What Motivates Norwegian Soldiers to Participate in International Operations?

An Analysis of the Norwegian Contribution to Afghanistan

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**Summary**

The purpose of this study was to identify what motivates Norwegian soldiers’ to participate in international operations. The study was conducted pre-deployment during the preparation phase with 18 soldiers (nine women and nine men) in the Norwegian Provincial Reconstruction Team in Afghanistan. Semi-structured interviews were applied, and eight types of motivations were identified: 1) adventure and excitement, 2) to get experience and to acquire competence, 3) useful merit for future (civil or military) career, 4) economic benefit, 5) the job and the profession, 6) comradeship, 7) to have done it, and, 8) to do something good for others.

The eight motivations identified were organized using a motivation typology with the following categories: paleomodern, modern, and postmodern. All three categories were found among the Norwegian soldiers’, with modern motivations (characterized by material and self-oriented motivations, such as economic benefit, useful merit for future (civil or military) career, and, the job and the profession), and postmodern motivations (characterized by egoistic but not materialistic motivations, such as adventure and excitement, to get experience and to acquire competence, and, to have done it), to be more prevalent than paleomodern motivations (characterized by normative commitments, such as to do something good for others, and comradeship). Two additional factors were identified, relating to and possibly influencing the soldiers’ motivations for participation. These were: a) reasons given for not participating, and b) support from family and friends.
Note on translation:

All translations of Norwegian sources, including citations from newspapers, political or military officials, and all translations of the interview material are my own.

Abbreviations:

INTOPS - International Operations
ISAF - International Security and Assistance Force
NATO - North Atlantic Treaty Organization
PRT - Provincial Reconstruction Team
SFOR - Stabilization Force
UN - United Nations

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All mistakes or omissions in this thesis are mine.

Yvonne Stabell

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1 Introduction

In the fall of 2010, headlines in Norwegian national newspapers stated that Norwegian soldiers think, “War is better than sex” (Johansen, Ege, Hegvik, & Andersen, 2010). The backdrop for this statement was an article in the men’s magazine Alfa. Journalists from the magazine had followed a group of soldiers from the Telemark Battalion (TMBN) during their mission in Afghanistan. Contents and quotes from the article were made available to Norwegian newspapers shortly before the release of the first issue of the magazine.

In an article in the Norwegian newspaper Verdens Gang (VG), soldiers gave the following statements: “To be in battle is worth not getting sex for three months. It might sound silly, but [war] is better than having sex,” and “You don’t sign up to go to Afghanistan to save the world, but to experience a real war” (Johansen et al., 2010).

Following the news story, officers in the Norwegian armed forces and several prominent Norwegian politicians were quick to respond, mainly with statements of disapproval of the attitudes being revealed. The main focus of the following debate concerned whether or not the soldiers’ statements reflected an existing, undesirable culture in the armed forces, and if so, what might be the possible consequences. For instance, the Commander of the Telemark Battalion, Lieutenant Colonel Lars Lervik, said to VG that, “I am worried about the attitudes in my troop. My concern is tied to the role as a Norwegian soldier and the attitudes to take lives” (Johansen et al., 2010).

Similarly, on the very same day that VG published their article, Grete Faremo, the Norwegian Minister of Defence, gave a speech at a conference on attitudes, ethics, and leadership. In her speech, Faremo (2010b) said: “The interviews in the new magazine express inherent attitudes that we cannot accept. These are attitudes that have become detached from the values of the society and the goal of the mission.”

At the same conference, Chief of Defence Harald Sunde said that,
What we can see in today’s VG is a derision of the thousands of men and women who have sacrificed so much to secure a better future in Afghanistan. It is a derision of those who gave their lives doing this job (Andersen, Ege, Enerstvedt, & Kippernes, 2010).

Responses supporting the soldiers were quick to follow. In an article in the Norwegian newspaper Aftenposten, Magnus S. Rønningen, the chief editor of Alfa, was quoted saying that,

There is nothing controversial in these statements, what is controversial is how the armed forces have handled this case. These [soldiers] are some of the finest boys I have met. I am troubled by the way they have been sacrificed by leaders of the armed forces who are obviously more worried of the public opinion and the media at home than for the soldiers they have sent to fight in Afghanistan (Akerhaug, 2010).

In the same article, Jens Jahren, second-in-command at the Military Officers’ Association (Befalens fellesorganisasjon) said that the statements from the soldiers reflect years of Norwegian presence in Afghanistan in a war that has become more and more demanding. Jahren was quoted saying: “This is what the soldiers experience every day. We will never support statements that express a wish to kill. But for the soldiers this might be a way to let off some steam” (Akerhaug, 2010). He also points out that many young men and women, upon their return from war, come home to a society that does not understand what they have been through.

1.1 Research question

Following this incident, there was a prevailing impression expressed by the Norwegian media that the soldiers representing Norway in international operations were young men that were high on adrenaline and looking for adventure (Johansen et al., 2010). Keeping in mind that participating in international operations can be demanding and extremely stressful upon the soldiers, and that quotes might have been taken out of
context, some questions arise: Is participation in international operations attractive primarily to young men looking for adventure, or does it appeal to a more diverse group of people? What motivates a person to sign up for participation in international operations? The debate and the questions gave rise to the following research question:

“What motivates Norwegian soldiers to participate in international operations?”

In order to explore this question, it is necessary to clarify the term “international operation” and to briefly outline relevant background information. International operation in the context of this study is used as a generic term for all types of missions led by the United Nations (UN) and the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO). Norway is a member of both the UN and NATO, and the majority of Norwegian soldiers who participate in international operations are deployed through missions led by either the UN or NATO. To give a better understanding of what this involves, I will present a brief mission history of both the UN and NATO.

**The United Nations**

The deployment of UN military observers to the Middle East in 1948 marked the first peacekeeping mission led by the UN (United Nations Peacekeeping, n.d.-b). Since then, the UN has deployed 67 peacekeeping operations, with a rapid increase in the number of operations being carried out after the end of the Cold War in the early 1990s. Following this, the strategic context for UN Peacekeeping changed from “traditional” missions generally consisting of observational tasks, to more complex “multidimensional” missions designed to ensure implementation of peace agreements and assisting in laying the foundations for sustainable peace (United Nations Peacekeeping, n.d.-b). The nature of the conflicts, which the UN Peacekeepers were asked to deal with, changed.

Originally developed as a means of dealing with inter-State conflict, the UN Peacekeepers became increasingly involved with intra-State conflicts and civil wars during the mid-1990s, such as the former Yugoslavia – UN protection Force (UNPROFOR) and Rwanda – UN Assistance Mission for Rwanda (UNAMIR)
This change in the type of conflicts that the UN Peacekeepers were required to deal with meant that the tasks they were charged with also changed. Their new tasks ranged from helping to build sustainable institutions of governance and human rights monitoring, to security sector reform, disarmament, demobilization, and the reintegration of former combatants (United Nations Peacekeeping, n.d.-b). There are currently 16 UN peace operations deployed on four continents. These include 15 peacekeeping operations, and one special political mission in Afghanistan (United Nations Peacekeeping, n.d.-a).

The North Atlantic Treaty Organization

The end of the Cold War also represented changes for NATO. When established in 1949, one of NATO’s fundamental roles was to act as a powerful deterrent against military aggression. Throughout the entire period of the Cold War, NATO forces were not involved in a single military engagement, but with the end of the Cold War came changes to the international security environment. This altered and added new responsibilities, and NATO undertook an increasingly proactive role within the international community. The first major NATO operation was a peace-support operation in the Balkans in the early 1990s. Since then, NATO has been engaged in missions ranging from combat and peacekeeping, to training and logistics support, to surveillance and humanitarian relief. The International Security Assistance Force (ISAF) in Afghanistan constitutes the Alliance’s most significant operational commitment to date (NATO, 2012, April 29).

1.2 Research objectives

This account of the UN and NATO shows that the nature of today’s operations is different to what it was two to three decades ago. Norway, being a member-state of both the UN and NATO, has an obligation to contribute to international operations with qualified personnel. This presents a challenge to the Norwegian armed forces in terms of recruitment. A key to successful recruitment lies in understanding what motivates men and women to participate in international operations. Naturally, factors
such as age, family situation, previous experience, personal interests, and so on, may influence motivation to varying degrees.

Based on this rationale, I have outlined three questions that will frame the rest of the discussion:

1) How does the motivation to participate in international operations for Norwegian soldiers differ from their counterparts in other European countries?

2) In a comparison of female and male soldiers, are there gender group differences in motivations to participate?

3) To what degree do soldiers take the opinions and support – or lack thereof – of their family and friends into account when making the decision of whether or not to participate in international operations?

The objective of this thesis is to explore these three questions in order to answer the research question: “What motivates Norwegian soldiers to participate in international operations?”

1.3 Thesis outline

This thesis is divided into eight chapters. Chapter 1 has provided a brief, general background for the thesis and specified the research question and the research objectives.

Chapter 2 gives a detailed description of the background for the thesis. Additionally, it provides a detailed presentation of Norway’s role in international operations, and in Afghanistan especially, before it goes on to present existing research on Norwegian soldiers.

Chapter 3 presents the theoretical framework of Moskos’ institution/occupation dichotomy and the motivation typology presented by Battistelli. The chapter then reviews and contextualizes relevant literature and research on motivation for participation in international operations.
Chapter 4 outlines the qualitative, semi-structural interview-based methodology used in this research project, including an overview and a discussion of the limitations and potential problems related to this research project, as well as presenting the analytical framework applied in interpreting the results.

Chapters 5-7 serve as the central chapters for identifying and presenting the findings of this study. They also include a discussion at the end of each chapter on what these findings entail, and how they can be seen in relation to previous research.

Finally, Chapter 8 provides the final conclusions, reflections on the relevance of the results for the Norwegian armed forces and recommendations for future research on the topic of Norwegian soldiers’ participation in international operations.
2 Background

The Norwegian armed forces and the Norwegian government both consider Norwegian participation in international operations an important assignment that will continue to be an ongoing discussion in the political arena. This is expressed by the Norwegian armed forces in their annual reports (Forsvaret, 2010), by the Ministry of Defence on their topic page on international operations (Forsvaret, n.d.-a) and by the current Norwegian government in their Soria Moria Declaration on International Policy (Stoltenberg et al., 2005). Accordingly, Norway will continue to contribute with qualified personnel, both civilian and military, to important international operations led by the UN, NATO and EU (Stoltenberg et al., 2005). With this in mind, it is important to recognize that changes in the global backdrop and in the nature of operations will affect personnel and their families as well as the armed forces as an organization. Norway will continue to be a huge contributor of humanitarian assistance and military forces, and the next section seek to present a more thorough account of what this have demanded of Norway thus far.

2.1 Norwegian participation in international operations

The Norwegian contribution to an international operation is continually manned with contingents until the termination of that commitment. Normal contingent duration is six months on top of the necessary training and setup prior to the deployment. Participation in international operations is a natural and integrated part of the armed forces, and is to be considered a natural career path for personnel with deployment duty (Personellavdelingen, 2005).

A report from the health care services of the armed forces (Forsvarets sanitet, 2011) notes that in the period from 1945 to 2008 approximately 120,800 Norwegian personnel participated in international operations. Some of the biggest contributions by Norway during this time were to the Implementation Force (IFOR) and the Stabilization Force (SFOR) in Bosnia and Herzegovina, the Kosovo Force (KFOR) in
Kosovo, and, the biggest contribution to date, to the International Security and Assistance Force in Afghanistan (Stortingsmelding nr. 34, 2008-2009). Because Norway’s biggest current contribution to international operations is to the ISAF in Afghanistan, it was considered reasonable to choose this mission as the context for this study. The next section will include a brief background history of the Norwegian contribution to the mission in Afghanistan.

2.2 Norway in Afghanistan

The International Security and Assistance Force (ISAF, n.d.) in Afghanistan is a stabilization- and security force, established to support the Government of the Islamic Republic of Afghanistan. This means that the Norwegian soldiers and their international colleagues are in Afghanistan to help the Afghan people, not to govern them. The main role of the ISAF is to assist the Afghan government in the establishment of a secure and stable environment, and in the development of the Afghan National Security Forces through mentoring, training and equipping (ISAF, n.d.). Through its Provincial Reconstruction Teams (PRTs), the ISAF supports reconstruction and development, as well as supporting humanitarian assistance efforts conducted by Afghan government organizations, international organizations, and non-governmental organizations (NGOs) (ISAF, n.d.). The object is for the Afghan government and the Afghan people to gradually take over responsibility for their own security and development, so that the international stabilization- and security force can be reduced over time, and eventually withdraw completely.

The first group of Norwegian military personnel was deployed to Afghanistan in December 2001. By the end of 2010, the Norwegian armed forces had deployed 6,938 Norwegian personnel to Afghanistan, of which 7% of these were women (Forsvarets sanitet, 2011). At the NATO Lisbon Summit in November 2010, it was decided that the Afghan government is to take over the responsibility of the country’s security by the end of 2014. Even so, it is expected that foreign, including Norwegian, presence in Afghanistan will continue after 2014 (Forsvarsdepartementet, n.d.; Stortingsmelding nr. 24, 2010-2011).
During the first half of 2012, 550 Norwegian soldiers were deployed to Afghanistan. During the second half of that year, the Norwegian PRT in Meymaneh will be closed down, and by the summer of 2013 the Norwegian contribution will be assembled at Mazar-e Sharif (Forsvarets mediesenter, 2012; Forsvaretsdepartementet, 2012, October 10).

Between 2001 and 2010, 839 Norwegian personnel in Afghanistan were reported injured, with a total of 948 injuries recorded. By the end of 2011, the number of Norwegian casualties in Afghanistan reached ten (Faremo, 2011; Forsvarets sanitet, 2011).

2.3 Research on Norwegian personnel

Research on Norwegian personnel and their participation in international operations has increased since the first group of soldiers was deployed to Afghanistan, and a sample of relevant studies is presented here. This is not a literature review, but an addition to the background of this research project.

Blix (2007) interviewed seven men on their motivation for and expectations regarding their planned participation in the Norwegian mission in Afghanistan. The object of the study was to examine role expectations and the soldiers’ experiences. Interviews were conducted at home before deployment and in Afghanistan five months later. Blix’s findings after the first interviews showed highly motivated young men. Their motivation to participate was partly idealistic: they wanted to help and to contribute; and partly individualistic: they wanted to achieve personal growth, and they wished to experience something new and exciting (Blix, 2007). Findings after the second interviews showed that the soldiers’ experiences did not live up to their expectations, but Blix (2007) argues that a strong group affiliation, comradeship and a number of exotic experiences during the mission could act as an emotional counter-balancer. During the second interviews the soldiers’ expressed that, despite being disappointed, they were satisfied with their contribution.
Westlye (2009) conducted a study on men in the Norwegian Home Guard (Heimevernet) who were deployed to a guard- and security mission in Afghanistan during the spring and summer of 2008. Motivations to participate in international operations were categorized into: idealism, experience, and materialism. Idealism included questions about the wish to help, patriotism, and loyalty towards the armed forces; experience involved questions about experiencing other cultures, adventure, risk seeking, and the desire to challenge personal boundaries; and materialism included questions about salary, status, career, professional challenges, and future qualifications (Westlye, 2009). Westlye (2009) first distributed a survey to a sample of 12 men. Based on the results of this initial survey, he then went on to interview four of the participants in depth, in order to gain a better understanding of individual motivation to participate in international operations. From his findings, Westlye concluded that the soldiers’ motivations were complex, and the categories idealism, experience and materialism were not found to be mutually exclusive. Motivations to participate in international operations among soldiers in the armed forces were found to be mainly within the categories of materialism and experience. This study did not find any differences in motivation to participate between participants who had children and participants who did not.

In one study on risk perception and motivation to participate in peacekeeping missions, Oterhals (2008) interviewed ten men from the Telemark Battalion. Oterhals found that the men were all highly motivated to participate in peacekeeping missions; it was one of the reasons given as to why the men had applied to the Telemark Battalion in the first place. Six motivations were identified for participating in peacekeeping missions: salary, affiliation, comradeship, self-development/self-actualization, adventure, and finally, a wish to contribute or to help (Oterhals, 2008). These motivations were not fixed, but changed and developed over time. The general perception of risk – concerning the mission – was observed to be high among the participants, while personal risk – the possibility of something happening to them – was perceived to be low. Oterhals (2008) argues that this discrepancy can be seen as a result of the public discourse concerning international operations; more specifically,
that this relates to whether or not the conflict in Afghanistan is to be considered a war. In everyday speech the conflict in Afghanistan is called a war, but the Norwegian government and their officials have been adamant in calling the situation an armed conflict. It has, however, been acknowledged by the Norwegian government that the situation can be considered to be war-like (Faremo, 2010a).

Johannessen (2007) and Totland (2009) both conducted research on the Telemark Battalion. In his study on motivation for recruitment to the Telemark Battalion, Johannessen (2007) identified adventure, risk seeking and comradeship to be the main motivations for participation, followed by money and ideology. During his fieldwork in a recent anthropological study, Totland (2009) found that comradeship, the excitement of going abroad, and the wish to exercise the skills learned through their military service, were strong motivations for participating in the Norwegian mission in Afghanistan.

Interestingly, all the above-mentioned studies were conducted by male researchers and included only male participants. Even though the Norwegian armed forces is a male dominated workplace, findings from a recent study conducted by the Norwegian Defense Research Establishment (Forsvarets Forskningsinstitutt) amongst first-time recruits show that the average military woman has more experience from international operations than the average military man (Steder, Hellum, & Skutlaberg, 2009). Steder, Hellum, and Skutlaberg (2009) considers that one possible explanation for this is that the majority of females in the military work in logistics or support units. Logistics and support are among the main contributions to international operations by Norway, so based on their background and work-experience there is a greater probability for military women than for military men to be involved in international operations. Steder et al. (2009) further deliberates that women’s relatively more frequent participation in international operations could be related to their greater degree of altruism, as compared to their male colleagues. Further, findings from this study show that the motivations for women to enlist in the Norwegian armed forces included the wish for excitement and the desire to experience something new, wanting
a temporary change of lifestyle, or improving their résumé in order to qualify for another profession (Steder et al., 2009).
3 Theoretical framework and literature review

To uphold the obligation of contributing personnel to international operations, the Norwegian armed forces have to recruit personnel for future international operations. To recruit personnel the Norwegian armed forces must be able to motivate men and women to enlist. Motivation is a word that is often used, but what does it mean and why is it of importance? In the following section, I will present the theoretical framework of this study, starting with an account of the concept of motivation.

3.1 Motivation

In psychology, motivation can be understood as “the psychological process that initiates, guides and maintains behavior” (Haukedal, 2008, p. 85). Battistelli (1997) defines motivation as “the ensemble of factors that leads someone to express aspirations, make choices, and assume (to a certain degree) behavioral attitudes”. Both definitions point to the fact that motivation consists of internal, psychological processes that have both internal and external consequences, such as attitudes and behavior. Physiological and external manifestations of motivation are easier to perceive, for example if hungry, a person is motivated to eat, and when cold, he or she is motivated to seek heat. Motivation related to internal or psychological states can be more difficult to apprehend, but examples can be the desire of being respected, of perceiving oneself as being competent or to obtain a job that is experienced as meaningful. This shows that motivation is not one, but several things. A definition of motivation as a psychological process attempts to provide an explanation of what and how behavior is instigated, what direction it has, and why it might be sustained over time.

When investigating motivation for participation to international operations, it is relevant to look at theory concerning the organization of the armed forces. In the next section, I will provide a presentation of the institution versus occupation models.
presented by the American sociologist Moskos (1977, 1986). Continued by a presentation of how this institution/occupation dichotomy have been modified by Battistelli (1997), an Italian sociologist, to investigate soldiers’ motivation to participate in international operations.

3.1.1 Moskos’ institution/occupation dichotomy

In 1977, Moskos presented two models – institution versus occupation – to test the hypothesis that the American military is moving from an institutional format to an occupational format. An institution is legitimized in terms of values and norms: that is, a purpose transcending individual self-interest in favor of a presumed higher good. “Duty,” “honor,” and “country” are words that illustrate such values. According to Moskos (1977, 1986), an institutional military will tend to evaluate its personnel in “whole person” categories, and it will rely heavily on qualitative and subjective evaluations. An occupation is legitimized in terms of the marketplace. The importance lies with supply and demand rather than normative considerations. Workers with similar skill levels should receive the same payment independent of the employing organization. The occupational model implies a priority of self-interest and individuality rather than that of the employing organization, which means that an occupational military will tend toward judgments relating to specific performance standards and prefer numerical or quantitative evaluations (Moskos, 1977, 1986).

When Moskos (1977, 1986) put forward his institution/occupation dichotomy, he included three distinct levels of analysis: (1) the armed forces/society relationships (including a country’s civil-military history, military traditions, and geopolitical positions); (2) the internal structure of the military organization (concerning differences between military services and between branches within them); and (3) the values and attitudes of the members of the organization (including, among others, differences between career and single-term military members; between draftees and volunteers; and between men and women). This third level of analysis has special value when looking at soldiers’ motivation to participate in international operations.
During his research on Italian soldiers, Battistelli (1997) revealed attitudes that could not be classified within the institution/occupation dichotomy. Based on his findings, Battistelli (1997) went on to introduce the category of “postmodern” attitudes in order to account for the attitudes that could not be classified as institutional or occupational, thereby changing the classification put forward by Moskos (1977, 1986). In the new classification attitudes defined by Moskos (1977, 1986) as institutional are reclassified by Battistelli (1997) as “paleomodern” (or pre-modern), and those defined as occupational are reclassified as “modern” attitudes.

Several researchers from different European countries have tested Battistelli’s (1997) motivation typology, and some of the results will be presented in the literature review following a more thorough investigation of this motivation typology.

### 3.1.2 Paleomodern, modern and postmodern motivations

Battistelli’s (1997) motivation typology modified the institution/occupation dichotomy presented by Moskos (1977, 1986) to include the three categories paleomodern, modern and postmodern motivations. Each of the three categories in the new classification contains two dichotomies: materiality versus immateriality and self-orientation versus other-orientation. See Figure 1 for an illustration.
The first category, paleomodern motivations, is characterized by immaterial motivations with reference to their nature and other-oriented motivations with reference to their object. The second category, modern, is characterized by material and self-oriented motivations, while the third category; postmodern motivation, combines the immateriality of the paleomodern and the self-orientation of the modern, to produce a third category of egoistic but not materialistic motivations. According to Battistelli, Ammendola and Galantino (1999), paleomodern motivations are of a more “altruistic” nature and will emphasize normative commitments, to be useful to others or to strengthen one’s country. Modern motivations will emphasize instrumental or utilitarian commitment to earn money or to gain education, while postmodern motivations will emphasize the desire for adventure, and for gaining new and meaningful personal experiences. Both modern and postmodern motivations share an “egoistic” perspective directed at individual gains. Examples are listed in Table 1.
### Table 1: Typology of motivations as presented by Battistelli

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Paleomodern(^1)</th>
<th>Modern(^2)</th>
<th>Postmodern(^3)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>To be useful to others</td>
<td>To earn some extra money</td>
<td>Out of desire for adventure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To promote the country’s international image</td>
<td>To learn things useful for my career or when I return to civilian life</td>
<td>To have a meaningful personal experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To serve my country</td>
<td>To gain the advantages of a steady job</td>
<td>To visit new places</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To be part of a close-knit community</td>
<td>To improve my social position</td>
<td>To put myself to the test</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To contribute to stability and peace in the mission country</td>
<td>To enter the world of work</td>
<td>To become more familiar with foreign countries, nations and cultures</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>To help local citizens</td>
<td>To gain useful military knowledge and experiences</td>
<td>To avoid everyday routine at home</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To gain knowledge and experiences for civilian life</td>
<td>To experience something exciting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To make use of his/her military knowledge</td>
<td>To make new friends</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>To improve the knowledge of foreign languages</td>
<td>To develop his/her personality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>To learn to master problems</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>To face stressful situations and learn to deal with them</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>To gain self-confidence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>To demonstrate his/her own capabilities</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>To make an impression on foreign soldiers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Source:** Battistelli et al. (1999, p. 149) and Juvan & Vuga (2011, p. 98)

\(^1\) Normative commitments  
\(^2\) Instrumental or utilitarian commitments  
\(^3\) Desire for adventure, new and meaningful personal experience
Battistelli (1997) conducted a study on Italian soldiers participating in humanitarian and peacekeeping missions to Albania and Somalia. On both missions the contingents were mainly formed by drafted soldiers. The aim of the study was to explore why the soldiers decided to go on the missions. Battistelli (1997) found all three types of motivations to be present among the soldiers, but with some differences in motivation based on the mission type and according to service status. Battistelli (1997) noted how the greatest gap separating the draftees from professional soldiers was found among soldiers claiming postmodern motivations: “While modern motivation carries similar weight among the two groups, professionals as a group are more likely than draftees to claim paleomodern motivations and draftees are much more likely than professionals to claim postmodern motivations”. Battistelli also noted that differences in motivation have consequences, for instance when predicting soldiers’ satisfaction with various kinds of peacekeeping missions.

Archivio Disarmo (Battistelli et al., 1999), an independent research center based in Rome, has monitored Italy’s peacekeeping activity from 1993 onwards commissioned by the Italian Ministry of Defence. Italy still has the draft, which is also the case in Norway, and the armed forces recruit both conscripts and volunteers for missions abroad. Findings by the Archivio Disarmo (Battistelli et al., 1999) suggest that there is a generational effect on motivation. The young is found to be the most prone to self-actualizing motivations, attached to a spirit of adventure and the desire to put oneself to the test. As the soldiers’ age increases, there is a tendency to recognize oneself in more traditional values that are firmly established and confer a degree of security. In this regard, Battistelli, Ammendola and Galantino (Battistelli et al., 1999), notes the effect related to the socialization of the members of the organization, and present one possible hypothesis: that more senior officers have undergone a learning process that leads to their feeling fully part of the organization, having internalized its basic cultural beliefs, and to their consciously sharing its founding values. Accepting such an interpretation has several implications. For one thing, motivations are not fixed in time, but are subject to reinterpretation and renegotiation during the process of socialization within the organization, and as a consequence, to the effects of
organizational learning. Following this, it can be seen that, “in contrast with the early socialization typical of paleomodern soldiers, that of modern and postmodern soldiers takes place later, over the length of their military careers” (Battistelli et al., 1999, p. 151). Battistelli et al. (1999), also points out that each of the three types of motivations can be related to different categories of soldiers, such as in terms of legal status and hierarchical level. Research on Italian soldiers found that “young” soldiers are postmodern to a greater extent than the “old”, and, among the “young” soldiers, conscripts are found to be postmodern to a greater extent than volunteers (Battistelli et al., 1999).

These findings show that for the new types of missions that have evolved the last three decades, the modern and postmodern motivations were more prevalent than paleomodern motivations. My question in regard to this is: will this also hold true for findings among the Norwegian soldiers? Looking at findings from research conducted on personnel from other European countries can be of value in this regard.

3.2 Literature review

At present, there are several ongoing missions engaged by NATO, for example in Afghanistan, Horn of Africa/Gulf of Aden, and Kosovo (NATO, 2012, April 29), and by the UN, for example in Syria, South Sudan, and Haiti (United Nations Peacekeeping, n.d.-a). For the member-states of these organizations, this means that international operations constitute an important and highlighted part of the armed forces’ agenda. A natural consequence of this is the challenge of recruiting personnel. Jelusic and Garb (2006, p. 459) notes that, whether they are volunteering or ordered, all soldiers need some internal or external driving forces to help them make the decision to join an international operation, or to convince them of the positive consequence of joining such a mission.

Battistelli et al. (1999) points out the difference in the reference framework of American soldiers and soldiers from Europe when it comes to war. For soldiers from medium-sized European countries, including Italy, “peacekeeping operations are the
nearest thing to war that is likely to be available to soldiers today and in the imminent future” (Battistelli et al., 1999, pp. 157-158). It seems reasonable to assume this is true also for Norwegian soldiers.

The body of research on motivation for international operations includes studies conducted on soldiers from the Italian armed forces (Battistelli, 1997; Battistelli et al., 1999), the Slovenian armed forces (Jelusic, 2004; Jelusic & Garb, 2006; Vegič, 2007), the armed forces in Germany (Tomforde, 2005), in Finland (Vornanen, 2011), in Sweden (Hdlund, 2011; Österberg & Carlstedt, 2008; Österberg, Jonsson, & Hyllengren, 2008), as well as in Norway (Aambakk, 2007; Oterhals, 2008; Skjelvan, 2000; Westlye, 2009). The next section will provide a literature review of some relevant research studies regarding soldiers’ motivation for participating in international operations. The selected literature looks at the differences between motivation for deployment and motivation during deployment, differences in motivation between those deployed for the first time and those who have already participated on previous occasions, challenges related to recruiting new soldiers, as well as soldiers’ perception of social support from family and friends.

Tomforde (2005) examined the experience of German peacekeeping units deployed to Bosnia and Herzegovina as part of the Stabilization Force in 2003-04. Based on anthropological fieldwork and questionnaire surveys, the study found that there are differences between motivation for deployment and motivation during deployment. Motivation during deployment was high, with 13.7 % of soldiers reporting being highly motivated and almost half of the two contingents (47.7 %) being relatively highly motivated. Even so, overall motivation during a mission was lower than motivation for future deployment. This can be related to findings among Norwegian soldiers’ where motivation before deployment was high but the soldiers’ experiences did not live up to their expectations (Blix, 2007). The study by Tomforde (2005) found that the most important reasons for high motivation for future deployment are (1) the meaningful tasks of peacekeeping missions, (2) comradeship, (3) good salary, and (4) an endurable length of deployment. Tomforde additionally reflects on how motivation among soldiers for participation is no longer seen as primarily related to comradeship.
and their combatant status, which means that it is also necessary to incorporate factors related to the individual, such as his or her social environment and personal ideological convictions. Following this, the societal and political influences affecting the soldiers and the armed forces has to be taken into consideration when trying to understand soldiers’ motivations during deployment (Tomforde, 2005).

Additionally, participation in deployments can be seen, to a certain extent, as a rite of passage. By conducting personal interviews, Tomforde (2005) discovered that some soldiers viewed participation in international operations as part of an “initiation” which they valued and considered to be something every modern soldier should experience at least once during his or her military service. Soldiers who had served for three decades or longer did not necessarily share this view, a fact that may be explained by considering that these soldiers were training and working under different circumstances. Tomforde (2005) notes that it seems that younger soldiers may define their role more in the light of peacekeeping missions, and therefore share the view that “a real soldier” needs to have been deployed at least once. It will be interesting to see if this comes up during this research, and whether Norwegian soldiers will express a similar definition concerning participation in international operations and their role as soldier.

In one study on what motivates Swedish soldiers to participate in peacekeeping missions, Hedlund (2011) conducted individual, semi-structured interviews, and to some degree participatory observation in Liberia and Kosovo. The interviews were conducted during pre-deployment training, five months into the deployment, and six months after the soldiers’ return home, with most of the questions concerning motivation being asked in the pre-deployment interviews. Twenty-seven male soldiers between the ages of 21 and 33 were interviewed. Hedlund (2011) found the following nine motives among the Swedish soldiers: (1) adventure, (2) meeting new people, (3) maturing as a human being, (4) traveling to exotic destinations, (5) comradeship, (6) putting oneself to the test, (7) earning money, (8) useful merit for future (civil or military) career, and, (9) altruism. The most frequently expressed motive for participating among the Swedish soldiers was related to the theme of adventure, such
as travel to exotic destinations and gaining the opportunity to experience a real and exciting adventure – something extraordinary and different from what they could experience at home. Hedlund (2011) notes that one possible reason for Swedish soldiers being strongly motivated by the opportunity to experience a great adventure in a foreign country, could be that they are mostly well, or very well-educated civilian students or professionals, who are between high school and university or work, and wish to take time out from their normal routine life to experience something new and different. The next most frequently cited motivation was the opportunity to meet new people; people the soldiers could learn from and who would help them mature as human beings. The participants in the study also expressed the importance of comradeship between soldiers, and the value of becoming a member of a specific culture and experiencing the bonds between soldiers. Hedlund (2011) argues how the close friendship and sense of community that develops among soldiers when they live and work together closely and intensely for a given period of deployment, is almost impossible to find in the civilian life.

Even though the soldiers did not emphasize the financial benefit of participating, economic reward did impact on their motivation and decision to participate. Opinions varied on the importance of financial reward, with some considering money a significant motivating factor, while others thought of it as relatively unimportant (Hedlund, 2011). Another motive related to the soldiers’ own satisfaction was the desire to test their own professional skills in an authentic situation, which was seen as an opportunity to increase their career prospects both in the military and in the civilian life. All of the nine motives identified by Hedlund (2011) have been identified to apply for Norwegian personnel as well, for example in studies by Oterhals (2008) and Westlye (2009). It seems reasonable to assume that findings among Norwegian soldiers will be fairly comparable to those of their Swedish counterparts seeing as Sweden and Norway are neighboring countries with similar cultural and social context. It will be interesting to see if the findings of this research project will confirm or contradict this assumption.
Categorized using Battistelli’s (1997) motivation typology, these findings by Hedlund (2011) support the idea that Swedish peacekeeping soldiers were mainly motivated by postmodern motives such as adventure, meaningful personal experiences, and self-actualization, but also to some degree of modern motives such as earning extra money, increasing career opportunities, and paleomodern motives such as doing something for others. The Swedish soldiers do not mention paleomodern patriotic motives such as doing something for their own country at all; they seem to be more motivated to do something for someone else’s country, especially in developing parts of the world (Hedlund, 2011).

One motive that could be classified as a modern motivation that was not explicitly discussed, but was revealed outside the parameters of formal interviews and off the record, namely that the soldiers did not consider it a bad thing to leave their normal, routine family lifestyle at home for a period of six months (Hedlund, 2011). Hedlund (2011) further explains how the lifestyle of a mission can be seen as a form of “tourism”, as it is an all-inclusive situation where the soldiers get all their meals served, where there are no demands in terms of domestic duties, and they are free from the responsibilities of every-day life. This motivation – the desire to participate in a sort of “peacekeeping tourism” – can be significant, especially for some of the older soldiers or those with families. Hedlund (2011) does not say anything about the influence of family support on motivation.

The influence of family support on motivation has been investigated by Vegič (2007), who analyzed surveys on soldiers in Slovenian contingents that were part of the SFOR in Bosnia and Herzegovina in 2003-04. Exploring the difference between soldiers deploying for the first time and those with previous experience, Vegič (2007) found that soldiers without previous deployment less frequently faced problems due to lack of time with their family than those with previous experience. 56% of the soldiers who deployed for the first time were satisfied with the time available for their family compared to 39% among soldiers with previous experience. One possible explanation for this difference is that the previous deployment caused a greater awareness that the separation from the family is demanding, and that it is necessary to prepare one’s
family for the situation (Vegič, 2007). Vegič (2007) also points out that, in the interviews on their return home, the participants stressed the importance of having support from their spouse to participate in the mission, that all family problems should be resolved before deployment, and the necessity to arrange some support for the family before deployment. Based on these findings Vegič (2007) suggest that “in preparations for peace operations the military organization should consider soldiers’ previous experience and apply different approaches to motivate soldiers and help them cope with problems connected with deployment”.

There was also a distinction between the soldiers’ motivations between those who deployed for the first time and those with previous experience. The difference appeared in the soldiers’ expectations to the individual’s role in the mission, and with non-material gain. For soldiers who deployed for the first time, altruistic reasons were recorded to be important, while those with previous experience put higher value to how the mission would gain the individual’s professional career (Vegič, 2007). The importance put on support from family, and the soldiers’ previous experience seems to be significant when looking at soldiers’ motivation. This will be taken into account during the analysis of this research project.

When a research is conducted can have consequences for a studies finding. Jelusic (2004) presents findings from a research project conducted by Researchers at the Defense Research Center at the Faculty of Social Sciences at the University of Ljubljana. Between 2002 and 2005, surveys were conducted before assignment, during assignment, and after assignment among Slovenian contingents deployed with the SFOR in Bosnia and Herzegovina. Different factors that could influence the soldiers’ assignment motivation were measured, such as the soldiers’ home environment, mission external environment, mission internal environment, and personal cognitive identity with the mission (Jelusic, 2004). The three first factors were reported to be important for the soldiers when deployed. It was also emphasized how these factors helped the soldiers to keep a stable level of motivation to work efficiently over the entire term of deployment. Examples of the different factors can be found in Table 2.
Table 2: Factors that influence soldiers’ assignment motivation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Home environment</th>
<th>Mission external environment</th>
<th>Mission internal environment</th>
<th>Personal cognitive identity with the mission</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Support from the family and friends, support of public opinion, media, and politicians.</td>
<td>Threats and dangers in the area of the mission, local population, and multinational military units.</td>
<td>The vertical and horizontal cohesion in the deployed military unit, its quality of preparation for the mission, equipment, logistics, infrastructure, and organization of free time.</td>
<td>The level of trust the peacekeepers have in the aims and success prospects of the mission, material advantages, and usefulness of the experience for their future military career.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Jelusic (2004, p. 40)

Jelusic (2004) further observes that the pre-deployment motivation of all surveyed peacekeepers had one variable in common: the perceived attractiveness of the expected job, which offered adventure and new military experiences. The reality of the mission lowered these postmodern expectations and replaced them with the objectives of economic reward. Jelusic (2004) also notes the importance of when research is conducted, whether it is in the pre-deployment, mid-deployment, or post-deployment phase, and how this may affect motivation. When the study is conducted is something that I will take into account concerning this research project in the methodology chapter.

Applying Battistelli’s typology of motivations, Jelusic (2004) concludes that in the pre-deployment phase, soldiers are guided by both paleomodern motives (e.g., to help the local population and contribute to the country’s image) and postmodern motives (e.g., the attractiveness of the job). During the course of the mission, the postmodern motives will diminish in influence, and modern motives, such as economic reward and military experience will become more influential. Even though this research project
only conducts interviews in the pre-deployment phase, it is still interesting to see if the findings will have similar conclusions to those by Jelusic (2004).
4 Methodology

The research question of this study is: “What motivates Norwegian soldiers to participate in international operations?”

This exploratory study describes the motivation for participation in international operations among men and women enrolled in the Norwegian PRT deployed to Afghanistan in 2011. Data collection was performed through semi-structured interviews. The narrative data were transcribed, coded, and categorized into eight themes related to the research questions.

In this chapter I will first present an overview of the research process, before discussing the methodological choices made with regard to this thesis.

4.1 The research process

I first came up with the idea of focusing my thesis on the topic of motivation for participation in international operations among Norwegian soldiers in early 2010. Other master students had written theses on the Norwegian armed forces, so I judged that my choice of topic would be feasible to work with. As I had no prior knowledge of the Norwegian armed forces as an organization, I began by approaching the Knowledge Market4 (Vitenskapsbutikken) for assistance. The Knowledge Market at the University of Oslo assists students with establishing contact and collaboration between master students and organizations. Through the Knowledge Market, I got in contact with the Norwegian Defence University College (NDUC) and their Gender Project. I sent an application with my project proposal, and after a meeting we agreed to collaborate. The Gender Project and the NDUC would, through their experience, knowledge and network, help and assist me with the task of finding and establishing contact with appropriate participants for my research project. They would also help me

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4 For more details on the Knowledge Market, please see: [http://www.uio.no/om/samarbeid/samfunn-og-naringsliv/studentsamarbeid/vitenskapsbutikken/](http://www.uio.no/om/samarbeid/samfunn-og-naringsliv/studentsamarbeid/vitenskapsbutikken/)
cover any financial costs or expenses I had while doing my fieldwork. With help from the staff at the Gender Project, I came in contact with the Chief of Staff for the next Norwegian PRT deployed to Afghanistan. After a few phone calls it was agreed that I would come to the military base during the preparation phase prior to their deployment to Afghanistan. We agreed that I would first stay five days at the military base, and if by the end of my stay I did not have the necessary number of interviews, I would be given the opportunity to come back to finish up. I managed to collect all my interviews over the course of three days, and when I left the military base after five days, I had obtained all the necessary data material.

### 4.2 Research design

#### 4.2.1 Setting

Since 2001, the largest contribution to international operations from Norway has been to Afghanistan. It was therefore reasonable that the most likely place to find informants that suited the research questions was the Norwegian contribution to Afghanistan. This study took place in a Norwegian PRT that deployed to Afghanistan in 2011. The study was carried out early in the pre-deployment phase. The interviews were conducted on an individual basis, and took place in various locations at the military camp. The locations were chosen based on availability and convenience as the informants had a tight time schedule. Interviews were consequently conducted in offices, available rooms at the military facility, and in the barracks.

#### 4.2.2 Sample/participants

From 2001 to 2010 the Norwegian Armed Forces has deployed 6938 personnel to missions in Afghanistan. 467 (7 %) of these were women. Looking at previous studies on Norwegian soldiers in international operations, I found that the majority of these had been conducted with only male participants. Knowing that a number of women are participating in international operations, I wished to obtain a sample with both men

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^5 Participants and informants are being used interchangeably in this thesis.
and women in my study. My goal was to get between 10 and 20 participants with an equal number of male and female participants. The sample procedure used was purposive sampling. The Chief of Staff referred some of the participants, and at the request by the researcher officers notified available soldiers and asked if they were interested in participating in the research project, while the researcher approached others directly. The participants were restricted to personnel being deployed to Afghanistan as part of the Norwegian PRT, and the participant’s willingness to partake in the study. Participants of this research study included 18 informants.

The participants in the study were nine women and nine men, the youngest being 20 and the oldest being 43. Four of the participants (two women and two men) had children. Seven of the participants (four women and three men) had previous experience from participating in international operations. Of the 18 informants, two came directly from civilian jobs while 16 were already working in the armed forces when they decided to participate in the mission; six of these served as conscripts when applying, making their time as conscripts their only military background. The sample was chosen based on availability and willingness to participate, and represents a variety in age, gender, level of experience, and background.

### 4.3 Data collection

I approached the decision of what methodology to use by considering which methods would allow me to answer my research question effectively. Because of the scope of this study, I wished to have a small sample and to conduct individual face-to-face interviews. I wished to have the opportunity to follow up and explore topics or themes that might emerge during the interviews, and I wanted to give the participants freedom in their replies. This led me to select semi-structured interviews as my instrument for collecting data. With semi-structured interviews, the researcher or interviewer will have a set of questions or a list of fairly specific topics to be covered, often referred to as an interview schedule (Smith & Osborn, 2008) or an interview guide (Bryman, 2008). Some of the advantages to semi-structured interviews are that it allows greater flexibility in conducting the interview concerning the questioning and the interaction
between the interviewer and the interviewee. The semi-structured interview gives freedom to pursue topics and ask questions not included in the interview guide, and the end result can be that it produces richer data. This freedom can on the other hand be considered a limitation of using semi-structured interview, as it reduces the control the researcher has over the situation. The rich data can also make the data material harder to analyze, and possibly end up obscuring potential findings (Bryman, 2008; Smith & Osborn, 2008).

4.3.1 The interview process

The data were collected using semi-structured, individual interviews. A list of questions had been made in advance and organized in an interview guide (see Appendix A). The interview was shaped in collaboration with both the researcher and the informant, and the interview did not follow a strict form. Even so, the interviews were kept quite similar in that all the interviews were conducted by one researcher, the questions were asked using similar wording, and the structure of the interview were kept close to the one in the interview guide.

Four interviews were conducted at an early stage during the research process. Based on these four interviews, the interview guide was modified and the questions were left as they were, altered, or removed based on their capability to promote answers related to the research question. It was decided to leave these four preliminary interviews out of the final data material, as they mainly worked as a pre-test of the interview questions to see how they worked. Some of the uses of conducting a pilot is noted by Bryman (2008), such as how it helps in ensuring that the research instruments work well, and how it can provide the researcher with some experience and added sense of confidence when using it.

The questions in the interview guide was organized under the following topics: individual motivation for participating, reasons for not participating, views on colleagues motivation for participating, the formal and informal information the participant had received or acquired about participating in international operations,
expectations concerning participation, and future plans. In an effort to minimize the possibility of leading the answers, the questions were open-ended and followed the line of: "what is your motivation for participating in international operations?" This gave the informants the opportunity to reply using their own words, without too much interference from leading questions. It should be mentioned that by including outlined follow-up questions might have resulted in more elaborate replies, but this was not included in the interview guide as the researcher wished to remain as unpresumptuous as possible. Even so, I do believe that the questions were asked in a manner that managed to capture what it was intended to do, and that the interviews produced rich data.

The interviews were conducted over a period of three days. The interviews were conducted with the participants individually on different locations at different times during the day using the interview guide (see Appendix A). Most of the interviews were scheduled beforehand right after I had arrived at the military base, while some were initiated during the days spent at the military base. Each interview was tape-recorded using a digital voice recorder for accuracy and lasted between ten minutes and up to one hour. The length of the interviews depended on the informants’ background, previous experience, and to some degree their current position in the PRT. I found all of the informants to be approachable, open and talkative. Halfway through the scheduled interviews I had already identified some patterns in the interviews, and at some point I decided that I had obtained the necessary data material, and chose to continue with 18 interviews. This decision was based on the finding that the last two or three interviews did not contribute with anything new that had not already been covered by previous interviews.

Before the interview I started with a presentation of myself and the purpose of the study. The participants were then handed the information sheet and the consent form (see Appendix B) and given time to read this properly. After they had read it and agreed to participate they were asked to sign the consent form and encouraged to keep the information sheet with contact details. The interview started with a few background questions, including age, background from before their time at the armed
forces, as well as their background in the armed forces, and was followed with questions designed to explore their motivation for participating in international operations.

The collected data were transcribed and categorized in terms of research questions and emergent themes. The data were analyzed and structured in line with the themes and issues that were the focus of the study. A coding method was used to organize interview data into a limited number of themes and issues around these questions. Relevant quotations were then selected from the interviews in order to illuminate the themes and concepts. The material was analyzed and restructured several times using thematic analysis as described by Braun and Clarke (2006) to identify categories, patterns, and overarching themes. For the sake of anonymity, all of the recordings were deleted after the completion of the thesis. In accordance with ethical guidelines, this project has been reported to the Norwegian Social Science Data Services (NSD).

At the end of the interview the informants were asked if they had anything to add or if they had any questions regarding the study or the interview. Most of the informants said that they found the study interesting, with some giving me suggestions as to other aspects that might be interesting to look at, and several expressed that they found the experience to be positive.

The interviews were conducted in Norwegian as the participants were Norwegian and the case for this study was the Norwegian PRT. The interviews were transcribed into Norwegian Bokmål in order to hide any disclosing wordings or dialects, and for the sake of this thesis, all material taken from the interviews in this thesis was translated into English.
4.4 Limitations and potential problems

There are limitations and potential problems to this research project concerning different aspects of how the study was conducted. I will here present and discuss some of those related to the role of the researcher, to the formulating the questions, in regard to conceptual generalizability, trustworthiness, translation, and, finally, ethical considerations.

The role of the researcher

Being a civilian woman entering a Norwegian military base, I was very conscious of my own role as a researcher. Having no prior knowledge or experience with the Norwegian armed forces; I had to look to my participants as the experts, and myself as the novice. To my best of abilities, I tried to keep my presumptions or personal opinions out of the interview situation. Some of these presumptions included a belief that it would be difficult to find people willing to participate, and that military personnel would be skeptical to a person outside of the armed forces asking them questions about their participation in international operations. I found this presumption to be utterly wrong, as most of the people I spoke with were open towards me and expressed a positive interest in this research project.

My personal opinions were to some degree colored by stories from friends, the media and what I had read on the subject beforehand. Having the presumption that the armed forces is known to be a male dominated organization, I found myself, as a civilian, female, researcher, feeling a bit nervous before entering the military base. This feeling disappeared shortly after entering the military base, when I discovered that this facilitated me in meeting with people. Seeing as the majority at the military base wore uniforms, it was easy to distinguish me as a civilian. I experienced that this made it easier for me to get in contact with people that could become possible participants, as it gave an opening for people to ask me about what I was doing at the military base. It might be argued that this would be just as easily achieved, if not easier for someone in a uniform. Someone with previous experience with the armed forces could easily
overlook words or descriptions that for them might be obvious, but I claim that the fact that I was a civilian, if not necessarily a female researcher, required that the participants elaborated on their answers, and this in turn account for a richer data material.

During my five days at the military base, I observed more female military personnel than I had considered beforehand. This surprised me to that extent that it had me reflecting on my own presumptions and opinions concerning women in the armed forces, which I had to take into consideration in my encounters with both male and female personnel. This observation can be related to the fact that I spent most of my time with personnel belonging to the PRT, and that women are more strongly represented in international operations than in the armed forces in general (Schjølset, 2010). When asked about my thoughts around specific topics or when asked to reflect on certain things that came up, I replied honestly. I tried to my best capacity to not ask leading questions, in order to minimize the chance that my own feelings or thoughts may have been projected to the informants and thus biased the data.

**Formulating the questions**

Asking a direct question about a person’s motivation for participating in international operations might lead to a “beautification” of the answers, possibly caused by social desirability. Social desirability is the phenomena that can occur when persons are responding to questions or situations in a fashion that they believe are “politically correct” or what other people want from them (Bryman, 2008). Interestingly, a number of the participants brought up this issue during the interview. Some cautioned me that what someone says is their motivation, and what their “real” motivation was, might not coincide. At the same time, they did not elaborate about their own motivation, or whether or not they had told me their real motivation for participating. Some of the participants’ real motivation might come up when asked about others’ motivation for participating, but pursuing this line of reasoning could easily result in speculation.
As I did not want to push my participants into revealing information that they did not want to give voluntarily, I have not pursued the question of whether their spoken motivation coincides with their real motivation. The fact that the participants brought this up themselves could be taken as an indication that they are aware that some motives might not be socially acceptable. I firmly believe that it must be each individual participant’s own decision as to whether or not they will disclose all of their motives for participation in international operations. Thus, I have chosen to interpret participants’ statements regarding their motivation to participate as a representation of their “real” motivation.

**Conceptual generalizability**

Bryman (2008) notes that “the findings of qualitative research are to generalize to theory rather than to populations”. Even though this study is not generalizable in the sense associated with statistical generalizations, the findings can still be considered conceptually generalizable in that the ideas discussed repeatedly by a number of people are meaningful beyond said people.

**Trustworthiness**

On the question of trustworthiness, I argue that the data are trustworthy in the sense that people repeatedly and consistently told me things that fitted with one another and made sense, and that the analysis is trustworthy in that I worked in a thorough and rigorous way with the data and reported the key findings clearly and in detail.

The issue of depending on interviews as the main source of data, when interviewees can exhibit bias or poor memory recall, was dealt with by ensuring that the results did not depend on one or two respondents, but on a number of sources.

The participants were asked to participate in the study. Some knew about the purpose of the study beforehand, while others were given the information immediately before the interviews were conducted. I did not detect that this had any evident influence on the replies given.
Participation was voluntary, and I did not get the impression that the participants felt forced in any way. But, it is still important to recognize that I got access to the participants through the Chief of Staff of the PRT. The fact that the Chief of Staff was partly involved in the recruitment of some of the participants should also be taken into consideration, as this can have possibly influenced the informants in that they felt forced to participate, or in some ways influenced the replies given by the informants. Even so, I did not at any time experience that any of the informants felt forced into participating, and an attempt to ensure this from being the case was by emphasizing on how participation in the research project was voluntary. The informants were made aware of their right to withdraw their consent at any time during the interview, or at any time after the interviews had been conducted, and up to the point when the data material is presented in the thesis.

Transcribing and translation

The transcribing of interviews, in particular, is a sensitive matter because there is room for misinterpretation of meaning. When translating the interview material, I have been careful to try to translate as accurately and directly from the original material as possible. The interviews were all conducted in Norwegian, which was also the first language of both the researcher and the participants. The citations that are presented in this thesis have been translated from Norwegian to English specifically for this purpose. I have been careful in trying to make the translation as accurate and direct as possible, and some phrasings may therefore seem awkward to native English speakers.

A person not affiliated with this project read and translated a small sample of depersonalized quotes to verify my translation. The two translations turned out equal in the sense of both meaning and wording. The interviews were transcribed using Norwegian Bokmål for ethical reasons regarding anonymity as well as to make the translation process from Norwegian to English more fluent. In some instances it has been necessary to use English words that only closely correspond to the Norwegian word used by the participant, but all in all, I believe that the translations are very precise in conveying what the participants said.
4.4.1 Ethical considerations

This study investigates a topic that can be both personal and sensitive. I will therefore present some relevant ethical principles that I was guided by before, during, and after conducting this research in order that I might take care of the participants and the integrity of this study in the best way possible.

I was cautious about guaranteeing confidentiality and anonymity, but I assured participants that I would do my utmost to uphold confidentiality and anonymity by keeping personal information separate from the data material and leaving out any identifiable information from the transcripts. In accordance with the guidelines given by the National Committee for Research Ethics in the Social Sciences and the Humanities (NESH), I kept the interview tapes, transcripts, and participants’ contact details separately.

When transcribing the interviews, I left out or altered specific details that could make a participant identifiable, such as the place they live, their occupation if this was considered to be identifiable, and other details such as people or places that the participants referred to. In the interview transcripts this type of information was replaced by the use of brackets, such as: (name of high school), or (name of relative). I made sure that the details that I changed did not alter the meaning of the participants’ words in any way, and where information has been taken out this is illustrated with the use of the following brackets: (...), or in the beginning of a citation using punctuations: …. Where I have considered it necessary to add or remove something from the citation, this is clearly shown by the use of the following brackets: [PRT], and […].

4.5 Data analysis

The process of transcribing interviews is just as important as the process of analyzing the transcribed material. Translating oral material to written material is somewhat a process of analysis, as choices concerning what to include, exclude, where to put punctuation marks and so forth, have to be considered throughout the process. As
Kvale and Brinkmann (2009) put it: “Transcribing interviews from an oral to a written mode structures the interview conversations in a form amenable to closer analysis, and is in itself an initial analytic process” . Transcripts can be seen as reduced oral material, and part of the meaning and intent of the words being said can be lost in the process. Transcripts can in some instance be considered as “impoverished, decontextualized renderings of live interview conversations” (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p. 178). Even so, it is an important process that needs to be done to better analyze what has been said. The transcripts from the interviews made up 302 pages of data material (Times New Roman, 13” size, 1,5 line spacing).

I used a foot-pedal and an audio-software program\(^6\) to transcribe the interviews. The interviews were transcribed keeping it as close as possible to the oral data, but keeping out non-verbal elements, such as sounds, pauses, accentuation or emotional expressions (e.g., laughter or sighing). The decision to keep out this type of non-verbal elements was based on the decision to not using discourse analysis, where these would be relevant. The aim of the transcripts for this research was to report “the subject’s accounts in a readable public story” (Kvale & Brinkmann, 2009, p. 181). In order to maintain anonymity and confidentiality in the text, the participants were not given pseudonyms. In my analysis, as well as in this thesis, I use a simple coding system. The participants were given a code with a letter and a number (e.g., D3) based on the order of the interview. Since it was considered relevant to include gender and age, I have placed this after the code (e.g., Participant D3 – M21), where M or F is to identify the participant as a male or a female, and the last number refers to the participant’s age.

### 4.5.1 Thematic analysis

For this study I conducted a thematic analysis of the data material using Braun and Clarke’s (2006) guideline as well as Rapley’s overview of thematic analysis (2011). According to Braun and Clarke (2006), thematic analysis is to be considered “a

\(^{6}\) The software program used was Audacity; a free software for recording and editing sounds. For more information, please see: [http://audacity.sourceforge.net/](http://audacity.sourceforge.net/)
method for identifying, analyzing and reporting patterns (themes) within data”. After transcribing all the interviews, I read the transcripts closely and repeatedly before I made a master table. This master table ended up including themes related to the interview guide. Braun and Clarke (2006) describes how “a theme captures something important about the data in relation to the research question, and represents some level of patterned [original emphasis] response or meaning within the data set”. It seems reasonable to assume that this was a result of the structure of the interviews were kept close to the one in the interview guide. Going through the transcripts, I selected quotes from the interviews that reflected the different themes, while making new themes when they emerged. Thematic analysis proved to be a flexible and helpful research tool, providing a rich and detailed account of data.
5 Motivations for international operations

“But most of those who are going now are motivated and they know what they are really going to sort of. We have thought this through all of us I think”

(D3 – M21).

Having signed their contracts, all of the informants were ready to participate in the Norwegian PRT in Afghanistan; they had made the decision to participate and were ready to follow up on this commitment. One of the first questions asked was: “what is your motivation for participating in international operations?” The findings show that some of the informants had thought of this question a bit more thoroughly than others before deciding to participate. Even so, all of the informants had answers for why they had chosen to participate, with some more readily than others. I have identified eight motivations for participating in international operations among the Norwegian soldiers: 1) adventure and excitement, 2) to get experience and acquire competence, 3) useful merit for future (civil or military) career, 4) economic benefit, 5) the job and the profession, 6) comradeship, 7) to have done it, and 8) to do something good for others. The remainder of this chapter will be utilized to present these eight motivations. It also includes a discussion on what these findings entail, and how they can be seen in relation to previous research.

5.1 Adventure and excitement

Adventure and excitement were not necessarily the first motivations to be brought up, but almost every one of the informants mentioned adventure and/or excitement as a motivation for participation in international operations. If they did not relate it to themselves, they would refer it to be a motivation among their fellow soldiers and colleagues for participation. There was a special focus on benefits concerning
participation that related to personal growth. One informant explained that to him, motivation was to do “something” that he not necessarily found motivating by itself, but by doing this something, for example repeated training, he would reach his goal.

“To me motivation is something that should that makes me want to drill on things that are really boring throughout the whole day and the whole night. And in that sense I know that I want to go out to experience excitement, to do that I need to be able to practice. There you have my motivation, to do a good job out. To experience, other experiences really” (A6 – M20).

This attention on training was something that was expressed by several informants. One informant said: “…it is the adventure that is the most attractive. And the fact that we have been training a lot throughout the year after the compulsory military service (…)” (B3 – F24).

The necessity of training in order to be able to do what they want, combined with the experience of participating in international operations can be considered to be related to a wish for personal growth. Some of the informants mentioned that through their participation in international operations, they were going to be challenged and to see something new. As on informant said:

“One thing is that I think it sounds like an exciting mission that, yes. It has a bit to do with the adventure seeking, the desire to get out and experience something new, something different. Preferably, that it is a challenge” (B1 – M34).

Another informant saw participation in international operations as to: “…be thrown into something and having to deal with it” (B4 – M22). This can also be seen as a reference to a wish for personal growth that is not necessarily related to the participant’s age. The adventure and excitement associated with participation in international operations is perceived as getting to experience something other than what the participants normally do. Those soldiers, who only have compulsory military service as their background before participating, have spent most of their time exercising to build up their military repertoire. To feel a desire to get to practice what
they have learned and practiced over months of training can only be considered to be a natural response. One informant explained her motivation to participate as: “The excitement of going out and to experience something other than what we see at home and not just practice around in the woods and pretend that there is a war of sorts” (B3 – F24). The last sentence can be interpreted in a number of ways. One is that the participant has come to a certain point where to “practice” or “pretending” to be in a “war of sorts” is no longer considered to be of value, either to her personally or to her military repertoire. This can be taken as an expression of a wish to have real life experience of what this practice and pretending entails. When considering all the different tasks that a soldier in an international operations is asked to exert (e.g., by the UN (n.d.-b) and the NATO (2012, April 29)), it is interesting to point out that military training today is still mainly focusing on skills related to “pretend that there is a war of sorts” (B3 – F24).

Few of the informants reflected on how they might be affected by what they will see or experience during their participation. Instead, the main focus was on the positive aspects of participating. This can be related to the study by Oterhals (2008), who found that the soldiers considered the risk of something to happen to them personally to be low, but the risk of something happening during the mission was considered to be high.

When asked to contemplate if they believed there to be a gender difference in the motivation among their male or female colleagues, some informants reflected on how adventure as a motivation might be more prevalent among the men. One female informant said that: “…maybe it is a bigger trend among boys and the adventure they seek, I don’t know” (A1 – F26). One male informant expressed the same sentiment, but followed it up by reflecting that adventure might be related to women as well:

“…I think boys decide more based on adventure, if I am to be honest. I think that is a little higher motivation that they want some bit of action, and I think that is what lies at the basis for everyone that is going out. I don’t know why girls travel. It can have something to do with the same I think” (A6 – M20).
One other male informant mentioned how women are considered to be more emotional than men, and therefore might be more motivated by factors related to, for example, social matters. Recent studies (Steder et al., 2009) have referred to findings suggesting that women might be more inclined to participate in international operations in terms of women’s higher degree of altruistic properties than their male colleagues.

“...I think that maybe the motivation for a girl, sometimes can be different. That I don’t know, that boys, that some boys see this much as to go out to war and woohoo, while girls look more at the circumstances and the social, the social relations down there. Maybe wants to take part in it, but now I am not going to talk for the girls. They are usually more emotional than boys though” (A2 – M22).

Another male informant reflected on how previous experience from conscription might lead his male colleagues to be more susceptible to the life presented by the armed forces. He also touched upon how difference in physicality and risk-taking might make the armed forces more attractive to men than to women.

“...I would perhaps assume that male colleagues might have a bigger driving force in that they have been in the armed forces [as part of conscription] and that they know how the setting is. And that they might, boys are known to be bigger, to take bigger risks and so forth, that they might be more attracted to that type of challenge than what girls are (...)” (B1 – M34).

There appeared to be some difference in motivation concerning adventure and excitement among those informants who had previous experience and those who were going for the first time. Some of the informants who had previous experience expressed how adventure and excitement was a larger motivation the first time they participated, but less so this time around. One female informant said that: “The first time it was because I wanted to experience and see, contribute” (B2 – F33). Another male informant reflected that: “I think it was more adventure driven then, to go out. Was also thinking that this is good. Now I will get firsthand experience instead of what I hear from everybody else” (C2 – M27).
It is reasonable to assume that age and level of experience is likely to have a huge influence on motivation. Among some of the senior informants it was expressed that adventure might be a bigger motivation among the younger soldiers. One female informant said:

“If you look at the young people, then it is, I think the biggest motivation to go out is to challenge themselves or test themselves or. If you ask those who are a bit older who are finished with, more 30-40, at the end of their thirties and at the beginning of their forties, then it is more career, reasons of ambitions for going out” (D1 – F31).

Another senior female informant considered how age was related to the motivation of adventure and to acquire competence, and how this could be a bigger motivation among the younger soldiers: “I think that depends on what age group you belong to because I think that for the youngest it is the adventure, that sort of thing, surely competence sells” (C1 – F37).

5.2 To get experience and to acquire competence

Some of the informants voiced to get experience as one of their main motivation for participating in international operations. Through their participation they considered that they would get valuable experience that can be useful for other purposes or in other aspects of life. To get experience was also perceived as something that would lead to personal growth. Focus on training and the wish to apply military skills learned through exercise over a long period of time was something that was repeated in this regard. Among the informants, a number of them expressed the desire to apply the military skills they had acquired through months of training. One informant explained how this training could be compared to training for an upcoming game: “It is like training for a football match every day of your whole life and never get to play. It is natural behavior that when you train on something for a very long time you want to practice it” (C2 – M27).
Some of the younger informants expressed that participating in international operations would be the last thing they would do before leaving the armed forces. Among these, future studies were given as the main reason for why they were leaving. This last contribution was considered to be a sort of “finals” after their year(s) in the armed forces. One male informant said that:

“First of all what I sell to family and friends is that this will be my exam for my service in the armed forces. It will be the last thing I do before I start on my education and I would like to do what I can in practice. (...) I am very motivated to do this last effort now. Then, to try something new” (A2 – M22).

This can be related to the type of “initiation” referred to by Tomforde (2005), where soldiers valued and considered participation in international to be something that every modern soldier should experience at least once during his or her military service. When describing participation as a form of “exam” for his military service, this expression can be similar to the distinction set by the German soldiers in that participating in international operations is significant in order to be a “real” soldier.

The Norwegian armed forces offer a wide range of possibilities when it comes to future education (Forsvaret, n.d.-b). During their time in the armed forces, the soldiers have the opportunity to take classes, or if they already have a profession, they have the opportunity to specialize in their field. The opportunity to learn something new or to acquire a competence was identified among some of the informants. One female informant gave the following explanation for her motivation for participation:

“Sort of isolated, but especially, it is also that it gives a competence that is useful to have. And where I stand now, I could sort of think of doing something else and go a bit forward in my line of profession but then out instead of just at home. To develop myself further” (C1 – F37).

Those informants, who already had a profession, expressed a wish to utilize their profession in the armed forces, and that this would be an advantage to them in the future. Participating in international operations was seen as extra “ballast” that they
got to practice their skills, which they in turn could use in their civilian life or when they started on their planned studies. Other informants reflected on how, at the end of their studies, they would consider coming back to the armed forces. Having previous experience from international operations was considered to be an advantage either way, as noted by one male informant:

“My motivation is to acquire a higher competence in [...], get something on paper, not just [...], but additionally get on paper that I have been in Afghanistan and made an effort in the line of profession that I wish to study later. I hope that when in four years time [I] come out with a bachelor that I have an advantage and can go back to the armed forces, yes, having former ballast from the armed forces so I can continue to work there. After completing a bachelor [degree]” (A2 – M22).

One other male informant reflected on how the things learned during his time in the armed forces would be useful to him in the future:

“Mainly it is that, I look at it as an opportunity to learn a lot, experience, and there you have both what I get to learn while I am at home and practicing (...) sanitary utilities and various, I have been driving, I have gotten a truck certificate, I have got a lot of practice driving, things that are important, or that I can use in the civilian life, I think” (D4 – M20).

To get experience and to acquire competence as a motivation can be related to the next motivation to be presented, namely as useful merit for future (civil or military) career. The difference in the two motivations is in how the experience and competence is been valued as a motive in itself, or as something that would have qualities in the long run.

5.3 Useful merit for future (civil or military) career

Among the informants that stated that they wished to continue working in the armed forces, several said that international operations is a requirement that is needed –
something to have checked off – if planning a future career in the armed forces. One female informant said that: “…for you to have a career in the armed forces you need to have IntOps with you in your baggage [when] considering further education at the Staff School [Stabsskolen]” (C1 – F37).

Participating in international operations is seen as a natural requirement for personnel in the armed forces (Personellavdelingen, 2005), and it is often referred to as a requirement when considering career advancement. One female informant expressed that:

“If you work in the armed forces on a daily basis and want a career, then you have to go out. (…) It is part of your career that you have to go out, mainly to get up in the system” (B2 – F33).

To have participation in international operations on their résumé was also considered to be an advantage for the informants’ future civilian and military career. One male informant said that:

“I don’t know what I want, but I imagine that it will look good both civilian and military that I have been working […] in Afghanistan and then taken a bachelor […]. That might be my biggest motivation for going out” (A2 – M22).

Among those informants who already had work and a career in the armed forces, participating in international operations was considered a means to further promoting their career. Participating in international operations was described by a number of the informants as to be a necessity for even having the possibility of a future career in the armed forces. One male informant described his motivation for participating this way:

“My motivation for going, it is split, one thing is that it is a must-have, so I have to. It is part of my job. If that is a motive or not, that is something, that can be discussed, but for a future military career then it is something, something you need to tick off. Otherwise you won’t be able to compete for positions” (C4 – M43).
Other informants, who considered participating in different missions to be a natural requirement of working in the armed forces, explained how it was now their turn to contribute. This is how one male informant described his motivation for participating:

“...it is part of the profession I have chosen. I am, to practice the things you have worked on for many years, those experiences you have gathered over many years, to give of one self to people you find yourself with. It is, to share the burden it actually is to go out, whether you are single and have parents who worry or if it is a wife and three kids that sit at home, it is a burden for the family and that burden is something that I think we all should take a load of” (C3 – M32).

5.4 Economic benefit

The economic benefit of participating in international operations was mentioned, but it was not expressed to be a leading motivational factor. Some of the informants who did mention money, salary, financial or economic benefits as part of participating, explained that the salary is better when in international operations than when at home. Others explained how they were going to use the money earned to pay for their future education. Examples of how motivation can change were identified when looking at the economic benefit of participating. This was mainly found among those informants had previous experience, where some explained that the economic benefit worked as a bigger motivator for participating this time around. One female informant said that:

“I have been out before, so my motivations are different. (...) First time it was because I wanted to experience and see, contribute. (...) And this time it is more financially motivated than it was the last time. Because I have already done it” (B2 – F33).

Other informants reflected on how getting older and having more responsibilities might have changed their motivation, as described by one male informant:
“Now it is more that I want to learn this profession and I find it interesting going to Afghanistan. And before it was never about the financial aspects behind it. Then it was just to go. Now it is more economical driven. You plan more of your life because you grow older” (C2 – M27).

One male informant expressed that he was losing money by going out as opposed to being home, and that he did not consider the economic benefits to make up for what he risked by going out:

“For me it is an internal will to learn something to do something. It would have to be my internal motivation because we earn so incredibly little compared to the risk we are taking, some departments loose money, individuals loose money going out. Compared to continuing their service at home” (C3 – M32).

Thus, the economic benefit by itself appears not to be enough to motivate for participation. As one female informant describes, there has to be some personal gain for participating as well:

“If you talk about external driving forces for my part then it is not to get away from that I earn a lot more out than at home (...). At least for my part it has something to say that I earn more out. Internal motivation factors means that you get to work with something that you engage yourself in. Something you feel is important to you. And I feel I get to do that. Maybe now more than the last time I was out” (A4 – F26).

5.5 The job and the profession

Being satisfied with your job and your profession can create or sustain motivation, while being dissatisfied with the same things can be demotivating. Some of the informants expressed that they were not very satisfied in the job they had before entering the PRT. Among these, some viewed their participation in an international operation as a way to escape an unwanted job, or as an opportunity to establish a
network that might lead to a new job in the future. One female informant described how her participation was connected to the job:

“...I tried to apply to Afghanistan last year because the job I had I didn’t feel it gave me that much. I enjoyed the place where I was living and the people and those who were there, but the job didn’t give me that much. (...) So then I applied to IntOps because it let you go a bit from compulsory service” (A1 – F26).

One other female informant, who had come directly from a civilian job, expressed hope that her participation would result in possibly getting a new job when returning home:

“I imagine that I hope I won’t have to go back to where I currently work, that I might get some contacts or network or something. That is also part of my motivation. To get a new network so that I might get a job in Oslo or something. I like the armed forces, they have good welfare services and they have, no, it is very simple and easy” (A5 – F34).

Referring back to Hedlund (2011), this can to some extent be considered as a form of “peacekeeping tourism”. Peacekeeping tourism involves the opportunity for the soldiers to escape their normal, routine life for a period of six months or as long as the mission demands. Elaborating on this notion a bit further, and instead of considering it as a form of “vacation”, it can be considered a form of emigration or immigration, “job-emigration”, or “job-immigration”. When leaving their current job to participate in international operations, these informants have a hope that this might lead to a new job, either in the armed forces or at another workplace. That they can emigrate from their old job and immigrate into a new one.

For some informants, participating in international operations was one of the reasons they started working in the armed forces in the first place. Participating in international operations was considered a natural and apparent part of career and job they had
chosen. One male informant told how this motivation for participating originated when he first started in the armed forces:

“In the beginning my motivation was, it was always, ever since I started in the armed forces and got to know about going out and that it was a good chance I have always wanted to go out. (...) And when I got the course on [...] I wanted to practice it, and especially in IntOps. I thought that sounded very exciting” (B4 – M22).

One female informant who had a specific professional background explained how her job in the PRT was essential for her participating in international operations:

“So when I started in the armed forces it was really with the knowledge that I was going to Afghanistan. (...) So participating in IntOps is sort of a natural consequence of the education I have taken. (...) All the training we did has been directed towards IntOps. Maybe what is different from other people in the armed forces and me is that IntOps’ sort of my, that is the normal situation for me. While for other people it is being home and maybe deploy once, but for me the normal situation is to be out. So that is a little. Yes a bit opposite maybe of what most people have, who work for ten years and then go out perhaps once” (A4 – F26).

Their job in the PRT as a motive for participating was also stated by other informants, who many had applied for the job they now had. Some even said that they would not have participated if they had not gotten their current job, or that they would not have participated if offered another job. One of the male informants expressed that it was important for him to be in job that he felt he had the skills to manage:

“It is also important to me to go out in jobs where I think I have an actual competence to bring to the right job. I would never go out just to go out, but to contribute with who I am and what I can” (C3 – M32).
5.6 Comradeship

When looking at the armed forces as an organization and as a workplace, it is reasonable to describe it as a unique one. How might this affect the people working there? Having trained together as a troop for many months or by wearing the same uniform is both means to further the feeling of belonging and of sameness. These feelings will in turn help the soldiers to establish a sense of solidarity and comradeship, which by many is considered to a main motivational factor for working in the armed forces. One female informant stated that participating in international operations together with your fellow soldiers that: “...it gives mutual experiences that are really special. That it does. Which you bring with you” (C1 – F37).

A number of the informants mentioned comradeship as a motive for participating. Comradeship was, for example, valued high when it comes to being out in a foreign country for six months, together with the knowledge of going out with people you have gotten to know and trust during the pre-deployment phase. With reference back to peacekeeping tourism mentioned by Hedlund (2011), being separated from your normal family life might seem like a form of vacation, but when stepping into the “world” of international operations, there is a sense of security in familiarity. One female informant described that:

“...it is a very good solidarity in the troop and I think that it can be very good to, one get to know each other very well, it becomes like a little family is what I understand, because you go through a lot together. And share a lot with the others, because we have in one way only each other when we are out there” (B3 – F24).

Comradeship was for some of the informants considered a determinate factor when considering whether or not to continue in the armed forces. One female informant said that:

“I think it will be good, and I think that the comradeship and the group that go out together are going to have something together that one cannot find any
other place. And that is what many says is what draw people back to the armed forces, which keep people in the armed forces, it is the comradeship and brotherhood that is here. So I, all in all I think this will be very good. For better or for worse” (B3 – F24).

Participation in international operations is a priority to the armed forces and as mentioned earlier, for most of the informants, participating in international operations was seen as a normal part of being employed by the armed forces. Even so, the strain put on the personnel was expressed by some of the informants. One female informant who had a specific professional background explained her motivation for participating this way:

“So it is about dragging a common load, because if I don’t go, then there is someone who has to go twice. So it becomes very noticeable, if someone doesn’t go. So that is, then it will be more on the others. Out of loyalty to my colleagues, to drag the load, the shared IntOps-load” (D1 – F31).

5.7 To have done it

Where some felt participating in international operations partly as a responsibility to their colleagues, others saw participating in international operations as something “you just have to do”. To have done it can have both positive and negative meaning. A positive meaning can be put on this statement from a female informant: “I think many who go out, and it is about that, the wish to have been out, the wish to have tried it, and the wish to have learned it” (D1 – F31). To have done it is here expressed as something wishful; there is a wish to go out, to have tried it, and to have learned it. One female informant explained it like this:

“But, of course many travel because of money. And it also is, I think there lies some, call it adventure seeking, but some just has the need to have done it throughout their military career. It is something you just do, really. I think” (A5 – F34).
The negative meaning of “to have done” it can be found among the senior informants who saw participating as some form of forced requirement if they wished a future career in the armed forces. One female informant considered that some might participate so that they could have it “marked off” in pursuit of future career advancement:

“I often think that it for many might be so that they can mark it off in a book. (…) And I experience, I have experienced that they are more interested in having it marked off in a book, that for many it is important to deploy so they can advance in their career. It is an important point in the career to have been out once” (A4 – F26).

Considering a sense of curiosity, which can also have to do with to have done it, one female informant explained:

“What I understand from both the boys and the girls that are going now it is very much that what is attractive. To be on, trying out things in practice that we have been doing, and to be able yes, just to have tried it sort of. To be down there […]” (B3 – F24).

Others expressed a desire to finally get to know what “everyone else” was talking about. Having seen and heard of the mission in Afghanistan through the media, television, and from colleagues, the informants felt a need to see for themselves what it is all about. This is clearly expressed by a female informant described that:

“I simply want to do something exciting in life and then I thought of doing it. That is a good enough motivation. It is also to see what some of the others instead of just watching it on the news and the TV and such, it is just to travel around in the area and really see what happens” (D2 – F21).
5.8 To do something good for others

Most of the findings among the Norwegian soldiers were related to motivations with some sort of personal gain. Few informants mentioned motivations that can be considered altruistic or idealistic. Nevertheless, there were those who expressed a wish to do something good for others as a motivation for participating. When contemplating the term “to do something good for others”, “others” can be referring to both the locals that they were going to meet in the mission country, and the other soldiers they were going out with. One female informant expressed how she wished to: “…maybe give something back to someone” (A3 – F24). While another female informant stated that: “Down there, there you mean something, it is important. You do a job. You are part of a community in a whole different way than you are here at home” (B2 – F33). One female informant explained that her motivation for participating was related to: “To be able to help, to do a good job. Both for my own sake and for patients and colleagues and everything” (B3 – F24).

This motivation was also one seen as changing over time, as one male informant with previous experience said:

“…we talked a little about motivation when I was out last time […]. Then it was the experience, the curiosity, the passion for traveling, gave me the will to want to do something positive for somebody else who didn’t have it as good, and a lot of, money” (C3 – M32).

One female informant who had previous experience described that:

“…it feels meaningful what we contribute with down there. (...) You get something back that is part of the motivation for going out that you feel that you contribute so they get it better. So it is, you should not rule out that this gives, maybe not great motivation before you go but it adds to what you bring back home in your baggage for later” (C1 – F37).
Chapter summary

The motivation-types identified in this research are to a large extent similar to several of the motivation-types found in the literature, but their importance varies depending on the national culture, organizational culture, and the individual soldier. The time at which the survey was conducted, whether it was pre-deployment, during deployment, or after returning home should also be taken into consideration as mentioned by Juvan and Vuga (2011).

Findings by this research show that Norwegian soldiers demonstrate all three categories of motivations presented by Battistelli’s motivation typology. The eight motivations for participation in international operations identified among the Norwegian soldiers can be seen in Table 3.

Table 3: Norwegian soldiers’ motivation for participating in international operations

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<th>Paleomodern⁷</th>
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<tr>
<td>To do something good for others</td>
<td>The economic benefit</td>
<td>Adventure and excitement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Comradeship</td>
<td>Useful merit for future (civil or military) career</td>
<td>To get experience and to acquire competence</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>The job and the profession</td>
<td>To have done it</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings that adventure and excitement, comradeship, and, a wish to apply their military skills were motivations for participating in international operations among the Norwegian personnel, is consistent with findings from Blix (2007), Westlye (2009), Oterhals (2008), Johannessen (2007) and Totland (2009). These findings are also similar to the findings from studies on Swedish soldiers by Hedlund (2011), and Slovenian soldiers by Jelusic (2004), where adventure and excitement are considered important motivational factors. Findings by Jelusic (2004), that motivation in the pre-deployment phase being the perceived attractiveness of the expected job, is also found among the Norwegian soldiers.

⁷ Normative commitments
⁸ Instrumental or utilitarian commitments
⁹ Desire for adventure, new and meaningful personal experience
This study was conducted in the pre-deployment phase, and though some informants had previous experience from participating in international operations, it was their motivation for participating in the current mission that was the main focus. The findings of this research was not consistent with the conclusion by Jelusic (2004), that the soldiers in the pre-deployment phase would be guided by paleomodern and postmodern motives, and not modern motives. This research found all three motives to be present during the pre-deployment phase, but emphasize on paleomodern motives were found to a smaller extent than that put on modern or postmodern motives.

The findings on motivation among Norwegian soldiers are consistent with findings by Tomforde (2005) and Hedlund (2011), when it comes to the economic benefit. Money or financial motives were reported, but not as a single or main motivation. In other words, this means that the economic benefit alone was not found to be significant when exploring what motivates soldiers’ to participate in international operations.

Consistent with findings among their Swedish neighbors the Norwegian soldiers did not show any sign of utilizing paleomodern patriotic motives, such as to promote the country’s image. Only one informant mentioned that he was: “…proud to represent his country” (A2 – M22).

Based on these findings, my conclusion is that the Norwegian soldiers’ motivation for participating in international operations is various, and I have here presented eight motivations found in this research. Categorized using Battistelli’s motivation typology, all three: paleomodern, modern and postmodern, are found among the Norwegian soldiers’. Consistent with findings by Battistelli et al. (1999), the modern and postmodern motivations are found to be more prevalent among the Norwegian soldiers’ than paleomodern motivations.

During my analysis of the data collected I discovered that there were topics that seemed relevant, but that did not fit under a motivation type. Two factors seemed to have some influence on the motivation for participating in international operations in varying degrees, and I have chosen to collect these two factors under “Reasons given for not going” and “Support form family and friends”.

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6 Reasons given for not participating

“And now is a good time to go, because I do not have any children, and we are not married, but I do have a boyfriend so. It fits well with where I am in my life right now” (A3 – F24).

The research question for this study was: “What motivates Norwegian soldiers for participating in international operations?” By asking the informants to deliberate on the opposite, on what would keep them from participating, this can reveal what could be perceived as more important than participating. At this point, when they have signed the contract and are training specifically towards preparing for deployment, to consider the soldiers to be highly motivated for participating seems to be a reasonable assumption to make.

6.1 The time is right

A number of the informants stated that “the time is right” as reason for why they were participating now. This can be interpreted both as motivating for participating, that “the time is right for participating”, but it can also be considered as revealing motivations for not participating, such as “the time is right for participating now because if the situation had been different I would not have done it”. To not having children seemed to be the recurrent reason for why “now” was the right time to participate. As one female informant said:

“Now is a better time than later in case I have children and such, then I think I would contemplate more before going out. (...) It’s not that I think this is the only time I’m doing this. But it depends on if I get a family, children, I don’t think I will leave them while they are little. It would have to be some years after that, sort of. (...) If I had had children it would have been much more difficult. I don’t know if I would have done it then” (A1 – F26).
This was an opinion expressed by a number of the informants without children, as another female informant explained how she would not have participated:

“...if I were pregnant. Or had small children. I don’t quite know, but I imagine that it would have to be something like that or some serious illness in the family or something like that. Because I think that you always have the possibility to go out if you absolutely want to, so then it could wait” (A3 – F24).

Informants who had children did not necessarily consider the fact that they had children as a reason for not going, but expressed that they had received reactions from friends concerning this. One female informant illustrated the reactions from her friends, such as: “…friends [saying]’oh I can’t imagine to be away from my children for even a weekend. And you go away for months’” (C1 – F37).

6.2 Family crisis

The main body of informants named family crisis or death in the family as their main and sometimes only reason for not participating. It appeared that the consensus was that having come this far; it would have to be something severe for them to not participate. One male informant stated that reasons where he would not participate was:

“Death in the family that the family had coped badly with. For example if I had some close family or family members at Utøya\(^\text{10}\), for example, then it could have been difficult. It has to be something really special for me not to go” (A2 – M22).

One female informant who had children said that if they had protested, she would not have participated: “It would have to be the children. If they had protested and cried and said ‘we don’t want this’” (A5 – F34).

\(^{10}\) The interviews were conducted after the incident at Utøya, 22\(^{\text{nd}}\) of July 2012.
Johnsen, Eid, Laberg and Barone (2010) have noted that for personnel in the armed forces, separation from family and friends can be seen as one of the most potent stressors. A number of informants expressed that it was not necessarily the stress or risk of participating for them they thought would be the hardest. Instead, many of them said that the strain on their families and those back home was much worse. One female informant described that:

“The family. I am very lucky to have support from home, but if my parents or my siblings had said that we do not want you to go, and protested or been very negative towards it and not been able to give me the support that I get now, then I would not go. Because I think that, it will be, it is one thing for me who am down there. But I think it is definitely worse for those back home. So if I did not have the support from home I would not go” (B3 – F24).

It can seem like once the decision to participate has been made, there has to be something serious for the participant to give up on participating in international operations. At least at this point when they have all signed their contracts and are in the phase of setup for deployment. Most of the informant named reasons outside of themselves for not participating, but those who touched upon the topic, did not have any clear thought behind what it was that would make them unfit to participate. One female informant explained that: “It would have to be if there was something in the family, I can imagine. Yes illness, death, myself if I should get a weird condition that made me unfit to go” (A4 – F26).

One male informant expressed how he, when considering participating, already then decided that when he first had made the decision, he would stick by it:

“It would have to be something, something that makes me unfit for example, a large injury, either physically or mentally. It would either have to happen something to me or perhaps, more the family, that would make me unfit to go. It would have to be something like that. (...) When they took out our troop and it was sort of, when the troop chief wanted a yes or a no, I was very, I was very conscious that I would decide now. I am not going to wobble until summer and
then let go at the last moment, either you say no or you say yes. And now I have said yes, I’m staying true to that, now it is going to be, it has to be very big disruption in my life to stop it” (D4 – M20).

Chapter summary

There seems to be a possible tension between motivations for participation and reasons given for not going. A third factor, such as support from family and friends, might work to ease some of this tension and to help keep some form of balance between the participants’ motivations for participating and reasons given for not going. Support from family and friends can, however, if being absent, possibly have the opposite effect and create more tension for the participant.
7 Support from family and friends

“It is not that many who understands it. But I do not expect people to understand it really; as long as my parents are onboard that is what is important” (A6 –M20).

The Norwegian soldiers know that it will be tough on their family that they are participating in international operations, and that having made this decision, there is few things that could make them change their minds. Nevertheless, to have support from home, even when their family disagrees with their decision seems to be of significance to how the soldiers perceive their participation.

7.1 The importance of support

Most of the informants said that they had support from their family when it came to participating in international operations. Even so, there were some examples of some ambivalence among the support reported. One male informant described that:

“Yes. Now they do [support me]. Absolutely. About, they have done it from the beginning too but they have tried to talk me out of it, but if it came to this they would support me no matter what. And that is what they have said” (B4 – M22).

The ambivalence can be seen in the fact that if the family had immediately supported him, why did they feel the need to try to talk him out of it? This can only lead to speculations, but it is interesting to consider how the informant themselves perceived this support, and how the family might perceive it.

One female informant explained how she had her family’s support, and how this made her feel more at ease: “Yes, they all support me. Even though they react very differently. But, I have only experienced that my family supports me. So that is something I am very happy about” (D1 – F31).
Perhaps it can be drawn from these results that, for the soldiers to be satisfied with his or her decision to participate, to have support from their family is important.

Some of the informants expressed a bit of a struggle to get support from their family, and described how they had to figure out ways to “get their family on their side”. As one male informant who said that: “Yes [I], had to sell it a bit. There are not many who are for it. The whole bunch is really against it. So, I had to work up some ways to explain things” (A2 – M22).

Few of the informants found themselves to be questioned about their choice to participate in international operations, but one female informant depicted her experience in this regard:

“...I have had relatives who sort of starts to bring up the political question when their son or daughter is going out. And that is a bit wrong then, because then you have just made the decision that ‘yes, I am going out’. And then you should just support the choice that has been made. Because the political, that we cannot do anything about. That is what those in the department have decided” (A3 – F24).

Telling the ones closest to you that you will be going to Afghanistan for six months does not seem like an easy thing to do. Some of the informants raised the issue they had with being concerned about telling their family about their decision to participate. One male informant described that how supportive his family turned out to be surprised him:

“First of all I got really good support from home right away. (...) And they said right away that ‘if this is what you want then, great,’ they said literally, ‘then we will support you.’ So I got that support right away, so that was, it was easier to tell then what I had imagined” (B1 – M34).
Other informants expressed reluctance to talk with their family about participating. One female informant explained why she did not talk to her family about her participation:

“I don’t want to talk about it, because I know it will only upset, it will upset this family, they don’t want me to go. So therefore I have just said that I am going, and not discussed it any further” (B2 – F33).

Another female informant reflected on how no parent think it is alright to send their child to war, but in the same paragraph say that her parents support her decision to participate:

“And when I mentioned it to my parents at home it was not exactly, there is no one who thinks it is fine to send their kids to war, but they support me and both my parents and siblings and friends and everything is very much there that if this is what I really want they will support me” (B3 – F24).

When making life-changing decision, which participating in international operations can be considered to be, it is important to have people that you can talk to. Being able to talk about what it means to participate in international operations is important in that the soldiers get to reflect on the made decision or the decision to-be-made. The soldiers are encouraged to turn to each other, even so, many of the informants named their closest family; their parents or partner, as the ones they talked to about participating. When it comes to talking about their participation with friends or family who did not have affiliation to the armed forces, some of the informants expressed exasperation over their civilian friends or family. As one female informant said:

“…but it is my boyfriend [I talk to] since he is in the armed forces and other girlfriends I have in the armed forces who knows what it entails. Otherwise it is no good discussing it with other people because they only say ‘oh that sounds frightening how [can] you risk going out.’ It doesn’t become a very meaningful discussion” (A1 – F26).
There were other soldiers that also expressed this lack of understanding for what they were to do among their civilian friends or family. This, I believe, reflects back to how unique and special the armed forces are as an organization and as a workplace.

### 7.2 One, but not the other?

To have support from family and friends is clearly an important influence on motivation for participating. Several of that they had support from some of the members in the family, but not from all. As one female informant said: “…[I have support] from my husband, yes, but not that overwhelming joy from my mom and siblings” (C1 – F37).

There seem to be some disagreement inside the families when it comes to the support given to the soldiers. One male informant had one parent who supported him and one parent who did not:

“Yes, parents, or my mom is, has always been very skeptical when it comes to having to go out. Now more than the last time because it is being perceived as a bit egocentric to leave wife and children. (...) They understand it; I won’t say that they support it. My father supports it. My mother understands it, but does not quite support it and needs to have a verification that I really have to go” (C3 – M32).

It seem simple, but how the soldiers prepare their families early on in the process can work in a positive way when it comes to get understanding and support for the choice made. One male informant described how he, by talking about participating in international operations early on, and by showing that he was serious about it, worked on getting his parents blessing for his decision to participate:

“So, mom and dad they were, they were really against it. They are not necessarily for it yet, but yes, considering that I told them about it really early and I have been working and been serious about it, so they have sort of
accepted it. And gradually as they have got to know more about it, yes, I think they have become more, more favorable sort of” (D4 – M20).

Support from family and friends are important to all of the informants, but even so, some of them stated that they would participate without the support if necessary. As one female informant said: “…it would have been sad if mom and dad did not support me, but I think I would have done it anyway” (A1 – F26).

Chapter summary

Having support from their family and friends for their choice to participate in international operations seem to be important for the soldiers. This does not necessarily mean that if they did not have the support, that they would decide not to participate. Support from family and friends might work as a way for the soldiers to maintain their motivation and resolve for participation. These findings among the Norwegian soldiers are consistent with findings by Vegič (2007), concerning the importance of having support from the family.

This research did not, however, as Vegič (2007), find that there were a difference among soldiers with previous experience and those participating for the first time, concerning problems due to lack of time with their. The absence of this difference in the findings of this research can not be considered to be conclusive in any way, as this was not one of the objectives of this research. What can be contemplated by the findings of this research on the support from family and friends is that the soldiers’ disposition to talk about their participation seems to change with previous experience. In other words, this means that soldiers participating for the first time are more open to talk about their participation with their family and friends, than their colleagues who have previous experience. One possible explanation for this difference might be that, having been through the process of discussing with their family about their choice of participating at an earlier time, the participants with previous experience consider it to be too exhausting. As one informant of this research said, that knowing that discussing her participation would only upset her family, she rather chose to not discuss it.
8 Conclusions

The research question for this study was: “What motivates Norwegian soldiers to participate in international operations?”

Three research objectives were chosen to frame the rest of the discussion:

1) How does the motivation to participate in international operations for Norwegian soldiers differ from their counterparts in other European countries?

2) In a comparison of female and male soldiers, are there gender group differences in motivations to participate?

3) To what degree do soldiers take the opinions and support – or lack thereof – of their family and friends into account when making the decision of whether or not to participate in international operations?

Looking at the motivations for participation in international operations among the Norwegian soldiers, the aim of this study was to identify the reason why some people are willing and decides to risk their life entering into a conflict outside their own country. Their reasons seem to be multiple, and not necessarily exclusive.

This research found the motivations among the Norwegian soldiers to be more similar to the motivations of their fellow soldiers from other European countries, than different. Concerning the motivation typology by Battistelli, the Norwegian soldiers expressed motivations related to all three categories; paleomodern, modern and postmodern, which is consistent with findings in the literature. The differences can be traced back to which of the different categories are most prominent at what time during deployment. One suggestion for future research is to conduct a longitudinal study on motivation among Norwegian soldiers, to see whether the motivations change from pre-deployment, during deployment, and after the return home, as has been done in other countries.
Concerning whether or not there exist gender group differences between male and female soldiers in motivations to participate, this research found that the motivations were more similar than different between the groups. Perhaps the most interesting observation in this regard, was how the two groups exhibited presumptions that the other group’s motivations were considered to be different from their own in one way or another. Both literature (Schjølset, 2010; Steder et al., 2009) and observations made during the fieldwork of this research, have contemplated how the contribution of women participating in international operations is greater than the presentation of women in the armed forces overall, which can possibly explain the findings of these “gender biases”. Nevertheless, the findings of this research recommend further research on this subject.

The findings of this research show that the Norwegian soldiers perceived the support from family and friends to be important. Some of the informants expressed that without the support from their family; they would not participate, while others stated that it would be sad not to be supported, but that they would participate even without the support. All in all, to have support from family and friends was considered to be significant, but to what degree the absence of support would affect the soldiers to not participate can at this point only be speculated on.

Related to the factor of support from family and friends, what seems to be evident is that even though there is one man or one woman who is deployed, the decision to participate has impact beyond that individual. The findings of this research suggest that more investigation is needed on the subject of support from family and friends, and on how the military organization can help the soldier as well as the family, before, during, and after deployment.

The armed forces as an organization seem to attract a diverse number of people, but what seems relevant to further examination is how the armed forces manage to retain those already in their employment, and how to recruit personnel in the future. One aspect of this is what type of organization the Norwegian armed forces wish to be in the future, and how their recruitment of personnel can be a reflection of this. Since the
requirement of participating in international operations is perceived as essential for a future career in the armed forces, the armed forces needs to consider how this may influence people contemplating a military career. If someone were not willing to participate in international operations, the current focus on participation could possibly omit them from advancing in the military system, with the result of them pursuing a career outside of the armed forces instead. This could make the armed forces potentially loosing valuable personnel. This can also mean that people with an interest for international operations will be favorable in applying for jobs in the armed forces, which in turn can have an impact on the armed forces, as an organization and in the personnel that is deployed. Based on this line of thought, one suggestion to future research is on the importance placed on international operations by the armed forces, now and in the future, and how this might influence the armed forces as an organization and its personnel.
Works Cited


Forsvarets Personellhåndbok (2005).


## Appendix A: Interview guide (Norwegian)

### Intervjuguide

#### Innledning
- Informasjonsskriv/samtykkeerklæring

#### Egenpresentasjon
- Hvem er jeg
- Studiet og undersøkelsen, formålet med studiet (oppgaven)
- Beskrivelse av intervjuet – formatet vil ta form av en samtale hvor det vil bli stilt noen spørsmål men hvor veien blir til undervis; er interessert i å høre hva deltakeren har å si; vil følge opp når noe er uklart eller interessant; intervjuet skal være et samarbeid mellom deltaker og student
- Informasjon vedrørende anonymitet og konfidensialitet
- Tillatelse til å ta opp intervjuet på elektronisk opptaker – for utskrift og vurdering, anonymisert i oppgaven, slettes når oppgaven er ferdig

#### Presentasjon av deltakeren
- Alder
- Kjønn
- Bakgrunn før Forsvaret
- Bakgrunn i Forsvaret

#### Spørsmål som relaterer seg til den enkeltes motivasjon og tanker om å delta i intops
- Hvilken informasjon om intops hadde du før du bestemte deg for å delta
- Hva var viktig for deg og hvilke vurderinger tok du når du skulle bestemme deg for å delta – var det noe som var avgjørende for dette valget
- Snakket du med familie, kollega eller venner om denne avgjørelsen – hvilken påvirkning hadde dette på valget du tok
- Hva tenker du om motivasjon – hvilken betydning har den for deg
- Hvis noe skulle holdt deg fra å delta, hva tror du det ville være
- Hva tror du er viktig for dine mannligke/kvinnelige kollegaer når de bestemmer seg for å delta – deres motivasjon
- Hvilke tanker/forventninger har du omkring det å skulle delta i intops – er det noen opplevelse eller erfaringer du tror vil være spesielt positive ved å delta – opplevelse eller erfaringer som du tror vil være vanskelige
- Kan du beskrive en hendelse hvor du har opplevd reaksjoner på ditt valg om å delta – hvordan forholder du deg til det
- Hvilken informasjon har du fått fra Forsvaret om deltakelse i intops – oppfølgning på nåværende tidspunkt – informasjon om oppfølgning når du kommer hjem – informasjon
til familie/venner

- Har du noen tanker omkring det å være mann/kvinne i Forsvaret – hvordan er det…, hvordan opplever du det…, kan du gi noen eksempler…. hva opplever du som du tror andre menn/kvinner ikke opplever eventuelt også opplever… etc.
- Har du noen tanker omkring det å være mann eller det å være kvinne har noe å si for motivasjon for å delta i intops – positiv/negativ
- I hvilken grad vektlegger du erfaringer, familiestatus, ambisjoner etc. som viktig for motivasjon for å delta

Helt til slutt er det noe du vil tilføye eller utdype angående det vi har snakket om?

Er det greit om jeg tar kontakt hvis det skulle være noen oppfølgingsspørsmål?

Takk for at du deltok

Hvis du har spørsmål eller tanker i etterkant, så er det bare å ta kontakt
Appendix B: Information sheet and consent form (Norwegian)

Forespørsel om å delta i intervju i forbindelse med masteroppgave om "Motivasjon for deltakelse i internasjonale operasjoner (intops) – En kvalitativ studie av motivasjon for deltakelse i intops blant menn og kvinner i det norske Forsvaret"


Dersom du har lyst å være med på intervjuet, er det fint om du skriver under på den vedlagte samtykkeerklæringen og sender den til meg eller tar den med til intervjuet.

Hvis det er noe du lurer på kan du ringer meg på 99 27 13 16, eller sende en e-post til stabell.yvonne@gmail.com. Du kan også kontakte min veileder, førsteamanuensis Katrina Roen ved Psykologisk Institutt ved Universitetet i Oslo, på telefon 22 84 50 18.

Studien er meldt til Personvernombudet for forskning, Norsk samfunnsvitenskapelig datatjeneste A/S.

Med vennlig hilsen
Yvonne Stabell
Oslo, 1. februar 2011
Samtykkeerklæring:
Jeg har mottatt informasjon om studien av motivasjon for deltakelse i internasjonale operasjoner og ønsker å stille på intervju.

Signatur ..........................................

E-post/Telefonnummer ................................