CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

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1.1 Organization: Its concept and types:

The terms organization has been used by behavioural scientists in different contexts. However, the core of the term can be spelled out by saying that it is a systematic planning, coordination and conduct of certain activities within an administrative framework, in which duties are allocated and responsibilities are defined. Thus, organization by its very nature implies laying down of certain objectives in clear terms, collecting of resources and utilizing them in the best possible manner to achieve the objectives. Necessarily, then it implies some kind of leadership to run the machinery smoothly.

Keeping in mind the central theme of an organization different experts in the field of behavioural sciences attempted to define the term organization to make it more coherent and applicable to explain the nature and functions of the specific organization with which they interact from the point of view of understanding the essence of it. In the industrial set up, therefore, as applied to the efforts of two or more persons, organization has been called a
system of communication, a means of problem solving and a means of facilitating decision making. It has also been conceived as a social system and as a system in the sybernetic sense of a group of interacting variables. It is to be borne in mind that an organization can not be an end in itself. Of-course, it is definitely a means to an end. This is why probably Dale (1975) considered an organization in the industrial set up as a means of getting people to act together for a purpose, particularly for a business purpose. And Basu et.al. (1975) defined it as a process of establishing the pattern of relationship by assigning duties and responsibilities to each department, section, group and individual of an enterprise, clearly demarcating the authority, responsibility and duties of each and providing the channel of communication and coordination to achieve the objectives of the concern.

From the societal point of view, attempts have also been made to define the terms organization. The synthesis of such views has been provided by Scott (1987). According to Scott (1987) the existing definitions of the terms organization as used in the social context can be classified under three major
approaches, namely, "A rational system definition", "A natural system definition", and "An open system definition".

A rational system definition helps to distinguish an organization from related social forms. Hence Bernard (1938) defined formal organization as a kind of cooperation among men i.e. conscious, deliberate, purposeful; March & Simon (1958) said that organizations are assemblage of interacting human beings and they are the largest assemblages in our societies that have anything resembling a central coordinative system - the high specificity of structure and coordination within organizations - as contrasted with the defused and variable relations among organization and among unorganized individuals - marks off the individual organization as a sociological unit comparable in significance to the individual organization in biology; Blau & Scott (1962) remarked that since the distinctive characteristics of organizations is that they have been formally established for the explicit purpose of achieving certain goals, the term formal organization is used to designate them; and Etzioni (1964) considered that organizations are social units (or human groupings) deliberately constructed and reconstructed to seek specific goals. Thus, all these definitions
representing rational system point to the existence of
two structural features that distinguish organization
from other types of collectives, namely, goals
specificity and formalization of structure.

A natural system definition gives special
emphasis upon the perspectives of the system that is
but natural. According to this approach the rational
system perspective of organization is misleading. And,
therefore, many conventional organizations like public
schools and government mental health services have felt
the need to develop explicit goal statement and
formalise job titles and procedures, other
organizations have decided to do away with such
superfluous decorations and camouflage. Such appears
to be the case with state of organizational form
labeled "Collectivist" organizations (Rothschild-Whitt,
1979). These organizations included many recently
developed innovative forms, particularly in the service
sector - such as, free medical clinics, alternative
schools, rape-counselling centres, and legal
collectives - as well as some earlier forms like
food and producer cooperatives. Some of these
organizations clearly are pursuing relatively broad and
defused such as societal reform or the promotion of
more open and authentic relation among their
participants. Others have defined relatively specific
objectives. However, Rothschild-Whitt's (1979) survey of structural feature of collectivist organizations suggest that many go to great extent to eliminate or reduce formalization. They deny the authority of office, seek to minimise the promulgation of rules and procedures, attempt to eliminate status gradation amongst participants and do away with role differentiation and specialization of function. Great stress is lead on equility and decision making and differences in interest and preferences among individual members are deemed of great importance. Thus, the natural system conception of organization devotes positive attention to examining the way in which organization - like all collectives - attend to the needs or requirements of their system. In other words, organizations are viewed as organic systems imbeded with a strong drive to survive, to maintain themselves as systems. The development of informal structure and distinctive cultures is regarded as an important means to this end. These structures grow out of the natural abilities and interests of the participants and enable the collectivity to benefit from the human resource of its membership. Therefore, Scott (1987) defined organizations under natural system approach as the collectivities whose participants share a common interest in the survival of the system and who engage in collective activities, informally structured, to secure this end.
An open system approach considers the rational and the natural system views of the organizations as an inadequate because according to this system they refer to close system, separate from its environment and comprising of a set stable and easily identified participants. In fact, an open system approach considered that organizations are not closed systems, sealed off from their environment but are opened to and dependent on flows of personnel and resources from out sides. Also, if an organization is to survive, it must induce participants to contributes resources, energy and time to it. Furthermore individuals, in society, have different interests and values. As a result they join and leave the organization depending upon the bargains they can strike the relative advantage to be had from staying or going. Thus, rather than viewing the organization as a coherent system of relation oriented to pursuit of specific goals, open system approach attempted to view it more accurately as an opportunistic collection of divergent interest groups temporarily bonded together. Hence under open system category Scott (1987) remarked that organizations are coalitions of shifting interest groups that develope goals by negotiation: the structure of coalition, its activities and its outcomes are strongly influenced by environmental factors.
Thus, it is obvious from the above that not only the nature but also the types of organization have became targets of investigation of the social scientists. So far as the typology of organization is concerned as pointed out by Dale (1975) organizations, be social, industrial, educational, military, medical etc can conveniently be classified under three basic types: namely the line organization, the functional organization and line and staff organization.

The line organization can be said to be the oldest variety referring to the military type of organization. Because it is based on relative authority and responsibility rather than on the nature of the activities. It assures a direct straight line authority and responsibility from the General Manager to the Superintendent, to foreman and to the worker. The superior has full authority over his subordinates and their activities, subject only to the terms of contract that bind the employees to the organization. The immediate superior is only the one who gives order to his subordinates, assigns duties, hires the services, dismisses and takes disciplinary actions.

The distinction between the line form and other forms of organization lies in the absence of specialised staff departments. In an organization with pure line form there would be no personnel department, no
production control department or other staff department. In this form of organization the channel of communication and the line of authority and responsibility is clear and there is no problem of interference and delicate border line. In comparison with other forms of organizational structure, it will permit more direct action because of the direct chain of command from top of bottom. But this will overload the immediate supervisor because for two many valid responsibilities and provide no scope for specialization. As such, in the present era this form has not been found suitable for the industries and even it is not been used for military set up.

The functional organization can be seen as line organization in which the top level administrator and the immediate supervisors are replaced by various categories of functional superiors, all having direct authority over the bottom line workers. Each of these supervisors is incharge of a particular function i.e. an activity or a group of related activities. This set up encourages specialisation organization lie in the fact that each superior can specialise in his function as he is responsible for a narrow field of activity. However, such set up many a times creates confusion in the minds of subordinates about the authority and activities of their superiors. So far as, maintenance
of discipline and fixation of responsibility for failure are concerned this set up is not congenial.

The line and staff organization consists of line department and staff department. The officers of line department retain supervisory authority and control over the activities of subordinates but are revealed of certain works which are related to all the department and require specialised knowledge. Such activities are transferred to staff department. In an industrial set up the line departments of a manufacturing enterprise consist of manufacturing, sales, accounts and finance departments and the staff department includes personnel, quality control, plant engineering and industrial engineering etc. However, so far as the military organization is concerned the suitable modifications are always made by the competent authorities in the line and staff structuring of the services depending upon the defence need of the given nation. Hence in the section to follow an attempt has been made to give special attention to its nature and wings.

1.2 **Military Organization : Its Concept and Wings :**

Military organization has a long history, broad present and bright future throughout the world.
In the days of Kings and Queens organising military forces under a single statutory head called either Senapati or Military General was the favourite pattern laid down by the King or the Queen under the portfolio of defence ministry of that country. In those days the main purposes behind maintaining military were protecting the territories of one's kingdom from the attacks of the enemies, expanding one's own kingdom and territories and maintaining the law and order situation among the subjects; and the services utilized for these three-fold functions were that of the Army. Later on Navy as a wing of the military services was introduced by a few Kings and Queens as a part of their defensive and offensive services. Due to invention of helicopters and aeroplanes in due course of time, military organization too, added air force as its much valued wing. As a result today every country irrespective of its size - small or big, is maintaining Army, Navy, and Air Force as its classified wings under a global title of armed forces as pointed out by Boring (1987).

Today both varieties of pattern vertical as well as horizontal are existing in the military organization of any nation, owing to the fact of specialization in the military services of a defensive, and relief oriented nature. Hence, by and large, it
can be said that today's military organization of any nation including India, is following a pattern of line and staff organization which to some extent can be conceived as a system that runs parallel to the rationale approach in organization. In the words of Lang (1965), therefore, it can be said that "Modern military establishments qualify as complex organizations irrespective of size. This becomes evident when one considers the diversity of skills and specialities currently represented in the Armed Forces and the variety of tasks they may be called on to perform. As a consequence, military organizations share many of the problems of other organizations of comparable complexity. However, military organizations as a distinct category is justified on the grounds that both the tasks of the Armed Forces and the use of violent means create features unique to the military establishment. The management of military affairs is generally in the hands of the military profession, a group of men professionally trained and functionally specialised in the institutional application of violence. Still, practice of their skills demands an apparatus - i.e. technical resources and man powers - provided by a non-military men out side of the institutional frame work is not a legitimate practice of their profession. Military men are by the
conditions of their profession automatically members of the military establishment, but it does not follow that all men under military jurisdiction are also members of the military profession. Lower-level participants may be following alternate careers and view their military service as a temporary interruption. In addition to conducting military operations during period of wars or national emergency requiring military skills, the military are responsible in peace time for steps to put the armed forces in a state of adequate preparedness and to deploy them in strategical optimal positions. Since neither the procurement of resources and man-power nor their advantageous deployment can occur on short notice, this function involves much long-range planning. The concern for national security in this broader sense consequently involve military professional in a wide variety of administrative, technical, economic, diplomatic, political, and educational activities only indirectly related to military operations. This rationale for the existence of separate military organization - as an instruments of violence in support of the nation - does not, therefore, define adequately the skills and functions of military men. The management of violence based on a sophisticated technology requires an industrial mobilisation base, the maintenance of which
constitutes an important secondary concern for the military and involves special talents. What remains distinctive to the armed forces is their basic orientation toward an image of the battle-field. However, diverse the activities of the military organization, they are, in last analysis, rooted in the focus on the possibility of an exchange of fire. The actual employment of violence in response to violence or to a very credible threat of violence is sanctioned where national security seems to demand it. In this respect, military organization differ from other organizations in to whose calculus violence enters only as an incidental, and often illegitimate, disturbance. It is from this orientation that the armed forces derive their specifically military character and the military establishment its distinctive forms."

It is worthy to mention here that to the scholars of behavioural science the format of military organization is of special significance because it has its own distinguish characteristics from the point of view of converting and transforming a raw hand into a trained useful patriote and effective soldier either for Army, Navy or the Air Wing. Hence, most of the researches that have been conducted in the context of military organizations and its services, have
concentrated more upon the military personnel so as to know the impact of military training and climate upon the human beings recruited at one stage or the other for serving the purpose of the given country squarely. Therefore, in the section to follow an attempt has been made to provide the glimpses of certain outstanding researches that have been conducted upon military personnel by the Foreign as well as Indian scholars.

1.3 MILITARY PERSONNEL AND EMPIRICAL RESEARCHES

Dunnette & Borman (1979) reflected upon the mile stones in the context of military personnel selection by saying that selection technology advanced in many ways during the second world war received particular attention because of its scientific power to identify the required potentiality in the given man-power for meeting the needs of the various types of military services after due training.

Erwee & Boshoff (1982) studied 121 , 17-18 yr old females in military training. These Ss completed seven measures of the cognitive dimensions of achievement motivations (e.g. Rotter's Internal External Locus of Control Scale; the Rokeach Dogmatism Scale, and the Allport Vernon Londzey Study of Values) in January and December of the same year. Factor analysis of the data gathered in January revealed five
factors by making use of the method of principal axis. These factors were (a) A rigid value system; (b) Attitude regarding causality; (c) Need for dependence on others Vs independence of others; (d) Orientation to socially acceptable norms; and (e) Attitude regarding feedback from the environment. Using the same method of factor analysis the data collected in December again yielded the first three factors but also included a new unique factor namely autonomous and social achievement values. Thus, the results supported the hypothesis that the achievement motivation construct is multi-dimensional. Significant co-efficient of congruence between the factorial structures obtained in January and December indicated that the construct remained stable for one year in the case of South African female Ss under going military training.

Beary (1982) studied prevention of drugs and alcohol abuse among military personnel and presented an over view of the Defence Department's efforts to achieve a health fighting forces.

Guttmann (1982) did performance testing of military personnel and successfully and unsuccessful sportsman and demonstrated that testing under load was a better predictor of actual performance than testing under neutral conditions. Researches by him (1981) and others have shown that successful Ss evidence improved
improved and unsuccessful Ss worsened performance on tasks such as optical information processing and rapid decision making when perform under load. The lower performance of unsuccessful Ss was traced to a lowering of motivation as the event approaches. Therefore, Guttmann and his co-workers suggested that such decrement could be prevented by self controlled techniques.

Whinner (1982) performed motivational analysis of 65, 18-36 yr old military personnel volunteered to participate in centrifuge acceleration research at the USAF school of Aero-space medicine. Monetary reward and curiosity were the main reasons for volunteering to participate. Fear and monetary reward not worth the risk were the main reasons for not volunteering. The main reason for stopping participation was being asked to stop for medical reasons. Such type of periodic motivational analysis served a number of constructive purposes, including the self review of human - use research practices and volunteer S feedback, which enhanced the methods for recruitment and retention of high quality volunteers.

Glaser (1986) while reflecting upon selection and classification suggested that recent work in cognitive science emphasizes the importance of the organization and representation of knowledge. This
emphasis represented a shift away from a power-based strategy for achieving intelligence to a more knowledge-based approach. Such shift in emphasis has important implications for the military, namely in the areas of selection and classification. Unlike conventional aptitude testing, more sophisticated diagnostic measures can accurately assess a Ss cognitive skill and acquired knowledge and provide guide lines for the design of instruction and for remediation. In the area of testing, such shift high-lights the importance of making instruction consistant with the learner's knowledge structures to facilitate acquisition and detention and the utility of teaching knowledge-structuring skills in the military services.

Shaw (1987) after studying the American military personnel, espacially army military personnel argued that it is the feeling of overwhelming helplessness associated with the loss of narcissistic defences and the emerging fear of loss of one's life that is the principal cause of combat exhaustion. The predominant defenses against the emergence into awareness of this primordial helplessness and fear of death contain both reality oriented and narcissistic components that are elaborated into a defensive character structure.
Butler et.al. (1983) conducted studies at the US Military Academy and at the Officer Candidate School, Fort Benning, Georgia, to determine whether the Minor Sentence Completion Scale (Form H) would predict turnover in essentially hierarchical military education and training context. The Military Academy sample consisted of 502 Ss, of whom 189 were separated in a four-period of testing. The Officer Candidate School sample comprised of 251 Ss, of whom 29 failed to complete the 15-week course. In both case, positive results were obtained, although the underlying dynamics of turnover appeared to be somewhat different in the two situations. Butler et.al. discussed the implications of their study for selection, turnover theory and research, and the design of validation studies in the military set up.

Wasileski et.al. (1982) studied 60 abused spouses at a family enrichment clinic by interviewing them and administering an incident report and the social re-adjustment rating scale to them. Questions pertaining alcohol use were also asked. Their results showed the following characteristics of the spouse abusers and the victims in the military populations: (1) 93% of the victims were female; (2) 50% were white; (3) educational levels were low; (4) most
couples were married at the time of the battering, but 10% were divorced or living apart; (5) 39% of the couples in which battering occurred had been married five years or more; (6) child abuse occurred in 13 of the families; (7) a cycle or pattern of previous family violence was found among abusers and victims reporting both abuse of themselves as children and watching their parents abuse each other; (8) the enlisted ranks comprise the majority of cases; (9) 50% of the victims sought medical treatment; and (10) there was a high level reported stress in the families during the past 12 months. These findings suggested the need for expansion of family advocacy programme for the military that can provide viable therapeutic treatment modalities to military families.

Burt (1982) conducted world-wide survey of alcohol used among US military personnel taking a sample of 15268 Ss. Findings were presented on the prevalence of the alcohol used and heavy drinking, the proportion of Ss at risk of experiencing adverse physiological effects from alcohol, alcohol dependence, consequences of alcohol used and work impairment because of alcohol used. His results showed that 7% of the Ss were classified as alcohol dependent; 11% reported suffering one or more physical, social or work consequences of alcohol used during a 12-months period.
Faelli & Gauthier (1981) examined the problems of adjustment experienced by new recruits, including immaturity, reactivation of conflicts with talented figures, drug and alcohol abuse and suicidal gestures; and explored the military personnel practices and the role of the military psychiatrist.

Black (1983) studied psychiatric illness in military air crew and argued that psychological reactions are related to interactions between the persons, his/her task, and his/her personal and service environments. The value of arousal system in response to stress has been discussed by Black together with the physical and psychological system of anxiety. Black remarked that the appearance of stress-related anxiety symptoms in the person in training, together with the appearance of more formal reactions - anxiety and phobia states - were, respectively the main triggers of decompensation and decrement in performance. Black also described the span of symptoms with emphasis on the more likely physical representation of anxiety in the mature pilot and out-lined briefly the contribution of fatigue to symptom formation.

Srabstein (1983) studied geographic distribution of military dependent children with respect to their mental health needs. He utilised
information from the US Department of Defence dependents School's enrollment for dependents between 5 to 17 years old and extrapolated information from the Graduate Medical Education National Committee Report to determine the number of children requiring mental health attention. He also estimated the geographical distribution of military dependent children, the availability of civilian child psychiatrists within 50 miles of location, the number of military child psychiatrists per area and the number of dependent children whose active duty parental sponsor was over-seas.

Beary et.al. (1983) studied drug abuse in military. He conceived that the best descriptor of drug abuse problem in the military is adolescent misbehaviour. Data from a survey of 12268 military personnel revealed that single, enlisted males under the age 25 yrs are the population most at risks. Heroin was used by only 1% of the Ss whereas alcohol and cannabis had been used by 84% and 40% respectively. They also noticed that while some work impairment and dependence was reported, these were not characteristic of the drug abuse problem in the military.

Mester et.al. (1983) studied young Israeli soldiers. He described family interventions performed in a civilian psychiatric unit with patient who were
young Israeli soldiers. Psychotherapy was mainly psychoanalytically oriented; special attention was given to the general characteristics of the surrounding society as well as to particular characteristics of the families involved. The soldier's crisis were often the expression of their families coping and adoptive difficulties related to the stress posed by the connection between the family system and the Army. The link between these two structures demands that the family deal with separation of one and its member; with the fears, wishes and fantasy associated with the threat of death implied in the military service of that member; and with the sharing of authority over the son for whom the Army becomes, temporarily a second family. When in the psychiatric unit, the dimensional systems clashes (Army/family, hospital/family) should be examined because the favourable resolution of these clashes will eventually bring about a more successful integration of family of 2 experiences; the soldier's crisis and subsequent hospitalization and the past army experience. This integration tends to facilitate the reincorporation of the soldier into military service.

Allen et.al. (1982) thought over the research trends in military for the 80's. They revealed that several major activities related to combat readiness will engage military psychologists for at least the
remainder of the decade. The organizational context of military psychology was viewed in terms of settings, development of the work programme and funding. The psychologist's role in dealing with problems of acquisition, retention, assignments, training of service members, human factors engineering and organizational productivity was highlighted.

Sherman (1982) studied 44 male veterans with tension, headache, chronic anxiety or borderline labile hypertension. These Ss completed the State-Trait Anxiety Inventory and Rotter's Internal-External Locus of Control Scale, 4 times at monthly intervals and a 5th time, 5 months later. At the 2nd visit, all Ss were loaned a tape-recorder and a recorded progressive muscle relaxation exercise to use at home twice a day for 1 month. All but one tension headache S showed sustained decreased in headache activity at 6 months follow up. All of the borderline hypertensives showed sustained decreases in blood pressures into the normal range. Anxious Ss who used the tape showed significant improvement while those who declined its use did not. Result suggested that home use of tape recorder relaxation exercise may provide good initial treatment for some stress related disorders.
Langly (1982) investigated post-traumatic stress disorders among Vietnam combat veterans. He argued that Vietnam combat veterans (VCVs) were beginning to emerge from a postwar underground lifestyle to seek help and that working with them requires special treatment skills and understanding factor implicated in the development of post-traumatic stress syndrome (PTSD) were delineated, these included guilt, attitude towards the war, and superficial relationship. PTSD usually occurred in a cluster of interrelated symptoms, each component undermining VCVs' ability to cope effectively with the tasks of everyday life. These symptoms include guilt, depression, social alienation, irritability and high stress levels, catastrophic nightmares, sleep disturbances, aggression flashbacks and exaggerated startle response. Because most VCVs have been suffering PTSD for a number of years, substance abuse and marital legal, and vocational problems often accompany PTSD. Other related problems that social workers may encounter while trying to provide services to VCVs included a distrust of government affiliated agencies, a suspicious or fearful veneer, a defensive stance of hostility and arrogance fear of mood states and an impaired self concept. Individual and group treatment strategies for PTSD included behavioural intervention techniques psychoanalysis and client-centered therapies.
Rabinowitz (1982) discussed the adaption of National Service soldiers to the military system, patterns of socialization within the military environment and the personal conflicts brought about by subsequent separation at the completion of training. The impact of basic training included (1) the complete disruption of previous adjustment patterns by the abrupt changes in demands made on the individual; (2) withdrawal of parental support and the gratification of dependency needs; and (3) an increasing depreciation of self-esteem. Acceptance of the rules and values of the military framework is a crucial factor in socialization to the system, and problems may arise from adolescent conflicts regarding authority, commitment and responsibility. The end of military service involves a process similar to bereavement, in which rigid but secure and familiar environment is exchanged for the uncertainties of civilian life. Separation can lead to problems, including regressive behaviour, acting out and symptoms of anger and depression. The processes of change and maturation that occur during military service are considered as important within a developmental framework.

OKaue & Aruga (1983) studied self-initiated elimination from the flight training. They
administered questionnaires regarding self initiated elimination to 119 flight trainees (including 27 self initiated eliminees (SIEs) during a 9 yr period). Findings showed that many SIEs decided to withdraw from flight training within a 2-month period prior to their actual withdrawal. Most of the SIE's classmates were unaware of their intentions to withdraw in the months prior to voluntary withdrawal regardless of the intimacy of their relationships.

Okaue & Aruga (1983) investigated psychological states experienced by Japanese Air Self Defence Force (JASDF) pilots through flying duties. They used a sentence completion questionnaire to assess 173 Japanese Air Self Defence Force pilot's psychological stress under various flying conditions (i.e. 1st flying experience, 1st solo flying experience, alert duty before flying, sitting in the cockpit, formation flight, night flight, low level flight, flying in a cloud, and flying under bad weather conditions). Administrative pilots serving as controls completed a similar questionnaire. Findings revealed that approximately 25% of the Ss experienced unpleasant feelings such as nervousness, anxiety or tension, while one third of the Ss described pleasant feelings at
their 1st flying experience. Ss experienced more positive feelings towards their first sole flight than toward their 1st flight. Formation flying evoked few unpleasant feeling from Ss; most Ss recognized the importance of cooperation and consideration for other pilots during formation flight. While night flights and low level flights evoked both positive and negative emotions from Ss flying in a cloud or in a bad weather conditions was stressful for most Ss.

Jones (1985) surveyed 206 Black and White male US Air Force personnel involved in transporting and identifying the bodies of the almost 1000 persons who did in Jonestown, Guyana, of the emotional effects this experience had on them at the time as well as their emotional state 8-month later, when they were administered the questionnaire. A control questionnaire asking about any experience with human who remains during the period in question, was administered to 68 Air Force personnel who did not participate in the recovery operation. Guyana Ss reported significantly more short term dysphoria, which was more pronounced in Ss younger than 25 years of age Ss who were Black, Ss who were enlisted men rather than officers and Ss with more exposure to the bodies. Overall, 32% of the Guyana Ss experienced short term dysphoria, compared with only 9% of the control Ss. It
is recommended that future operations of this type use older, more experienced people whenever possible, pair younger people with older ones, rotate jobs, and pay careful attention to day-by-day emotional support.

Robinowitz & Rueveni (1984) examined psychosocial and medical factors involved in the referral of 207 conscripted soldiers (average age 19.9 yrs; 23% of the Ss were female) to an Israeli Air Force mental health clinic. Factors were age sex, education, source of referral and timing of referral during service. The nature of medical complaints before and after psychological intervention was also examined. Results suggested that an effective, medical psychological cooperation can significantly reduce minor psychological problems in drafted soldiers.

Johnson & Jacobs (1984) presented results of a conference designed to develop consensus on a workable definition of systems science, determine its potential as a solution to US Army problems, and develop recommendations for further systems work. Conferees made a distinction between systems science (an emerging discipline) and systems approach (a body of systematic technologies). Areas of potential applications for systems in the Army were identified as those characterized by complexity ongoing change, information flows and decision making. Two areas
recommended for further systems work were the assessment of battalion and the design of complex systems.

Rognum et.al. (1986) studied 24 male military cadets during a period of heavy, sustained work lasting for 107 hrs, during which time they had less than 2 hrs of sleep. Nine Ss received a diet providing 8000 kcal and 15 a diet providing 1500 kcal per day. Ss were assessed by objective measurements of simulated military tasks and by subjective assessments using self-rated perceived exertion and sleepness scale and observer rated scales. Although the high energy group tended to feel slightly more alert, there were no differences between the groups in the test of military performance. After 4 days of sustained activity, all Ss were judged to be ineffective as soldiers. Results suggested that the major factor influencing performance in these experiments was sleep deprivation and that the decline in performance could not be prevented by giving a high energy diet alone.

Watanable (1985) compared the self image profiles of adolescents in military families with norms established by D.Offer et.al. (1981) for adolescents in non-military families to test the hypothesis is that psychological profile of the normal military adolescent is similar to that of the non-military adolescent. Ss
were 33, 13-15 yrs old males, 34, 13-15 yrs old females, 35, 16-18 yrs old males, and 33, 16-18 yrs old females. Two third of the Ss were from families containing 1 family member on active duty; the other third of the Ss were from families in which the family member was retired from the military. Ss completed the Officer Self Image Questionnaire. Findings confirmed the hypothesis and showed that older male, younger female, and older female Ss scores actually exceeded those of the norms reference group. Military Ss exceeded the non-military counterparts in the area of impulse control, reflecting the military's attitude towards discipline. Military Ss also scored well on the Vocational Educational Goals Scale reflecting their parents value of education, since advancement duty classification, and assignment in the military are highly dependent on one's level of training and education. Overall results deemphasized the military environment and lifestyle as a negative experience for the child.

Richardson et al. (1985) reported that effective improvement in military hardware maintenance using artificial intelligence has been viewed as dependent not only on automated systems but also on the development of human resources and the organizational context of maintenance. Four hypothetical example of
advanced systems and of human vs machine strengths and weaknesses as problem solvers are outlined. Psychological issues, personnel issues, organizational support, and skill acquisition are discussed.

Tennant et al. (1986) compared 170 former Japanese held Australian prisoners of war (POWs) from World War II with 172 non-POW combatants of the same era. Measures included the self Rating Depression Scale, State-Trait Anxiety Inventory and Eysenck Personality Questionnaire. While POWs were significantly more depressed that were controls, the 2 group did not differ in prevalence of anxiety symptoms or alcohol problems. Apart from a higher rate of postward duodenal ulcer in the POWs the 2 groups had similar degrees of medical morbidity.

Dickey et al. (1986) studied facial attractiveness and its relation to occupational success using 75 white male graduates of a military service Academy and found no relationship between attractiveness and performance in the Academy. They also found no relationship between rated attractiveness and the rank attained by the same graduates even after 12 yrs later. However, for Ss who remained on active duty 12 yrs post graduation, a significant relation was found between attractiveness and Academy performance. This result indicated that organizations can foster the development of stereotypes.
Waldron et al. (1985) presented a model developed to ease the crisis situation occurred for all family members by forced separation of a parent from the family members because of military service. A series of children's single session briefings involved talking with parents and children in a large group, talking with children in small groups while their parents observed and a large group discussion with parents. Children were encouraged to express feelings related to separation, and parents were assisted in developing strategies for coping with the family changes resulting from the deployments. Children's briefings were organized pre, mid, and post deployment and utilised lectures, slides, and coloring books. The groups were led by 2 clinical social workers and a chaplain.

Vickers & Hervig (1984) investigated the effect of physical training (PT) on the esprit de corps and self-confidence of 265 male Marine Corps recruits (mean age 19.6 yrs) from 4 basic training platoons. Scores on standard physical fitness test showed that one platoon had substantially above average improvement. A comparison of attitude and self esteem measures showed that the high improvement platoon had more positive attitudes toward the Corp and higher self
esteem. The attitudes included greater acceptance of the need for authority and discipline, greater identification with the Corps, higher commitment to achieving the maintaining high levels of performance and greater general satisfaction with the Corps. The high improvement platoon also performed better on academic tests at the end of basic training. Follow up analysis showed that the attitude differences between the above and below average fitness improvement platoons could not be explained by differences in academic performance. Results suggested that PT promotes esprit de corps and self esteem in Marine Corps recruits.

Keren (1983) followed up, over a 2.5 yr period 77 male and female Israeli soldiers serving in compulsory military service who were admitted to psychiatric hospital for the 1st time during their compulsory service. The correlation of demographic, personal, and clinical factors with their return to duty (RTD) and their posthospitalization adjustment to military service for atleast 6 months after discharge from the hospital were studied. Data indicated that, of the 53 soldiers who returned to duty 77% showed good adjustment to service. RTD correlated with age, rank, professional military grade and diagnosis of nonmajor psychosis. Posthospitalization adjustment to service
was found to correlate with profession, education, absence without official leave, detention, rank and military professional grade. The differences in outcomes between this study and that by JG Looney and EK Gunderson were discussed.

Pleban et.al. (1985) investigated the role of physical fitness in moderating both cognitive work capacity and fatigue onset under sustained combat operations. 16 male Reserve Officer's Training Corps cadets were followed through a 2.5 day, Pre-Ranger Evaluation exercise. Prior to the start of the exercise Ss' overall level of physical fitness was assessed by using 5 fitness indices (the Harvard Step Test, Chin ups, push ups, sit ups and a 2 mile run). Cognitive performance and subjective measures of fatigue state were assessed at regular intervals before, during and 1 day after the exercise. Results suggested that fitness may have attenuated decrements in cognitive work capacity for certain tasks requiring prolonged mental effort, particularly as the cumulative effects of sleep loss and other stressors began to mount. Similarly, results suggested that as overall stress levels increased fitness may have had a beneficial effect in moderating fatigue rate. Fitness did not significantly enhance the recovery process with respect to cognitive work capacity and actually appeared to hinder recovery from fatigue.
Pvdokimov (1985) investigated the rapid prediction reliability of disciplined and undisciplined cadet behaviour using selective projective test that included a modified Thematic Appreception Test (TAT) and the Rozenweig Picture Frustration Study. The test were administered to 50 certified pilots and 400 cadets. Rating given to the cadets by their superiors were compared with test results. Results suggested that the modified TAT can be used to evaluate cadet behaviour within a comparatively short time. Marked extrapunitive trends and self defence solutions of the Rozenweig test were associated with diminished personality conformity and increased potential for conflict situations and undisciplined acts. Undisciplined Ss preferably selected pictures of seriously ill patients with epilepsy, catatonia or hysteria. It is suggested that these probability characteristics help distinguish cadets that need specific attention and supervision from their well adjusted peers.

Bersari et.al. (1980) analysed from a psychosociallogical perspective, the 'grand-daddy' system in the Italian military. Through this system soldiers nearing the end of their compulsory service are customarily permitted certain privileges including
Results suggested that military ideologies have changed little since the integration of women into the military and that sex integration in military academies is characterized by considerable tension and strain for both sexes.

Martin (1984) examined the relationship between military related life stress conditions and the overall level of life satisfaction of 315 military (enlisted) wives. Ss completed a questionnaire on stressors that have been previously identified as particular concerns for military wives. Four factors—housing, employment, family life issues and friendship issues were significant in predicting the Ss overall level of life satisfaction.

Allen & Mazzuchi (1985) presented major conclusions of the 1982 Worldwide Survey of Alcohol and Nonmedical Drug Use among military personnel (R.M. Bray et al. 1983), the 1982 military survey on drug and alcohol abuse which when contrasted with the 1980 survey (M.R. Burt et al. 1980) indicated that greater gains have been made in diminishing drug abuse than in reducing problematic drinking. This phenomenon appears at least partially as a result of more intensive efforts to curb drug abuse, especially greater employment of urinalysis testing and refinements in
urine test confirmation procedures. Recommendations regarding the content and methodology for future survey and policy implications were discussed.

Powell & Thompson (1985) investigated military alcoholism and drug abuse counselors' training need, using 110 military alcoholism and drug abuse counselors and 16 clinical supervisors, who responded to a questionnaire concerning counselor training/learning needs. Ss were generally non-degreed with 10 wks of training at the Navy Alcoholism Treatment Specialist Program or the Navy Drug Abuse Counselor School. The needs as perceived by each group were compared. Counselors and supervisors generally agreed that counselors understood their own limitations, had acceptable understanding of the Navy Nine-Point Intake System and alcohol/drugs, but needed some improvement in assessment skills, while counselors were evenly split on whether their group counseling skills needed to be improved, their supervisors strongly indicated that counselors' group skills should be enhanced.

Barabantschikov & Fedenko (1985) discussed the role of military psychology in Soviet military operations and in the moral, philosophical, and psychological training of Soviet military personnel
during World War II and examined the Sources from prewar and postwar years.

Gal (1986) administered a combat readiness morale survey in May of 1981 to more than 1200 Israeli combat troops. The survey preceded actions in Lebanon by the Israeli army. Intercorrelations and factor analysis were used as an illustration of the multifaceted structure of morale. While the intercorrelations revealed major variables related strongly to morale, the factor analysis yielded 8 factors, morale being just one of them. These 8 factors were (1) Confidence in Senior Commanders; (2) Confidence in one's Self, Team and Weapons; (3) Unit Cohesion and Morale; (4) Familiarity with Missions and Frontage; (5) Confidence in Immediate Commanders; (6) Enemy Evaluation; (7) Legitimacy of War; and (8) Worries and Concerns. Findings suggested the existence of a higher order concept—perhaps unit climate—of which all of the found factors, including morale, are the comprising components.

Boman (1986) studied Combat stress, post-traumatic stress disorder, and associated psychiatric disturbance and found that a list of features and complications linked in Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders (DSM III) with
post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) occurred with equal frequency among 23 Australian Vietnam veterans with PTSD and 27 Vietnam veterans free of the disorder. These features included depression, anxiety, alcohol abuse, and impulsive violence. Such characteristics also commonly occurred among 25 currently serving military personnel with no overseas service. Consequently, it should not be assumed that wartime service necessarily is a major etiologic factor when veterans are affected by neurotic symptoms or disruptive behaviour.

Solomon et al. (1988) identified demographic military and personality factors that might predict combat stress reactions (CSRs) among 2 groups of combat soldiers—one composed of all known psychiatric casualties in the 1982 Lebanon War and the other composed of Ss with physical injuries but no psychiatric disturbances. Comparisons of psychiatric and physical injuries indicated that not all soldiers are equally vulnerable to CSR. A composite profile of the soldier at risk was outlined. Given exposure to severe combat stress, the reserve soldier who is 26+ yrs of age, of low military rank and education with low measured suitability to combat was relatively more vulnerable to CSR than the younger higher ranking more
educated soldier whom tests have found suited for combat. It was suggested that both predisposition and environmental factors may account for break down in combat.

Neidig (1986) described the development and evaluation of the domestic conflict containment program for spouse abuse treatment program in a military setting based on previous findings indicating that measures of locus of control, marital adjustment and stressful life events differentiate abusive from nonabusive service members. Significant positive changes following treatment were found among abusive couples on Dyadic Adjustment Scale (G.B. Spanier, 1976) and Consensus and Cohesion scores on the Norwicki-Strickland Locus of Control Scale.

Eden (1986) assessed the effects of team development (TD) on organizational functioning in a field quasi-experiment designed to replicate his field experiment. The command teams of 7 combat companies underwent a 3 day TD workshop and were compared with the command teams of 9 control companies before and after the TD workshops. Analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed that the experimental companies significantly improved in team work conflict handling and information about plans. Inconsistent findings in different
studies comparing the effectiveness of TD were discussed in terms of team type and the rigor-confirmation relationship.

Moutin & Briole (1985) discussed the psychological stresses of war and the causes of hard drug use among military personnel. They studied prevention strategies and clinical aspects too and evaluated the results of one treatment method.

Rimland & Larson (1986) contended that the concept of individual differences (INDs) is overlooked and under emphasized in such fields as psychology, human factors and operations research and is often purposely and studiously repudiated and rejected. It is argued that INDs have biological roots, and evidence in this area is presented. INDs in human behaviour and performance (including athletic performance), academic/intellectual abilities and the effects of experience are discussed. Steps suggested in taking INDs into account in both military and civilian organization include (1) increasing the attention and resources devoted to the measurement and utilization of INDs in personnel selection, assignment and promotion, (2) providing flexible and adaptive training and job design options and (3) arranging a reward system that provides incentives maximally attractive to individuals with different patterns of preferences.
Kyllonen (1986) reviewed the foundations and current developments of psychological testing in the military and in other settings. The value of psychological tests is addressed by reviewing selected traditional validation studies (e.g. the Graduate Record Examination, various military test batteries). It is concluded that although tests may be useful in predicting standard outcome criteria, there is a need for developing new tests that are rooted in cognitive theory and richer validation data. Recent studies that have employed testing methods based on cognitive psychology suggest areas in which cognitive psychology may contribute to the development of a new approach to ability testing.

Walters et al. (1986) investigated the personality characteristics (demographic, psychiatric and criminal background) and current institutional adjustment of a sample of emotionally disturbed criminal offenders. Ss were 43 emotionally disturbed and 43 non-disturbed military male inmates (mean age range 26.5 – 26.14 yrs) matched on age, confining offense, and length of sentence. Results indicated that the emotionally disturbed Ss committed more crimes against persons, fewer drug offenses and were more
likely to be divorced compared with the general population of inmates. Relative to control Ss, emotionally disturbed Ss achieved more highly elevated Minnesota Multiphasic Personality Inventory (MMPI) profiles, were rated as more disturbed behaviourally, evidenced a more extensive history of family and personal psychiatric difficulty, and demonstrated poorer adjustment to incarceration.

Gal & Manning (1987) compared morale-related aspects of unit climate between the all-volunteer, peacetime US Army and the all-conscript Israeli Defence Force (IDF), for whom the threat of war has always been close. 660 members of 2 US Army squadrons stationed in Germany and the US were administered a questionnaire widely used in the IDF to assess morale, cohesion and soldier perception of unit readiness. Analysis of interitem correlations revealed a generally similar structure of morale in the US units and among 1270 members of the IDF. National differences were apparent with regard to the relationship between morale and perceived contribution to national security, confidence in weapons and confidence in senior commanders. In several other respects the US units stationed in Germany resemble the IDF sample for more than it resembled its sister unit in the US. As a whole the data were consistent with the view that morale has
relatively similar determinants across armies but that both national characteristics and situational characteristics play a role in the relative importance of these determinants.

Bishop (1984) investigated the effects of gender and role stress on reporting and response to symptoms in a military population. 46 female and 44 male enlisted soldiers (mean age 22.9 yrs) who were members of administrative or combat support units were interviewed and asked to keep a health diary for 30 days. Results showed that although females reported twice as many health problems in the initial interview, there were no significant gender difference observed in symptom reporting on the health diary. Significant differences were obtained however, between members of administrative and support units, with members of combat support units reporting twice as many symptoms in the diary. Overall, the results are interpreted as emphasizing the impact of occupational stress and group cohesion rather than gender as influences on illness behaviour.

Schumm & Hammond (1986) compared (1) military, student, and other wives from a sample of 212 wives and (2) both spouses from a similar sample of 79 couples from the Midwest on a variety of self report
measures of marital quality. While few significant differences were found among the 3 groups, those that were significant favoured the military couples, the strengths of military couples were sufficient to offset the stress peculiar to their family life. Results suggested that not all military families can be fairly characterized as problematic or dysfunctional.

Glaser (1986) suggested that recent work in cognitive science emphasized the importance of the organization and representation of knowledge. This emphasis represents a shift away from a power based strategy for achieving intelligence to a more knowledge based approach. This shift in emphasis has important implications for the military, namely in the areas of selection and classification. Unlike conventional aptitude testing more sophisticated diagnostic measure can accurately assess a student's cognitive skill and acquired knowledge and provide guidelines for the design of instruction and for remediation. In the area of training, this shift highlights the importance of making instruction consistent with the learner's knowledge structures to facilitate acquisition and retention and the utility of teaching knowledge-structuring skills.

Hogan et. al. (1986) conducted a series of studies as part of a system designed to identify
aspects of team performance subject to disruption by stress. The system consists of a combination of D.M. Herold's (1978) task demands and J.L. Holland's (1985) taxonomy of work environment. Findings showed that many of the stresses experienced by a group working at a realistic task could result from incompatible personalities within the group rather than from external threats. The importance of being able to separate these sources of stress so as to be able to isolate and deal with them is emphasized. The present research is offered as a contribution to the literature on team effectiveness.

Rogers et al. (1987) studied military officers (73) of US stationed in Germany to explore their perception of the job related tension. Data were analyzed by item comparisons, factor analysis, and cluster analysis. Work load, work design, job qualifications, performance evaluation, and organization structure were identified as stress precipitators. Cluster analysis yielded 3 groups of Ss with different stress frequency patterns. These groups were labelled achievement-centered and self-actualization centered.

Mark et al. (1987) examined the complex nature of malingering within the military, highlighting the need to differentiate between malingering,
factitious disorders, and conversion somatoform disorders; and outlined a model for understanding both positive (simulation) and negative (dissimulation) malingering that describes symptoms on both psychological and physiological levels. Emphasis is placed on the need for physicians to bring out unconscious feelings (e.g. anger, disgust, humiliation) in creating a more professional therapeutic situation to treat the disorder. Six case vignettes were presented to illustrate these issues.

Shaw (1987) discussed psychosocial stressors (e.g. geographic mobility and transcultural experience, and the father's episodic absence and early military retirement) that influence developmental and life experience of children in the military. The effects on adaption of factors such as coping repertoire, the quality of family relationships, and the child's personality structure were discussed.

Solomon et.al. (1986) assessed the role of family status and family relationship in the course of combat related post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). Ss were 383 Israeli soldiers who suffered a combat stress reaction episode during the 1982 Lebanon War. Results showed that 1 yr after the war, married Ss had higher rates of PTSD than did unmarried Ss. Higher rates of PTSD were associated with low expressiveness,
low cohesiveness and high conflict in the casualties' families.

Levy et al. (1987) delineated some areas of friction and vulnerability (e.g. authority and identity problems) between the worlds of the youth and the military. These encounters were systematized into groups, creating the binary model. This model based on the experience of clinicians in the Israeli military Central Mental Health Clinic, helped in identifying and treating young soldiers in crisis situations.

Hoge et al. (1987) conducted 5 identical surveys in 1952, 1968-1969, 1974, 1979 and 1984 among 3393 college males at 2 universities to measures value trends. In most value domains the trends were U-shaped showing that the trends from the 1950s to the 1960s and 1970s had reversed and attitudes in 1984 were either similar to the 1950s or moving in that direction. The domains include traditional religion, career choice, faith in government and the military, advocacy of social constraints on deviant social groups, attitudes about free enterprise, government and economics, sexual morality, marihuana use and personal moral obligations. Two attitude areas did not show a return of the 1950s: (1) other direction and (2) the level of politicalization.
In addition to above, an attempt has also been made to summarize the findings of the outstanding studies conducted by Indian researchers on the Indian Armed Forces. A bird's eye view of the same is given below:

Kapur (1980) studied the impact of socio-economic factor on defence services of India and concluded that like the country, the services are exposed to changes occurring due to changes in social environments and economic situation. Due to the vital role the services play in defence of the Nation, it is imperative that due cognisance is taken of the socio-economic forces at play and the impact of these forces is analysed in an uninhibited incisive manner and if necessary organizational structural and even conceptual changes are brought about to neutralise the negative effects these socio-economic forces may have. For the defence services, therefore, to remain responsive and alive, to retain their dynamism and to continue as an effective weapon to fight a war with, such an analysis is an unavoidable exercise which has to be carried out.

Uberoy (1980) considered the issue of Psychological Warfare and Psychological Fitness and
reached the conclusion that Psychological fitness forms an essential part of the battleworthiness of an Army. In our case, having taken it for granted, this aspect has not been given the importance it deserves in keeping out Army fit for its given roles in war as well as peace. The need for ensuring psychological fitness of our officers and men has assumed greater importance in the context of changing political, socio-economic and moral environments of our country. Deliberate efforts which go in to prepare individuals, units and formations militarily fit for war, are also equally, if not more, necessary to ensure their psychological fitness. Neglect of this vital aspect of battleworthiness of our Army would lead to irreparable damage.

Joe (1981) threw light upon the Para-military forces and budgeted expenses on it. According to Joe it is doubtful if any other country in the world has such a proliferation of para-military forces as we have, both of the Centre and the States notwithstanding the fact that India is huge and we have borders with five countries (excluding Bhutan) Pakistan, Nepal, Tibet, Burma, Bangladesh - four of which are 'alive' and one is 'dormant' and the para-military forces (private armies) of the Centre had the budget for each
of them for 1980-81 as under:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Forces</th>
<th>Rupees</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>BSF (Border Security Force)</td>
<td>882388000=00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>AR (Assam Rifles)</td>
<td>35231500=00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CRPF (Central Reserve Police Force)</td>
<td>664822000=00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ITBP (Indo-Tibetan Border Force)</td>
<td>256580000=00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>CISF (Central Industrial Security Force)</td>
<td>229861000=00</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Joe further remarked that BSF and CRPF 'eat up' half of this huge budget and hence suggested rational distribution of roles by merging BSF, AR and ITBF together under the common title of "Frontier Force or Frontier Guards" ; and by merging CRPF and CISF under the common title of Internal Security Force" for proper utilization of these para-military forces from the point of view of their utilization in the interest of the nation as a whole with due justice of the cost being spent on maintenance of these services.

Singh (1982) expressed his views regarding the existing weaknesses in the defence set up of our country in the cash winning (Open to all officers) Gold Medal Essay Competition, 1980 and concluded that there are drawbacks in higher defence set up in our country which tend to subject the services to excessive
bureaucratic control, isolate them from direct participation in decision making, establish an awkward relationship between the related ministries themselves and with the service headquarters, and result in inefficient use of money resources. There is a need to restructure the defence ministry which is possible without sacrificing the principle of the supremacy of the civil over the services. The service headquarters suffer from objectionable weaknesses such as un-natural split of functions, lack of futuristics planning including financial planning and unequal distribution of work load in branches. Suggestions have been made in the essay to rectify these drawbacks by introducing as few changes as possible to existing structure.

Balganesan (1982) examined the relevance of Indian Traditional Military concepts and values to the techniques of contemporary conflict situation, and came to the conclusion that inspite of the many conflicts and ironies of the world situation today, our traditional military concepts and values are relevant; and emphasized upon the four qualities that are essential to protect an Army: courage, character, learning from glorious predecessors and loyalty to the nation.

Mayadas (1982) examined the continuing paradox in the defence R & D Organization known collectively as
as the DRDO and expressed a need for certainty in equipment planning and modernization, quicker decisions, realistic financial control, and concentrated efforts of the entire DRDO on projects by target dates for the proper utilization of money, manpower and efforts in the interest of India.

Pennathur (1980) reflected upon the scope and application of human factors engineering in the Defence Forces and remarked that till today it has not gained the momentum that should have in keeping both with our requirements of rendering human factors service and support to the defence forces and with the development in this field made in other countries like USA, UK, France, Netherland, Japan and Australia to mention a few.

Pandey and Dwivedi (1989) investigated the magnitude of rated morale of the military, para-military and administrative personnel in the light of their socio-cultural (religious) background, using a sample of 8 officers of Indian Armed Forces, 8 officers of Para-military forces and 8 officers of civil administration who rated the morale of their 64 subordinates of which 16 were belonging to military, 24 to para-military and remaining 24 to administrative organizations. Their findings revealed that the rated
morale of military subordinates is significantly greater than that of the para-military and administrative subordinates; while para-military and administrative subordinates are standing on equal par. They also observed that socio-cultural (religious) background of the subordinates has little bearing upon their rated morale as the differences among the Hindu, Sikh, Muslim and Christian subordinates were statistically insignificant.

1.4 Rationale for the present study:

It is worth mentioning here that the studies quoted above are selective in the sense that while scanning the literature emphasis was given upon only those empirical researches which were carried out on the personnel serving the military organizations of the foreign as well as Indian nations. No attempt was made to cite those studies which are related to military operations and instrumentations. Moreover, an attempt was made to focus upon such studies which were carried out in the last decade on all sorts of military personnel namely, soldiers, pilots, naval personnel, and their family members.
Keeping in view these specifications of the survey of the literature stated above, it can be stated that the focal themes investigated by the previous researchers in connection with military personnel can conveniently be categorised as under:

There are some studies devoted to investigate the impact of military training upon psychological traits and make up of the military personnel (e.g. Erwee & Boshoff, 1982; Rabinwitz, 1982; Vickers & Herving, 1984; Pleban et al., 1983); some are devoted to importance of scientific selection through psychological testing (e.g. Dunnette & Borman, 1979; Glaser, 1986; Allen et al., 1982; Pvdokimov, 1985; Rimland & Larson, 1986; Glaser, 1986; Uberoy, 1980; Pennathur, 1980); some other have investigated the phenomenon of drug abuse among military personnel (e.g. Beary, 1982; Beary et al., 1983; Burt, 1982; Allen & Mazzuchi, 1985; Powell & Thompson, 1985; Moutin & Briole, 1985); some others have investigated the family crisis of the military personnel (e.g. Mester et al., 1983; Waldron et al., 1985; Martin, 1984; Show, 1987); still others are devoted to the investigation of stress and stressors of the soldiers and prisoners of war (POWs) during and after combat (e.g. Tennant et al., 1986; Boman, 1986; Soloman et al., 1986; Shaw, 1983); some other studies have investigated the issues of
organizational and role stress with a view to see their impact upon the military personnel (e.g. Guttman, 1982; Okaue & Aruga, 1983; Rognum et al., 1986; Bishop, 1984; Rogers et al., 1987); some have investigated the incidence, the treatment and the prevention of physical and mental disorders among military personnel (e.g. Black, 1983; Sherman, 1982; Keran, 1983; Walters et al. 1986; Bishop, 1984; Mark et al., 1987); some have attempted to identify the problems of adjustment among the new recruits (e.g. Faelli & Guthier, 1981; Rabinwitz, 1982; Vickers & Herving, 1984; Pleban et al. 1983); some tried to find out the incidence and causes of turn over and self initiated elimination from the military set up (e.g. Butler et al., 1983; Okaue & Aruga, 1982); some other investigations devoted to know the nature and distribution of military morale among the military personnel (e.g. Gal, 1986; Gal & Manning, 1987; Pande & Dwivedi, 1989); and a few attempted to compare self-image profiles of the male and female adolescents from the military and non military families (e.g. Watanabe, 1985).

Thus, it is obvious from the above categorisation that studies touching to the very core of military personnel are very scanty. The core of military personnel from the point of view defence
potentiality and efficiency according to new trends in military psychology gets expression through personality make up, value-orientation and level of the morale as judged by others. Because these three (namely personality, value-orientation and morale) are mostly influenced by the type of environment the military personnel are exposed to. As has been stated by Cattell (1950) 'personality is that which permits a prediction of what a person will do in a given situation. ......Personality is ...... concerned with all the behaviour of the individual both overt and under the skin' ; and as pointed out by Kluckhohn, (1950 ) a value - orientation is a generalised to standards, personal or cultural that do not arise soley out of immediate tension or immediate situation. It provides rather the totality of the personality or totality of a culture and guide to some extent the coherence between personality and culture. It entails selection and choice either positively or negatively in terms of relevance to satisfaction of drive. In other words, the value system of a given person guides his behaviour both consistantly and economically and determines his life space in terms of social relationships various dimensions (Parsons, 1976); and as viewed by National Research Council (1943) morale is the capacity to stay on the job with determination and
zest. It is the opposite of apathy. And military morale remains a crucial concern for the army and more so for the army personnel whose job is to faster it towards the maximal end of the dimensions. A low level of morale among the military personnel, so to say, may result in failure just as it did in case of surrender by the PAK Army in the Bangladesh (Dwivedi & Chaouhan, 1989).

Hence it has been found very timely to investigate the personality traits, the value-orientations and the magnitude of rated morale (as rated by the superiors) as these are existing, in the Indian military personnel, especially in the case of army personnel, so as to know the nature and pattern of the personality, value and rated morale profiles. Moreover, military training and its hierarchical organization, as it is existing in the Indian Army, can best be understood in terms of military and para military forces as well as in terms of commissioned and non-commissioned personnel, having their own influence upon the personality, value, and morale of the new recruits till they reach the perfection and maturity in their services rendered to the nation. Therefore, it has also been decided to investigate the influences of
organizational and cadre differentiations upon the well-established personality traits, as has been pointed out by Cattell (1962), value-orientations as has been spotted by Chouhan et.al. (1981) and military rated morale as has been specified by Dwivedi & Chouhan (1985) in the present investigation under the caption "MILITARY PERSONNEL: THEIR PERSONALITY, VALUE PROFILES AND RATED MORALE".