Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

The year was 1994 and the researcher was a Naval officer’s wife attending a party in honour of a visiting Admiral at the Institute of Armament Technology, Pune. The Admiral was not the focus of attention; all eyes were riveted on his Flag Lieutenant, a woman in uniform. The officers of the Institute (all men) did not know whether to treat her as a “lady” or whether to pull rank. The Naval wives were also ambivalent, “If she’s married to a Naval officer she should be part of NWWA (Naval Wives Welfare Association)”, said one. “No, she’s an officer”, said another. This incident was the first of many; as the Armed Forces opened their doors just a little, to admit a small number of women into this hitherto exclusive male domain. Thus, the researcher’s interest was stimulated to understand the dynamics of women in the Armed Forces, especially in the Navy.

1.1 RATIONALE

The role of women in the Indian Armed Forces was limited to the medical profession i.e. doctors and nurses, until the year 1992, when they were inducted as regular officers. The Chief of Army Staff, General S.F. Rodrigues announced on the eve of Army Day, 15th January 1991 that the Army would open its doors to women, who would soon contribute to National Security. The Air force and the Navy soon followed suit. Women are commissioned only at officer level and are excluded from combat duty. Again, the Army was the first to break the long standing tradition and has proceeded very cautiously by inducting 16 women officers into the Corps of Army Air Defence for carrying out combat
roles. Exclusion from combat roles has resulted in many branches and paths to command being closed to women. Moreover women serve for a maximum of 14 years on a Short Service Commission and have to look for a second career thereafter.

Given this scenario, though women have been serving with the Indian Defence Forces for more than a decade, no systematic enquiry has ever been made in India as to how women are situated, how they have adapted to the environment in which they work and how in turn the Defence Forces have adapted to them. There has hardly been any public debate on this issue, in keeping with the “everything is classified attitude” of the Military. The fact that permission has been given to conduct this research is evidence of change in the attitudes of the Navy hierarchy.

The few published articles, on women in the Indian Armed Forces, have been based on opinion and experience, (Hundiwala, 1992), theories of management, (Karve & Debnath, 2000), and interviews with a few officers, (Arya, 2001, Part 1&11). The present study is the first empirical investigation of women in the Indian Navy. The aim of the study being, to understand how various Personal variables (Work motivation, personality, self-actualization, gender role identity and family background), together with the Navy environment (Length of service) and Life events (Marriage, children) have resulted in variables such as, attitudes towards women in the Navy and in combat, job satisfaction, satisfaction with Navy life, morale, and organizational role stress.
After detailed discussions with personnel of all three services, the researcher came to the conclusion that women face different conditions in the Army, Navy, and Air force. Studying all three services simultaneously would be beyond the scope of this study. Another deciding factor was the close proximity to the Navy, being a Naval officer's wife for 20 years, it was inevitable that this research would be focused on women Naval officers. Since women are given only a Short Service Commission, a matched group of Short Service Commissioned male officers too was included in the study to obtain psychosocial data using a comparative gender paradigm.

Comparative gender research has often been criticized for exaggerating small differences so they are remembered better than similarities. The positive side is that much gender research is not essentializing i.e. implying a stable essence to men and women without recognizing individual differences. The present research for example, seeks to identify levels of role stress among men and women, as well as morale, job satisfaction and attitudes towards woman naval officers. Such research focuses attention on things that need to be changed and has the potential to improve women's lives. It is hoped that the findings of this research will have some positive outcomes for women who choose to serve their country. At the very least, it has given women in the Armed Forces a voice.
1.2 REASONS FOR INDUCTION OF WOMEN IN THE ARMED FORCES.

The first thought that strikes traditionalists is that, through the centuries soldiering has been a man’s job and that there is no need to recruit women. However, manpower shortages, as well as ideological and cultural factors, have played a role in their induction.

**Manpower Shortages:** Britain, Australia, US and Canada began recruiting women in large numbers in the 1970’s when male conscription in their countries ceased and birth rates declined. Stokes (1987), Thomson (1987), Middleton (1987), and Felix (1987) have outlined the Royal Navy’s manpower shortage. Middleton (1987) suggested sending WRNS (Women Royal Naval Service) to sea, in view of their excellence and the demographic trough, while Felix (1987) felt it was illegal and inefficient to discriminate against women.

The US has also been facing a manpower crunch. Due to its involvement in the Gulf Wars, one third of the West Point Class left service after 5 years (Shankar, 2006). The Pentagon resorted to extra incentives, calling up veterans and reservists as well as foreign nationals including Indians (Rajghatta, 2004 and 2005; Subramanyam, 2004; US. military, 2005). The US Military has 444 Indian born personnel (Grieco, 2003). These countries, cannot ignore half their populace i.e. women.
Ideological and cultural factors: Enloe (1983, p.127) in the US has suggested that, "Armed Forces vary in the degree and ways they use women based on ideological conservatism of the government, military ambitions, birth rate, quality of civilian employment, social status of soldiering, trustworthiness of minorities in the eyes of military officials". Thus some of the reasons for inducting women in the military were, gender equality in social and political life, as well as, fewer qualified men willing to volunteer, with civilian jobs being more attractive, coupled with technological advancement in the Armed Forces, making technologically qualified personnel more important than brute force. Li, Segal and Segal (1992) in China, as well as Bolgar (1999) in Hungary have analyzed similar trends, men have found better opportunities in civilian life and women have taken advantage of equal opportunity measures to join the Armed Forces.

Two interesting hypotheses have been put forward, regarding the recruitment of women. One is postulated by Cieslarczyk, Jarmoszko and Marciniuk (1999) who observed, that women have been inducted in combat and decision making during a time of change i.e. Toffler’s third wave (post industrial / informational), during a period of development of weapons of mass destruction, and the combat objective is not to destroy the enemy but to deprive it of the will to fight. They hypothesize that Homo sapiens’ instinct for self preservation has resulted in the induction of women, who would use their intuition and their ability to read character and relationship skills to complement skills that men possess.
The second hypothesis was advanced by Van Creveld (2000) who has used an impressive literature review to back his claim that "advanced" militaries have declined in the last 50 years; their regular armed forces do not fight wars but keep peace. This decline he reasoned, correlates precisely with the influx of women, while in those places where there are still wars, women take little or no part in fighting. Elshtain (2000 a) in response to Van Creveld agreed with him that the induction of women in the armed forces could scarcely be called a "gain" or "progress" for women, however she suggested that this change must be reviewed in two contexts, the political context and that of women's struggle for civic equality. Enloe (2000) has attributed women's induction more to manpower shortages, though the timing was confusing, making it look like a Government response to the rise of second wave feminism. In India it is both gender equality and shortage of qualified personnel at younger levels that are reasons for inducting women, this will be discussed in the next chapter.

**Role of women in the Armed Forces:** Major General J. Singh (1998) has defined the role of the military in terms of settling territorial disputes, promoting strategic interests and fighting separatist forces to preserve the unity and territorial integrity of a nation. Lt. General O.P. Kaushik (2000) has also included the relief work undertaken during natural calamities, spreading education, hygiene and a feeling of national unity in remote tribal areas.

Brigadier Grant (2002) has asked the question whether inducting women in combat roles would enhance the efficiency, morale and fighting spirit of combat units. The
researcher’s response is that this is a matter for research, and a question of attitudinal change. In addition, women have been inducted for various reasons cited earlier, now the question is to train them, so they effectively fulfill the role required of them. As the nature of war changes, technology replaces ‘Rambos’, and peacekeeping replaces traditional warfare, the role required is also changing. Gibbs (2004) has described American soldiers in Iraq as having descended on a broken place to make it better, to repair the IT lab and the soccer field, all the time watching their backs. Women with their intuition and other skills have a role to play in wars that require not just courage and strength but constancy and subtlety. With increasing involvement of the Indian Armed Forces in Kashmir, Nagaland and Mizoram, involving the civilian population, women have a definite role to play. Women who fulfill the physical requirements and training should be given a chance in combat roles. The final goal must be full and equal participation for women who qualify without compromising the high standards of our Armed Forces.

1.3 WOMEN'S MILITARY PARTICIPATION: SELECTED COUNTRIES

Before discussing women’s military participation in India, it would be relevant to discuss their participation in other countries. This participation ranges from gender equal training and deployment to a token presence of women in ‘feminine’ roles.
**Fig.1.1  NATO- Percentage of Women Soldiers 2005.**


BE-Belgium, BU-Bulgary, CA-Canada, CZ-Czech Republic, DA-Denmark, FR-France, GE-Germany, GR-Greece, HU-Hungary, IT-Italy, LA-Latvia, LU-Lithuania, NL-The Netherlands, NO-Norway, PL-Poland, PO-Portugal, RO-Romania, SK-Slovakia, SN-Slovenia, SP-Spain, TU-Turkey, UK-United Kingdom, US-United States.
NATO countries: Most NATO countries induct women in their Armed Forces, percentages, however, vary. Data for 2005 (Fig. 1.1) show that Latvia has the highest percentage of women 20%, while Italy that has recently begun inducting women has just 1%, and Poland has only .47%. Countries with high participation rates for women are; Canada-16.9%, Hungary-16%, Slovenia-15.38%, United States-15.5%. The Czech Republic, France, and Spain have between 10% to 13% women in their military.

Levels of participation for women also vary in different countries. The highest level is Norway that has a percentage of just 6.3% however, women are fully integrated with equal training, performance standards, and all positions open to women including combat and submarines. Canada and Spain are considering women in submarines (Elster, 1988). In 1995, the Norwegian Navy appointed the first woman submarine commander (Forsvars departementet, 2004).

The next highest level of participation is in Canada, Spain, and Denmark where all positions are open to women except on submarines. In Canada, there is difficulty in attracting women and retaining them in combat arms, the aim is to achieve 28% female representation. Kovitz (2000) reiterates that the military has a gendered division of labour; to integrate women on an equal footing threatens the military’s need for masculine exclusivity. In this sense, women are the “enemy within”. Australia (not a NATO country) is somewhere in between, women are excluded from direct combat (direct physical contact with an armed adversary) and some positions where exposure may harm a developing foetus; however, they are permitted in combat and combat related
duties and on submarines. Admiral Barrie referred to the recruitment of women as pragmatic rather than social policy (Parliament of Australia, 2000).

The third level of participation is in countries that have gender-integrated basic training, where Military Academies are open to women, and some combat positions are open to women. This level of inclusion is seen in, the US, UK, and France where women serve on combat aircraft, and ships but not in direct ground combat, while in Portugal, women are allowed in academies, ships are modified to accommodate up to 15% of women on board. Women are fighter pilots, navigators, ATC and paratroopers; they are not permitted in infantry, armour, artillery, and naval combat (Garcia, 1999; Ministry of Defence, UK, 2002).

The fourth and lowest level of participation is in countries that have a very small percentage of women in their Armed Forces and do not permit women in combat i.e. Greece, and countries that have a token presence of women in the officer cadre not at other ranks i.e. Turkey with 3.95%, and Poland with .47% of women.

Countries in Asia: In India the level of participation would fall in the lowest category since the Armed Forces induct women only in the officer cadre, where women are 2.83% of the total officer strength, and serve in non combat roles.

China: During the revolution and the communist movement, women served in the Red Army in combat and non-combat roles. In an all too familiar refrain, when the revolution was over and the need for women reduced, China minimized the role of women in the
Armed Forces. It was the same in Russia after the communist victory; in Yugoslavia after the liberation struggle (Jancar, 1990), and in Spain after the civil war (Nash, 1995). In China women comprise 8% of the military but in traditional support positions e.g. headquarters, hospitals, research and communication. Very similar to India, there are no women combat pilots, on ships, submarines or ground combat. With a move towards gender equality in civilian society and the world, combat specialties are increasingly being opened to women (Li, Segal & Segal, 1992).

**Pakistan:** Women are less than 1% of the military. However, women have moved on from the medical corps to paratroopers, jet pilots and even an army general. In April 2006, the first 4 women pilots got their wings in the air force, 2 women completed paratrooper’s training and 30 women enrolled in signals, engineering, computing and legal branches (Women make, 2006).

**Indonesia:** Sunindyo (1998) has presented a picture of “a gendered and domesticized military, though on the other hand it is a locus for articulation of women’s struggle for rights and political power. The State promotes certain ideas of gender relations and certain femininities (imposed unevenly on different classes, races and ethnicities) and women negotiate their femininities and identities within the state sponsored images of women.”

**Russia:** In 1980 contract service was introduced to fill in shortfalls, by conscription. In 1990, half the contract military personnel were women. Russian military press states that women are in every branch but in reality they are concentrated mainly in Air, Air Defence and Military Space, in clerical positions, in administration, communication and medicine (Mathers, 2000).
Countries in the Middle East.

Israel: This is the only country with compulsory conscription for women as well as men, the similarity ends there. Boys are drafted for 3 years, girls for 21 months (if they volunteer for combat it is 3 years because of lengthy training). In reality, women do not see combat, they serve as instructors or in secretarial and support roles. Alice Miller after appealing to the Supreme Court applied for the Air Force but flunked the test. Brig. Gen. Natan said “I know girls want to be fighters, and then they find themselves in an office making coffee”. In a country where military service is all-important and networking, or the old boy’s club is helpful in getting a civilian job, this is a blow to a girl’s self image (Shiloh, 1998). In 2000, all units were opened to women, 83% of all positions including those on ships, except combat and artillery were opened. In 2002 the percentages of women were 33% at Lower rank, 21% at the rank of Captain and Major, and 3% at Senior rank (Israel, 2005).

Jordan: Women are 4% of the army, restricted to administrative, educational and medical positions. (Royal Jordanian, 1996).

Countries in South America: Women have graduated from Argentina’s military academy, in artillery engineering and communications, males found it difficult to accept initially but were getting used to it (Valente, 1999). Brazil has accepted women in the flying academy and only the infantry remains all male (Women allowed, 2002). In Chile women have been permitted into the academy, the highest rank women have reached being that of General. Bunster (1998) claims that the military however, continues to be
hyper-masculine and femininity continues to be constructed in the conservative model of ‘mothers’ and ‘bearers’ of the values of the Fatherland (p.215).

1.4 STRUCTURE OF THE INDIAN ARMED FORCES:

To understand how women fit into the hierarchy of the Armed Forces it is appropriate to first examine the structure of the Armed Forces.

The Indian Armed Forces comprises of the Army, Navy, and Air Force. Their primary role is defence of the country but they may also be called upon to aid civil administration in times of crisis. Recruitment is voluntary; personnel retire earlier than in other Government sectors, to maintain a youthful, pyramidal structure essential to a fighting force.

Officer’s Rank Structure:

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<tr>
<th>President: Supreme Commander</th>
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<tr>
<td>General (Chief of the Army Staff)</td>
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<td>Lt. General</td>
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<tr>
<td>General</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vice Admiral</td>
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<tr>
<td>Air Chief Marshal (Chief of the Air force Staff)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Air Vice Marshal</td>
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Women in India are only inducted as commissioned officers and not at other levels; the next level is 'Junior Commissioned Officer' and 'Other Ranks'. Promotions are time scaled up to the rank of Captain, (approximately 24 years of service) thereafter it is based on selection. Women inducted as regular officers are only offered a Short Service Commission (SSC) i.e. an initial compulsory contractual tenure of 10 years extendable to a maximum of 14 years (rank of Commander). The Indian Armed Forces' combat exclusion policy for women has been breached for the first time with 16 women officers being inducted into the Corps of Army Air Defence (R.Singh, 2005a).

**Women are commissioned in the following branches:**

**Army:** Engineers, Corps of Signals, Army Service Corps (ASC), Army Ordinance Corps (AOC), Electrical and Mechanical Engineers (EME), Army Education Corps (AEC), Intelligence Corps and Judge Advocate General (JAG).

**Air force:** Flying Branch, only as transport and helicopter pilots (Avro, AN32, Chetak and Cheetah helicopters), not within 1.5 Km range of the international border; Technical branch, as Aeronautical, Electrical and Mechanical Engineers; Ground Duty Branches, in Administration, Logistics, Accounts, Education and the Meteorological Department. A few courses of women were inducted into the Air Traffic Controller (ATC)/Fighter Controller Branch, but this has since been stopped.

**Navy:** Law, Air Traffic Control, Logistics and Naval Architecture Cadres and Education Branch. Women are excluded from the Executive Branch. Though Law, ATC and Logistics form a part of the Executive Branch; they are not the executive path to a
command. Women are excluded from the Engineering, Electrical, Naval Aviation, Submarine and Diving Branches. Women have served on board ships on a trial basis, this has since been discontinued (Bakshi, 2003).

1.5 CONCEPTS EXAMINED IN THIS STUDY

Feminists, military men, and military scholars have closely examined the issue of women in the Armed Forces. Research has mainly been conducted in the UK, US, and Europe on physical and health parameters of women in the military and in combat, as well as the effect of women on morale, unit cohesion, and readiness. Some studies have concentrated on motivations of women for joining, reasons for leaving, sexual harassment, and family issues as related to job performance.

The Armed Forces Medical College, Pune has recently done research and given the go-ahead for women in combat roles (Unnithan, 2006). Barring this, no research has been done on gender and various psychosocial aspects of women in the Indian Armed Forces. A need was felt therefore to examine the following areas: work related attitudes, gender equality attitudes, motivation, organizational role stress, self-actualization, personality, gender role identity, and social support for married women naval officers.
1.5.1 Work Related Attitudes:

Women have worked hard, persevered and undergone a gruelling training to become officers in the Navy. It was expected that their work related attitudes i.e. job satisfaction, life style satisfaction, and affective commitment (morale) would be high.

A. Job Satisfaction:

Job satisfaction being a work related attitude includes an affective, cognitive, evaluative and behavioural component. There are different approaches to studying job satisfaction; the global approach treats job satisfaction, as a single, overall feeling towards the job. The facet approach focuses on different aspects of the job such as pay, promotion, benefits, supervision, co-workers, job conditions, nature of work, communication and security. The facet approach gives a more complete picture of job satisfaction. Many researchers treat the sum of facet scores as an indicator of overall job satisfaction. This is justified because the facets correlate well with overall job satisfaction (Spector 2000, pp.197-203). Since the facet approach yields scores on different aspects of the job as well as an overall score on job satisfaction the present study has used the facet approach.

Job satisfaction is of interest to to the Armed Forces because, though correlations between job satisfaction and traditional measures of job performance have been low, the relationship of job satisfaction with health and well being, as well as organizational citizenship behaviours (helping the organization and others in ways that do not directly show up in performance figures) show a stronger relationship. These parameters are important for the military because well being and organizational citizenship behaviours would result in ‘service beyond the call of duty’ and other such extra role behaviours that
are central to the culture of the Armed Forces and may not be picked up in traditional measures of job performance.

B. Life Satisfaction:
Life Satisfaction is an indicator of overall happiness and emotional well being. Life satisfaction has been related to job satisfaction. The spillover hypothesis i.e. satisfaction with work spills over to general satisfaction with life and vice versa has been supported by research. Judge and Watanabe (1993) conducted a longitudinal study over a five-year span that found a significant reciprocal relationship between job and life satisfaction. They also found that life satisfaction increased with age, marriage, better physical health, and that women were higher on life satisfaction.

The present study measures satisfaction with the naval life style such as transfers, separation from family, close friendship bonds and regimented life, factors that are not dealing with the work itself but are unique to life in the Navy. Since Life Satisfaction is concerned with overall well being, satisfaction with naval life style would be an important part of life satisfaction.

C. Morale:
Organizational commitment is a work place attitude that is related to job satisfaction but distinctly different in that it measures attachment to the organization. Moving beyond Becker's side -bets orientation i.e. accumulated investments an individual stands to lose if one leaves the organization, and the goal -congruence approach i.e. personal goals are
in keeping with those of the organization. Meyer, Allen & Smith (1993) have proposed a three-component concept of commitment: affective commitment, the employee wishes to remain with the organization because of an emotional attachment; continuance commitment, the employee needs the salary and cannot find another job; normative commitment, the employee believes he or she owes it to the organization, it is the right thing to do. The present study measures affective commitment suggested by the goal congruence approach, where the organizational goals becomes one's own. This would result in employees, who are enthusiastic, confident and happy about their work, i.e. workers with high morale (Rao & Narayana, 1987, p.726).

1.5.2 Gender Equality Attitudes

The Indian Armed Forces have inducted women only at officer level, with equal pay as men, for equal rank and service. However, women are excluded from certain jobs such as combat and are not given a permanent commission. Of interest therefore are reasons for excluding women from combat and whether women are accepted on par with men in the services. Attitudes towards women should be investigated because attitudes determine the work environment and affect a woman's self-esteem, and self-concept. This study has investigated attitudes towards women in the Navy, and towards women in combat.

A. Combat Exclusion

India has a combat exclusion policy for women. Combat duties have been classified by the Australian Defence Force into: Direct combat duties, involving direct, physical contact with the adversary; combat duties, involving acts of violence against an adversary
in time of war; combat related duties, involving work in close proximity to combat zones that may result in injury or death. Women are not allowed in direct combat in the Australian Armed Forces. In the U.K. women are not permitted in close combat, where the requirement is to close with and kill the enemy face-to-face. In the U.S. women are not permitted in direct ground combat. Canada, Norway, Denmark and Belgium have no combat restrictions for women (Parliament of Australia, 2000). The present research studies women naval officers who are willing to volunteer for combat, and attitudes towards reasons for combat exclusion.

B. Attitudes towards women in the Navy:

Attitudes have been defined in many ways. Jones and Gerard (1967, p.184) relate attitudes to values and beliefs, where two cognitions make a belief and a belief plus a value equal an attitude. Thus beliefs express the relationship between concepts, and attitudes involve the linking of positive/negative value or emotion to a concept embedded in a belief. A syllogistic form is shown below:

All women are weak  -  Minor Premise  -  Belief
Weak people are inferior  -  Major Premise  -  Value

\[ \therefore \] Women are inferior  -  Conclusion  -  Attitude

An attitude is an association between attitude objects and evaluation of those objects.

Of relevance to the present study is the research on the impact of attitude on perceiving and remembering. It is quite clear that cognitive processes are geared to the construction of a subjective reality that is compatible with beliefs, values and attitudes. Also, the
cognitive construction of events may involve distortion. However, under some conditions, individuals can be sensitized to threat and show openness to information that seems likely to question their values (Jones & Gerard, 1967, pp. 227-255). The relationship between attitudes and behaviour however is more complex. Many factors moderate the attitude- behaviour link. These include aspects of the situation, such as the operation of social norms, and time pressure, aspects of attitudes themselves such as their strength, importance and accessibility and aspects of individuals such as self-monitoring. The present research investigated attitudes towards women in the Navy that are important in terms of the self fulfilling prophecy, also attitudes determine affect, cognition and behaviour thus influencing the climate in which women work.

1.5.3 Motivation and Self-Actualization

Women have chosen the armed forces as a profession often having to deal with parental concerns regarding their daughter’s physical stamina, marriage and family issues. To have forged ahead in the military where women are a minority, life is tough and regimented, quite different from civilian life, would require a high need for self-actualization. This research has attempted to study the work values that motivate women to join the Navy and whether women have actualized their potential.

Traditionally, motivation has been defined as the control of behaviour, that is, the process by which behaviour is activated and directed toward some definable goal (Kleinginna & Kleinginna, 1981; Young, 1961). The developmental – interactionist model developed by Buck (1985) views motivation as a potential for the activation and direction of
behaviour that is inherent in a system of behaviour control. The systems of behaviour control are: Prelogical, (primes) special purpose control systems structured by evolution (Phylogeny); Learned, general – purpose control systems structured by individual experience (Ontogeny); Logistic, formal ways of categorizing and organizing information about the internal and external environment i.e. language, logic.

**Work motivation** theories are concerned with the reasons that some people perform their jobs better. If ability and constraints are constant, high levels of motivation should lead to good job performance. Theories of employee motivation may be broadly classified into need theories, reinforcement/expectancy theories, equity theory, goal setting and self-efficacy theories. The present study investigates **self-actualization**, a term first coined by Kurt Goldstein (Knapp, 1976), and used by Maslow (1954) in his need hierarchy theory of motivation, to refer to people’s desire for fulfillment, to become everything one is capable of becoming, of actualizing one’s potential (Maslow, 2000, p.23). Maslow’s need hierarchy theory states that human needs are arranged in a hierarchy that includes physical, social and psychological needs. The lowest level physiological needs include physical necessities for survival; the second level consists of safety needs that protect us from danger. The third level is the need for love and belonging. The fourth level is esteem needs. Finally, there is self-actualization. According to Maslow, a need must be unmet to be motivating; people are motivated by the lowest level need that is unmet, the prepotent need.
Taking the traditional approach to motivation defined earlier, the present investigation seeks to understand what motivates Naval Officers on the job, in terms of their most important work-related goals and values. Values are motivational phenomena that may be positive or negative i.e. a state or object that an individual approaches (positive value) or avoids (negative value). Values are part affective, part cognitive and conditioned by experience, they also determine behaviour (Jones & Gerard, 1967, p.158). An interesting cross cultural investigation of work values was carried out by Elizur, Borg, Hunt and Beck, (1991) where 2,280 participants in 8 countries rated work values, this study showed that an ‘interesting job’ seemed a universal goal while ‘pay’ was not so important.

1.5.4 Organizational Role Stress

Stress has been viewed in various ways, some theorists view stress as a stimulus event that presents difficult demands; others view it as the response of physiological arousal to a troublesome event. Currently researchers view stress as a stimulus response transaction in which one feels threatened (Mc Ewen, 2000). Weiten & Lloyd (2004, p.63) define stress as any circumstances that threaten or are perceived to threaten one’s well being and thereby tax one’s coping abilities.

An organization is a system of roles geared towards meeting organizational goals. A role is the functions one performs in response to the expectations of significant members in the organization (role senders) and one’s own expectations. From the individual’s point
of view there are two role systems: (a) Role space, the system of various roles the
individual performs which are dynamically interrelated with each other and with the
concept of self which is central to these roles; (b) Role set, the system of various roles of
which her/his role is a part. It is a pattern of interrelationships between one role (focal
role) and many others.

Role space conflicts or stress occurs when there is conflict between the self, the role in
question and other roles a person occupies. Role set conflicts occur when there is
incompatibility among expectations by significant others and the individual himself
(Pareek, 2003, pp.483-486). Pareek has identified 10 organizational role stresses, which
were investigated in this study. Since women have entered the rigid hierarchical role
structure of the Armed Forces it would be interesting to study whether they experience
greater organizational role stress than men.

1.5.5 Personality

Personality is the relatively stable and distinctive patterns of behaviour that characterize
an individual and her or his reactions to the environment. In recent years McCrae and
Costa (1987) have maintained that the majority of personality traits derive from just five
higher order traits that have come to be known as the “Big Five”: extraversion,
neuroticism, openness to experience, agreeableness and conscientiousness. The NEO
personality inventory – Revised has been developed by them based on factor analysis and
personality theory. It is one of the most heavily researched and widely accepted
personality tests of the 1990s (Kaplan & Saccuzzo, 2001, p.436). The cross-cultural generalizability of the five-factor model has been established by McCrae and Costa (1997) on German, Portuguese, Hebrew, Chinese, Korean and Japanese samples using natural language trait terms and factor analysis. The authors thus conclude that personality trait structure is universal. Recently, McCrae, Jang, Livesley, Riemann and Angleleitner (2001) found these factors appear to have heritable components.

Vocational interests and job performance are strongly related to personality, e.g. conscientiousness has been consistently related to job performance and neuroticism, negatively correlated with aspects of job performance. Being comprehensive the NEO-PI-R has been used in this research because it makes a systematic sweep that would throw up a relationship, if it exists, between personality traits and stress, job satisfaction, morale and attitudes towards women in the Navy. If no such relationship exists future research could focus on other classes of variables, such as situational or cognitive variables.

1.5.6 Gender Role Identity

Boundaries between masculinity and femininity are gradually blurring, women have entered many occupations previously closed to men. The Armed Forces long considered the last bastion of male privileged occupation, have begun recruiting women. In this tough, disciplined profession for, “the physically fit and the mentally strong” women are seeking to make their mark. At first women may adopt masculine traits to succeed until
gradually the military realizes the advantage of feminine traits, and in a truly gender
transcended world masculinity and femininity may cease to matter. Until that Utopian
state is attained, the present research attempts to understand the role that gender plays in
the Navy today.

**Gender** refers to the psychological traits of masculinity and femininity that develop
through socialization. **Gender roles** are culturally prescribed behaviours and traits that
are expected of males and females, while **gender stereotypes** reflect overgeneralizations
often inaccurate, about what men and women are like. Biology, socialization and culture
interact to create gender (Rider, 2000, pp19-24). Mary Wollstonecraft in 1792 was the
first to recognize the social aspect of gender (Wood, 2003 p.21).

**Gender role identity** is a person's identification with the qualities regarded as masculine
and feminine in a culture. Bem (1975) challenged the prevailing view that gender typed
men and women i.e. men who score high on masculinity and women who score high on
femininity are better adjusted than others. She advanced the idea that androgynous
people, i.e. those who score above average on measures of both masculinity and
femininity, are psychologically healthier than those who are gender typed. Research has
presented conflicting results some supporting the theory; others showing evidence that
masculine traits are psychologically healthier. Bem has since moved to the perspective of
genre role transcendence, that is, to be fully human, people need to move beyond gender
roles as a way of organizing their perceptions of themselves and others.
The theoretical concepts and empirical findings presented above have been integrated into a research design that would enable the researcher to get a holistic view of naval officers (particularly women) covering various aspects of their professional lives.

1.6 Scope of the study

The main goal of the study was to develop an understanding of women naval officers and their integration into the Armed Forces. The successful integration of women into the Armed Forces would be a litmus test paving the way for women to be fully integrated into all walks of life. The implications are far reaching, no longer would women be confined to 'pink collar' jobs but would be free to actualize their potential in any sphere. Women in the Armed Forces will be role models for women in general and send a strong message to traditionalists determined to protect male patriarchy that women have the freedom of choice.

The following chapter outlines the status of women in India, their work participation, and gives a history of women in combat, as well as presents the current scenario of women in the Indian Armed Forces.