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A Study on Improvement of Information Sharing on TERROR CRIME

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Abstract

The terrorist attacks in France and Belgium in November 2015 and March 2016 give us clear and important implications. That is, the importance of information sharing between intelligence agencies and investigation agencies. This is because both the terrorist attacks in France in 2015 and the terror attacks in Belgium in 2016 are information failures due to information sharing and failure to analyze shared information.

Although the Republic of Korea continued to submit the Anti-Terrorism Act to the National Assembly, it failed to pass the voices of various toxic clauses and concerns about the strengthening of the powers of state institutions. After the intense discussions in early 2016, Korea has enacted and enforced the Anti-Terrorism Act in 2016, but it remains vague with regard to information sharing, especially between information agencies and information agencies. In other words, the Korea Anti-Terrorism Act focuses on strengthening the authority of the intelligence agencies to prevent terrorism from the point of view that prevention of terrorism is important. However, in order to prevent the identification of the substantive truth after the terrorist crime and the anticipated second attack, the investigation right of the investigation agency needs to be guaranteed. However, the Anti-Terrorism Act does not pay any attention to strengthening the investigation capabilities of these investigative institutions, and it inevitably stipulates superficially sharing information to the investigative institutions.

In order to systematically assure the information sharing system of the investigation agencies based on foreign experience, 1) Domestic terrorism information should be based on the basic information of KICS, which can be handled by the Crime Information Office of the Supreme Prosecutor's Office, And 2) the International Terrorist Information Office proposed an amendment that systematically guarantees the delivery of terrorist information to the Supreme Public Prosecutor's Office by the counter - terrorism center under the Office of the Prime Minister's Office.

[Keywords] *Terror Crime, Intelligence Service, Investigative Service, Information Sharing, Finding of Substantial Truth*

1. Introduction

It is not long ago that terrorist crime has attracted the attention of the world. Looking back in history, from the assassination of Julius Caesar to the murder of Nice in the summer of 2016, terrorist crime has always been by our side.

Although the Republic of Korea continued to submit the Anti-Terrorism Act to the National Assembly, it failed to pass because of opinions on various toxic clauses and concerns about the strengthening of the powers of state institutions. After the intense discussions in early 2016, the Anti-Terrorism Act passed the National Assembly plenary session on March 2. So, can we become a clean zone of terrorism because of anti-terrorism laws?

Unfortunately, such a rosy outlook will only be possible if gradual improvements and organizational improvements are in place. In this situation, the Paris-linked terrorist attacks in November 2015 and the Belgian terrorist attacks in March 2016 suggest a clear direction of information sharing between intelligence agencies and investigative agencies.

2. Lessons Learned from Recent Terror Crime: Reconsideration of the Importance of Information

Today, the most important asset for identifying terrorist crimes as well as the substantive truth of criminal offenses is "information". Not only the importance of information but also the use of information in terms of investigation has been considered seriously since 9/11. Previously, the United States clearly distinguished the areas of intelligence and investigation. However, the findings of the 9/11 Commission revealed that there were about 10 opportunities to prevent the occurrence of the incident, but they were missed[1]. The 9/11 Commission suggested that the organic fusion of information and investigation could effectively deal with terrorist crimes only.

The problem of sharing this information has turned out to be a problem in all recent terrorist incidents. Let's take an example of a series of terrorist attacks in France. According to local media reports in France, "On November 12, 2015, IS leader Abu Bakr al-Baghdadi ordered to operate terrorist attacks against participating States in air-bombing, Iran and Russia in a few days." The Iraqi intelligence agency reported that four senior officials of the Iraqi intelligence agency had given warnings directly to France[2]. However, the French government did not pay much attention to this and unfortunate serial terrorism occurred in November.

The same goes for Belgium. One of the main culprits of the Belgian chain of terror in March 2016, Bragg-El-Baakrai, was arrested in July 2015 and deported to the Netherlands, which officially informed the Dutch and Belgian intelligence authorities, This is because the information has not been used

properly[3]. In addition, El Baccoi was listed as a potential terrorist threat to the United States, and six days before terrorist attack in Brussels, the Federal Bureau of Investigation informed the Dutch police about the crime and terrorist career of the Baccoi brothers, but it was reported that the Dutch and Belgian authorities did not take any actions.

3. In the Current Anti-Terrorism Law, Is the Prosecution Being Treated Like Nobody?

From this point of view, one of the biggest problems of the current Anti-Terrorism Act is strengthening the authority of the intelligence agency and alienating the investigation agency. Although this was one of the biggest objections to the introduction of the Anti-Terrorism Act from the 18th National Assembly, the current law is enforced without the introduction of controls and checks against information agencies[4].

Of course, it is natural for terrorist crime prevention to have strengthened powers at a certain level, since not only overseas information but also information gathered and analyzed in the country is also necessary. The current law also strengthens the authority of intelligence agencies in these considerations. The problem is that information is so important that if the information gathering, analysis, and distribution powers of the intelligence agencies have been strengthened in the Anti-Terrorism Act and the Enforcement Decree of the same law, they are silent about sharing such information with the investigating authorities. Moreover, it doesn't have any democratic control over the intelligence service[5].

Since the prevention of terrorism is more important than response of terrorism, it is designed as a precautionary measure focusing on preventive measures, which inevitably strengthen the authority of intelligence agencies handling "information" in advance. There is also a need to identify not only proactive responses but also posture responses, realistic truths, and prevent possible secondary attacks. However, the Act does not have much

weight in identifying reality truths as such, and it is a matter that needs improvement.

4. Strengthening and Institutionalizing Information Sharing System for Counterterrorism

It is necessary to consider how the investigation agency collects information related to terrorism and how information collected from various organizations can be provided in the reality that the authority of the intelligence agency is strengthened in the field of terrorism response. This can be thought of as collecting and analyzing information related to terrorism in the public information in Korea, and collecting information related to terrorism from related organizations such as the integration center for information on terrorism.

4.1. Analysis and sharing of open source information in Korea

First of all, it is the domestic natural terrorist offender, so-called self-made terrorist offender. Indigenous terrorist criminals can select basic signs with the currently established Criminal Justice Services(KICS)[6]. The problem is that the system can only acquire partial information through systems such as KICS, which means that a big picture of terrorist crime cannot be grasped. In other words, there is no crime prediction program for assessing the possibility that a criminal who has been subjected to homegrown terrorism or extremist ideology can carry it to actual offense of crime, and when and how to do it. Only a trained crime analyst can do that. Therefore, there is a need to hire and cultivate information analysts specialized in terrorism crimes and extreme crimes, though it is difficult for the personnel and the budget. In addition, it is necessary to prepare institutional measures to share terrorism and extreme information produced by such information analysts with not only prosecutors but also related organizations such as police and military.

For the collection and analysis of terrorism and extreme information, the crime information officer under the crime information

planner of the Supreme Prosecutors' Office may be utilized. The crime information officer 2 is responsible for the collection and management of crime information in public security cases.

However, the crime information 1 officer also analyzes "open source intelligence(OSINT)" such as newspaper and broadcasting, but the criminal information 2 officer is limited to collection and management of open source information. Therefore, Article 4 of Paragraph 3 of Article 3 of the 「Provisional Regulations on the Office of the Public Prosecutors' Office can be considered to be established the provision of Article 4 of "Analysis and Management of Terrorism and Public Crime Based on Open Source Information from Newspapers, Broadcasts,

In addition, it can be suggested the Article 5 of the Act as "Attorney General can collect and analyze the information on terrorism by using the open source information including KICS" to be revised in Article 9 of the Act on collection of information on high-risk terrorists.

4.2 Collection and sharing of information from relevant organizations

If the prosecution is able to acquire information on terrorism, it may be necessary to collect information related to terrorism through KICS, as well as information generated based on information transmitted by "overseas intelligence agencies" to "domestic intelligence agencies".

Under the current Anti-Terrorism Act, the Integration Center for Terror Information established and operated by the National Intelligence Service, is responsible for the integrated management of terror information(Article 20 of the Enforcement Decree). The task of the Integration Center for Terror Information is largely divided into three parts: (1)Integrated management and analysis of information related to terrorism at home and abroad and distribution to relevant organizations; (2)Maintenance of a 24-hour terrorism related situation transmission system; (3)Evaluation on signs of possible terrorist attacks; (4)and management of other requirements needed in integrated management of

terror information. In other words, the Integration Center for Terror Information was established to collect, analyze, process, evaluate and distribute information related to terrorism under the control of the National Intelligence Service. The problem is that only the phrase that "the integrated management and distribution of terrorist information" is defined, but it does not clearly specify at what time, in what manner, or to which agency information should be distributed.

Currently, the crime information can be gathered from the prosecutors' office through the local prosecutors' office, the crime information officer under the Supreme Prosecutors' Office, and the counter terrorism center under the Office of the State Planning and Coordination Center. The information gathered from the frontline is notified to the counterterrorism center through the council of regional countermeasures, and the related information reported through the internal system of the prosecutor's office is finally reported to the crime information planner office of the Supreme Prosecutor's Office.

These current system requirements require the investigating authorities to: provide clear rules on the content, timing and procedures of the information to be notified from the Counterterrorism Center and the Counterterrorism Information Center; We have learned through historical experience that human response is limited, and that if a large terrorist incident actually occurs, the regulation "does not really work" even if "regulations exist". It is very questionable whether the provision of only "the integrated management and analysis of information and distribution to relevant organizations" without any specific guidelines for information sharing can actually work.

Therefore, it is necessary to establish a clear definition of information sharing between intelligence agencies and investigation agencies in order to prevent crimes that have special characteristics in investigations and public prosecutions, such as terrorist crimes, and to clarify truths of facts quickly. In addition to receiving the necessary information from the intelligence service, including the counter-terrorism center, the prosecution is

required to notify the prosecution of necessary information on terrorism while conducting the investigation.

By comparison, the United States has established a National Security Branch in the Department of Justice in 2005 under President Bush's administrative orders to ensure that the intelligence community provides information on domestic terrorist crime investigations since 9/11, 2001[7]. In other words, it is possible to use intelligence information only for crimes related to anti-terrorism, terrorism, and the proliferation of weapons of mass destruction. It recognizes that limited criminal acts including terrorist crimes require not only investigation capability but also information capability. In France, DGSI, which has been reorganized in 2013, can not only collect information on terrorist offenses, but also undertake direct investigations[8]. In Belgium Article 19 and Article 19 of the Intelligence Law on Intelligence and Security Service Article 20 stipulates the exchange of information by institutions and intelligence agencies and Article 20 stipulates the general obligation of effective cooperation between the intelligence agencies, investigation agencies, administrative agencies and judicial authorities[9].

Although foreign cases do not have absolute value, there is a certain implication for us in that the country that experienced the terrifying terrorist crime first looked for its imperfections and suggested improvement measures. In Korea, too, we have experienced the fact that existing organizations and procedures are not idealized in large-scale socially shocked incidents. Therefore, the system of information sharing for terrorist crimes or crimes that threaten the national security system is mechanically operated(e.g. information to be shared, organization, time limit, etc.), so that a system other than a person needs to be operated. So what is the legal basis for the operation of such a system? There are two ways to do this.

The first plan is to impose an obligation to share information with the terrorist organization, which is the primary source of terror information. The second plan is to impose an obligation to share information with the

counter-terrorism center because the counter-terrorism center is issuing and coordinating terrorism alerts, though it is not a direct producer of terrorist information.

It is reasonable to impose the duty of sharing information on the national counterterrorism center with the investigation agency that is reported as the national counterterrorism center by the information gathering, analysis and processing of the Terrorist Information Center of the National Intelligence Service. In particular, the Counterterrorism Center is considered appropriate because it also puts "Matters concerning the preparation for terrorism in relation to the relevant authorities in Article 19-2-2(7) of the Enforcement Decree. Therefore, Article 19-2 of the "Office of the Office of Policy Coordination and its affiliated organization"(Including the issuance of information on terrorism to the Supreme Prosecutors' Office) concerning the issuance and adjustment of a terror alert."

Regardless of whether or not there is a law in the current legislation, there are no precedents in the law, such as the Anti-Terrorism Act, the Enforcement Decree, the Office of State Coordination and its affiliation, the problem of information sharing between investigative agencies and intelligence agencies can be overcome because of their seriousness and significance, except "Korea", so that the small problems of precedent cases, legislative forms and the incidence of investigation agencies will be overcome. Though a strong criticism may be raised that not only the powerful investigation but also the right to prosecute monopolizing the prosecution is granted "information", the prosecution not only receives checks by the Ministry of Justice, the National Assembly, and the press, but also the most terrifying, it is an institution that receives it publicly. Therefore, it is worthwhile to legislate to give a limited range of "information rights" to prosecutors who can save the best of the checks and balances.

5. Strengthening and Institutionalizing Information Sharing System for Counterterrorism

Terrorist crimes differ from ordinary criminal offenses in that they use human life as a means of achieving their political, religious, and national purposes, so the best option is to deter the occurrence itself. However, since it is impossible to completely prevent the occurrence of crimes including terrorism in essence, we should also be concerned with the need for the discovery of substantive truths after the events. To this end, the "information sharing" system of the intelligence agencies and the investigation agencies has been strengthened and institutionalized. In order to do this, i) the analysis and sharing of open source information in Korea should be done through the deployment and fostering of information analysts who use KICS, and ii) institutionalization of collecting and sharing information from relevant institutions should be done to the work of the counterterrorism under the Prime Minister's Office.

But unfortunately, with these regulations and the strengthening of our organization, we will not be able to essentially eradicate terrorism. For this reason, what is necessary for us to live in the age of universalization of terrorism is to strengthen the authority of the investigation agencies. It may be a so-called 'softening measure' to improve the environment in which terrorism can occur. In recent years, a number of cases have been reported in which domestic residents residing in Korea are subjected to extremist ideologies and turned into terrorists as well as terrorists entering the country due to terrorist crimes, which are naturally ineffective as countermeasures against external intrusions. That is why the UK has developed the CONTEST strategy and France has decided to launch the prevention center for violent extremism. It is also necessary for the ROK to grant appropriate authority to investigative agencies in order to respond to terrorist crime, but it is necessary to pay attention to socialization measures to correct social inequality and contradiction.

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Effects of Multiculturalism Education for KOREAN MILITARY CADETS

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Abstract

The purpose of this study was to examine the effect of the Multiculturalism Education Program (MEP) for military academy cadets on their respect to foreign culture, psychological distance to foreigners, knowledge of foreign language, and culture. The sample of this study consisted of 143 cadets (67 experimental group, 76 comparison group) attending the K military academy in Korea. The Multiculturalism Education Program with a session lasting 90 minutes in each was administered to the experimental group for 12 weeks while the comparison group took Korean Language and Literature class. This study employed a quasi-experimental design of static-group comparison with posttest only and three instruments were used in order to measure the dependent variables: Behavioral Assessment Scale for Intercultural Communication Effectiveness, Intercultural Sensitivity Inventory, and Intercultural Social Distance Scale. In the analysis process, descriptive statistics and Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) techniques were used to assess the effects of the MEP. The results of the analysis showed that there were significant differences between the two groups in the all four dependent variables and the follow-up MANOVA on psychological distance toward foreigners in five different regions revealed that the effect of the MEP is culture-general. Measurement approaches drawing on the behavioral perspective depend on observational methods rather than self-report and this study employed the instructor as the third-party observer to measure the participants' knowledge of foreign culture and language. In this study, there were significant differences in two attitude measures and two ability measures. The scales use behavioral dimensions based on work by Ruben display of respect to foreign culture, interaction and communicative ability, knowledge. Ratings provided by instructors showed that the MEP enhances the military cadets' communication effectiveness and respect to foreign culture regardless of the region. Developing education program for multicultural competence has been a popular subject of studies in these days; however, most of the institutions of the studies were civilian schools. This study is the almost first attempt to investigate the effects of the multiculturalism education program developed in the military school. Current training in the military school targets primarily the knowledge component of multicultural competence, with emphasis on culture-specific features of the contemporary language and culture. However, evidence of this study for the contribution of knowledge and favorable attitude to culture-general multiculturalism. Independent of specific language and culture, cross-cultural competence is promoted through the MEP. Thus, training should continue to address specific language and culture, but should also culture-general respect and acceptance. Training and education should also consider the level of participants' initial knowledge and the level of cross-cultural development. MEP will provide the scaffolding needed to structure knowledge and skill acquisition of multicultural competence in a way that facilitates learning.

[Keywords] *Multiculturalism Education Program, Cultural Competence, Military Cadets, Cultural Understanding, Quasi-Experimental Design*

1. Introduction

As Korea is becoming multicultural society, military recruits from various cultural backgrounds are increasing in its' population. Korea Army sent special dispatches to several areas including Lebanon, Sudan, and Afghanistan as a member of United Nations Peace Keeping Forces(UNPKF). The UNPKF operations increasingly require Army leaders to anticipate the actions of, interact with, and influence individuals and groups whose cultural context differs widely from their own. The leaders of Korea Army are required to be equipped with foreign languages proficiency and cultural knowledge to effectively communicate with foreigners. Specifically designed education programs for the officer candidates are needed for the requirements and previous research reported that the multicultural education program enhances learners' cultural knowledge and verbal communication skills to understand and interact with a particular population in a particular location[1].

The present situations of the multicultural phenomenon and the world-wide operations, however, demand a broader cultural capability, whereby army leaders are able to adapt successfully to any cultural setting and population. Culture-general knowledge and skills above specific regional language and cultural knowledge are necessary especially for junior military officers who command and operate their unit members in the field of action. Whereas language and regional expertise provide the depth to operate in a specific culture, cross-cultural competence provides leaders the breadth to operate in any culture. Cross-cultural competence provides capability for a culture-general capability and open attitude toward foreign people, language, and culture in multinational settings. Educating leaders to have requisite multicultural knowledge and attitude may have successful consequences that highlight the need for clear conceptualization and training of cross-cultural competence. In addition, these potential consequences highlight the need to consider outcomes in addition to job performance. Building interpersonal relationships

across cultural boundaries has implications for success in personnel management and group performance outcomes by effectively maximizing all group members with different cultural backgrounds in the military[2].

Multicultural competence refers to the knowledge, skills, and motivation that enable individuals to adapt effectively in cross-cultural environments. Cross-cultural competence is defined here as an individual capability that contributes to intercultural effectiveness regardless of the particular intersection of cultures. Although some aspects of cognition, behavior, or affect may be particularly relevant in a specific country or region, evidence suggests that a core set of competencies enables adaptation to any culture. This study, therefore, intends to identify the effects of multiculturalism education program for military cadets for their multicultural competence and to investigate whether the effect of the program is culture-specific or culture-general. This study employed a quasi-experimental design using static-group comparison of military cadets of KAAAY and three research hypotheses were addressed to accomplish the research purpose:

First, the MEP will show significantly positive effect on the subjects' sensitivity of multiculturalism.

Second, the MEP will show significantly positive effect on the subjects' foreign language and cultural knowledge.

Third, the MEP's effect will be culture-general rather than culture-specific.

2. Theoretical Background

2.1. Cross cultural competence

Cross-cultural competence means culture-general capability above regional/cultural expertise while regional language proficiency or culture education program provides culture-specific capability[3]. Army leaders working with the military personnel from various cultural backgrounds may benefit from culture-specific knowledge of the particular organizations involved. They, however, eventually transfer to different areas and meet

people with various cultural and ethnic backgrounds in the long-term service. Although much has been written about diversity in the organizational literature, no clear definition emerges of what is meant by multicultural competence. Cox and Beale[4] suggest that multicultural competency is “a process of learning that leads to an ability to effectively respond to the challenges and opportunities posed by the presence of social-cultural diversity in a social group”(p. 2). Chemers and Murphy[5] contend that leaders of diverse culture groups need to be sensitive to differences when they exist and find ways to reduce the negative impact of stereotypes. Furthermore, they argue that effective leadership of a diverse force is based on the establishment of authentic and open relationships between leaders and followers. Geber[6] argues that such relational skills have been used by good army leaders for a long time.

However, good leaders in diverse units have learned to apply these skills while being aware of the cultural differences of others and thereby, empowering subordinates to contribute their unique strengths to the unit. Mai-Dalton[7] describes the skills needed for leadership in multicultural organizations as an openness to cultural differences, a knowledge of what these differences in specific situations consist of, and the acceptance and use of differences in improving organizational performance. Mai-Dalton summarized previous work in which leadership behavior dimensions within a multicultural organization include: commitment to fairness, long term plans to include culturally diverse employees at all levels of the organization, broad knowledge of diversity and awareness multicultural issues, openness to change, and taking an active role in creating opportunities for diverse unit members. McKee and Schor[8] suggest that changes in demographics of military make it increasingly important for leaders to value differences and work effectively with people of various cultures, backgrounds, races, etc. Some scholars have argued that effective leadership in today’s diverse population requires high levels of cultural intelligence, respect to foreign culture, and knowledge of foreign language[9].

An emerging body of research[10] has focused on defining and assessing cultural intelligence(CQ), defined as a person’s capability to gather, interpret, and act upon different cues to function effectively across cultural settings or in a multicultural situation. Jacques[11] wrote about the need for dominant population to effectively understand and accept multicultural situations. More generally, Garcia[12] defines multicultural diversity competence as the ability to demonstrate respect and understanding, to communicate effectively, and to work collaboratively with people from different cultural backgrounds.

Research has identified traits and other personal characteristics that predict intercultural effectiveness, but the relationships have tended to be small and sometimes inconsistent. Focusing more specifically on what individuals know, do, and feel with regard to cross-cultural experiences may be a more productive approach. As defined here, cross-cultural competence refers to the knowledge, affect/motivation, and skills that enable individuals to adapt effectively in cross-cultural environments. The definition and structure adopted here are patterned after previous conceptualizations of interpersonal competencies and intercultural communication, but are construed more broadly. The dimensions presented here not only directly support effective intercultural communication, but also contribute to personal adjustment and work outcomes[13]. Some knowledge and skills could contribute to the multicultural competence, but the more importantly culture-general competence is needed for army leaders in the long-run.

Since 2005, ‘multicultural’-based terms such as ‘multicultural society’, ‘multicultural family’ and ‘multicultural education’ have grown explosively in Korean society. The advertising copy of ‘Dynamic Korea’ and many other multi-racial models in TV commercials seem to indicate that Korea is becoming a multicultural society. Furthermore, many journals deal with multiculturalism issues through features and series.

Kymlicka[14] points out that two of the most important themes in contemporary political-philosophy are 'multiculturalism' and 'citizenship theory'. Multiculturalism is one type of 'politics of recognition' in that it recognizes and accepts the differences of minorities that used to be ignored by 'normal' citizens such as White, male, Western, middle-class and/or straight. In other words, politics of recognition is a core politics to which multiculturalism pertains. Thus, here the researcher would like to address what theoretical strengths and limits the theory of multiculturalism has. Multiculturalism focuses on how to protect and preserve a particular (communal) identity and its rights, which could not be solved by universal human rights. It is very much related with post-modern phenomena because it announces the birth of a new subjectivity based on diverse identities. This new subject rapidly replaces and deconstructs the modern subjectivity which is known as one, single, holistic, rational subject[15]. One important feature about the reception of multiculturalism discourse in Korea is that it is an 'imported discourse' from the West. Generally speaking, multiculturalism started to be used in the 1970s and had been welcomed since the 1980s~1990s as a social(racial) integral policy in the West[16]. Affected by this trend, Korea has also accepted multiculturalism and used it with its own purpose. It is believed that the peculiarity of Korean multiculturalism is external pressure rather than domestic movement. In other words, it was imported abruptly since it was 'on demand' to handle current social changes in Korea. Thus, there has been no former theoretical debate or discussion about it. The social change on demand was a drastically increased number of immigrants after 2000 and many other practical issues the immigrants experience in the relationship with Koreans. However, what is important is that the appearance of multiculturalism discourse in Korea does not only indicate an increased number of immigrants, but it also tells us the changes in the way multiculturalism discourse mediates or represents reality. That is Korean people need to develop the general multiculturalism to deal

with the social change in the context of globalization movement. Korea Army, as mentioned above, is not an exception in the matter of multiculturalism education.

2.2. Development of multi-cultural competence

Cross-cultural competence refers to the knowledge, skills, and affect/motivation that enable individuals to adapt effectively in cross-cultural environments. Cross-cultural competence is defined here as an individual capability that contributes to intercultural effectiveness regardless of the particular intersection of cultures. Although some aspects of cognition, behavior, or affect may be particularly relevant in a specific country or region, evidence suggests that a core set of competencies enables adaptation to any culture. This depicts a model of cross-cultural competence and intercultural effectiveness, which reflects our synthesis of the literature and a preliminary attempt to organize it in a way that is relevant to Army leaders. This model is intended to be comprehensive, including both antecedents to and consequences of cross-cultural competence. Cross-cultural competence is not an end in itself, but is a set of variables that contribute to intercultural effectiveness. Whereas previous models have tended to emphasize subjective outcomes, by focusing primarily on adjustment, outcomes of interest here include both subjective and objective outcomes. Objective outcomes, such as job performance, have been addressed in previous research, but to a lesser degree than the subjective outcomes. Research indicates that the outcomes are linked, with personal and interpersonal adjustment linked to work adjustment, which has in turn been linked with job performance.

Recently, multicultural sensitivity education has been taught in the military schools in short-term session training programs that focus on increasing participant awareness of group differences and stereotypes[17]. Such one-shot short-term programs have been criticized for many reasons and the harshest criticism is the lack of follow-through to create lasting change in the mind of military personnel. Rynes and Rosen[18]

found that the vast majority of training programs only last a day or less(72%) and the second harshest criticism is that despite expert advice to clarify training objectives and goals, very few organizations take the time to do so[19]. A third criticism of diversity training is that many programs focus only on increasing awareness of group differences, which can make prejudices and stereotypes more salient and make group cohesiveness difficult when differences are emphasized. Members of majority group in particular may feel threatened by this if they believe they are included in diversity training simply as targets for blame[20]. Finally, the literature on diversity training lacks evidence of any rigorous evaluation of training effectiveness[21]. A multi-disciplinary look at the literature on racial diversity is useful for considering a more theory-based approach to diversity training and the process of developing multicultural competence for leaders.

Working effectively in intercultural settings relates to outcomes in three domains: personal, work, and interpersonal. The personal domain consists of psychological and physical adjustment, including general adjustment to the day-to-day aspects of living in a foreign culture. The work domain includes job performance and adjustment to work, as well as early termination vs. completion of the assignment. The interpersonal domain refers to one's ability to communicate effectively and build relationships with individuals from other cultures. For the military context, a critical, additional interpersonal outcome is the ability to exert influence members from other cultural boundaries.

Because military personnel will increasingly work with foreign counterparts in Peace Keeping Forces operation, cross-cultural competence is likely even more important for the army leaders than for civilian leaders. For example, civilian works can opt to terminate and return home; military personnel do not have comparable options for early termination. The implications of this difference are not trivial; deploying soldiers and leaders without the requisite knowledge and skills to succeed may have consequences that extend far beyond the individual. The potential for

individual soldier actions to have far-reaching, sometimes strategic, consequences highlights the need for clear conceptualization and training of cross-cultural competence. In addition, these potential consequences highlight the need to consider outcomes in addition to job performance. Building interpersonal relationships across cultural boundaries has implications for overall mission success, even after the particular individual has left the area of operations, and personal adjustment outcomes may have implications for the organization's ability to retain and further develop individual leaders.

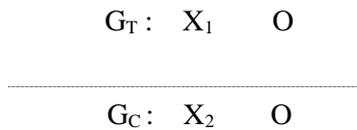
3. Method

3.1. Research design

While this investigation utilized a group comparison design, it was not a true control group due to an inability to randomly assign subjects. It also focused on dependent variables that could only be measured post-intervention. Therefore, it is properly considered a post-test only, non-equivalent comparison group design which authoritative sources[22] describe as defensible but with threats to internal validity associated with group equivalence; e.g., selection, regression, maturation, and/or mortality. External validity threats associated with this design include interaction of selection and treatment and multiple treatment interference. To control effectively for the rival hypotheses of selection, this inquiry collected key risk and demographic information on subjects to evaluate group equivalence. Statistical tests, including t-test and Chi-square procedures, were used to evaluate the significance of group differences and assure that the Treatment and Comparison groups were similar with regard to age, cognitive ability, and ethnicity. In addition, the low attrition rate(0.3%) in the both groups strongly suggests that mortality would not is not a viable alternative explanation for the results of this investigation. Regarding external validity threats, the threat of interaction between selection and treatment is minimized by the fact that the Treatment and Comparison groups were closely matched on the salient treatment factors of

age, cognitive level, and ethnicity. However, given that this investigation was field-based and that the participants had exposure to a range of prior multicultural education would harm the validity. <Figure 1> demonstrates the research design of this study.

Figure 1. Research design of static group comparison with posttest only.



3.2. Participants

Study participants included 143 junior and senior military cadets of K military academy who were taking classes of language and literature. The 67 cadets taking the class of Introduction to Multiculturalism, Foreign Language and Culture served as treatment group and the 76 cadets in the class of Korean Language Proficiency served as comparison group. <Table 1> shows the demographic characteristics of the participants classified in two sections: treatment group and comparison group.

The difference in the mean age between the treatment and comparison group was very trivial(.02) and statistically insignificant ($t=0.73$, $p=.53$). The chi-square test revealed that there were not significant difference between the two groups in the cadets' academic major composition($\chi^2=.56$, $df=1$, $p=.45$) and personal experiences of studying abroad, having contact with foreign relatives, friends, and neighbors between the two groups were not significantly different($\chi^2=1.78$, $df=3$, $p=.61$). Those statistical tests revealed that two groups were equivalent in their main attributes related with attitude or background experience toward foreigners. That is the two groups do not differ with respect to academic major composition or proportion of personal experiences. Based on these findings, it was concluded that the two groups were sufficiently similar to treat them as equivalent for the purposes of this investigation. Nonetheless, the implications of group dissimilarity in

risk factors will be explored in the "Discussion" section.

3.3. Data collection procedures

A set of measures of Behavioral Assessment Scale for Intercultural Communication Effectiveness, Intercultural Sensitivity Inventory, and Intercultural Social Distance

Scale was administered to the participants during December 7 ~ December 16, 2015. The researcher visited the classrooms and explained the purpose of the project and the participants' right of refusal or quit of response. As this study employ the post-test only design and the participants were military cadets the attrition rate was zero and the response rate was 100%.

3.4. Measures

Previous conceptualizations of multicultural competence have resulted in varied approaches to measurement. The measures of multicultural competence and related constructs reviewed here are organized by their conceptual definitions and assumptions about what makes individuals inter-culturally effective. These measures were selected for inclusion based on the availability of reliability and validity evidence in the research literature. Additional measures have been developed for specific contexts and other scales have been developed for specific populations, such as to assess the intercultural skills of counseling psychologists[23].

Behavioral Assessment Scale for International Communication Effectiveness(BASIC). Measurement approaches drawing on the behavioral perspective depend on observational methods rather than self-report. The behavioral competence was assessed by the instructor of the class in the interaction and communication with each cadet in the scale range of 0(Very Poor Competence) to 10(Very Excellent Competence). BASIC[24] measures behavioral dimensions like display of respect, interaction, and psychological distance toward people with different cultural background, communication proficiency, and knowledge of foreign culture. The ratings of these dimensions related to communication

effectiveness that predicts the communication effectiveness were provided by the class instructor of K military academy.

Knowledge of Foreign Language and Culture. Several studies have assessed both culture-specific variables, such as language proficiency and regional knowledge and culture-general predictors of intercultural effectiveness, allowing for a comparison of their contributions. Language ability has emerged as a significant, but not dominant, predictor: military leader who are more proficient in the language of their host country tend to adjust and perform better[25]. However, the perceived importance of culture-specific knowledge and skills is sometimes higher than their actual importance. In this study the knowledge of foreign languages and cultures (Vietnamese, Chinese, Japanese, and French) was assessed by the class instructor.

3.5. Analytic approach

This study employed MANCOVA to analyze the effects of the MEP because the MANOVA could effectively analyze the set of mean differences of the dependent variables. One-way MANOVA was conducted and Cohen's *d* was computed as an effect size to determine mean differences between treatment group ($n=67$) and comparison group ($n=76$) on the four dependent variables.

4. Results

4.1. Correlation matrix and descriptive statistics

<Table 2> presented the number of items of each measure, and their means, standard deviations, and alpha coefficients in treatment and comparison group and <Table 3> demonstrates the intercorrelations among the variables of this study.

<Table 2> shows that respect to foreign culture has 6 items and its' reliability level was decent enough (Cronbach's $\alpha = .89$). Other three variables including psychological distance, knowledge of foreign language, and knowledge of foreign culture also demonstrated decent reliability coefficient (Cronbach's $\alpha = .90 \sim .92$).

<Table 4> presents the results of the MANOVA on the set of dependent variables between the treatment and comparison group. There were significant mean differences on four dependent variables between the two groups, Wilks's $\lambda = 0.878$, $F(1, 132) = 3.74$, $p = .0034$. Univariate ANOVAs for each factor were conducted as follow-up tests to the MANOVA and there were significant mean differences on the four dependent variables between the treatment and comparison group; Respect for Foreign Culture ($F = 5.27$, $df = 132$, $p < .001$), Psychological Distance ($F = 13.55$, $df = 132$, $p < .001$), Knowledge of Foreign Language ($F = 9.40$, $df = 132$, $p < .001$), and Knowledge of Foreign Culture ($F = 10.72$, $df = 132$, $p < .001$). Cohen's *d* was used to calculate effect size and it demonstrated .12 (small) on Respect to Foreign Culture, .23 (small) on Knowledge of Foreign Language, .45 (moderate) on Psychological Distance and .41 (moderate) on Knowledge Foreign Culture.

<Table 5> presents the results of the MANOVA on the set of dependent variables of psychological distance to Chinese, Vietnamese, American, Arabian, and European between the treatment and comparison group. There were significant mean differences on the set of dependent variables between the two groups, Wilks's $\lambda = 0.65$, $F(1, 132) = 2.44$, $p = .03$.

Univariate ANOVAs for each factor were conducted as follow-up tests to the MANOVA and there were significant mean differences on three dependent variables of Psychological Distance to Chinese, Vietnamese, and Arabian between the treatment and comparison group; Psychological Distance to Chinese ($F = 4.40$, $df = 132$, $p < .001$), Psychological Distance to Vietnamese ($F = 2.31$, $df = 132$, $p < .05$), Psychological Distance to Arabian ($F = 2.19$, $df = 132$, $p < .05$), however there no significant mean differences on two dependent variables of Psychological Distance to American ($F = 1.18$, $df = 132$, $p > .05$), Psychological Distance to European ($F = 1.72$, $df = 132$, $p < .05$). Cohen's *d* was used to calculate effect size and it showed .22 (small) on Psychological Distance to Chinese, .12 (small) on Psychological Distance to Vietnamese, .11 (small) on

Psychological Distance to Arabian. These results demonstrated that the effect of MEP is culture-general because the cadets who took the MEP in the Vietnamese Language and Culture class demonstrated significantly

higher favor toward Chinese and Arabians than the cadets in the comparison group who took the Korean Language and Literature class.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of the participants.

(N=143)

Attributes	Treatment group(n=67)	Comparison group(n=76)	Equivalent test
Age			
M	22.5	22.7	t=0.73, p=.53
SD	2.11	2.30	
Major			
Humanity & social engineering	60.5%	63.4%	χ ² =.56(df=1), p=.45
	39.5%	36.6%	
Experiences studying abroad	3.7%	2.6%	χ ² =1.78(df=3), p=.51
Having foreign relatives	1.7%	2.3%	
Having foreign friends	8.5%	7.7%	
Having foreign neighbors	2.1%	1.8%	

Table 2. Descriptive statistics of the variables.

Variables	Number of Items	Treatment group M(SD)	Comparison group M(SD)	α
Respect to foreign culture(RFC)	6	8.75(3.60)	5.08(2.99)	.89
Psychological distance(PD)	7	6.70(2.11)	4.83(2.87)	.90
Knowledge of foreign language(KFL)	20	16.88(4.71)	11.30(5.60)	.91
Knowledge of foreign culture(KFC)	20	17.09(5.16)	12.40(6.09)	.92

Table 3. Intercorrelations of the variables.

	RFC	PD	KFL	KFC
RFC	-	.57***	.60***	.71***
PD	.31**	-	.52***	.61***
KFL	.27*	.11	-	.58***
KFC	.19*	.10	.43***	-

Note: *p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001

Correlations for treatment group (n=67) are shown above the diagonal and for comparison group (n=76) are shown below the diagonal.

Table 4. Results of MANOVA of four dependent variables.

Source of variance	Dependent variables	Sum of squares	df	Mean squares	F	Effect size (η^2)
Group	RFC	32.78	1	32.78	5.27***	.12
	PD	94.04	1	94.04	13.55***	.45
	KFL	67.51	1	67.51	9.40***	.23
	KFC	77.41	1	77.41	10.72***	.41
Error	RFC	820.33	132	6.21		
	PD	916.50	132	6.94		
	KFL	948.77	132	7.18		
	KFC	953.08	132	7.22		
Total	RFC	453.08	133			
	PD	1010.54	133			
	KFL	1016.21	133			
	KFC	1030.49	133			

Note: ***p<.001

Table 5. Results of MANOVA of psychological distance(PD).

Source of variance	Dependent variables	Sum of squares	df	Mean squares	F	Effect size (η^2)
Group	PD to Chinese	46.77	1	46.77	4.40***	.22
	PD to Vietnamese	78.92	1	78.92	2.31*	.12
	PD to American	11.88	1	11.88	1.18	.03
	PD to Arabian	55.32	1	55.32	2.19*	.11
	PD to European	14.22	1	14.22	1.72	.07
Total	PD to Chinese	1617.77	133			
	PD to Vietnamese	6082.54	133			
	PD to American	7205.29	133			
	PD to Arabian	10514.48	133			

	PD to European	11547.92	133			
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Note: *p<.05, ***p<.001

5. Discussion

The purpose of this study was to compare treatment group that received MEP and comparison group on their respect to foreign culture, psychological distance, knowledge of foreign language, and knowledge of foreign culture. The participants of this study were military cadets who will lead their subordinates in the combat units. The Korea Army is expected to have increasing personnel with multicultural background, so the army leaders need to be equipped with multiculturalism attitude, knowledge of foreign culture, and knowledge of foreign language. This study therefore intends to identify the effect of MEP to enhance military cadets' multicultural competence and to identify whether the effect of the MEP culture-specific or culture-general. Behavioral measure (communicative competence and knowledge) and attitudinal measures (self-report attitude survey measure) were employed to prove the effect of MEP. Psychological distance to foreigners of various countries among the attitudinal measures and respect to foreign culture to various countries were used to determine whether the effect of MEP is culture-specific or culture-general.

Measurement approaches drawing on the behavioral perspective depend on observational methods rather than self-report and this study employed the instructor as the third-party observer to measure the participants' knowledge of foreign culture and language. In this study, there were significant differences in two attitude measures and two ability measures. The scales use behavioral dimensions based on work by Ruben display of respect to foreign culture, interaction and communicative ability, knowledge. Ratings provided by instructors showed that the MEP enhances the military cadets' communication effectiveness and respect to foreign culture regardless of the region.

Developing education program for multicultural competence has been a popular subject of studies in these days; however, most of the institutions of the studies were civilian schools. This study is the almost first attempt to investigate the effects of the multiculturalism education program developed in the military school. Current training in the military school targets primarily the knowledge component of multicultural competence, with emphasis on culture-specific features of the contemporary language and culture. However, evidence of this study for the contribution of knowledge and favorable attitude to culture-general multiculturalism. Independent of specific language and culture, cross-cultural competence is promoted through the MEP. Thus, training should continue to address specific language and culture, but should also culture-general respect and acceptance[26].

Training and education should also consider the level of participants' initial knowledge and the level of cross-cultural development. MEP will provide the scaffolding needed to structure knowledge and skill acquisition of multicultural competence in a way that facilitates learning. For example, cadets who are highly ethnocentric or have very little experience interacting with other cultures may be resistant to retaining in-depth information about a foreign culture, either due to low motivation or to the lack of a framework for organizing the knowledge. One approach would be a relative emphasis early in institutional training and education (initial military training and professional military education) on culture-general capability, with operational training placing greater emphasis on the specific culture of the contemporary operational environment. In general, both culture-general and culture-specific training is recommended and there are likely to be some aspects of the two acquired in parallel and some acquired in sequence. Little research directly addresses how cross-cultural competence is acquired; however, this

study partly proved that the MEP will provide culture-general competence. The results of MANOVA of psychological distance toward foreigners of five regions demonstrate the culture-general effect of the MRP and emphasize that Korea Army need to continue the MEP to all military personnel to prepare the changes of military population in the near future.

Although this study has notable contributions to the area of multiculturalism education in the military settings, there are some issues to be addressed for application to general settings: First, this study employed the static group comparison with posttest only design and it is vulnerable to threats internal validity such as pre-existed differences between the groups and interactions with selection. That is, cadets who voluntarily took the class of MEP might have been more favorable toward foreigners and their culture than participants in comparison group and the pre-existed differences may be responsible for the mean differences.

Second, this study employed instructors to evaluate the participants' knowledge of foreign language and culture using one-to-one conversation test as well as paper-and-pencil test. Although previous research proved that ability test could be the best option for objective performance evaluation, the instructor could have personal bias toward the test takers.

Third, this study was conducted in the military academy setting that has academic courses for the bachelor degree. The results of this study, therefore, may not be applicable to other military settings especially to field operation units that are mostly composed of private soldiers. Therefore, future research needs to employ private soldiers as learners of the education program to promote the generalizability.

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The Effect of MILITARY Life Stress and Ego-Resilience on Adjustment of SOLDIERS

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Abstract

The relation among military life stress, ego-resilience, and adjustment in military was explored along with demographic variables. 330 army soldiers from one forward and one rear division participated in the research and 297 valid questionnaires were analyzed. For the demographic variables, the level of education and perceived parents' marriage happiness were related to military life stress. It means that those who have higher level of education and regard their parents' marriage as unhappy are getting more stress in the military. In a correlation analysis, military life stress had negative correlations with both ego-resilience and adjustment in military, and ego-resilience was positively correlated with adjustment in military. To elaborately investigate the effect of life stress and ego-resilience on adjustment in military, a multiple regression analysis was conducted with ego-resilience and four subordinate categories of military life stress(role stress, external stress, occupational stress, and relational stress) as independent variables and adjustment in military as a dependent variable. As a result, ego-resilience and two subcategories of military life stress(relational stress and role stress) had significant influence on adjustment in military, where ego-resilience had a relatively bigger effect. It means that a higher level of military life stress is related to a lower level of adjustment in military, and conversely a higher level of ego-resilience is coupled with a higher level of adjustment in military. The implication of the study is that stress and adverse experience in military should be identified and managed flexibly to help soldiers adjust well in military. Especially, ego-resilience turned out to be one of the key factors which reduce military life stress and enhance adjustment in military. Although ego-resilience is mostly formed in the process of personal experience and development, it is recommended to stimulate ego-resilience in the military by self-enhancing activities or professional counseling. For those who has low level of ego-resilience, appropriate intervention by their colleagues and commanders is needed to help them successfully adjust and relieve stress. The specific plans for practice in the military, limitations of the study, and suggestions for follow-up studies will be presented in the discussion.

[Keywords] *Military life Stress, Ego-Resilience, Adjustment in Military, Stress Coping, Military Counseling*

1. Introduction

1.1. Theoretical backgrounds

Human life can be explained as the interaction between individuals and their environment. Interacting with their environment, people gradually adapt to it. The adaptation is comprised of accommodation in which people fit themselves to their environment and assimilation in which people change their environment to what they want to be. Therefore,

human adaptation to the environment is the process of accommodation and assimilation.

In Korea, every man in his adulthood has the military duty which is guaranteed by the constitution and the military law. To fulfil this duty, they must live in military environment for a period of their life. In this military period, they encounter radical change of the environment and try to adapt to the new situation. Certainly in this period, they leave familiar

environment such as their home, school, parents and friends. As members of the new society, they should adapt both physically and mentally[1].

The military is distinct from civilian society in a number of features. Especially in military life, obedience to strong rules and regulations is required. Among Korean men, these military experiences are regarded as special, but also shared as psychological trauma at the same time[2]. The new recruits move from old civilian society to the new military society which requires totally different life style and face extreme difficulties which have never been experienced so far. They start to experience a lot of stress from exclusive military environment and hierarchical organization culture[3].

In fact, it is natural that stress comes from military life. The military is one of the special organizations where proper use of force is allowed. Hostility toward enemies is stimulated and troops are trained to defeat them. In the military, unlike civilian society, individuals' freedom is restricted to effectively control force. Therefore, the military is full of stress.

According to Song et al(2010), under compulsory military service where all the people do military duty irrespective of their will, the military life itself can be experienced as stress[2]. However, if one can change the stressful situation to the dimension of intrinsic motivation through inner-self process, the military stress turns to be a good opportunity for his personal growth. Also, not every soldier has military adaptation problem[4], and every individual can have different evaluation about the influence of the environment, so the same environment can produce various responses and different levels of adaptation[5].

In stress process, the response to stress can be regulated mitigating adverse effects through such resources as re-recognition of successful experience, psychological maturity, and trust in social support. Experiencing continuous and various stress in military life, soldiers can utilize diverse surrounding resources for psychological adaptation, which

enables them to function well in the given situation. In this process, they find their own inner mechanism, utilize it, and experience personal growth.

Enormous research support that people experience military life differently depending on individual psychological resources for coping behavior[4][6][7]. Self-esteem and inner controllability[8][9], positive self-concept[10], social support[7][11], cultural personality traits[1] are the helpful inner mechanism for military life adaptation. These research articles discuss in common that adjustment in military can be changed according to individual inner mechanism which decides stress-coping behavior. Also, it is reported that as one reduces stress and flexibly cope with tension-evoking situation, he adapt better to the environment.

In relation with the discussion above, the psychological trait which help one to regulate environmental influence and maintain his inner status in adaptive dimension is called (ego-)resilience. Recently in particular, resilience has been focused on as a variable which affects individual's perceived stress-coping ability. Resilience is defined as the ability to successfully adapt to dangerous and adverse situation[12], or as the adaptive ability to utilize flexible behavior and problem-solving strategy suitable for situational requirement[13].

In addition, Gamezy(1983) defined resilience as an individual's ability to successfully adapt under a highly dangerous circumstance or extremely traumatic experience caused by stress[14], and Masten(2001) defined the same term as an individual's inner trait which causes positive results even under serious developmental or adaptive problems[15]. Ciehettie(1993) suggests that more research should be done on the individuals who defeat dangerous and developmentally adverse environment, and argues that this individual trait of resilience helps one adapt under difficult environment and functionally cope with stress[16].

In this study, we will deeply investigate the relationship among soldiers' perceived stress, ego-resilience, and adjustment in military by

examining whether land army soldiers' military life stress and ego-resilience affects adjustment in military. Furthermore, we will try to find the way to effectively adapt to military.

1.2. Research purpose

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of soldiers' life stress on adjustment in military mediated by ego-resilience. Specific objectives and research model follows as below.

First, figure out correlations among soldiers' military life stress, ego-resilience, and adjustment in military.

Second, investigate the influence of soldiers' perceived military life stress and ego-resilience on adjustment in military.

2. Method

2.1. Participants

330 army soldiers from one forward division located in Kang-Won-Do province and another rear division located in Kyeong-Sang-Book-Do province participated in the research survey. Out of 330 questionnaires, 33 were excluded because of non-responses or unfaithful responses, and remaining 297 were analyzed. It took 10-20 minutes to complete a questionnaire. The researchers visited the base and explained to participants about research purpose and details. The questionnaires also included explanation about research purpose and details, utilization and elimination of research materials, guarantee of anonymity, and means of inquiry.

2.2. Measures

Military life stress measure

In order to measure soldiers' military life stress, Lee(2001)'s modified stress factor measure was used. The measure's original version is included in Korea Productivity Center(1993)'s article titled The validity evaluation on measurement variable of industry worker's mental health and stress, and it was modified for military use[17]. This measure is comprised of role stress, external stress, occupational stress, and relational stress, and

each of the subordinate stress categories are measured by five questions. Role stress measures conflicts and ambiguity in one's role. External stress is caused by military-external factors such as a lover, family and friends. Occupational stress comes from one's occupation in military. Finally, relational stress measures one's stress from relationship with other group members. From 'Strongly disagree(1pt)' to 'Strongly agree(5pt)', five-point Likert scale is used for each question, where higher score means higher degree of stress.

In this study, total internal consistency coefficient(Cronbach's α) of military life stress measure was .876. For subordinate measures, Cronbach's α was .771 for external stress, .747 for role stress, .725 for occupational stress, and .717 for relational stress.

Ego-resilience measure

Yoo & Shim(2002)'s modified Ego-Resilience Scale was used[18]. This scale was translated from Block & Kremen(1996)'s original version and then complemented and modified[18][19]. The measure consisted of 14 questions, and in this study, Cronbach's α was .838 compared to .76 in Block & Kremen(1996).

Military adjustment measure

Stauffer(1949) developed Military Life Adjustment test, and Lee, Yoon-Hee(1963) translated it in Korea, which was modified by Shin(1981) to be suitable for Korean army[20]. This military adjustment measure consists of four subordinate factors: mental and physical status, will to complete mission, occupational satisfaction and attitude to organizational environment. The measure uses four-point Likert scale of which range is from 'Never agree at all(1pt)' to 'Completely agree(4pt)'. In this study, Cronbach's α was .899 for the entire measure. For subordinate measures, Cronbach's α was .874 for attitude to organizational environment, .840 for occupational satisfaction, .823 for will to complete mission, and .530 for mental and physical status.

2.3. Data analysis procedure

The whole data was coded in a spreadsheet and checked for possible errors and

then analyzed with SPSS 18.0. To verify internal consistency, Cronbach's α was calculated. Statistical analysis was done by 3-step procedure. First, t-test and one-way ANOVA were conducted to investigate how military life stress, ego-resilience, adjustment in military differ depending on demographic variables. Second, descriptive statistics and Pearson correlations were calculated for the three main variables to find correlations between each variable. Third, multiple regression analysis was conducted to examine the influence of ego-resilience and military life stress on adjustment in military.

3. Results

3.1. Differences of military life stress, ego-resilience, and adjustment in military depending on demographic variables

Out of valid 297 participants, there were 23 privates second class(7.7%), 89 privates first class(29.9%), 131 corporals(44.0%), and 52 sergeants(17.4%). 177 individuals were in combat branch(59.4%) and 119 in administrative branch(39.9%). 50 were in age of 20 or younger(16.8%), 235 were between age of 21 and 24(78.9%), and 12 were in age of 25 or older(4.0%). For the level of education, 32 had high-school or lower level of diploma(10.7%), 248 were at college(83.2%), and 17 were college graduates or had higher diploma(5.7%). To the question asking for parents' happiness, 222 answered "Yes"(74.5%), 33 answered "No"(37.3%), 42 answered "Don't know"(14.1%). When asked about the biggest concern, 166 answered "career"(55.7%), 29 answered "school grade"(9.7%), 24 answered "love affair"(8.1%), and 16 answered "economic problem"(5.4%) with details shown in <Table 1>.

Furthermore, as a result of t-test and one way ANOVA conducted to investigate the difference of military life stress, ego-resilience,

and adjustment in military depending on the demographic variables, higher level of education were matched with higher military life stress($t=3.28$, $p<.05$). Also, those who answered their parents do not look happy in their marriage had significantly higher military life stress than those who answered look happy($F=8.89$, $p<.001$). However, the three main variables did not significantly varied in relation with the rank, branch, and age.

3.2. Relations among military life stress, ego-resilience, and adjustment in military

Correlations between each variable were calculated and are shown in <Table 2>. There were medium size of negative correlation between military life stress and adjustment in military($r=-.426$, $p<.01$), and again medium size of correlation between ego-resilience and adjustment in military($r=-.292$, $p<.01$). Military life stress and ego-resilience were also moderately negatively correlated($r=-.309$, $p<.01$).

3.3. The effect of military life stress and ego-resilience on adjustment in military

A multiple regression analysis was conducted to investigate how soldiers' military life stress and ego-resilience affect adjustment in military, and the results are shown in <Table 3>.

Out of four subordinate variables of military life stress, role stress($\beta=-.182$, $p<.05$) and relational stress($\beta=-.181$, $p<.05$) have significant effect on adjustment in military. Moreover, ego-resilience has significant influence on adjustment in military($\beta=.306$, $p<.01$). Military life stress and ego-resilience attribute to the variance of adjustment in military by 34.8%, where ego-resilience has bigger influence on adjustment in military than subordinate variables of military life stress have.

Table 1. Demographic characteristics of participants and consequent differences of the main variables.

Classification		N(%)	Military life stress			Ego-resilience			Adjustment in military		
			M	SD	t/F	M	SD	t/F	M	SD	t/F
Rank	Private 2nd	23(7.7)	31.17	8.87	.269	48.69	7.91	1.797	77.47	14.76	.767
	Private 1st	89(29.9)	31.50	9.27		50.85	7.95		76.63	14.31	
	Corporal	131(44.0)	32.29	9.34		51.29	6.90		73.63	16.86	
	Sergeant	52(17.4)	32.71	11.14		52.96	8.77		75.94	17.14	
Branch	Combat	177(59.4)	32.00	10.06	-.126	51.35	7.32	.275	74.53	17.19	-.832
	Administrative	119(39.9)	32.14	8.85		51.10	8.20		76.10	14.00	
Age	≤ 20	50(16.8)	32.72	10.86	2.359	51.08	7.59	.160	77.06	15.68	.443
	21-24	235(78.9)	31.64	9.03		51.32	7.74		75.02	15.95	
	25-29	12(4.0)	37.58	12.74		50.08	7.08		70.75	17.70	
Level of education	Highschool or lower	32(10.7)	33.40	9.87	3.282*	53.28	8.56	.275	76.18	19.58	.808
	At college	248(83.2)	31.53	9.30		51.00	7.53		75.21	15.22	
	College graduate or higher	17(5.7)	37.29	11.46		50.64	7.79		73.05	19.79	
Perceived parents' happiness in marriage	Happy	222(74.5)	30.79	9.49	8.899***	51.90	7.44	3.462*	77.01	15.79	5.898**
	Unhappy	33(11.1)	37.30	8.86		49.60	7.07		70.00	12.74	
	Don't know	42(14.1)	34.66	8.73		48.97	8.80		69.66	17.29	
The biggest concern	School grade	29(9.7)	29.89	8.68	1.996	49.17	7.05	3.241**	75.75	15.22	1.634
	Love affair	24(8.1)	31.08	10.29		51.79	7.28		77.95	10.65	
	Career	166(55.7)	31.95	9.45		51.34	7.01		76.61	15.68	
	Family	6(2.0)	41.33	8.82		45.00	9.44		67.00	17.06	
	Interpersonal relationship	15(5.0)	36.66	8.38		45.80	7.03		67.60	14.36	
	Health	10(3.4)	33.10	10.88		51.40	8.72		68.90	13.65	
	Economic problem	16(5.4)	34.50	11.08		54.60	9.50		68.68	16.45	
	Etc	31(10.4)	29.87	8.66		54.29	8.73		75.61	20.67	

Note: * p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

Table 2. Correlations between each variable.

(N=297)

Classification	1.	2.	3.
1. Military life stress	1		

2. Ego-resilience	-.309**	1	
3. Adjustment in military	-.426**	.292**	1

Note: * p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

Table 3. The effect of military life stress and ego-resilience on adjustment in military.

(N=297)

Classification	B	SE	β	t	R	F	R ²
Role stress	-.105	.902	-.182	-2.478*	.599	32.480***	.348
External stress	-.057	.042	-.082	-1.513			
Occupational stress	-.057	.038	-.075	-1.202			
Relational stress	-.172	.047	-.181	-2.951*			
Ego-resilience	.370	.014	.306	6.103**			

Note: * p<.05, ** p<.01, *** p<.001

4. Discussion and Conclusion

In this study, we examined the effect of ego-resilience and military-related stress experience on adjustment in military among the relation of these variables measured from soldiers in army. In relation with the result, a number of notable points will be discussed below.

First, among the demographic variables gathered, the level of education and perceived parents' happiness in marriage had statistically significant effect. Specifically, the higher level of education was related to higher military life stress, and those who regarded their parents' marriage as unhappy showed higher stress. However, rank, branch, and age had no significant effect on military life stress, ego-resilience, and adjustment in military. In particular, this result is different from previous research findings that the level of education is irrelevant to adjustment in military[21][22], and soldiers who are low in rank tend to fail to adjust[23][24]. Such divergence seems to be caused by different research period and unique characteristics and different mission of each participating unit. The rank and the level of education lack consistency as predicting variables of adjustment in military, so follow-up research should be

conducted with possible third-variables controlled efficiently to find precise relation between these variables.

Second, military life stress had medium sizes of negative correlations with adjustment in military and ego-resilience. According to the theory of stress, moderate level of stress tend to enhance adaptation, but excessive stress is negatively correlated to adjustment. The stress theory is consistent with our results in that a high level of military life stress interrupted adjustment in military. Likewise, with a high level of military stress, internal resource of ego-resilience can be reduced. Also, ego-resilience and adjustment in military had statistically significant positive correlation, which is definitely consistent with previous research[7]. Therefore, it is predictable that soldiers who have a high level of ego-resilience will more successfully adjust in military than those whose ego-resilience is weak.

Third, analysis about the effect of military life stress and ego-resilience on adjustment in military showed that ego-resilience had the highest significant influence compared with each of four subordinate stress factors. One of previous research demonstrated that indi-

viduals or groups with a high level of ego-resilience have strong resistance under stressful situation[25]. It was replicated and emphasized in our study in that ego-resilience was the most important factor for adjustment in military.

In another study, it was found that those who have a high level of ego-resilience adapt well to a stressful situation and have nice interpersonal relationship, but those with a low level of ego-resilience tend to be impulse and anti-social, failing frequently in adaptation to a given situation[13]. Our study also emphasize ego-resilience as the key to successful adjustment in military. Therefore, it is recommended that an encouraging environment should be set up for enhancing soldiers' ego-resilience which has considerable effect on adjustment in military, and skilled counselors monitor it regularly.

A limitation of our study should be noticed. This study focused on military life stress and ego-resilience although other variables related to adjustment in military also exist. Follow-up study is required to find more variables relevant to adjustment in military and moreover, investigate mediating or interaction effect. Military life stress can be caused by diverse variables related to unique characteristics of the military. According to previous research, authoritarianism, hierarchy, demand of sacrifice, and control of freedom are directly military-related experiences that cause stress and interrupt successful military life, and problems with lover, family, and friends are also possible stressors[6][26]. Therefore, a comprehensive stress measure dealing with both military-internal and military-external factors needs to be invented and updated. In addition to ego-resilience, various psychological factors which affect adjustment in military should be identified and handled in research. In this study, we did not show how the effect of ego-resilience changes when combined with self-efficacy, self-esteem, or other intrapersonal factors. By applying more intrapersonal variables which affect adjustment in military either negatively or positively and furthermore identifying interaction effects, research would be more meaningful.

Next, proposal for follow-up study and recommendation for practice in the military will be given below.

First, in-depth research is required on active-duty soldiers' stress. Most of previous research as well as our study only focused on identifying the relation between soldiers' military life stress and adjustment in military. In today's complicated and diverse society and military culture, stress is only a limited factor which cannot completely predict adjustment in military, so a variety of other intrapersonal factors should be considered. For example, by setting military stress as a dependent variable, effective independent variables can be explored and applied. In a different view, military life stress should not be attributed only to military-internal factors. Pre-military or military-external factors including school, home, and dating problems are possible sources to be dealt with in follow-up studies. Also, if it is not possible to completely prevent soldiers' stress due to compulsory military service, variables that effectively moderate military life stress should be identified through research.

Second, in relation with the concept of ego-resilience, the military environment and unique characteristics of soldiers should be considered. Ego-resilience develops over time through interactions of experiential and environmental factors in individually given situations. This intrapersonal factor hardly develops or changes in a short time. However, according to previous research, ego-resilience is not an individual's ability, but a procedure[19]. Therefore, a change of environment and various activities in military should be considered. Currently in the military, a variety of activities are in progress. For example, there are a lot of contests held in the military where an individual can exhibit one's own competence. Such activities help them adjust in military by positively changing intrapersonal factors including self-efficacy, ego-resilience, and self-esteem. However, these activities are one-time events and will not bring a direct effect because of the unique environment of the military. As ego-resilience had the most significant effect in our study, a change of the environment or

stimulating activities in the military should be planned considering ego-resilience in priority rather than other intrapersonal factors. First of all, ego-resilience of new recruit need to be recognized. Those who has low ego-resilience has high possibility to experience military adjustment problem, so their ego-resilience need to be enhanced by individual or group counseling approach. Also, individuals need to be divided into groups depending on their level of ego-resilience. Then, each group should be managed and supervised with proper group-specific actions. Recently, military counseling professionals are assigned to each unit. Individual counseling is being implemented, but practically, only a few individuals can participate in and benefit from counseling. Even though supervisors continuously monitor and talk with them, a lack of counseling expertise make it hard to identify and intervene in troubles. So, more budget and effort are needed to supplement military counseling professionals, and those counselors must contribute to improvement of soldiers' ego-resilience which is helpful for military life adjustment under a stressful environment. Finally, for those who have low ego-resilience their colleagues and commanders should try to find and acknowledge possibilities and strengths of them. If these attempt continue, their ego-resilience will be enhanced and changed positively.

In our study, we emphasized on the needs to reduce military life stress to support military adjustment providing with fundamental results that soldiers' ego-resilience can be an important factor for enhancement of adjustment in military. However, there were a number of limitations, which are expected to be dealt with in follow-up studies. Through subsequent research, we expect lots of ways to be found to help soldiers' successful adjustment in military.

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