J. L. (1994). La medición de la tensión en el trabajo. *Psicología del Trabajo y Organizaciones,* 10(28), 17-37.

[27] Miguel-Tobal, J. J. and Cano Vindel, A. (1986). *Inventario de Situaciones y Respuestas de Ansiedad*. Madrid: Tea Ediciones. (2ª Edic., 1988; 3ª Edic., 1994).



[28] Bregelmann, J. C. (1986). Estrés, superación y calidad de vida en personas sanas y enfermas. *Evaluación Psicológica*, 2, 47-78.

[29] Cooper, C. L., Sloan, S. and Williams, S. (1988). *Stress: Occupational Stress Indicator*. Nfernelson: Windsor.

[30] Maslach, C. and Jackson, S. E. (1986). *MBI: Maslach Burnout Inventory. Manual research edition*. Palo Alto: University of California: Consulting psychologist Press.

[31] Moss, R. H., Insel, P. M. and Humphrey, B. (1974). *Work Environment Scale*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychological Press.

[32] Folkman, S. and Lazarus, R. S. (1980). An Analysis of Coping in a Middle Aged Community Sample. *Journal of Health and Social Behavior*, 21, 219-239.

[33] Folkman, S. and Lazarus, R. S. (1985). If it Changes it Must be a Process: Study of emotion and Coping during Three Stages of a College Examination. *Journal of personality and social Psychology, 48,* 150-170.

[34] Carver, C. S., Scheier, M.F., and Weintraub, J. K. (1989). Assessing Coping Strategies: A theorically Based Approach. *Journal of Personality and social Psychology*, *56*, *2*, 267-283.

[35] Cano Vindel, A. and Miguel-Tobal, J. J. (1992). *Inventario de Valoración y Afrontamiento (IVA)*. Mimeo: Universidad Complutense.

[36] Baynes, J. (1967). Morale: A study of men and courage. New York: Praeger.

[37] Mira y López (1994). Psychiatry in war. Médico-Quirúrgica. Buenos Aires.

[38] Burwell (2000).Morale as a principle of war. Monograph. School of Advanced Military studies. United States Army Command and General Staff College. Fort Leavenworth, Kansas.

[39] Labuc, S (1984).Training to COPE with psychological stress: A discussion paper. Paper presented at TTCPUTP-2 meeting, Cambridge, UK.

[40] Marlowe, D.H. (1959). New manning system field evaluation. (Technical Report no. 1). Washington, D.C: Walter Reed Army Institute of Research.

[41] Siebold, G. L., & Kelly, D. R. (1988). Development of the Platoon Cohesion Index_(Tech Rep. No. 816). Alexandria, VA: U. S. Army Research Institute for Behavioral and Social Sciences.

[42] Mullen, B., Cooper, C. (1994). The relationship between group cohesiveness and performance: An integration. *Psychological Bulletin*, 115, 2210-227.

[43] Gross, . & Martín, W.T. (11952). On group cohesiveness. American Journal of Sociology, 57, 546-554.

[44] Bartone, P. (1988). Fighting morale and confort morale. Presented at Expert Panel on Sustains Operations, US Army Aeromedical Command. Atlanta, GA.

[45] Griffith, J. (1989). The Army's new unit personnel replacement and its relationship to unit cohesion and social support. *Military Psychology*, 1, 17-34.

[46] Manning, F. J. & Fullerton, T. D.(1988), Health and well-being in highly cohesive units of the U.S. Army, (1988). *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 18(6): 503-519.



[47] Marlowe, D.H. (1959). The basic training process. In K.L. Artiss (Ed.), The symptom as communication in schizophrenia, 75-98- New York: Grune Stratton.

[48] Manning, F.J. & Ingraham, L.H. (1987). An investigation into the value of unit cohesion in peacetime. In G.L. Belenky (Ed.), *Contemporary studies in combat psychiatry*, 47-68. Wesport, CT:Greenwood.

[49] Kellet, N.A. (1986). Combat behavior: The role of the regimental system (ORAE Memorandun No. M124) Ottawa, Canada: Department of National Defence. Cited in Manning, F. J. (1991). *Morale, cohesion, and esprit de corps*. In R. Gal & A. D. Mangelsdorff (Eds.), *Handbook of Military Psychology* (pp. 453-470). New York: Wiley.

[50] MacDonald, c. Chamberlain, K. Long N., Pereira-Laird, J., Mirfin, M.K. (1998). Mental Health, physical health, and Stressor reported by New Zealand Defense Force peacekeepers: a longitudinal study. *Military Medicine*, 163(7):477-481.

[51] Grinker, R R. & Spiegel, J.P. (1945). Man under stress. Philadelphia: Blakiston.

[52] Bradshaw, Donald M. "Changing the Organizational Culture." In *Building and Maintaining Healthy Organizations: The Key to Future Success*, ed. Lloyd J. Matthews, 41-68. Carlisle Barracks: U.S. Army War College, Department of Command, Leadership, and Management, 2001. (U413 .D2B83 2001).

[53] Vera, B. (2006). Psicología Positiva: una nueva forma de entender la psicología. *Papeles del Psicólogo*, 27(1), 3-8.

[54] Vecina, M. L. (2006). Emociones Positivas. Papeles del Psicólogo, 27(1), 9-17.

[55] Seligman, M.E.P. and Csikszentmihalyi, M. (2000). Positive Psychology: An Introduction. *American Psychologist*, *55*(1), 5-14.

[56] Aspinwal, L.G. (2001). Dealing with adversity: self-regulation, coping, adaptation, and health. En A. Tesser y N. Schwarz (Eds.), *The Black-well handbook of social psychology*, (Vol.1, pp.159-614). Malden, MA: Backwell.

[57] Carver, C. S. (1998). Resilience and thriving: Issues, models, and linkages. *Journal of Social Issues*, 54, 245-266.

[58] Lazarus, R. S. (1993). From psychological stress to the emotions: A history of changing outlooks. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 44, 1-22.

[59] Lyubomirsky, S., King, L., and Diener, E. (2005). The Benefits of Frequent Positive Affect: Does happiness Lead to Success? *Psychological Bulletin*, *131* (6), 803-855.

[60] Frederickson, B. L. (2000). Cultivant Positive emotions to Optimize Health and Well-Being. *Prevention and Treatment*, *3*.

[61] Frederickson, B. L. (2001). The role of positive emotion in positive psychology: The broaden and build theory of positive emotion. *American Psychologist*, *56*, 218-226.

[62] D'Zurilla, T,.J., Chand, E.C. (1997). Optimism and pessimism as partially independent constructors : Relations to positive and negative affectivity and psychological well-being. *Personality and Individual differences*, 23: 433-440.

[63]Chang. E. C. (2000). Optimism and Pessimism using a multimeasure approach. Cognitive Therapy and Research, 18: 143-160.



[64] Marshall, G.N., Wortman, C.B., Kusulas, J.W., Herving, L.K. et al. (1992). Distinguishing optimism from pessimism: relations to fundamental dimension of mood and personality. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 62 (6): 1067-1074.

[65] Peterson, C. (2000) The future of optimism. American Psychologist, 55:44-55.

[66] Scheier, M.F. y Carver, C.S. (1985). Optimism, coping and health: Assessment and implications of generalized outcome expectancies. *Health Psychology*, 4:219-247.

[67] Seligman, M.E.P.(1991). Learned Optimism. How to change your mind and your life. A.A. Kopt, New York.

[68] Avia, M.D. y Vazques, C. (1999). Optimismo inteligente. Alianza Editorial. Madrid.

[69] Kobasa, S.C. (1982) Commitment and coping in stress resistance among lawyers. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 42, 707-717.

[70] Masten, A.S. (2001) Ordinary Magic: Resilience Processes in Development. *American Psychologist*, 56(3): 227-238.

[71] Seligman, M.E.P. (2002). La auténtica Felicidad. Ediciones B. Barcelona.

[72] Csikszentmihalyi, M. (1990). Flow: The psychology of optimal experience. Harper & Row Publisher Inc., New York.

[73] Maslow, A. (1983). La personalidad creativa. Buenos Aires. Kairós.

[74] Puente F.A. (1999). El cerebro creador. Alianza Editorial. Madrid.

[75] Buzan, T. (1996). *El libro de los mapas mentales*. Ediciones Urano. Barcelona.

[76] Kuiper, N. & Martín, R.A. (1993). Coping humor, stress and cognitive appraisals. *Canadian Journal of Behavioral Science*, 25, 81-96.

[77] Lefcourt et al. (1995). Perspective-taking humor: Accounting for stress moderation. Journal of Social and Clinical Psychology, 14, 373-391. cited in Abel M., (2003). Humor, stress and coping strategies. *Humor* 15-4, 365-381.

[78] Abel M., (2003). Humor, stress and coping strategies. *Humor* 15-4, 365-381.

[79] <u>www.Authentichappiness.org</u>

[80] Maslach, C. (1977). *Burnout: a social psychological analysis*. Comunicación presentada en el Congreso de la American psychological Association. San Francisco.

[81] Maslach, C. (1979). The burn-out syndrome and patient care. En C. Garfield (Ed.). *Stress and survival: The emotional realities of life-threatening illness*. St. Louis: Mosby.

[82] Maslach, C. and Jackson, S. E. (1984). Burnout in organizational settings. *Applied social psychology annual*, *5*, 133-153.