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**Women in the Armed Forces: A Gender and a
Sociological Perspective. The cases of India and Hungary**

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter I.....	3
INTRODUCTION: WOMEN IN THE ARMED FORCES	3
1.1 REASONS FOR INDUCTION OF WOMEN IN THE ARMED FORCES:	3
1.2 THE AIM, OBJECTIVES AND THE CONCEPTS OF THE THESIS:	5
1.3 HYPOTHESES	10
1.4 LITERATURE REVIEW	12
1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY.....	21
1.6 SUMMARY	31
Chapter II	33
GENDER AND WOMEN	33
2.1 GENDER PERSPECTIVE.....	35
2.2 GENDER, WAR and PEACEKEEPING	40
2.3 INTERNATIONAL REQUIREMENTS (UN,NATO and EU).....	49
2.4 ATTITUDES TOWARDS WOMEN IN ARMED FORCES	56
2.5 SUMMARY	60
Chapter III.....	63
3.1 HISTORY OF WOMEN’S STATUS AND EMPLOYMENT	63
3.2 WOMEN AND WORK	64
3.3 SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC STATUS OF WOMEN IN INDIA	69
3.4 SOCIAL AND ECONOMICAL STATUS OF WOMEN IN HUNGARY	71
3.5 SUMMARY	85
CHAPTER IV	87
ROLE OF WOMEN IN THE ARMED FORCES	Hiba! A könyvjelző nem létezik.
4.1 THEORETICAL APPROACH.....	87
4.2 NATO COUNTRIES	87
4.3 RUSSIA.....	98
4.4 ASIAN NATIONS	99
4.5 OTHER NATIONS	101
4.6 STRUCTURE OF INDIAN ARMED FORCES.....	104
4.7 STRUCTURE OF HUNGARIAN DEFENCE FORCES	107
4.8 SUMMARY	Hiba! A könyvjelző nem létezik.
Chapter V	117
INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEES FOR WOMEN IN ARMED FORCES	117
5.1 INTRODUCTION.....	117
5.2 FORMATION OF UNSCR 1325: WOMEN, PEACE and SECURITY	119

5.3 TERMS OF REFERENCE FOR THE NATO OFFICE ON GENDER PERSPECTIVE.....	125
5.5 NATIONAL REPORTS TO THE NATO COMMITTEE ON GENDER PERSPECTIVE	127
5.6 INTERNATIONAL MILITARY STAFF OFFICE of THE GENDER ADVISOR	129
5.7 SUMMARY	137
Chapter VI.....	Hiba! A könyvjelző nem létezik.
WOMEN IN THE INDIAN AND HUNGARIAN ARMED FORCES	Hiba! A könyvjelző nem létezik.
6.1 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW	Hiba! A könyvjelző nem létezik.
6.2 TWO MILITARIES TWO PRACTICES.....	Hiba! A könyvjelző nem létezik.
6.3 MOTIVATION AND SELF ACTUALIZATION	144
6.4 WORK RELATED ATTITUDES.....	145
6.5 EMPLOYMENT, FAMILY AND SOCIAL SUPPORT	147
6.6 SUMMARY.....	152
Chapter VII	153
WOMEN IN COMBAT.....	153
7.1 WOMEN AS PEACEKEEPERS.....	156
7.2 INDIAN CONTRIBUTION TO PEACEKEEPING	157
7.3 HUNGARIAN PEACEKEEPING CONTRIBUTION	162
7.4 FEMALE PERSONNEL IN ARMED FORCES AND STRESS	163
7.5 FUTURE CHALLENGES	173
7.6 SUMMARY.....	173
Chapter VIII.....	175
RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS.....	175
8.1 SUMMARY DISCUSSIONS.....	Hiba! A könyvjelző nem létezik.
8.2 THE MAIN FINDINGS	199
8.3 SCIENTIFIC ACCOMPLISHMENTS and RECOMMENDATIONS	201
BIBLIOGRAPHY.....	Hiba! A könyvjelző nem létezik.

Chapter I

INTRODUCTION: WOMEN IN THE ARMED FORCES

“I was doing my undergrad when the governor with its ADC paid a visit to my school. While the governor was delivering his speech we had no clue what he was talking about, but we were so mesmerized by the army officer standing beside him in ‘saavdhaan’ attention position. When we came back to our class all the girls were discussing that they would get married to the army officer only as he was so attractive in that uniform.” Thereby Miss Priya Jhingan said “well, I would like to become one.” She wrote a letter to Chief of Army staff General S.F. Rodrigues that why they do not have any policy to induct women in Indian Army? No one was expecting that a chief of army staff would reply, but to her surprise, he did reply. A white envelope stamped from headquarter addressing Miss Priya Jhingan, that we would love to have you Ms. Jhingan as the policy is underway, we need a little time and we would do it. On the eve of Army Day, 15th January 1991 General S.F. Rodrigues announced that the Army would open its doors to women, who would soon contribute to the security of the nation. The Air Force and the Navy soon followed suit. From Miss Priya Jhingan to first cadet Jhingan, her journey from a law graduate to JAG (Judge Advocate General) faced many twists and turns but her enthusiasm and passion to be a part of the Army in uniform had been passed from batches to batches. (Jhingan, 2017)

Based on the theoretical aspects and the empirical findings the structure has been designed to study women in the armed forces.

- 1.1 Reasons for induction of women in the Armed Forces;
- 1.2 The Aim, Objectives and concepts of the thesis;
- 1.3 Hypothesis
- 1.4 Literature Review
- 1.5 Research Methodology
- 1.6 Summary

1.1 REASONS FOR INDUCTION OF WOMEN IN THE ARMED FORCES:

Earlier the research on female service members has been conducted in the Western nations only, but with the globalisation and emergence of humanitarian missions, participating together

with the different nations including male and female service members have made the researchers around the globe to take this issue collectively. Subjects including debates and academic are conducted, for instance in 2011 *Sisters in Arms: A case study of the experiences of women warriors in the United States Military* by Carmen Teresa Stein-McCormick of University of South Florida. Another study by Kimbrell from university of Baltimore about thoughts about integrating women into combat roles as depicted in opinion newspaper articles following the rescission of the direct ground combat definition and assignment rule.¹ Martin Van Creveld has also wrote a strong opposing articles about why women should not be inducted in combat roles. Works like “Military women are not cure but disease”², *Armed but not Dangerous: Women in Israeli military*³. But there is, rarely any work that completes all the perspectives comparing the nations. This led the author to compare two countries such as India and Hungary and the attitudes of the population towards their female service members, attitudes of the female service members towards the respective militaries. There is no prior study conducted on the comparison of East and West, this focused study on India and Hungary will study the various aspects including the areas related to work related attitudes, gender equality altitudes, motivation, self-actualisation, personality, gender role identity and social support for married women in India and Hungary.

Some decades ago women were allowed in medical area only as women of both countries served as nurses and doctors during wars. It was in 1993 for women in the Indian Armed Forces (IAF) when short service commission was initiated. The reason behind making this structure of short service commission was the shortage of man power in the IAF. Till date the IAF is still experiencing a shortage of officers. Whereas in the Hungarian Defence Forces (HDF) women were inducted due to the same reason, the shortage of manpower was the gateway for women to utilize their military skills. In HDF female service members are working at all positions and all ranks, and have served in missions where they could perform in support combat positions. The IAF currently are not prepared to put women in combat roles, but the Chief of the Army Staff in 2017 announced to induct women in non-officer ranks in military police. The social

¹Kimbrell.K (2015) Integrating women into combat roles as depicted in opinion newspaper articles following the rescission of the direct ground combat definition and assignment rule. Thesis University of Baltimore, Retrieved from <https://jscholarship.library.jhu.edu/bitstream/handle/1774.2/38029/KIMBRELL-THESIS-2015.pdf>

²Creveld.M, (November 24, 2017) Military women are not cure but disease. Retrieved from <http://www.martin-van-creveld.com/military-women-not-cure-disease/>

³Creveld. M, (January 1, 2000) *Armed but not dangerous: women in Israeli military*. Volume: 7 issue: 1, page(s): 82-98 <https://doi.org/10.1177/096834450000700105>

and cultural difference of the two selected countries, one in the East and the other in the West exists, but the status of women has been changing throughout under different scenarios.

The present study is an empirical investigation of women in the Hungarian and Indian armed forces. The aim of the research is to study how various personal variables (work motivation, personality, self-actualization, gender role identity and family background), together with the armed forces' environment of India and Hungary (length of service), and significant life events (marriage, children) have impacted variables such as, attitudes towards women in the IAF and the HDF in combat, job satisfaction, satisfaction with armed forces life, morale, and organizational role stress.

1.2 THE AIM, OBJECTIVES AND THE CONCEPTS OF THE THESIS:

The study aims at a systematic analysis of women officers, on the following dimensions, using a sociological and gender⁴ related aspects.

1. Work related attitudes: job satisfaction, lifestyle satisfaction and morale;
2. Gender Equality Attitudes: , perceived attitudes towards female ex-service members, general attitudes towards female service members;
3. Work Value Motivation: economic, lifestyle and core motivation;
4. Combat roles;
5. Gender role identity.

The Objectives of the Study

1. To delineate significant social causes⁵that contributes to positive attitudes of female service members in the IAF and the HDF.
2. To identify causes responsible for female service members willingness to volunteer for combat positions.

⁴Gender equality, a prerequisite for a fair and socio-economically developed society the recognition of and respect for gender equality; improvement of the social, economic and health statuses of girls/women; their education, advancement and political engagement, being offered equal chances to boys/men, are prerequisites for the overall development of the country. Sensibility towards and equal treatment: Consequently, the planned actions should offer opportunities for the kind of treatment that is in compliance with these needs and experiences – equality must not be confused with uniformity: we are different, but should be equal, not similar. National strategy and action plan on gender equality for 2016-2020 (October 2016),, p 8, Retrieved from <https://awenetwork.org/wp-content/uploads/2017/01/SKGJB-EN-web.pdf> . Assessed on 20 October 2019.

⁵ Social causes, pertaining to equal opportunities to grow in armed forces.

3. To analyse the self- actualization, gender role identity, personality, work related attitudes, motivation and role stresses factors of women in armed forces.

Research Design

Two groups were studied i.e. women in the IAF and the HDF. The sample taken to meet the objectives was sixty female ex-service members, of which thirty were female ex-service members of the IAF and thirty were from the HDF. Women in the IAF serve as short service commission officers only, except few branches where women are inducted as permanent commission. In contrast women in the HDF the Indian female soldiers can serve as short service, permanent commission and as conscript soldiers too. All the ranks are open for the females in the HDF, which has the highest percentage as compared to the participation of women in other NATO countries. Women have their different interests to the HDF. Although India is facing shortage of officers in the IAF, the authorities are reluctant to work on the policy, structure, and procedures apart from female officers serving in medical, signals, education and Judge Advocate general Branch they have permanent commission and more vacancies.

Concepts Examined in the Thesis:

Female service members represent different societies in India and Hungary, but does that change the nature of their work? The positions available for women in the HDF are not yet opened for female officers in IAF. What are the challenges before women in HDF, if they have equal opportunities as per their male counterparts? If the work life balance and personal life balance is attained in case of female service members in HDF and IAF? How the gender gap has been covered in both the selected nations? The personality and the formation of the identity of Female service members in IAF and HDF.

Work related Attitudes

The Gender Equality Attitude

The research investigates the attitudes towards women in armed forces and attitudes towards women in combat. Women in almost all the nations pursued professionally the armed forces career in the late 1990's. They already participated in World War II because of the shortage of manpower, but the skills they attained and the intensity of their service for their nations opened the doors for them into various positions in the armed forces. In India and Hungary women were inducted into armed forces in the 1990's. The societal acceptance of gender in both

nations may vary, but the attitude of armed forces towards their female service members is the same in both nations. Female service members of IAF are setting an example by serving in UN peacekeeping mission. The whole women battalion was deployed to Liberia.

Job Satisfaction:

Job satisfaction as a work related attitude is 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, and 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).

Job satisfaction is of interest to the armed forces, even though the 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 (Wendy, 2006, p 109).

Life Satisfaction

Life satisfaction is an indicator that is in focus of everyone's life. It is directly related to the work satisfaction. Well-being could be considered as a summary measure of how well an individual perceives himself or herself doing in their lives. Well-being is known to be relatively stable throughout adulthood and old age (Charles, Reynolds, & Gatz, 2001, p 166; Kunzmann, Little, & Smith, 2000, p 26; Mroczek & Kolarz, 1998, p 163).

The dissertation measures the life satisfaction of the female service members who served in the armed forces of the IAF and HDF. The job satisfaction of female service members will define their overall well-being. As working in armed forces is a 24 hours duty and the soldier is always at a call, how the work life and personal life equilibrium is maintained by these female service member in the two countries.

Morale

Cohesion has been for a considerable period regarded as a significant concept involved in the combat effectiveness or performance of military units. The motivation is to retain it in the chosen job. It could be defined in various layers. The organisational leadership and management is the basic structure, which build the morale of their employees. To sustain the zeal, the work in the particular organisation will be the life satisfaction goal, which will further lead to the fulfilment of life's wellbeing of the service members of the organization.

The thesis 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; Wendy, 2006, p.29).

Combat Exclusion

In India women could participate in certain defined roles from which the combat duties are excluded. In Hungary, however, female service members are deployed for various missions mostly in combat support / combat service support roles. The study investigated the attitudes of the two armed forces to avail the combat positions to women. It further clarifies if women in the armed forces who are willing to participate in the combat positions, what is their attitude towards this role.

Attitudes towards Women in the IAF and the HDF

Attitudes have been defined in many ways, 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. (Wendy, 2006, p.21), Jones & Gerard 1967, p 18a).

The armed forces are an organisation and the service members are the people who are working for a cause and they all are defined under one term called "soldiers". Why a male soldier could be addressed as a gentlemen or a simple soldier and a female soldier is a lady officer or lady cadet?

The relationship between attitudes and behavior however is more complex. Many factors moderate the attitude / behavior 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 armed forces that are important in terms of the self-fulfilling prophecy, also attitudes determine affect, cognition and behavior thus influencing the climate in which women work (Wendy, 2006, p. 22).

Motivation and Self-Actualization

Traditionally, motivation has been defined as the control of behavior, that is, the process by which behavior is activated and directed toward some definable goal (Kleinginna & Kleinginna, 1981, p 59; Young, 1961, p 67).

Organizational Role Stress

The study elaborates the stress and the role of stress in the IAF and the HDF and how stress has been managed in the two armed forces. There are various ways to look at stress and its analysis, it may be that the environmental stresses are largely inevitable and irremovable and that prevention will in practice mean preventing the development of undue sensitivity to stress, that is, of constitutional vulnerability(Hare, 1966, p. 56). In general, a human body realises stress and reacts to it in its own way. Some might take it in a way that it's just a psychological arousal and some might end as mismanaged. The high rate of symptoms in the lowest socioeconomic stratum indicates transient responses to the relatively frequent and severe stress situations that characterize the lower-class environment. (Dohrenwend& Dohrenwend, 1969, p. 126).

Personality

Some believe individuals choosing a military vocation to exhibit certain similar personality traits and to differ from the norm population, but warn researchers that an oversimplification does not seem appropriate. Especially adventure seeking stimulation are regarded as defining components of the military personality (DeVries & Wijnans, 2013; Klee & Renner, 2016, pp. 261-266).

Furthermore, indicators of existing personality subtypes within the military field could be obtained that lead to the idea of the conception of more individualized prevention and intervention programs (Klee & Renner, 2016, pp.261-266).

The research examined the personality factors amongst the two armed forces. The identity soldiers contains is the rescuers personality, if that is true then female service members are more towards rescue trait as mentioned in various researches that women are biological nurtures and more towards care giving.

Gender Role Identity

Gender, gender role and gender stereotype are three interconnected terms. The cognition of the masculine and the feminine traits, then division of work according to the gender norms classified by the society for the society. If a female is set to do feminine jobs and men perform their masculine duties the change of roles might create a gender stereotype. This classification bards the opportunities for gender and leads to the low satisfaction and well-being. The study investigated the three terms applied on the gender roles in the armed forces.

Gender role identity is a person's identification with the qualities regarded as masculine and feminine in a culture. (Wendy, 2006, p. 47) Bem challenged the then prevailing view the gender typed men and women that is men who score high in masculinity and women who score high on femininity are better adjusted than others. The idea that androgynous people that is those who score above average on both masculinity and femininity, are psychologically healthier than those who are gender typed. Research has presented conflicting results with some supporting the theory while others showing evidence that masculine traits are psychologically healthier. Bem has since moved to the perspective of gender 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. (Wendy, 2006, pp 76-78.; Bem, 1975, pp 80-89).

1.3 HYPOTHESES

Hypothesis 1. Female service members Hungarian Defense forces (FSHDF)_ will score significantly higher on work related attitudes than Female service members Indian armed forces (FSIAF)

FSHDF will score significantly higher on job satisfaction, Morale and Lifestyle satisfaction than FSIAF.

Rationale: Both armed forces have been male dominated organizations. In India, it still is, but in Hungary, the scenario is a bit different. It was assumed that their work related attitudes would

be higher than that of male officers in India, but if it is in comparison with HDF then FSHDF would significantly be higher on work related attitudes.

Hypothesis 2. There will be a significant difference between FSHDF and FSIAF on gender equality attitudes:

Rationale: FSHDF will score significantly higher on general attitudes towards women in the armed forces than FSIAF, FSHDF will give lower weightage to reasons for combat exclusion than FSIAF. FSIAF will have significantly lower scores than FSHDF on perception of attitudes of male colleagues, senior males, and male subordinates towards women in the Indian armed forces. The cultural difference between the two countries creates such standards. The gender gap in both nations varies. Assuming that women in the IAF believe in gender equality it was expected that they would have better attitude towards IAF and would be less in agreement with reasons for excluding women from combat as compared to FSHDF. Being a male dominated organization the IAF still have difficulty in accepting women in their ranks. The HDF has their own concerns when it comes to gender equality. There is hardly to be promoted any female colonel to flag officer in the HDF. The gender inequality has been practiced in a different form. But if compared to FSIAF, then the FSHDF has a better position in their armed forces, be it in terms of vacancies, high position and combat roles.

Hypothesis 3. There will be a significant difference between FSIAF who are willing to volunteer for combat and FSIAF who are not willing to volunteer for combat in work related attitudes, motivational attitudes towards combat exclusion.

Whereas FSHDF have a different significance they are aligned well with combat readiness.

Rationale: It was assumed that two attitudes exist in FSIAF. Female service members in their initial years of service are highly motivated to volunteer for combat roles, but after a few years of serving in the armed forces at certain non-combat roles they lose their motivation. In contrast, women in the HDF serve in difficult areas and have different attitude towards combat roles.

Hypothesis 4. FSIAF will score significantly higher on work values motivation than FSHDF.

FSIAF will score significantly higher on core motives and Lifestyle motives than FSHDF.

FSHDF will score significantly higher on Economical motives than FSIAF.

Rationale: The armed forces culture and lifestyle have specific traditions and values. Women both in the HDF and the IAF have undergone tough initiation and training to succeed in an area

previously identified as male. Hence, it was assumed that female service members would have higher core and lifestyle motives. But the motives of female service members joining the armed forces are different. Where FSIAF joined the IAF to attain their passion and attraction for the uniform, there the FSHDF's highest motivation is the economic equality.

Hypothesis 5. Both in the HDF and the IAF married service members with higher social support will score significantly higher on work related attitudes and motivations and will have significantly lower organizational role of stress than married female service members in HDF and IDF with lower support.

Rationale: It was assumed that women who combine a career with family would have better motivation, work related attitudes and less role of stress if they had more social support.

ASSESSMENT TOOLS

Females in the IAF and the HDF, a group of participants with a specific job profile, operating in a unique environment of the armed forces, hence three tools were designed for this study in order to measure:

1. Motivation and work related attitudes of FSIAF and FSHDF;
2. Gender Equality attitudes;
3. Attitudes towards the Armed forces and FSIAF and FSHDF (open-ended).

1.4 LITERATURE REVIEW

The present study is based on female service members in the IAF and the HDF. The study is an empirical investigation of women in these two armed forces. The aim of the study is to understand how various personal variables (work motivation, personality, self-actualization, gender role identity and family background) together with the environment provided by the selected armed forces, life events (marriage, children) have resulted in variables such as, attitudes towards women in combat, job satisfaction, satisfaction with military life and morale. This study will upgrade Dr. Wendy Manuel's study conducted on women in the armed forces, from a psycho-social and gender perspective in 2006. Although the current study is focusing on women serving in the IAF will be compared with attitudes towards women in the HDF. Women are commissioned only at officer level in the IAF and are excluded from combat

duty. Again, the Indian Army was the first to break the long standing tradition and has proceeded very cautiously by inducting 16 female officers into the Corps of Army for carrying out roles. Though the female service members are free to join any cadre in the HDF, there is only 8-10 percent of women who are deployed in missions.

The main target of the study was to cast a dye to form an understanding and the integration of women service members, although the thesis is about the female service members in IAF and the HDF. The successful integration of women into the two selected armed forces would be a litmus test to pave the way for women to be fully integrated into all walks of life.

“The implications are far reaching as 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.” (Wendy, 2006, p. 32).

The research has attempted to study the self-actualization of women who joined the armed forces in both India and Hungary, whether they have actualized the potential.

According to 31st march 2018 figures, there were 3,189 female military observers out of 77,190 personnel deployed in UN peacekeeping missions representing approximately three percent. (UN Women, 2018) According to the Operational imbalance and women peacekeepers, addressing the gender imbalance report (as of 31 December 2017) India and Hungary contribute 0,1% and more that is approximately the same number of women as peacekeepers served in UN missions abroad as military observers and staff officers. Whereas in 2018 the figures are improving where Indian 16.4 percent female military observers and staff officers are taking part in UN missions there only 5.6 percent of female military staff is deployed from HDF in 2018. (Operational Effect and women Peacekeepers: Addressing the (Gender Imbalance report, 2018, pp 22-28).

According to operational and effect and women peacekeepers: Addressing the Gender Imbalance (as of 30 Sep. 2019)⁶ report states India contributes 12.5 percent female officers with a ratio of 100:14, where 14 is the number representing the females. The report concludes total of 17 military observers and staff from Hungary. 12 male service members and 5 female

⁶ OPERATIONAL EFFECT AND WOMEN PEACEKEEPERS: ADDRESSING THE GENDER IMBALANCE (as of 30 Sep. 2019) <https://peacekeeping.un.org/en/operational-effect-and-women-peacekeepers-addressing-gender-imbalance-september-2019-data> Assessed on 22 October 2019.

service members concluding 23 percent of female contribution to the UN military observers for the year 2019.

PÉTER SZIJJÁRTÓ, Minister for Foreign Affairs and Trade of Hungary, said his country recently decided to increase to 1,200 the number of troops participating in United Nations peacekeeping operations, deploying an additional 60 troops to the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon (UNIFIL). Hungary also sees great opportunities for police to be involved in peacekeeping operations, he said, noting the experience of its officers in securing borders in the Western Balkans. With women making up 20 per cent of its military forces and 23 per cent of its police, Hungary is committed to implementing the women, peace and security agenda, he said, adding that the Government is currently drawing up guidelines for a national action plan.⁷

Presently, women are inducted in Indian Army through Short Service Commission (Technical) and Short Service Commission (Non-Technical) entries. The induction is governed by Special Army Instruction (SAI) I/93 and AI 3/98.

Women are inducted in all the branches and streams of Indian Air Force (IAF) service. Terms and conditions for women officers are issued from time to time.

In Indian Navy, women officers are inducted through Short Service Commission in Logistics, Law, Observers, Medical, Dental, Air Traffic Control (ATC), Pilots (Maritime Reconnaissance Stream), Naval Armament Inspectorate (NAI) cadre, Naval Architecture, Education, Sports and Musician Branch. Government has approved Grant of Permanent Commission to SSC Officers of NAI Cadre.

The women officers commissioned in the Defence Forces (excluding AMC, ADC and MNS) during the last three years is as under:-

Year	Army	Navy	Air Force
2016	69	44	108
2017	66	42	59
2018	75	29	59

⁷ United nations(11 april 2019) Deployment of Female Personnel Boosts Effectiveness, Says Secretary-General, as Security Council Holds Open Debate on Women in Peacekeeping. Retrieved from <https://www.un.org/press/en/2019/sc13773.doc.htm> Assessed on 22 October 2019.

The percentage of women officers in the three services of armed forces (excluding AMC, ADC and MNS) are as under:-

percentage of women officers		
Army	Navy	Air Force
3.89%	6.7%	13.28%
(as on 01.01.2019)	(as on 31.05.2019)	(as on 01.06.2019)

Various measures have been taken by the Government to attract the women to join the armed forces. The Government has promulgated policy on February 25, 2019 to extend the grant of Permanent Commission to Women Officers in the eight arms/services in Indian Army viz. Signals, Engineers, Army Aviation, Army Air Defence, Electronics and Mechanical Engineers (EME), Army Service Corps, Army Ordnance Corps and Intelligence in addition to the existing two streams of Judge Advocate General (JAG) and Army Education Corps (AEC). Steps like increasing tenure of women officers and improving promotional prospects in Army have been taken to increase participation of women in the Army.

In addition to existing avenues viz. Logistics, Law, Observers, ATC, Pilot in Maritime Reconnaissance (MR) Stream, Naval Armament Inspectorate Cadre, Naval Architect and Education Branch induction of women into additional specialization viz. Sports and Musician has commenced w.e.f. March, 2019.

Women officers are inducted in all the branches and streams of IAF. Opportunities for a career in IAF service are widely publicized *through print/electronic media and special publicity drives*.⁸ In contrast women in HDF are with the high percentage as compared to the participation of women in other NATO countries. Women have their different interests to join the HDF. Given this scenario, though women in the IAF and HDF have been serving for more than two decades, no systematic enquiry has been conducted on women in India and Hungary as to how they are situated, how they have adapted to the environment in which they work and how in turn the armed forces of the two countries have accepted them. The condition of women varies in the two selected nations in terms of employment opportunities, but is similar in the environment provided for them. Although India has a huge population and women in India are not privileged according to the sex ratio, there are various other challenges women faces in

⁸ Press Information Bureau Government of India Ministry of Defence, 26 JUN 2019. Women in forces. Retrieved from <https://pib.gov.in/Pressreleaseshare.aspx?PRID=1575770> Assessed on 25 June 2019.

India. India recently got its second women Defence Minister Nirmala Sitharaman in 2017 after Indira Gandhi in 1980. (Census report, 2010, pp 27).

Ágnes Vadai (2007-2010) member of DK - Democratic Coalition, Secretary of the Hungarian Delegation the the NATO PA Head of Secretariat for Security and Defence Policy Directorate for International Relations National Assembly Budapest.⁹

In terms of military strength India is the 4th and Hungary the 55rd but does that change the status of women in the armed forces of the two selected nations? The scenario is such that till now women in both nations have been serving in armed forces for more than two decades but till now the author came across only a couple of researches based on the situation of women in the armed forces of India and Hungary. A number of articles are available on women in combat, but the basic employment opportunity and participation is excluded from the short studies. (Military strength ranking, 2019, pp 84-90).¹⁰

After conducting the pilot study including intense discussions with female officers in the IAF and HDF, the author came to the conclusion that women face different conditions in the Army the two selected nations. Hungary is a landlocked country so the is excluded from the research of HDF. A deciding factor for writing this thesis was the close proximity of the author to the Indian Army, being an army daughter for 26 years and an Indian army aspirant. Thus it was inevitable that this research will be focusing on women in armed forces.

Comparing the two selected countries can run the risk of criticism for exaggerating on the basis of cultures and attitudes of the society and so is the social acceptance of women. For instance in India while conducting the pilot study in an interaction with female officers described that females in the Europe and USA are more accepted as they don't have any cultural hindrances and their society is more open as compared to India.

Reasons for induction of women in the Armed Forces:

Manpower Shortage:

Through centuries the roles of gender have been divided and fighting was termed as masculine, which was given to men by default. Prior to World War Two the military was completely a

⁹ NATO Parliamentary Assembly Retrieved from <https://www.nato-pa.int/members/vadai-agnes>

¹⁰<https://www.globalfirepower.com/countries-listing.asp> (accessed 07 July 2019)

male establishment, but with the shortage of manpower at warzone brought a change. The idea that military could actually use female volunteers in combat roles brought much controversy. By allowing women to work in the armed forces was meant working against the feminism ideals that America had spent so long building (Military recruitment, Na). Slowly and gradually women took up various military oriented skills to get themselves inducted in armed forces. “They Are Hiring the White Women but They Won’t Hire the Coloured Women”: Black Women Confront Racism and Sexism in the Richmond Shipyards During World War II (Tuft, 2015, p. 70). Despite the shortage of manpower the patriarchy system of armed forces inducted women, but were reluctant to accept them mentally and socially. Where a white women faced gender disparities, a black women faced both gender and racial issues. Women faced discrimination for various posts and struggled to advance into higher skilled and supervisory positions (Gretchen, 1996, pp 108-119).

In the “womanpower” campaign: Advertising and Recruiting propaganda during World War II, (Honey, 1981, pp 15-20) W.A.C (War Advertising Council) played an important role to drive the interest of American women by famous slogan “release your men by taking their jobs, so that they can serve our country on front.” And this brought women into defence jobs.(Honey, 1981, pp 15-20).

Ideological and Cultural Factors

Although much progress had been made, a conservative backlash in the early 1980s under the Reagan administration had a number of negative effects. Military officials began to express doubts about the value of women in the ranks. As a result of this hesitancy, the Army announced a "pause" in the recruitment of women. In 1982, the ERA (Equal Rights Amendments) failed and soon afterward Army basic training was re-segregated. Congressional speakers spoke gravely about the negative effect of women on military preparedness (Segal & Hansen, 1992, p. 5).

Again women saw combat conditions through a variety of missions and invasions throughout the 1980s. In 1983, during the invasion of Grenada, about 170 U.S. Army women provided support as military police, helicopter crew chiefs, and communication and maintenance personnel. In 1986, women co-piloted non-combat airplanes in support of the bombing of Libya. Finally, in 1989, the invasion of Panama put two women into the spotlight when they successfully led their military police units in ground combat (Bender, et al. 185). This

participation highlighted the issue of women in combat and set the stage for the 1991 Gulf War. The Persian Gulf War was significant because of the high numbers of women who served in the conflict. The media highlighted women saying their goodbyes to their husbands and children and shipping off to Saudi Arabia. Over *eight percent* of the forces in the Gulf consisted of women, in a variety of support positions. When circumstances revealed that numerous support positions were as vulnerable to Iraqi attack as official combat positions, the line dividing combat from non-combat occupations became blurred (Sadler in Weinstein & White, pp. 79-80).

The social construction of gender in the military and resistance to the integration of women concludes that the ideological patterns of the society will take its good time to neutralize the values. The recruitment of women was always controlled and used only when there is any shortage of manpower, but this cast is framed by the cultural and ideological patterns. The incursion of women into the armed forces threatens distinctions between what is male and female, threatening everything that generations of military tradition has established. Furthermore, the very ability of women to compete as successful soldiers devalues the vocation. (Aydt, 1998, p. 44).

Women are more likely to be participating in modern all-volunteer forces that are primarily defensive in nature, during times of either high or low threats to national security, and serving mostly in administrative and logistical roles (Segal, 1995, pp. 148-150).

Debates about the relationship between women and the military have become common not only within the Western societies but amongst Eastern ones, too. On the basis of cultures, traditions and gender the roles of women have been defined by the society. These debates further are classified under primary centre on the issue of the place, fitness and desirability of a female presence within institutions designed for national war making. Women and the military define that there are those who claim that equality between the sexes demands the full integration of women into national militaries, including combat roles. (Pipe, 2000, pp 33-36). Others, however, argue that women are ill-equipped for the traditional tasks required to be a fighter and most importantly to be accepted as a warrior.

Consequently, peacekeeping operations are something where women can participate in their full capacity. But overall only 27 percent women are involved in peacekeeping. So, where is the rest? This allows, even encourages, a rethinking of traditional notions and debates over the place of women within the military sphere. (Ivanovic, 2014, p 85).

Regarding the recruitment of women in armed forces, 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 the development of weapons of mass destruction, when 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. (Wendy, 2006, pp. 12-19).

According to the Economist, between 1991 and 1997 alone the global arms trade shrunk by over 40 percent, and this was before the economic crisis hit South East Asia and Russia and dramatically reduced one of the largest remaining markets. Van Creveld, projected that those countries that lost their man power led to the induction of women from Europe through America to Australia. He reasoned that this correlates precisely with the influx of women, while in those places where there are still wars women take little or no part in fighting. (Creveld, 2000, pp. 72-77) Elshtain in response to Creveld agreed with his conclusion that the induction of women in armed forces is barely to make armed forces politically correct and to give a feeling of equality to women citizen. (Elshtain, 2000, pp 56-59). Enloe concluded that women's induction in defence forces was mainly due to man power shortages. (Enloe, 2000, pp.123-130). Ziobro explains that despite the successful use of women in time of need, the Army remained gender restricted throughout the early twentieth century. (Ziobro, 2016, pp. 67-70).

The currently prevailing provisions of law being in harmony with the Constitution - relevant for the Hungarian Defence forces - lay down and guarantee in every aspect the equality before the law by forming a guaranty system and drafted in the spirit of the international contracts and charters approved and enacted by the Republic of Hungary. Our constitution states that the Republic of Hungary assures the equal rights of men and women in every aspect of civilian, political, economical, social and cultural laws as well as human and civil rights for every person being within its territory, without any discrimination as to: race, skin colour, gender, language, religion, political or, without discriminating against difference of opinion, national or social origin, property, or age. The above stated prohibition against discrimination is supplemented in accordance with the Defence Law stated here: "The armed organisation guarantees the promotion opportunities of the professional personnel without discrimination on the basis of

professional skill, experience and performance, as well as service time, taking into account the payment related to the rank and posts." In this context, it can be said that the legal base for any kind of freedom from discrimination is guaranteed by both by the Republic of Hungary and the Hungarian Defence Forces.¹¹

In Hungary it was basically due to the shortage of manpower and in India it is for both the reasons manpower shortage and to promote gender equality. Both the country's women and their employment in armed forces will be discussed in the next chapter.

Role of Women in the Armed Forces:

The role of women has increased over a decade throughout the world. The position women occupy in the military has broadened. Strains associated with this change in the concentration of women are investigated. Occupational equality for women in the services is not developing since women have historically been excluded from the basic combat roles and definition is being continued. Among those women who volunteer for military service, the personal goal is not the achievement of "complete equality" but the attainment of the wider range of assignments. (Goldman, 1973, pp 235-240).

The Defence Committee in past years has examined a plethora of subjects concerning security and defence in general and the armed forces of NATO member nations. Where the latter are concerned the author has looked at conditions of service, conscription, training, equipment, the use of reserve forces and figured that the role of women and the promotional aspects are still lacking behind. Regardless of the maximum contribution of women in HDF they rarely have women in top leading positions but in 2019 Hungary has. Now we have Director of Military Hospital and Deputy of Defence Economics Office as female colonels

¹¹ International Military staff (2001) Committee on women in NATO forces, Retrieved from <https://www.nato.int/ims/2001/win/hungary.htm>

India on the other hand witnessed on 22 February 2018 her first women fighter pilot's solo flight. The pilot, named Avni Chaturvedi created history. Women have been proving at every level their capability both in the IAF and the HDF, but the acceptance and resistance of being a woman in military is still there. Build connection between cultural and historical aspect.

1.5 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Under this title gives an account of the design and methodology applied for the study, for execution of the data collection and data analysis, the details of which are presented below:

1. Assessment tools;
2. Procedure;
3. Sample description. The sample includes 150 female service members from both India and Hungary. 90 Indian female service members and 60 Hungarian female service members. Their professional, Gender related attributes work related attributes, Social attributes and personal enhancement attributes are been covered in the questionnaire.

ASSESSMENT TOOLS

Tool 1: Work attitudes and motivational inventory for FSIAF and FSHDF.

This inventory has 4 parts:

1. FSIAF and FSHDF work motivation scale;
2. FSIAF and FSHDF job satisfaction scale;
3. FSIAF and FSHDF lifestyle satisfaction scale;
4. FSIAF and FSHDF morale scale.

Tool 2: IAF and HDF Gender Equality Questionnaire.

This questionnaire had 3 parts:

1. Combat exclusion scale;
2. Attitudes towards FSIAF and FSHDF scale;
3. Marriage and family questionnaire.

Tool 3: Open-ended Questions:

This consists of items measuring attitudes of FSIAF and FSHDF towards the armed forces.

Procedure for construction of scales for FSIAF and FSHDF:

Construction of the questionnaire was done in four stages:

- Stage 1 involved an exploratory research on past works for instruments pertaining to the armed forces. This was followed by interaction with serving and retired female service members in the IAF and the HDF regarding the issue of women in the HDF and IAF. Past works outlay a general structure, but not specific to the HDF and the IAF. However; the researches are conducted in small parts for instance in combat section, the stress management, but mostly women in combat is focussed in the past researches.
- In Stage 2 a focussed group interviews were conducted with 10 retired female service members from the HDF and the IAF. The discussion centred around the following issues, reasons to join the HDF and IAF, perceptions of women's role in HDF and IAF, combat exclusion for women, major stressors, training standards and dual role conflict for women when combining career and family. The discussion was not tape recorded, but notes were maintained and many valuable insights were drawn for inclusion in the scales.
- Stage 3 focused on attributes such as marriage and social support for retired married female service members from the IAF and the HDF. When combining a family and armed forces career, were included since these seemed to be points of concern for women service members in both countries Some items were modified, others were deleted, still others regrouped, and the final version of the three tools with a total of 90 items was drawn up for this study.
- Stage 4 was a pilot study for which 30 retired FSHDF and 30 retired FSIAF were invited to complete the questionnaire and give their comments. Finally, the responses were statistically analysed.

Work Attitudes and Motivation inventory for FSHDF and FSIAF

Institutional core factors:

- 1) Attraction to discipline and structure of the Armed Forces.

- 2) Will to serve the country.
- 3) Possibility of developing a prestigious activity.
- 4) Access to a good civic training.

Institutional lifestyle factors:

- 5) Possibility of doing something different previously closed to women.
- 6) Escape routine and live an active life.
- 7) Attraction for the uniform.
- 8) Possibility of travelling and knowing other places.

Occupational/Economic Factors:

- 9) Possibility of a safe job.
- 10) Better professional opportunities than in civilian life.
- 11) No employment alternative.

Circumstantial Factors:

- 12) Leave parents' home and start an independent life.
- 13) Military influences among friends and family.
- 14) Failing access to University.
- 15) Possibility of education without financial burden.

Based on the initial observations and experts comments some items were selected, retained and rephrased. A comparison of the above items with items in the final inventory show exhibits of the economic and social satisfaction structure of female service members in the HDF and IAF.

Table 1. Motivation, Mean and SD.				
		Nationality		
		Indian	Hungarian	Total
Disciplined atmosphere	Mean	4.17	3.57	3.87
	Std. Deviation	.648	1.006	.892
Desire to serve	Mean	4.27	3.97	4.12
	Std. Deviation	.828	.718	.783
Adventure	Mean	4.03	3.97	4.00
	Std. Deviation	.765	.964	.864
Opportunities to new challenges	Mean	3.70	4.10	3.90
	Std. Deviation	.750	.803	.796
A secure job	Mean	4.13	3.97	4.05
	Std. Deviation	.973	.928	.946
Better job	Mean	3.83	3.50	3.67
	Std. Deviation	1.020	1.196	1.115
All needs are taken care of	Mean	3.20	3.03	3.12
	Std. Deviation	.997	1.066	1.027
Economic independence	Mean	3.63	3.37	3.50
	Std. Deviation	1.129	1.273	1.200
Opportunity to live differently	Mean	3.33	3.90	3.62
	Std. Deviation	.994	1.029	1.043
Opportunity to live an active life	Mean	3.60	4.07	3.83
	Std. Deviation	.855	.907	.905

Attraction for the uniform	Mean	4.43	2.90	3.67
	Std. Deviation	.858	1.296	1.336
Prestige of being an service member	Mean	4.37	3.33	3.85
	Std. Deviation	.999	1.093	1.162

B. FSIAF and FSHDF job satisfaction scale.

A need was felt to develop a job satisfaction index, which would face validity for female service members in IAF and HDF as well as a Construct Validity. Developing items based on all facets of job satisfaction, including motivation as well as organizational determinants, formulated the scale.

C. FSIAF and FSHDF Lifestyle Satisfaction Scale.

A seven items on five point scale was developed to measure attitudes friends, transfers, separation form family, discipline and regimentation.

D.FSIAF and FSHDF Morale Scale.

A four items five-point scale was developed to measure the affective commitment to the armed forces.

1. **Armed Forces Gender Equality Questionnaire**
2. **Combat exclusion scale:** Each item is measured attitudes towards reasons for combat exclusion, each item was scored separated, four additional questions were included on desire for extension, and volunteering for combat duty.
3. **Attitudes towards women in HDF and IAF:** This scale consisted of 4 subscales each comprising thee items to be rated in a five point scale.

Table 3. Lifestyle satisfaction, mean and SD.			
	Nationality		
	Indian	Hungarian	Total
Colleagues as friends for lifetime	Mean 3.50	3.63	3.57
Std. Deviation	.938	.928	.927
Cut off from civilian life status	Mean 3.27	3.00	3.13
Std. Deviation	.980	1.203	1.096
Transfers gives new friends	Mean 3.90	3.70	3.80
Std. Deviation	.548	.750	.659
Discipline make physically and mentally tough	Mean 3.70	3.70	3.70
Std. Deviation	.702	1.055	.889
Regimentation shunts personal growth	Mean 3.30	2.87	3.08
Std. Deviation	.915	.860	.907

Table 4. Morale, Mean and SD				
		Nationality		
		Indian	Hungarian	Total
Morale scale	Mean	2.80	2.43	2.62
	Std. Deviation	.805	.898	.865
I am proud to be a service member	Mean	4.47	4.13	4.30
	Std. Deviation	.776	.900	.850
I feel no justice in armed forces	Mean	2.70	2.70	2.70
	Std. Deviation	.952	.877	.908
Glory depends on personal	Mean	4.07	3.77	3.92
	Std. Deviation	.944	1.040	.996

Male Colleague's attitudes towards Female service members in IAF and HDF

This scale had three items that measured whether participants perceived male colleagues as resentful, having a rapport with, or creating problems for the female service members in IAF and HDF.

Male Subordinates' attitudes towards Female service members in IAF and HDF.

This scale had three items that measured whether participant's perceived male subordinated as resentful, cooperative or hostile towards female service members in IAF and HDF.

Senior Officer's Attitudes towards Female service members in IAF and HDF.

This scale had three items that measured the participant's perception of senior officers as, valuing competent female service members, treating them as a liability or finding it difficult to discipline them.

General Attitudes towards Female service members in IAF and HDF.

This scale had three items that measured whether participants perceived women as capable of reaching the highest rank in HDF and IAF, whether they should be given soft jobs or whether they could do whatever men could do in the armed forces.

Table 6. Male colleagues attitudes, mean and SD.				
		Nationality		
		Indian	Hungarian	Total
Male colleagues attitudes				
Male colleagues resent women	Mean	3.17	3.07	3.12
	Std. Deviation	.791	.944	.865
Male colleagues good rapport	Mean	3.43	3.33	3.38
	Std. Deviation	.728	.844	.783
Male colleagues create problems	Mean	2.90	2.67	2.78
	Std. Deviation	.845	1.124	.993
Male subordinates attitudes				
Male subordinates treat with hostility	Mean	2.73	2.97	2.85
	Std. Deviation	1.048	.999	1.022
Male subordinates extend same support	Mean	3.37	3.17	3.27
	Std. Deviation	.809	.950	.880
Male subordinates resent taking orders	Mean	3.03	3.00	3.02
	Std. Deviation	.890	.983	.930
Senior male colleagues attitudes				
	Mean	2.90	2.80	2.85

Difficult for senior male colleagues to discipline	Std. Deviation	.995	.961	.971
Seniors value competent females	Mean	3.87	3.73	3.80
	Std. Deviation	.730	.740	.732
Women as unwanted liability	Mean	2.77	2.70	2.73
	Std. Deviation	.898	.988	.936

Marriage and Family Questionnaire

Part 1. General: This consisted of four questions and meant for all participants regarding choice of marriage partner.

Part 2. Consisted of social support scale for married women in the IAF and HDF. The role conflict faced by women when combining a career and family suggested the items for the social support scale for married FSIAF and FSHDF. IT consisted of eight items measuring the support received from spouse, parents, in-laws, and household help as well as help received in areas such as housework and amount of leisure time. These items were rated on a five point scale. The scores on the seven items were added to give a score on social support. The last item was open ended, “Do you feel housework and childcare are totally your responsibility?”

Open-ended Questions

This consisted of five open-ended questions measuring the affective components of attitudes towards the armed forces and FSIAF and FSHDF.

PROCEDURE

To understand the problems of female service members in IAF and HDF a focused group discussion was conducted. Based on the focus group discussion of serving and retired armed officers the items for the inventory was selected for the three scales. Using these inputs the items draft was prepared. The first draft of the tools was to four retired female service members two from each IAF and HDF. The comments and suggestions were noted and based on the experts comments a second draft was formulated. Each item was discussed for relevance, clarity' and ambiguity, the items were further revised and a third draft was

drawn up. The main focus of the pilot study was to try out and refine the tools for use in the final study.

Finally, the responses were statistically analysed and reliability were estimated. These are some impressions that the retired female service members of IAF and HDF gave the researcher:

The Gender and Women and the pilot study suggested a model for the final study. The basic elements of the model were:

1. The person (gender, family background, personality, gender role identity, self-actualization, and motivation);
2. The environment (armed forces environment, marriage, children, and social support);
3. The outcomes (work attitudes, role stress, gender equality attitudes, and attitudes towards the armed forces).

When participants were interviewed personally they shared that it was the first investigation regarding the comparison of women in armed forces from two different continents, and that it would give women a voice to share the insights of the Armed forces organisation. The female service members took out time from their busy schedule to fill out the responses. Most of them were working in the corporate and banking sector and the retired female service members were opted to participate in this study because of the approval reasons. The process of the permissions from the armed forces headquarters were taking long so the participants opted was retired from the services both in IAF and HDF. After the procedure made clear to the participants the questionnaire was distributed and the responses were recorded for the analysis.

They were requested to complete the assessment tools, i.e. three tools developed for the study and four standardized tests, which were then to be mailed back. As expected, the return rate of the mailed instruments was lower than when the retired female service members were met personally. Some wrote back and since the e-mail address was provided, some participants emailed the researcher, while others requested that certain issues be highlighted.

Data Analysis

This analysis was carried by out using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS).

Data were analyzed using descriptive statistics i.e. the mean and standard deviation.

ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) was statistics were used.

Open ended questions were qualitatively analyzed.

When reporting inferential statistics in the text of the thesis, as well as for reporting data in tables the APA (American Psychological Association) publication manual, sixth edition, 2010 was referred to.

SAMPLE DESCRIPTION

The sample comprised of 60 retired female service members who agreed to participate in the study. Their socio-economic and demographic profile is recorded in the study. Age, education, family in armed forces, marital status and children, socio-economic status are also recorded. Although the sociological factor in the two countries varies, the organizational principles and objectives are the same. On the basis of the same armed forces life style the factors have been analyzed under the study.

Snowball technique was followed to collect the sample for this study. Snowball sampling is where research participants recruit other participants for a test or study. It is used where potential participants are hard to find. It's called snowball sampling because (in theory) once you have the ball rolling, it picks up more "snow" along the way and becomes larger and larger. Snowball sampling is a non-probability sampling method. It doesn't have the probability involved, with say, simple random sampling (where the odds are the same for any particular participant being chosen). Rather, the researchers used their own judgment to choose participants

Snowball sampling consists of two steps:

1. The potential subjects were identified in IAF and HDF.
2. The subjects were asked to recruit other people and then ask those people to recruit. Participants should be made aware that they do not have to provide any other names.

1.6 SUMMARY

The following chapter outlines the status of women in India and in Hungary, their work participation, and gives a history of women in combat, as well as presents the current scenario of women in the armed forces. Research methodology has displayed the aims and objectives of the study, operationally

defined terms, and postulated hypotheses. The description of the tools, as well as the procedure for the construction of the tools, has been described. The procedure followed by the pilot study, sample and techniques for analyzing data, have been outlined.

Chapter II

GENDER AND WOMEN

The armed forces around the world have raised their standards in every way today. Is it letting women to participate in close combat, or country like India became flexible at opening the fighter pilots position in 2014. Nevertheless, with all advancements that were unimaginable in earlier centuries, the modern advanced technological world is more inclined towards equality and more opportunities for females.

Not content with traditional pink-collar jobs women are increasingly venturing into non-traditional work. Since women have joined the armed forces researchers have developed an interest in their motives, combat readiness work related attitudes, and social support. Research on women in the armed forces worldwide has been undertaken in various countries for instance USA, U.K, India, China, Canada, Europe, and Australia. The paucity of work in India is because of two factors: women have joined the military in India relatively recently, and the tendency of the IAF to maintain that everything pertaining to defence is classified information. Whereas in Hungary women have joined forces before India and Hungary is growing its percentage of women participation in armed forces every year (Wendy, 2006, p 35).

This chapter reviews literature pertaining to the following dimensions examined in this study.

- 2.1 Gender perspective
- 2.2 Gender, War and Peacekeeping;
- 2.3 International requirements (UN, NATO and EU);
- 2.4 Attitudes towards women in the Armed Forces ;
- 2.5 Summary;

Through centuries women were labelled as victims, unable to protect themselves against the war crimes (Pelarkova, 2017, p 58).

Even though women had participated during world wars and for the independence of their respective nations, still their contribution is always kept aside. History and culture is the source of social consciousness, though which the patterns of perceiving attitudes are changing these

days with the advancement of technologies. But the historical and cultural references still plays a pivotal role when it comes to women and her roles in society.

The year 2005 witnessed newspapers columns with unfavorable possibilities related with the misconduct of gender in the armed forces. When women were inducted in armed forces the decision was welcomed, but later when the societal norms were broken inside the armed forces that urged more doubts with women in armed forces. In the opening stages of her court martial at Fort Hood, Texas, Pte Lynndie England, 22, admitted seven counts of mistreatment and conspiracy to abuse prisoners, and committing an indecent act. Including the pictures posed with the Abu Garib detainees, which resulted in a court enquiry (The Guardian, 2017, pp 03-05).

With the rapid growth in 21st century a 2017 Daily Mail flashed a news stating “Former West Point cadet who accused school quarterback of rape says the academy forced her to drop out by ignoring the allegation - and other students called her a 'wh***Madeline Lewis who wanted to continue her family tradition by entering the military was raped by quarterback Ahmad Ali Bradshaw and left her dreams shattered. In addition to her trauma she was forced to drop out of the West Point Academy because it refused to acknowledge her rape claim (Zadrozny & Laporta, 2017, p 103; Wikilson.J, 2017, p. 421).

Anjali Gupta from Delhi was the first woman in the Indian Air Force to be court-martialled in December 2005 after she accused three seniors sexually harassing her. At the time, she held an administrative position in Bangalore. She charged allegations against her seniors; she was dismissed from service in 2006 after her allegations were found to be false. She was also found guilty of indiscipline and embezzlement according Press Trust of India (PTI). Whereas in 2011 she committed suicide and a charge sheet was filed against Group Captain Amit Gupta of abetment to suicide of Ms Anjali Gupta (PTI, 2011, p 03).

How much time is required to cover this gender gap? In fact the more a society will stress on gender and try to solve the issue separately when the gender and masculinity are closely enticed. The study chapter will focus on gender and military in two two countries, India and Hungary, because the two selected nations are having strong roots imbibed in the cultural. When it comes to gender defining in society's culture plays pivotal role.

The allegation of sexual harassment hit the Indian Air Force twice in 2005. An inquiry was launched by female cadets for ground duties that an instructor demanded sex in return for awarding them the stripes of commissioned officers. The type of allegation of sexual

harassment was the first to hit the IAF since it opened its doors to female personnel the mid-90s. The three cadets said a senior faculty instructor of the Air Force Academy's faculty of ground duty had threatened to fail them if they did not submit to his demands for sex. All three cadets who filed the inquiry were thrown out of the academy just 20 days before the passing out ceremony. The officials reported that the three were expelled because of their poor performance and "qualities unbecoming of an officer" and not because of the controversy (PTI Hindustan Times, 2005, pp 02-12).

2.1 GENDER PERSPECTIVE

Every gender through the ages has developed different strengths and weakness, which are attained through the society traditions and practices. There is no doubt that today when one says 'gender' it does not only restrict to a man and a woman only. Decade ago Gender studies were focusing on women only, but today the term gender is studied through various lenses such as men and masculinities. Female and feminine attributes from various sides have been studied including other genders existing in the societies today. Indian government in official forms classified gender section into three options male, female or other. Their rights to exist in the modern society are the new gender studies approach. This has remained a topic of debate for decades and it still holds its ideologies. Although there is a huge change in the armed forces from last few decades, but still there are some restrictions followed on the basis of 'gender'. Although the gender perspectives have been transforming from postmodern theories, until today the new practices and cultural aspects have been playing their key roles in its transformation.

Mortley has laid emphasis on the representation of women as deities. There was a notion that the deity, if represented as feminine, will help engender humane and civilizing values. The male religions come later to replace these goddesses with hard, moralistic systems destructive of both love and life. There is simply no evidence that the sex of the deity has this social correlate, in fact it is certainly the case that in the religion of Isis an austere moralism was practiced by its Christian rival. This question will come up again, when Gnosticism is discussed. In this context, Pagels argues more plausibly for a correlation between theory and social practice' (Mortley, 1981, pp. 2-5).

The plays of Menander give an insight into the ways of life of the Hellenistic Greek world, and the behaviour and problems of womanhood feature prominently in them. Problems of finance, frequent discussions of appropriate dowries, incongruities of class background, and the other

logistic problems of the bourgeois life make up the stuff of these plays (Mortley, 1981, pp. 2-5).

In Bem's in "lenses of gender", she is widely known for work about gender, masculinity and femininity. 'Andros' in Greek means men and 'gyne' means women. Androgynous individuals cultivate both masculine and feminine qualities e.g. androgynous women and men are both nurturing and assertive, both strong as well as sensitive. According to Bem, human being sees the world through various "lenses," which are "hidden assumptions about sex and gender that remain embedded in cultural discourses social institutions, and individual psyches". These lenses are (i) androcentrism, (ii) gender polarization, and (iii) biological essentialism. The androcentricism i.e. the privileging of males, male experience and the male perspective. Women are held to a male standard, their behaviours are interpreted from a male perspective. The next lens is Gender polarization provides mutually exclusive scripts for being male and female, and defines any person or behaviour deviating from this as problematic. The third lens is biological essentialism i.e. male-female differences and male dominance are natural (Bem, 1974, p. 168; Wendy, 2006, pp. 50-51).

Bem termed them "lenses" because when the process of understanding takes place we all cannot see a same thing with same understanding or with same perspective, our experiences do matter while evaluating the societies. The various lenses by the society, by our cultures, families, values and our own understanding that is how the idiom came into existence that beauty lies in the eyes of the beholder. If the art of removing those given lenses could be learned the world could be seen as a very different place to live in, a different construction of reality could be seen. The lenses of gender are problematic because they invisibly and systemically reproduce male power in generation after generation. The construction of how genders exist and how they should be seen and understood has been dominated by one gender and a raised social consciousness is required in order to gain neutral attitude. Exposing the lenses of gender will transform the sex equality movement (Bem, 1974, 1975 and 1993; Wendy, 2006, p. 42).

Bem with her writings wanted to create a gender-neutral society whereas the gender-neutral society needed to remove the gender lenses of inequality. Her work focus relied on having a human centric society where men and women both could grow gracefully and the biology of sex should not be a centre of concern in anyone's growth. Her work on gender and lenses provided by society has shared a new perspective towards the coming generations. In the Asian nations, androcentrism is so deeply rooted that it might take another couple of decades to change their perspective. Migration is playing a pivotal role in 21st century. The chain of

monotonous behaviour is changing and with the change in cultures, various other changes are taking place. The perspective of gender is changing rapidly in some societies whereas in some it's still holding its resistance. It is a rigorous process and the changes are taking places thoroughly (Bem, 1975, pp. 634-643).

Gender Stereotype

The masculinity, femininity debate was fuelled by research on androgyny of Bem and Spence. They both treated masculinity and femininity as independent dimensions rather than bipolar and developed tools for assessment. In the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI), in today's terms it would be Gender Role Stereotype Inventory and the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (PAQ) (Bem 1974, 1977,;Spence, 1985, pp 182-190). Bem found androgynous individuals rather than sex typed ones more adaptable in different situations, showing situationally effective behaviour regardless of its stereotype as more appropriate for one sex or the other. Androgynous participants displayed "masculine" independence or "feminine" playfulness when the situation was appropriate. (Bem, 1975, p 21) Bem theorized that gender schemes were responsible for sex typing: boys and girls attend to and remember information consistent with their own gender. (Bem, 1981, p 22) Bridges found that in terms of liking, both androgynous and sex-typed females liked the androgynous male more than the masculine one, although males did not differentiate between the two females. In terms of attractiveness, sex typed persons were regarded as more physically attractive than androgynous ones (Bridges, 1981, p 73 ;Wendy, 2006, p 54).

Unger argued for the precise definition of the terms sex. Gender sex refers to biological properties while gender, which entered scientific writing in the 1950s, refers to properties of masculinity and femininity thus reflecting culture, socialization and psychological development. One's attitudes towards gender differ from those of the previous generation. Although one has a larger perspective about women and men's roles and abilities since the process of socialization began years ago, so traditional values conflict with our "equality" values for men and women. In this period of transition, there are issues that need to be resolved as many believe that women should have equal opportunities in public and work life, but do not think women should engage in war time combat. Most young adults believe both working parents should participate in child rearing; however, most assume the mother and not the father

should take time off from a career to look after the child for the first few years (Wood 2003, p. 16). Gender is a relational concept because femininity and masculinity are defined in contrast to each other (Unger, 1979, pp 44-56).

With females, the interaction of the two lenses has a more paralyzing effect. This androcentric minimizing of the female body has been a part of American culture since at least the 1920s, when women seeking to broaden the boundaries of the female world strapped down their breasts and wore long waisted dresses to reduce the visibility of their body contours (Bem, 1993, pp 122-131).

Consistent with research about the lenses of androcentrism and gender polarization predispose with no biologically realizable embodiment that can satisfy their conflicted version of what a woman ought to look like, the adolescent boys in this study either became increasingly satisfied with their bodies during the course of their normal sexual development or they stayed same, whereas adolescent girls became increasingly dissatisfied with their bodies. Among adolescents at the highest level of sexual maturity, there was thus a vast gender difference, with over 80 percent of the males expressing happiness with their bodies and over 60 of the females expressing unhappiness (Rodin 1985, p 35; Dornbusch 1984, p 142).

There is another interesting attitude of male soldiers towards women in the 1990's. Their fellow soldiers mentally accepted African men only when women were inducted in the armed forces in the USA. According to a survey of the 1991 graduating class at West Point, only 15 percent of female cadets felt totally accepted by their classmates, whereas 37 percent of African Americans felt totally accepted (Francke, 1997, p. 22). According to Francke, the integration of women into military training has benefited African Americans in that women have become the primary targets of discrimination. African American male cadets at West Point were told by their white classmates, "You belong in the Corps... it's the women we don't want" (Francke, 1997, p. 217).

An alternative approach to examining the accuracy of the differential evaluations of men and women is to examine whether sex differences exist in objective performance indicators (Judd & Park, 1993, pp. 66-69). In service academies as well as in the Texas A&M Corps of Cadets, both sexes must meet the same standards for appointment, admission, training, graduation, and commissioning, although adjustments have been made in the physical standard requirements because of the physiological differences between male and female individuals. Although the comparable requirements imply no sex differences in performance, some evidence reveals sex

differences in cadets' grades and other forms of evaluation in the service academies. In a 1994 study by the General Accounting Office, a higher proportion of female than male cadets at West Point was charged with honour code violations, and female cadets received lower military grades than males in four of the five classes from 1988 to 1992 (Francke, 1997, p 23).

Similarly, the 1990 Women Midshipmen Study Group's evaluation of military performance grades between 1985 and 1990 in the U.S. Naval Academy revealed that when sex differences emerged, men tended to outperform women. Although sex differences in performance might be taken as evidence that the higher evaluations of male than female cadets are accurate, these seemingly objective performance measures could themselves be affected by gender stereotypes. Gender stereotypes might influence instructors' evaluations of men and women and thus the grades assigned to them in training classes (Gustafsson, 2006, pp. 4-5).

In 1980 Swedish parliament passed the law giving women possibility to undergo voluntarily basic training in the Swedish Air Force, but under certain conditions that they had the ambition to pursue a career as officers only. At last, in 1989 all restrictions were uplifted for women in the Swedish Armed Forces (SAF) thus giving access to all areas of military occupation. In 1994, when women were granted the possibility to undergo basic military training as conscripts without having expressed an initial interest of pursuing a career as officers, something that was required before. The inclusion of women in the modern SAF has a broad political support and male representatives of the SAF often publicly express their pride about, and support for, the positive change taking place due to the presence of women in the military organization. Initially it was hard for high-ranking officers to accept such a decision to accept the fact that women could equally serve her nation. Consequently, the other, perhaps less official side of the gender story is that many female conscripts and officers, as well as civilian women employed by the SAF, are subject to penalties and are meeting a massive resistance from some of their male colleagues. The most visible sign of this is the extensive scale of sexual harassment that these women are subject to, and further, the unfortunate exploitation of women in prostitution by Swedish peacekeeping soldiers during international missions (Gustafsson 2006, pp. 4-5).

Connell explains if hegemonic masculinity were challenged within the Swedish Armed forces. "When the condition for the defense of the patriarchy change, the basis for the dominance of a particular masculinity is eroded. New groups may challenge old solutions and construct a new hegemony. Women may challenge the dominance of any group of men. Hegemony, then, is a historically mobile relation." (Connell 1995, p 77).

2.2 GENDER, WAR and PEACEKEEPING

War is a matter of vital importance to the state. It is the province of life and death, the road to survival or ruin. It is mandatory that it must be thoroughly studied. In the 1980's in the U.S. a popular military slogan to attract the aspirants was "be all that you can be – in the army," as this was open to men so they were entitled to enjoy the prestigious institution and could earn prestige for themselves while women were not at all allowed to participate in army (Griffith 1971, p. 63).

In 1942 for the Women's Auxiliary Army Corps (WAAC) President Roosevelt signed Public law 554, also called the WAAC bill. Women accepted for Voluntary Emergency Service (WAVES), the Women Marines were established and the Air-WACS began serving with the Army Air Force. From 1942 to 1944, nearly 2,000 of the best women pilots served the Women's Airforce Service Pilots (WASPs). WASPs flew all kinds of military aircrafts including the B-29 Superfortress, the YP-59, and the P-51 Mustang fighter. They ferried planes throughout the U.S and Canada and inside England, sometimes flying missions that male pilots considered too risky (Sherrow 1996b, p. xv).

After the World War Two was over, the idea that "a woman's place is in the home" returned. The ideology returned to where it was. The traditionally divided and assigned tasks were resumed. A lot of women in leading positions accepted it as well, but there were some women who did not want to give up their jobs. Because they had skills and they were qualified to attain the position. One laid-off worker, a widow with a mother and son to support, wrote a plaintive letter to President Harry Truman, saying, "I would like to know why, after serving a company in good faith for almost three and a half years, it is now impossible to obtain employment with them. I am a lathe hand and was classified as skilled labor, but simply because I happen to be a woman I am not wanted" (Sherrow.V. 1996, p. 04), (Anderson, 1981, pp 05-17).

When challenged about the limitations placed on the positions women could hold in the military, officials said that women had limited physical strength and could not handle heavy equipment or weapons. The possibility of pregnancy was also cited as a problem in deploying women to various locations, as were other physical conditions of women. In the statement made in 1942, Army planners referred to menstruation delicately as the " physiologically handicap which renders her abnormal, unstable and unable to perform well at times" (Treadwell, 1954, pp 03-14, Sherrow.V. 1996c. p. xvi).

There are accounts, verified by multiple official sources, of more than 20 women who dressed as men and served in the British royal navy or marines from the late 17th to early 19th centuries. Women were often successfully hiding their sex. Somebody with a short haircut, trousers and a broad hat had to be a man. Mixed forms were not customary. When a French war-vessel entered the Tahiti harbour in 1769 the Tahitians immediately recognized a disguised woman amongst the crewmembers of the ship. This female sailor had made the complete voyage during 16 months, passing as a man (Moelker & Bosch, 2008, pp 92-102).

The moral ambiguity of 'self-determination' struggles in light of her focus on women's experience. On the one hand, nationalist struggles for political independence are waged in the name of freedom from colonial control (Wendy, 2006, p.52). Enloe connects the two terms together, which are essential to serve in a rigid and fighter organisation. Although women have fought for the independence of their nations, but when the organisation work structure is organised and termed into government dye, the way of perceiving women into fighting arms seems difficult to execute with. It can develop without affecting patriarchal structures, and indeed can develop new forms of indigenous sexism. In particular, armed struggle can have a particularly pernicious influence on women's chances for feminist liberation. Militarisation puts a premium on communal unity in the name of national survival, a priority that can silence women critical of patriarchal practices and attitudes. In so doing, nationalist militarisation can privilege men (Enloe 1990, p. 40). Women also play a crucial role in perpetuating colonialism as well as being among its victims, as a research examining the role of European women as 'civilising' forces, as schoolteachers and nurses, shows. According to Enloe the focus was on gender relations and their role in maintaining militarisation during and after the Cold War. Once again, she sets out to uncover the forms of masculinity and femininity and the relationships between men and women upon which Cold War militarism relied (Enloe 1996, p 84).

When it comes to gender and war there is one question which closes the debates at many points because we follow patriarchy and most of the people with the mindset impose this argument that what if women soldier became prisoner of war? What will happen? If there is no argument left to support the view that women cannot serve her country in war, generally this question is popped to win the argument. To understand this question one need to understand certain dimensions. Pregnancy has been the weapon of choice against women since 1975. If you're a woman and you get pregnant, you've just become a whole other species; pregnant women are the most victimized minority in the Army. The argument in the military that pregnancy

interferes with performance requirements may be right, but pregnancy has to be tolerated if women are to be assimilated.” (Francke, 1997, p. 104).

However, feminist thinking in the 1980’s noted that one needs to take account of historic phases of male dominance, which varies in form with changing modes of production and the rise and fall of empires. With the passage of time, as it became alert to the ways in which rule by the ‘fathers’ in the sex/gender system of European society was giving way to rule by men in general (Pateman, 1988, pp. 358-360), and familial authority was giving way to more public expressions of male power the word ‘patriarchy’ began to sound a little archaic. On the other hand, nobody came up with a satisfactory alternative. Today ‘andrarchy’ might be more accurate designations of the gender order in Western Europe. However, they have failed to find favor (Walby, 1990, p 229).

Kovitz argued that the military is gendered and gendering institution and constructs multiple femininities and masculinities. Though feminists (committed to peaceful conflict resolution may argue against the recruitment of female soldiers, it seems a moot issue given their presence (Kovitz, 2000, p36 ;Albrecht, 1988, p 115).

In the past centuries, the role of women in certain professions was often limited by male dominating societies, but slowly and gradually, women have earned their space in nearly all occupations. Perhaps there is no area, which has been more resistant to the full participation of women than the military. Here, as in no other profession, long-standing ideas about the traits and abilities of the two genders have kept the military predominantly male and male controlled until well into the 1900s (Kecskeméthy, 2010, pp 157-167).

The Cabinet Committee on Parliamentary Affairs as short service commission cadre approved the introduction of female officers to the Indian Army in 1992. The first batch consisted of 25 female officers commissioned into the Army Service Corps (ASC), the Army Ordnance Corps (AOC), the Army Education Corps (AEC) and the Judge Advocate General (JAG) departments. The initial terms of engagement for female officers in the Indian Armed Forces (IAF) was five years, which was extended to ten years over the period, with the option of extension by another four years in service. Permanent commission of female officers was granted in 2008 to work in the AEC and JAG departments (Hansi, 2015, p 3).

Since Hungary suspended compulsory military service in 2004, an increased interest in military service can be observed. Despite the increase of the number of women in the HDF, their contributions are not very publicized and rewarded. (Kecskeméthy, 2010, p 159) In the

beginning women served as nurses, but today women participate in various branches of the HDF. According to the Government of India website, the number of vacancies as announced by the Government for the 99th Short Service Commission Course (for men) is 175, and for the 13th Short Service Commission Women (Non-Technical) Course is only 12. (UPSC, 2013)

Information given by the Indian Parliament in early 2017 states there were 3,578 women officers in the three services. This broadly represents about 3.64 percent in the Army, 4.49 percent in the Navy and 13 percent in the Air Force. Apart from this, there are about 5,000 military nursing service members in uniform (Peri, 2017, pp 18-22).

In comparison with other NATO countries, the HDF have a relatively high proportion of professional female soldiers in many fields. The total percentage of female professional and contracted soldiers is 19.6 percent, which covers even higher rates in some ranks. Although there are still no female flag officers, women serve in every other officer rank. Despite the continuous downsizing of the HDF the military ratio of servicewomen, especially among non-commissioned officers (NCO's) is still on the rise (Kecskenéthy, 2010, p 157). Among junior officers the rate of females is over 20 percent; among contracted personnel it is even higher. This shows that besides professional military education, highly educated civilian females tend to join the army and accept the special circumstances of living in uniform. Even if their majority is in so-called special positions with rather slow and defined advance, many of them might be promoted to higher ranks in 5–10 years, if it is possible to keep them in service (National Report Hungary, 2008, pp. 3-4) The report further concludes that combat positions are also open for women in the HDF since 1996. There are no regulations, nor confirmations concerning allowed or forbidden branches and services for servicewomen. From another perspective, there are special fields and jobs, in which female personnel are in majority. The female employees' rate is over 60 percent in the fields of medical, administrative and human management and welfare. It means also high numbers of soldiers and civilians, as numerous of these jobs and positions exist in the whole organization. The opposite tendency can be seen in jobs and positions related to combat, and in traditionally male positions (there is no female among parade soldiers, armour, and in field chaplain service). (National Report Hungary, 2008, pp. 3-4).

Table 1. Female Personal Strength in Hungary 2008¹²

¹²National Report of Hungary (2008). Retrieved January 22, 2018, from NATO website, www.nato.int/ims/2008/win/reports/hungary-2008.pdf

Hungary	Total %	Flag Officer
Joint Force Command (JFC)	15.7	-
Ministry of Defense (MoD)	33.7	-
Defense Staff Units	29.7	-
Total	20.2	-

Gender bias in the IAF

D.S Randhawa undertook a sample survey of 600 seniors, juniors, peers, subordinates, academicians, women officers and parents to ascertain problem areas of both genders working together at work place for a research work between 2001 to 2003. Non-acceptance of women as soldiers by men is due to physical, physiological, psychological, biological, masculine, social and logistical reasons specific to women. Women officers share good communications with younger age group of officers and maintain a work oriented relationship with others. In United Nations Peacekeeping operations including India, 185 nations took part out of which 1.7 per cent is female soldiers (Randhawa, 2005, pp 02-18).

Young soldiers felt their responsibility will increase in such a situation – given a choice they will not prefer such a situation. Some senior officers were evasive and non-committal while the majority were not in favour of sending women officers on night duty or on missions of patrols, ambush and convoy protection duties in counter insurgency areas. Junior commissioned officers (JCOs) regarded the idea of a woman officer leading a patrol in counter terrorism operations a dangerous situation and gave a firm "no" to the proposal. A study of women officers as convoy protection officers between Jammu and Srinagar was carried out. All ranks were asked if they felt secure under the protection of a woman officer as convoy commander. There were mixed responses. Women officers took the job seriously. Some troops felt that in case of an eventuality it is they who will come to the forefront rather than asking a woman to do the job and were generally not in favour of such assignment for women. They felt that women soldiers must be able to protect themselves. Some soldiers felt that it did not matter whether if their commander was a woman. Commanding officers wanted to have a free hand to treat women officers in field areas as equal to other officers. The view is shared by women officers who want professional equality and do not want to be treated with kid gloves. In some

cases women officers in outdoor training tended to overdo to prove that they are physically fit and can undertake stress like men (Randhawa, 2004, pp 02-18).

Women cadets at Officer's Training Academy in Chennai, when interviewed regarding combat roles, said they were happy using their skills in their present jobs, but were willing to volunteer for combat if given a chance. They insisted that even among males only 75 percent were in fighting arms. An SMS survey regarding women in uniform found 49 percent saying yes, and 51 percent saying no, in terms of viewer feedback (Roy, 2006, p 53). When asked if women were denied opportunities, a woman officer' Major Viridi said that women were aware of the jobs the Army offered when they filled the forms; thereafter they could not complain. Regarding training, it is the same for both genders is physical, which for women is very gradual to avoid stress injuries' physical performance standards are almost the same except for a few relaxations such as more time for women in sprint. From the second route match onwards, the load is the same (10 kg) and the distance (25 km), in the same time as for males' (Wendy, 2006, pp. 47-59).

In Allahabad, Surya raised an objection and requested for a woman gynaecologist. This is what Surya Moudgil discovered to her horror. She had applied for a lieutenant's post in the Army through the services selection board. When it came to the medical, including gynaecological examinations, she found it was to be done by male doctors. "The president, special medical board, Lt Colonel Turlapati told me, 'Doctors only see, they don't touch'. He also told me that if I had a problem I shouldn't have applied and that I was the only one with a problem." The events were revealed at a press conference, held under the aegis of the All-India Democratic Women's Association, which plans to take up the issue in the Supreme Court (Ray. 2004, pp 60-68).

Women join the armed forces with optimism, some continue to feel that with the skills acquired in the military they can do any job in civilian life, others are disillusioned and they see a sharp gender divide, where senior officers are patriarchal and give women soft jobs, which male colleagues resent and women do not want. They feel jawans (the other ranks) respect them if they know their job; it is the male officers who patronize them. A woman officer remarked, "May be it's the sight of a women in uniform that brings out the lech in them", and another said "we don't need protecting – tell us how to do something better don't make it easy for us" (Kumar, 2003, pp. 14-17; Wendy, 2006, p. 68).

Four women officers challenged Army's service rules at the Delhi High Court on 2015, the women had asked for an option to serve as permanent commission officers. Two women officers, one in the army the other in the air force who had approached the court arguing that though their male counterparts were being offered permanent commissions there was a gender bias against them even though they were not posted in combat duties. Four women officers had challenged this policy in the High Court claiming parity with men, they had asked for an option to serve as permanent commissioned officers. Following an independent directive from the Defence Minister the Army has already identified its Judge Advocate General and Education branches for absorbing women permanently. In 2008, 5,137 women officers served in the IAF (Mohammad, 2015, p 76).

They include 4,101 in the army, 784 in the air force, and 252 in the navy. In the army, women serve in support arms like the Corps of Signals, Army Ordnance Corps, the Corps of Electronic and Mechanical Engineers, and the Army Service Corps.

In the Indian Air Force, women are inducted in all streams, barring the fighter stream. In the Indian Navy, there are restrictions on posting women officers aboard ships and submarines (Sharma, 2008, pp 5-14).

Disillusioned with her job, a lady army officer committed suicide by shooting herself with a rifle in Udhampur, the headquarters of the Northern Command. The 25-year-old Lt. Sushmita Chakravarty was from 5071 ASC battalion. With tears in his eyes, her father asked Sushmita's younger brother to take out the gold medal she had received "for being a brilliant student". Saying that her daughter passed MSc Chemistry in first class, he further added "She said, she had destroyed her life by joining the Army. She wanted to leave the job but couldn't because of the formalities." Her family alleged that Sushmita joined the Indian Army with dreams to serve the nation, but the Army had reduced her to doing catering jobs and organising parties. She was chosen for the Army Service Core (The Indian Express, 2006, pp 3-4).

Vice Admiral Dr Arora felt "women have grown, men need to grow more". Lt' General S. Prasad said women must be given permanent commissions to prepare them for combat and larger roles. Former IAF pilot Cheryl Dutta felt women should be trained for fighter planes and given permanent commissions, she felt her manage and two children had not affected her fitness and training (The Indian Express, 2006, p 4).

Earlier women were exempted from fighting in combat positions but on June 4th, 2017 India broke the gender barriers in the Indian Army. As Army Chief General Bipin Rawat stated, "I

am looking at women as jawans (soldiers in all ranks). I am going to start it soon. Firstly, we will start with women as military police jawans,” he said, giving details of the move to allow women in the male dominated positions in the army (Hindustan Times, 2017).

The Indian Navy discharged a sailor for breaching recruitment conditions and undergoing a gender-reassignment procedure. Sabi Girl (who earlier used to go by the name Manish Giri) underwent the procedure in October 2016. The Indian Navy stated that post this procedure her service was no longer required. To quote the official statement from the navy:

"He chose to undergo irreversible gender re-assignment on his own accord, wilfully altering his gender status from the one he was recruited for at the time of his induction. He has, therefore, breached recruitment regulations and eligibility criteria for employment as a sailor in the Indian Navy" (Apparasu, 2017).

In July 2017, the Integrated Service Headquarters of the Ministry of Defence had asked all service chiefs to consider expanding roles for women including combat roles. Unfortunately, this reform has not been implemented yet and Giri now finds herself in a peculiar predicament. The Indian Navy may be legally in the clear on this one though. They are permitted to discharge people whose service they no longer require and if Sabi was post her changed gender status in a role that women weren't ordinarily eligible for then they can legally discharge her. Further, the navy may have considered the precedent that it would have had set by allowing Sabi to continue in service. Allowing Sabi to continue would have had implicitly meant that the navy would be okay with women serving in roles that the recruitment conditions didn't permit them to serve in the maritime force (Kumar, 2017, p 3).

Women officers have made history when they lead 66th Republic parade in all three contingents. Women inducted in the Indian armed forces as short service commissioned (SSC) officers later were given permanent commission in three branches only, but an appeal was filed by the government against giving permanent commission to them in the army. After almost five years of filing the appeal on behalf of the army against a Delhi High Court judgement of March, 2010 has been pending at the benches of the apex court without reaching any final decision. The bench of Justice Sanjay Kishan Kaul and M.C Garg of High court rejected the government's contention that permanent commission could only be allowed prospectively. "If male officers can be granted permanent commission, there is no reason why equally capable women officers can't" (Rajagopal Krishnadas, 2015, p. 59).

Lt Col Mithali Madhumita led the Indian Army's English Language Training Team in Kabul. It was also contended in the petition that the exercise undertaken by the army before the

sanction of the President was without proper authority. She also contended that she could withdraw her option before her actual term in the office came to an end. The army contended that the officer had failed to act upon the matter for more than three years before she realized that the earlier option given by her needs to be withdrawn. The AFT (Armed Forces Tribunal) bench hearing the case opined that it was not correct to say that option once exercised cannot be revoked and that the policy is expressly clear on this question. “The only condition is that such a change must be necessitated by circumstances beyond one’s control and commanders in the chain must recommend it on merits. She is also found to be an officer whose performance was excellent and well deserved of the exceptional circumstances for change of option being an officer the service would benefit from,” the bench observed (Chinna, 2015, p 4).

Serving officers will have to believe that they have stormed a male bastion and match their male counterparts step by step, but the real story – and it is layered and complex – emerges only after interviews with those who have chosen to give up on the uniform. Why do female officers – drawn to the army because of the awe of the uniform – choose to give up on it long before they've completed the 14 years they are currently allowed to serve? "I had all the josh and even did field postings, but found that we had to prove ourselves for everything," says Major Shradha Bhatt, an Electronic and Engineers Mechanical officer, adding, "I was posted on the Rajasthan border with Pakistan, but the question always was, "How will you stay in tents?" Questions and doubts mark careers of many such female officers. "Will she be able to do night duty? How will she be able to join us at a bar? Do they even know how to fire? Major Itty, the engineering student who went on to serve the Signals Corps for eight years, finally called it a day. It was painful, she says, but had no choice because unlike her male counterparts, she, like other female officers, gets no pension or medical aid after retiring (Baweja, 2015, pp 2-3).

Ranjana Velu in an interview with the times of India said that in 2009 she completed her 10 years of service and joined commercial sector Airlines. The stint in the IAF has been good, but there could be some improvements and changes in service rules so that women are treated on a par with men. “It's like anything worth having. I'm not telling you it's going to be easy. I'm telling you though it's going to be worth it.” (The Times of India, 2017, p 03).

The chapter examples on gender has shown the prevalence of gender stereotypes in the armed forces. It also made clear that no systematic research has been conducted on Indian armed

forces female service members; the present research has therefore examined the issue of gender in the armed forces within IAF and HDF comparatively.

2.3 INTERNATIONAL REQUIREMENTS (UN,NATO and EU)

Although there are no such restrictions for female service members in the HDF as compared to Indian armed forces, but the Hungarian society has different layers to explore in case of gender integration. Since Hungary is a member of NATO, the rules are followed as per NATO terms. In 2013, the ground-breaking decision overturns a 1994 Pentagon rule that restricts women from artillery, armour, infantry and other combat roles, even though in reality women have frequently found themselves in combat in Iraq and Afghanistan. According to the Pentagon, hundreds of women have deployed in those conflicts. More than 800 women had been wounded in the two wars and more than 130 had died. In 2012 Maj. Mary Jennings Hagar, an Air National Guard helicopter pilot, was shot down, returned fire and was wounded while on the ground in Afghanistan, but she could not seek combat leadership positions because the Defense Department did not officially acknowledge her experience in combat. The American Civil Liberties Union filed a federal lawsuit challenging the ban on behalf of four service women and the Service Women's Action Network, a group that works for equality in the military (Bumiller. E & Shanker. T, 2013, pp 01-04).

From 2006 women in the HDF witnessed a sudden incline in the employment from 4.3 per cent it shot up to 17.56 percent. According to the Hungarian Statistical Office data in 2006, the unemployment rate rose in 2005.. The dual working model in which man and women work together to earn a sufficient living payment requires women to work. The armed forces sector has equal payment policy, which attached women to be more inclined towards the HDF during the following years (Bumiller. E& Shanker. T, 2013).

Hungary had (with Canada) the highest rate of female participation amongst NATO countries, at 17.3 per cent. Hungary's dramatic success in increasing the retention, promotion and deployment of women reflects a number of targeted initiatives. The training of women for a military career involves the same provisions of law and inner regulations as for men and meet requirements. For regular personnel, corresponding education, training organised in other forms at the military training institutes and in course of the examination women and men are on equal footing. Furthermore, their provisions, allowances, rights and responsibilities are the same in accordance with the laid down items of the service contract. The HDF conducts its

recruiting with no gender restriction. In the case of people applying for the contract service, the basic components of the entrance requirements is the completion of the 8-year long primary school and age limit of 18-30. The HDF wanted to increase the number of contract personnel. For this reason, recruiting offices were opened in 2001. From the 300 people recruited, 163 were women. The so-called "Open days" program, which has been organised regularly for 5 years organised annually, was a great success from the point of view of career orientation and to increase the number of applicants joining the HDF. Female personnel are integrated at all levels, but fill only limited positions at the command level. Although women can serve in almost all career fields, including combat, the majority of them perform their duties in administrative, personnel, logistics, finance, and medical positions. However, one can also find female soldiers serving in the signal corps, radio-reconnaissance, and as anti-tank missile operators (International Military Staff, 2002, pp 2-10).

- A Committee on Women of the HDF was established in 2003, with the purpose of ensuring equal opportunities for men and women in the defence forces through research, analysis and policy recommendations. The Committee holds meetings with servicewomen to gather experiences, from which they prepare a report on the status of gender equality, including problems and recommendations for change. Members of the Committee are assigned by the leadership of the Ministry of Defence and the HDF, and represent all the female personnel serving in organisations and units of the HDF. A network of women's focal points has been also established at unit level in collaboration with the Committee (Gender and Security Sector Reform, 2011. p 20).

- An Equal Opportunity Team of five people representing middle management in each service was established. The Team reports to the Chief of Defence and is charged with providing information and exchanging ideas with leadership and personnel in subordinate units, attending conferences to gather and exchange information on gender integration, and publicising its work through the media and civilian organisations (Gender and Security Sector Reform, 2011. p. 20).

Servicewomen are integrated into the HDF. Women work and train together with their male counterparts, and are subject to the same chain of command, standards of performance and discipline. Female soldiers entering the service have to complete the integrated basic training, which is equal to that of their male counterparts, although with different physical standards. Servicewomen are entitled to maternity leave. Changes have also been made to pre-deployment

training to include gender issues, such as sexual exploitation and abuse, and culturally-specific information about women. Because of high interest from female candidates for service, in Hungary there is currently no need to develop special recruitment programs for women (Gender and Security Sector Reform, 2011. p 20).

NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (NCGP)its formation and policies:

Military operations in today's world require a diversity of qualifications and resources to ensure that peace and security are achieved and maintained. The complementary skills of both male and female personnel are essential for the effectiveness of NATO operations. The International Military Staff Office of the Gender Advisor and the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives work to integrate a gender perspective into all aspects of NATO operations.¹³

The NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (NCGP) promotes gender mainstreaming as a strategy for making the concerns and experiences of both women and men an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies, programmes and military operations.¹⁴

By advising NATO's political and military leadership, as well as member nations, on gender-related issues and the implementation of UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions, the NCGP contributes to operational effectiveness in line with Alliance objectives and priorities.

- In 1961, the first NATO Conference of Female Senior Officers of the Alliance took place in Copenhagen with delegates from Denmark, the Netherlands, Norway, the United Kingdom and the United States. The delegates completed the Copenhagen Conference by adopting a resolution agreeing to hold future conferences at regular intervals. Since then, NATO female senior officers have organised conferences on an ad-hoc basis to discuss the status, organisation, conditions of employment and career possibilities of women in the armed forces of the Alliance.
- In 1973, an ad hoc Committee on Women in the NATO Forces was formed during the NATO Conference of Female Senior Officers held in Brussels. The delegates adopted a resolution agreeing that women should have the opportunity to serve in all job

¹³ NATO (22 August 2019) Gender Perspective in NATO Armed forces. Retrieved from https://www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/topics_101372.htm

¹⁴ ibid

specialities with the exception of combat where their employment should be determined by national policy.

- In 1976, the MC endorsed formal recognition of the Committee on Women in the NATO Forces (CWINF).
- In 1985, 57 representatives from 13 NATO countries attended the CWINF Conference. The delegates completed the revision of the TOR and modified a resolution on the employment of women in the NATO Forces.
- In 1998, the Office on Women in the NATO Forces (OWINF) was established within the International Military Staff (IMS).
- In 2000, the MC confirmed the permanent establishment of the OWINF within the IMS structure with two office positions, Chief and Admin Assistant.
- Since 2002 there has been active co-operation between the CWINF and the 27 “Partnership for Peace” (PfP) nations. In 2003, they were invited for the first time to the Annual Conference in Brussels.
- In 2009, the CWINF Executive Committee (EC) decided to revise MC 249/1 including the existing TORs of the Committee and the Office in order to expand the CWINF’s mandate to support the integration of a gender perspective into NATO’s operations, and to support the implementation of UNSCR 1325 - Women, Peace and Security as well as future related UNSCRs. Since then, the Committee and the Office were renamed the “NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives” (NCGP) and “NATO Office on Gender Perspectives” (NOGP).
- In 2014, a new version of the TORs (MC 0249/3) was issued and the NOGP’s title was changed to the International Military Staff Office of the Gender Advisor (IMS GENAD Office).
- 2016 marks the 40th anniversary of the NCGP and 55 years since the first conference of NATO female senior officers was held in Copenhagen, Denmark.
- 2018 marked the 20th Anniversary of the IMS GENAD Office which was highlighted at the 2018 NCGP Annual Conference.¹⁵

¹⁵ NATO (22 August 2019) Gender Perspective in NATO Armed forces. Retrieved from https://www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/topics_101372.htm

The need of Gender balance and its importance for the operational success:

Opening the seminar, Lieutenant General Hans-Werner Wiermann highlighted the importance of gender perspectives in the military domain: “An increasing number of military operations have mandates that include protection of civilians, do no harm principles, and the establishment of safe and secure environments. Integrating a gender perspective will allow us to get a more comprehensive picture of the security threats encountered by the civilian population. Women, men, girls and boys often face different security threats and therefore have different security needs. Failing to understand these differences will decrease our ability to fulfill our mandates. Integration of gender perspectives is not only about gender equality and gender balance in our armed forces. It is also an important tool for our operational success”.¹⁶

Experts and researchers shared their inspiring experience and successes in women’s participation in cyber security and looked at future challenges during a NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme workshop in Qatar from 30 to 31 October 2019. This SPS Advanced Research Workshop gathered experts from the region and beyond to discuss how women could be encouraged to participate in the cyber workforce. To have better chances of success in protecting networks against cyber attacks, taking into consideration a variety of perspectives is crucial. The experience of women can enrich and challenge the understanding of the topic.¹⁷ Specific Policies and/or Legislation Related to the Implementation of Gender Perspectives in the Armed Forces enforced during 2017 No specific policies or legislation related to the implementation of gender perspectives in the Hungarian Armed Forces (HDF) were enforced during 2017. Enlistment requirements in the armed forces are the same for men and women. Enlistment requirements for the physical fitness tests are different for men and women. The three Physical Fitness Tests consist of two minutes of push-ups, two minutes of sit-ups and a 3.2 km run. Age, gender and the amount of repetitions or time elapsed for each test determines her/his score. There are differences in enlistment requirements related to physical characteristics.

In the HDF physical test requirements are different for men and women. Age is also considered when the physical test is being carried out. Men and women enlist at the same age. There are no policies that promote the recruitment of women in the military. In 2017, 263 out of 342

¹⁶ NATO-EU (22 October 2019) NATO and EU Military Leadership discuss gender in Military Operations. Retrieved from https://www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/news_169962.htm?selectedLocale=en

¹⁷ NATO (31 October 2019) NATO encourages women's participation in cyber security. Retrieved from https://www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/news_171188.htm?selectedLocale=en

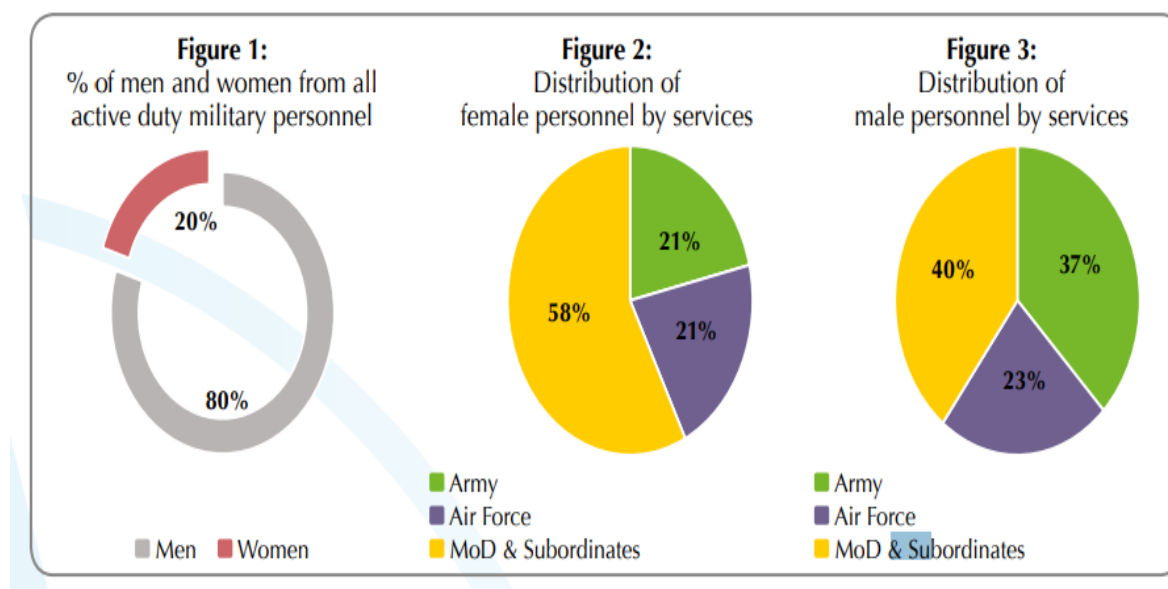
female applicants were successfully recruited and 1,752 out of 2,778 male applicants were successfully recruited. In 2017, in military academies, colleges and other educational institutions, there was a total of 170 applicants, out of which 21 female and 64 male applicants were successfully recruited. Retention Policies The Hungarian Armed Forces have retention policies that consist of a 5-year military pay rise programme, new housing allowances, health care allowance, and a new scholarship programme. There are no specific retention policies for women. The Committee of Military Women is a network that supports women in the military.¹⁸

Reasons for Leaving the Military The Hungarian Armed Forces carry out exit surveys for men and women who leave the military. When personnel leave HDF, they are requested to fill in questionnaires on a voluntarily basis. The questionnaires are anonymous and apply to both men and women. The results are evaluated on a quarterly basis. In 2017, 211 women and 1,262 men left the armed forces. The percentage of women who left the armed forces, out of the total number of men and women who left the armed forces, is 14.3%. The percentage of men who left the armed forces, out of the total number of men and women, who left the armed forces, is 85.7%. The main reasons why women tend to leave the armed forces are difficulties in balancing work and family life and lack of stability.¹⁹

¹⁸ NATO summary (2017). Summary of the National Reports of NATO member and Partner Nations to the NATO committee on Gender Perspectives. Retrieved from NATO website. https://www.nato.int/nato_static_fl2014/assets/pdf/pdf_2019_09/20190909_190909-2017-Summary-NR-to-NCGP.pdf

¹⁹ Ibid pg. 157

Figure 1: Distribution of men and women in HDF



Source: NATO summary Report. (NATO Summary, 2017)²⁰

Figure 2: Number of Active Males and Female personnel in HDF: (NATO Summary, 2016)

Figure: All Active Military Personnel		
Service	Men	Women
Army	29.6%	4.3%
Air Force	18.4%	4.2%
Navy	0.0%	0.0%
MoD & Subordinates	32.0%	11.5%
Total	80.0%	20.0%
Ranks	Men	Women
OF 6 and above	0.40%	0.00%
OF 3-5	16.80%	11.31%
OF 1-2	16.80%	11.31%
OR 5-9	36.00%	55.14%
OR 1-4	32.60%	12.83%

²⁰NATO summary (2016). Summary of the National Reports of NATO member and Partner Nations to the NATO committee on Gender Perspectives. Retrieved from NATO website. https://www.nato.int/nato_static_fl2014/assets/pdf/pdf_2018_01/1801-2016-Summary-NR-to-NCGP.pdf

Figure 3: Number of active male and female personnel from HDF in all operations:
(NATO Summary, 2016)

Figure: All Operations		
Army	88.8%	9.6%
Air Force	1.7%	0.0%
Navy	0.0%	0.0%
MoD & Subordinates	0.0%	0.0%
Total	90.4%	9.0%
Ranks	Men	Women
OF 6 and above	0.14%	0.00%
OF 3-5	10.99%	5.33%
OF 1-2	17.32%	18.67%
OR 5-9	31.97%	58.67%
OR 1-4	39.58%	17.33%

Women in the HDF attain an advanced position under NATO regulations. They have combat support roles positions open for them.

2.4 ATTITUDES TOWARDS WOMEN IN ARMED FORCES

The gate to the castle of the **Royal Netherlands Military Academy** is impressive. People walking underneath the walls that give entry to the courtyard will see the names of graduated cadets carved in stone. Some cadets have placed plates, and one of these plates by the group of eleven cadets graduated in 1988 reads: “Aux Femmes, Aux Chevaux, A ceux qui les montent” Vive la Cavalerie!” Clearly this is a prank by adolescent men with a healthy hormonal system working overtime. The quote in French means that “we ride women, we ride horses, cheers to cavalry.” (Moelker. R., & Bosch. J., 2008, pp 212-220).

Attitudes toward women in the military in a random representative sample of 1,320 male officers from the **Swedish Armed Forces** (SWAF) was examined. Women have served in the armed forces and in almost all the cadres and history contains evidence, but their service has not always been officially recognized or awarded (Horberg, 1991, p. 56). Sweden was no exception until 1980s, but a decade later the restrictions were eliminated and who qualifies gets

the suitable position in the armed forces. However, recent studies indicate that harassment and discrimination appear to be widespread and problematic for most women in the SWAF (Estrada & Berggren, 1999, p. 45). Moreover, studies of men in the SWAF suggest that men are ambivalent and resistant toward women in the military (Berggren & Ivarsson, 2002, p 94).

First, how much variation characterizes gender difference on the question of using military force? Is gender difference present during some conflicts and not in others? Is there a historical trend in the magnitude of gender difference?

Eichenberg analysed the magnitude of gender difference in a larger number of historical episodes involving the actual or threatened use of military force. His research contains the analysis of 965 individual survey questions that inquire the support for the use of **U.S.** military force in twenty-four historical episodes, beginning in 1982 with questions about the provision of military aid to the government of El Salvador and continuing through the recent wars in Afghanistan, Iraq, Libya, and Syria. The magnitude of gender difference varies substantially. In many cases, a substantial percentage of women support the use of force. (Eichenberg, 2016, p 195).

Views of feminists, military scholars and military men regarding induction of women into the armed forces

Feminists opposed to women in combat roles often take a pacifist stance in relation to war generally. Many feminists who are opposed to women's participation in combat draw on Carol Gilligan's findings that women have a different moral voice, one based on caring, compassion, rationality, and responsibility for other. According to this "ethic of care," women's distinctive moral voice is linked to peace, not war, and to nurturing and caring for others, not to killing them. In contrast, feminists who argue in favour of combat roles for women typically draw on ethical principles of justice such as individual legal rights, equality, and basic fairness. Advocates of this "ethics of justice" argue that only by sharing in such duties of citizenship as that entailed in national defense through combat duty can women ever be considered full citizens and attain full legal and social equality with men (Weinstein & White, 1997, pp. 79-98).

Changing Attitudes of Women towards the Armed Forces

The changing assignments of women in the military must be examined in the light of the demands by women both in civilian society and in the military. The movement for women's equality has a long tradition in the United States, but the current phase encompasses not only traditional goals of equality in economic, occupational, and public life, but also, in the name of women's liberation. This includes a psychological and cultural dimension as well as a critique of the moral values of contemporary society. In particular, the militant dimension of women's liberation is linked to the opposition to the war in Vietnam and indifference, at least, about the position of women in the armed forces. However, it is my impression from conversations with militant advocates of the women's liberation movement that when they consider the issues of women in the armed forces, they hold the ideological belief that women should be armed just like men. In contrast, women recruited into the military, or who are planning to enter, reveal that they are not attached to the militant women's liberation movement. Special effort was made to observe the attitudes of recently recruited women in order to infer any impact of the women's rights movement. The new and younger females entering the military are more self-assertive than the older and earlier recruited personnel. However, the pattern of self-recruitment is such that "militancy" is very low or effectively absent. Selecting the military as a place of employment goes hand in hand with a rejection or indifference to the militant women's liberation movement. The new recruits, both officers and enlisted personnel think of themselves as entering a service that has a strong emphasis on equal opportunities, made more emphatic by the fixed and uniform pay rates. Likewise, realistically or unrealistically, they assume that women in the military have better job security than in civilian employment. Sources of dissatisfaction are mainly with living quarters, irritation over administrative detail, and the quality of specific supervisors (Nancy, 1973, pp. 132-134).

Attitudes of Military Men and Public towards Military Women

Despite their increased presence in military leadership positions, there is evidence that social attitudes toward women serving in expanded military roles continue to reflect historical biases and stereotypes that may hinder their performance. Kurpius and Lucart examined the role of civilian and military college environments on gender role attitudes and authoritarianism. By comparing U.S. Naval Academy (USNA) and U.S. Air Force Academy (USAFA) cadets with students from civilian colleges enrolled in Reserve Officer Training Corps (ROTC) training

and non-ROTC civilian students, they reported that military students had the most traditional authoritarian beliefs and gender role attitudes. Moreover, USNA males held the most traditional attitudes toward women and were the highest of all samples in anti-femininity attitudes (Kurpius and Lucart, 2000, pp 251-268).

Matthews compared the attitudes of civilian college students with USAFA cadets in their approval of women serving in a variety of military jobs. He found that USAFA cadets, particularly men, were significantly and substantially less approving than their civilian counterparts in acceptance of women in a broad variety of military roles (Matthews, 1992, p 127).

Gender integration has been a much-researched topic within military sociology and attitudes towards women have been the subject qualitative and quantitative studies. Surveys of US military personnel have concluded that acceptance women are limited (Carreiras & Elshtain, 1987, pp 218-223; Goldstein, 2004, p 50; Segal, 1995, p 24) and male soldiers are likely to rank women as less competent themselves (Stiehm, 1998, p 40; Rosen et al., 1996, pp.225-232). Research has found that traditional gender beliefs negatively impact on how male soldiers evaluate their female colleagues and that alternative strategies, such as covert harassment and opposition to dual training in expressing negative sentiment towards (Boldry et al., 2001, pp 136-144; Miller, 1997, p 82; Cohn, 2000, p 66).

Other studies paint a more positive picture, suggesting that men view performance as more important than gender status (Harrell & Miller, 1997, pp 186-197; Helium, 2010, p 51). Women have found to see the armed forces as an empowering arena, where merits matter more than gender parity in 2008. In addition, surveys have reported increased acceptance of women's participation among general public (Hurrell and Lukens, 1994, pp 110-123; Wilcox, 1992, p 94). Research has also shown that military men are not necessarily coherent in how they view, and that analysis of their attitudes may yield different results depending and which people or part of the military are being investigated (Drake, 2006, p 71; Firestone, 1987, pp 64-67; Kiimmel, 2002, p 78). The same basic arguments have been used both for and against women's participation, with the manner of framing (Fenner & deYoung, 2001, pp 132-145; Iskra, 2007, p 126). In order to understand how being perceived in this particular environment it is important to look at factors that help perspectives. Positive experiences with female service members and on the women's role in general have been found to impact. (Herbert, 1994, p 263; Ivarsson et al., 2005, pp 231-246).

There was a study on the role of group affiliation and gender on attitudes towards women in the military. Approval among women was high, with all groups showing over 90% approval. All West Point women and 98.8% of civilian women approved this job, compared to 91.3% of ROTC women. While the current topic which is usually debated hard in the news that is hand-to-hand combat. In their study they found that among men, less than half (43.5%) of the civilians approved of women serving in this role, compared to 18.2% of ROTC cadets and just 10.3% of West Point cadets, whereas women were more approving than men, and civilian students were much more approving than ROTC or West Point cadets. In contrast, nearly two thirds of civilian women (67.2%) approved this role, compared to 41.3% of ROTC women and 32.4% of West Point women (Michael D. Matthews & Morten G. Ender, Janice H. Laurence & David E. Rohall, 2009, pp 232-245).

Few more armed positions for women were analysed. For air defense gunner, women (82.5%) were more approving than men (61.7%). Among men, civilian students (69.0%) were the most approving, followed by West Point cadets (64.3%) and ROTC cadets (55.5%). As seen for most jobs, civilian women (85.8%) displayed the highest approval rates for air defense gunner, followed by ROTC (76.2%) and West Point (73.5%) cadets. Substantial differences in approval were again seen between men (68.9 percent) and women (88.6 percent) respondents. Among men, there was a substantial gap between the approval rates of civilian men (86.2 percent) and West Point men (54.6 percent), with ROTC men (63.9 percent) falling between the two extremes. About three fourths of ROTC women (73.2 percent) and West Point women (76.5 percent) approved of this job, compared to 95.5 percent of civilian women (Michael, 2009, pp 60-76).

2.5 SUMMARY

Based on the chapter Gender and Women the research has focused on women in the Indian and Hungarian Armed forces with certain assumptions, leading to particular dimensions.

Gender stereotype exist in the armed forces, the integration of women in both Indian and Hungarian armed forces is analysed with the selected measures. Their motivation to join forces, incase of FSHDF their motivation is more of economical but for FSIAF its more inclined towards getting their dignity in the society which is more of patriarchy based. Attitudes towards women in combat and leading positions need to be examined. It is difficult for the Indian armed forces to accept women in non officer and closed combat positions because the religious and

social patterns followed till date in India. In Indian Armed forces even today they have religious rituals before performing any task. Be it peace time or war zone the religion plays a pivotal role in uplifting the morale of the troops. Women are seen as goddess which put them in position where the troops wont be able to take any mishapening with the Female service members. The gender differences in motivation, work related attitudes amongst women in HDF and IAF are examined in upcoming chapters.

The present chapter portrayed developments in the work related attitudes, self-actualization, motivation, stress, personality, social support, gender equality attitudes and peace keeping participation attribute of women in HDF and IAF. Following is the research methodology as the next chapter.

Chapter III

SOCIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVE

This chapter illustrates the status of women in India and in Hungary. It is a comparative analysis of the status of women in the two nations. The two countries are from two different continents, but societies with traditional thought process still define the link between two. The chapter will discuss the sociocultural setup of women in the selected nations. The measures taken to empower and integrate women in the respective countries, it proceeds to examine issues affecting women at work and women working in non-traditional areas, in particular the Armed Forces. Finally, a brief history of women in combat highlights reasons for induction, and women's participation in the armed forces in India and Hungary. Returning to status of women, the researcher concludes that women in uniform would serve as role models affecting the status of Indian and Hungarian women in general.

3.1 HISTORY OF WOMEN'S STATUS AND EMPLOYMENT

Hungary and India have differences in terms of population and culture. The two countries lies in two different continents, secondly the cultural and societal difference tending India following patriarchy and Hungary on the other hand is more towards matriachy. Hence it makes this study more interesting that even in 2020 the social, religious and cultural patterns wherein even today before buying or starting a new project small or big religious ritual is performed by the commanding officer to boost the morale of the troops. The troops might nor accept the same rituals for instance worship of equipment (Tanks and guns) is acceptable only from Male officer. In fact women are not allowed in armoured and infantry. Hungary on the other hand is a part of Europe and the culturally more more open as compared to India. Although both nations participated in two world wars and the participation of women was recorded and the similar roles women participated in. Both in India and Hungary the status of women is challenging the society, but in different ways. India is still trying to save the girl child from getting aborted whereas Hungarian women are asking for equal pay in the labour market. Defining women's participation in the economy and her acceptance in society will be the core of this chapter.

According to the Global index report 2017 describing the Gender Gap, India and Hungary ranks 108 and 103 respectively. Although Hungary is doing better than India in education and health, but if the two countries are compared on the grounds of employment and equal

participation then the content attains a similar attitude. Despite India had its first female prime minister in 1966 when the country was young and despite the patriarchy, India was able to have its first female prime minister (The Global Gender Gap Report, 2018, pp 44-49).

The 2018 report further illustrates that India succeeds in fully closing its primary and secondary education enrolment gender gaps for the second year running, and, for the first time has nearly closed its tertiary education gender gap. The 2016 Global Gender Gap Report explains, that if today in India, a 1990 born, with the pace of change over the period of 3 years, based on the current trajectory, with all else remaining equal, it will take 168 years for the world to close this economic gap completely and by then the lady will be 196 years old. India Ranks 87 in global gender gap with a score of 0.68. Where the average annual salary for a woman is \$2,102.50, the average annual salary for a man is \$9,044.54. Women in India gained the right to vote in 1950 that is 68 years ago. In India 28.16% of women are parts of the labour force, compared to 81.85 of men. According to the same report a woman born in Hungary will have almost the same certainties. It will take 168 years to close the economic gap completely and she will be 196 years by then. Hungary holds 101st rank on global gender gap report with a score of 0.67, like India. On average in Hungary with every \$1 she earns, a man earns \$1.67. In Hungary, 60.79% of women are part of the labour force, compared to 73.87% of men. Hungarian women gained their right to vote in Hungary in 1945, which is 73 years ago, five years before Indian women started voting. (Global Gender Gap Report, 2016, pp 192-193).²¹

3.2 WOMEN AND WORK

Advancing gender equality offers a large economic boost to India as women are particularly under-represented in India's economy compared with their potential. McKinsey Global Institute (MGI) estimates suggest that, at 17 percent, India has a lower share of women's contribution to GDP than the global average of 37 percent, and the lowest among all regions in the world. In comparison, China's women contribute 41 percent, those in Sub-Saharan Africa 39 percent, and women in Latin America 33 percent. Women in India represent only 24 percent of the labour force that is engaged in any form of work in the market economy, compared with an average of 40 percent globally. India's position on share of women in workforce is on a par with countries in the Middle East and North Africa (MENA), where, unlike India, legal provisions can restrict most forms of female employment in most of the countries. MGI considered a "full-potential" scenario in which women participate in the economy identically to men, and found that it would add up to \$28 trillion, or 26 percent, to annual global GDP in

²¹Global Gender Gap report (2016). pp 192-193 Retrieved from IMF website
http://www3.weforum.org/docs/GGGR16/WEF_Global_Gender_Gap_Report_2016.pdf

2025 compared with a business-as-usual scenario (Exhibit 1). In this scenario, India would gain the most of any of the ten regions analysed with \$2.9 trillion added to annual GDP in 2025, or 60 percent of GDP. India has the highest relative potential for additional GDP growth from advancing women's equality (McKinsey, 2015, pp. 2-13).

Government of India report states that, the growth rate of employment since 2005 was of the order of 38.13 percent. Out of the total employment of 131.29 million persons, 98.25 million persons (74.83 percent) were male and 33.04 million persons (25.17 percent) were female. As per NSS 2011-12, the Worker Population Ratio for females is higher in rural areas (24.8 percent) than in urban areas (14.7 percent). For males, the ratios in rural and urban areas are 54.3 percent and 54.6 percent respectively. Thus, considerable gender gap exists in both rural and urban areas and the gap is higher in urban areas. Continuing the same year the Labour Force Participation Rate (LFPR) of females (rural: 25.3 percent, urban: 15.5 percent) is lower than that of males (rural: 55.3 percent, urban: 56.3 percent) in both rural and urban areas. In 2011, the Workforce Participation Rate at all India level is 25.51 percent for females and 53.26 percent for males. While there is no rural-urban gap for males (53 percent), there is considerable rural-urban gap for females (rural: 30%, urban: 15.4 percent) (Participation in economy, 2016, pp 29-31).

Chand, Srivastava and Singh discuss in their paper the changing structure of rural economy of India and the implications for employment and growth, which apart from withdrawal of labour force / workforce, sizable occupational shifts in workforce were also observed between 2004-05 and 2011-12. Out of 33 million workers who left agriculture 27 million (81 percent) were female and 6 million (19 percent) were male. It is worth mentioning that out of 27 million female workers who left agriculture, only 5 million joined non-farm sectors and rest withdrew from labour-force itself. The discrimination amongst economic participation has been seen in every sector of the workforce in India. Based on the numbers it can be extracted that (Chand, Srivastava & Singh., 2017, p. 89).

Employment Discrimination

According to the Ministry of Statistics and Programme Implementation report on unemployment rate (UR) more for females than males 15 years and above in both rural and urban areas with the gap being very wide for urban areas. Maximum unemployment rate has been reported in Andaman & Nicobar Islands (30.8 percent), followed by Jammu and Kashmir (25.7 percent) (Women and Men in India, 2016b, p 78).

The international Gender perspective of Development Indicators report on states the proportion of seats held by women in Indian national parliament is only 12 percent and among the South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) nations India has greater percentage than Brazil, Japan, Sri Lanka and Maldives only (Women and men in India, 2016a, pp 78-80).

Times of India projects that between 2001 and 2011 India saw a dismal 2 percent growth rate of jobs per year. Between 2011 and 2015, this has further declined to just 1.23 percent per year. In this situation, it is no surprise that women are unable to find work. He further concludes in an interview with a former journalist from Mumbai who left the newsroom seven years ago after birth of her son. "I miss waking up every morning and heading off to work. I was on a journey with my job, but now, my journey ends when I drop my son off at school, and resumes when I pick him up," she says. Her choice to put her career on the back burner is predicated on her concerns for her child's security."Another interview with Jaibunisha Reyaz who studied engineering in school, but asked to stay at home only reveals that "I was told that keeping house and taking care of the children was my responsibility," she says. It took her 10 years to convince her husband, who himself was an engineer as well, to let her work as she was feeling that her potential was being wasted. "I would often tell him that if we both worked, we would have a bit more money for the house and the children, but he just would not budge. It was only after the two sons started school that I was allowed to step out," she recalls (Subodh, 2017).

Financial Inequities and Women in Informal Works

Irrespective of education level and residence (rural - urban), the average per day wage / salary earned by a female is less than that by a male. Average wage of a female casual labourer engaged in Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) and works other than public works in urban areas is more than that of a male. Most remarkable of all is that the period of rapid GDP growth has been marked by low and declining workforce participation rates of women. This pattern is unlike that in almost any other rapidly growing economy in any phase of history over the past two centuries. This is significant for the following reasons. Women largely, although not solely do the tasks associated with social reproduction and the care economy, which, as in many other societies, are not counted as economic or productive activities. Similarly, many women are engaged in productive work as unpaid household helpers, who are barely seen as workers. As some younger women engage in education, older female workers have shifted from paid or recognized employment to unpaid household-related work (Jayati. G, 2016, p. 181).

In Asia and Africa, for example, 75 percent of women's work is in the informal sector, without access to benefits such as sick pay, maternity leave or pensions. Women rights have been challenged in the over populated countries, where the lack of employment opportunities and mere payment to survive everyday has a crucial role to play in informal workers lives (Donald & R. Moussié, 2016, pp 3-4).

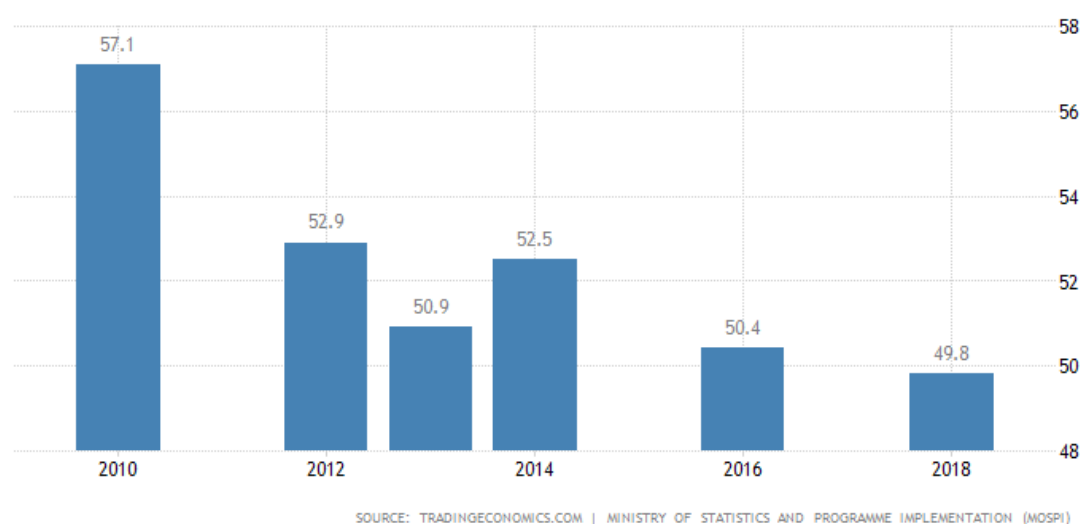
India, on July 1, 2017, imposed GST (Goods and services tax). The informal sector already faced the consequences by the demonetization and imposing GST may hit it further. (Financial express, 2017) According to the 2016 United Nations report lowering country's growth projection to 6.7 percent for 2017 from 7 percent. The informal sector, which still accounts for at least one-third of the country's GDP and more than four-fifths of employment was badly affected by the government's 'demonetisation' move in November 2016, and it may be further affected by the rollout of the GST from July 2017 (Financial express, 2017).

Why aren't Indian's women working? The economically growing nations create more jobs, but from 2004 to 2011 the percentage of women participation has fallen from 31 percent to 27 percent. The extracted data in the year reveals that women are becoming more educated, but the positive labour market effects typically associated with higher education is declining. Over a third of women engaged primarily in household say they would like a job (Pande & Moore, 2015, pp 46-49).

The Labour Force Participation Rate in India stood at 49.8 percent in the 2017-18 fiscal year, the Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS) of the National Sample Survey Office (NSSO), showed. Labor Force Participation Rate in India averaged 53.90 percent from 2005 until 2018, reaching an all time high of 63.70 percent in 2005 and a record low of 49.80 percent in 2018.

22

Figure 4: The Labour Force Participation Rate in India 2018²³



Much of the reason they don't work appears to lie in the persistence of India's traditional gender norms, which seek to ensure "purity" of women by protecting them from men other than their husbands and restrict mobility outside their homes. It must be mentioned that India is doing better in professional sector, where the working conditions are well. More than ten Indian companies are led by women in India. Another instance in aviation sector in 2015 about 11.5 percent of India's 5100 pilots are women, versus 3 percent worldwide (Pande & Moore, 2015, pp 46-48).

The first batch of women as fighter pilots in armed forces was about to graduate in 2018 also in September 2017 second time a female Defence Minister took oath to serve her country with full capacity.

²² India Labor Force Participation Rate (2018), Retrieved from <https://tradingeconomics.com/india/labor-force-participation-rate>

²³ Ibid

3.3 SOCIAL AND ECONOMIC STATUS OF WOMEN IN INDIA

According to the last two census India fares poorly in terms of indicators measuring the status of women. In the 2001 Census there are 927 females per 1000 males in India, which is a decline from 945 in 1991 and 962 in 1981 under the age group of 0-6 years. According to sample registration system, in 2015, sex ratio recorded was only 900 for the whole country, rural scored 903, whereas urban population has 890 per 1000 males. Whereas according to the 2017 Central Statistics Office Ministry of India report about youth in India in 2021 the ratio will abate by 931 per 1000 males. It further concluded that the sex ratio would further deteriorate by 898 females by the time we will reach 2031. However, the Indian population is divided into urban and rural and if the census reveals that the rural population is more balanced in sex ratio than the urban population (Youth of India, 2017, p 78; Handbook on states statistics, 2017, pp 58-60).

Amartya Sen, in his article published in the New York review of books reports, “The missing women”, describing the differences in mortality rates between men and women. These in turn reflected discrimination, mainly in health care, against girls and women. Between 2005 and 2010, the average ratio of females to males at birth for Europe as a whole was 943 females per 1,000 males Amartya Sen, (2013) According to the United Nations India had 106.98 males per 100 females in 2015. It means that India has 935 females per 1000 males. The world average in this matter is 101.7 males per 100 females. India is at 192th position out of 201 countries. Among Asian countries, India is at 42th position out of 50 (Amartya, 2014, 03).

Taking a quick review through the history of Indian women, in the 19th century, a reform movement worked on issues related with sati, polygamy, child marriage, which were macro studies. While the women in the West were working of equal rights, Indian women were still working against oppression. During the freedom struggle in 1930's and 1940's women contributed to their nation. That lead to a focus shift and resulted in women's participation in the economic, social and political development of India (Wendy, 2006, p. 67).

Educating the girl child

According to the 2017, South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation (SAARC) Development Goals India report it has been observed that retention rate in respect of girls is better than that of boys both at primary and elementary levels. As per Deployable

Instrumentation Systems Europe (DISE) 2015-16, the retention rate²⁴ at secondary level is 57.42 percent in 2015-16 as compared to 57.24 in 2014-15 at all India level. For boys, the retention rate has marginally improved from 57.68 percent in 2014-15 to 58.12 percent in 2015-16, whereas for girls it has slightly come down to 56.66 percent in 2015-16 from 56.76 percent in 2014-15 at secondary level. Based on a 2012 India's Ministry of Human Resources Development (2012) report, in tertiary education, female enrolment rose from 6.7 percent in 2002 to 19.8 percent in 2012, while that for men rose from 9.3 percent to 22.3 percent. Today, 52 percent of the girls not enrolled in secondary education found in the five states of Bihar, Madhya Pradesh, Maharashtra, Uttar Pradesh, and West Bengal. In both the selected countries enrolment of females at high school and college exceed their male counterparts. (South Asian Association for Regional Cooperation / SAARC, 2017, pp 12-20).

Violence against women in India

Although the projection of India in the Western media is hybridized, Western societies see India as a tribal nation. Having a huge number of rapes every day, there is no second opinion about the Indian society that it has a violent atmosphere, but this is not restricted to India only. Amartya Sen illustrates that if we go by the comparative statistics of reported rape, India has one of the lowest levels of rape in the world. The United Nations Office on Drugs and Crime found the incidence of rape in India for 2010 to be 1.8 per 100,000 people, compared with, for example, 27.3 in the US, and 28.8 in the UK, and 63.5 in Sweden, and 120.0 in South Africa (Amartya, 2013, p 02).

The number of recorded rapes in India is certainly a substantial underestimate, but even if we take five times or ten times that figure, the corrected and enlarged estimates of rapes would still be substantially lower in India than in the US, the UK, Sweden, or South Africa. This is true even with the assumption that there is no underreporting in these other countries (Amartya, 2013, p 03).

As per National Crime Records Bureau (NCRB) statistics, India witnessed 24,206 recorded rape incidents in 2011. There has been a 9.2 per cent increase in the number of rape incidents reported from 2007 to 2011. It is ironic; in India, a country where many female goddesses are

²⁴ **Retention rate** is the percentage of a **school's** first-time, first-year undergraduate students who continue at that **school** the next year. For example, a student who studies full-time in the fall semester and keeps on studying in the program in the next fall semester is counted in this **rate**.

worshiped, crimes against women are on the rise. Patriarchy is a system and an ideology wherein the father is considered as the head of the family and by virtue of this position.

The majority of cases under crimes against women were reported under ‘Cruelty by Husband or His Relatives’ (32.6 percent) followed by ‘Assault on Women with Intent to Outrage her Modesty’ (25.0 percent), ‘Kidnaping & Abduction of Women’ (19.0 percent) and ‘Rape’ (11.5 percent). Offences against a human body holds maximum share of crime in the report, 338.954 crimes against women are registered. Delhi reported 33.0 percent (13,803 out of 41,761 cases) of total cases of crimes against women followed by Mumbai (12.3 percent) (5,128 cases) in 2016. Delhi reported the highest crime rate (182.1) compared to the national average rate of 77.2 (Crime in India, 2016, pp 36-39).

The organization in order to present a compilation of Gender Statistics on various aspects, the Social Statistical Division (SSD) of the Government of India brings out an annual publication “Women and Men in India” since 1995. The publication focuses on gender perspective related to socio-economic indicators. It highlights the status of gender equity in the society, in the economy; share of health and education facilities for both the genders. The publication attempts to collate and portray gender-disaggregated data from various source agencies on various aspects (Annual report, 2016-2017, pp 48-54).

The social structure has many flaws like it is the case in many societies. In 2017 the Supreme Court has passed a law stating that ‘*triple talaq*’ (according to the shariya law divorce in the Muslim community in India) should no more stay in practice. In 1983, Shehanaz Sheikh, a 24-year-old Muslim woman divorced by her husband through oral talaq, filed a petition in the Supreme Court challenging the constitutional validity of the various provisions of the Muslim law and pleaded for the enactment of a Uniform Civil Code. The petition evoked wide publicity and the support of various women’s organizations in the country. However, subsequently, the petition was withdrawn, due to the apprehension in the post Shah Bano phase, that it could provide fuel in the hands of communal elements, Shah Bano commented (Flavia, 2012, p. 69).

3.4 SOCIAL AND ECONOMICAL STATUS OF WOMEN IN HUNGARY

The 2004 OECD Note for Hungary Report states that the status of Hungarian women changed during the former soviet era, the system was developed in response to two separate and distinct

needs. First was the desire to have full employment of women. The second was to support the maintenance of the population by encouraging childbirth (OECD report, 2004).

In the early 1990s on average 66 percent of the population were the females in Hungary. Between 1994-1999, the non-employment rate of Hungarian women grew up to 79 percent. “Being a housewife is just as fulfilling as working for pay”. Studies of the past few decades indicated more conservative public attitude in Hungary towards gender roles, particularly in the dimension of mothers’ employment, than in some of the other Visegrad countries. A study conducted in 2002 that aimed to find out public attitude towards mothers’ employment, showed that Hungarians were more conservative in their opinions regarding the placement of pre-school children in crèches than the Poles and the Czechs. 66 percent of the Hungarian population agreed, “A pre-school child is likely to suffer if her/his mother works”, as opposed to 57 percent of the Poles and 48 percent of the Czechs (Scharle, 2015, p 19).

According to Morgan and Zippel, long maternity leaves in Western Europe were shaped by a combination of conservative social policies promoted by reforming governments, high unemployment rates that supported women's retreat from paid work, and resulting political and social tensions around family policies and women's roles. Similarly, both public and private forms of materialism described above were shaped by the social conservatism of the political elites in power at the time policy changes were implemented (Morgan & Zippel, 2003, pp 228-239).

Compared with the 1980s, the composition of employed people by gender only changed slightly, the percentage of women increased from 43 percent in 1980 to 47 percent in 2011 (Lakatos, 2011, p 43), Ágota Scharle in her report to “Growth-Innovation Competitiveness: Fostering Cohesion in Central and Eastern Europe” (GRINCOH) further concluded that, the other trend that most authors highlight was contradiction of surfacing opinions of rejecting nurseries, but supporting the two-breadwinner family model (on average 90% of the population of these countries, less in Poland than in the other two countries). (Scharle, 2015) Haskova and Mudrak for the Czech Republic, but Michón, Blaskó, Fodor et al. identify similar patterns in Hungary and in Poland that while both men and women declare preference for the two-earner model and recognize the importance of the economic activity of the mothers, they are still supposed to return to the labour market without influencing or putting additional burden on the fathers’ economic activities. The tension of work-life reconciliation is still borne by the mothers (Haskova & Mudrak, 2012, pp 221-234; Michón 2010, p 82.; Blaskó 2005, p 90.; Fodor et al., 2002, p 75)

Work Participation

On April 19 2017, the Friedrich Naumann Foundation and Integrity Lab organized the “Women in Politics” conference in Budapest²⁵ that focused on gender equality, gender roles, and stereotypes in the Hungarian society. Contrary to expectations the citizens consider women far more competent to be politicians than the current leaders of the country. The Hungarian voters were much more open to vote for female politicians. The critical 10% and 0% indicates – the proportion of women in the Hungarian Parliament until the present day. According to the representative opinion poll from November 2016 and March 2017, 76 percent of the voters disagreed to the statement “female politicians are less capable to make hard decisions”. Also 84 percent of the voters disagreed that the reason for low rate of women in the parliament is that they are less competent to be politicians to pass the policy formatting laws. The Integrity lab further conducted personal interviews with those candidates who ran for constituency in the national elections in 2004. They mentioned that low participation of women in political leadership is because of the traditional feature of Hungarian society (Integrity Lab. 2017, p. 80).

The participation of Hungarian women in lawmaking has steeply declined in the year 2015. The European Gender Equality Index of the year projects that, only 1.5 percent of female ministers are in political positions whereas 98.5 percent ministers are men. The share among the Members of Parliament has a huge difference with 90.3 percent of men working with 9.7 percent of women. Continuing the trend with social and economic scales with board of directors only 11 percent women have participated whereas there are 0 percent women in share of members of research funding organizations (Gender Equality Index 2017, p. 173).

Nagy in her article presenting and overview of the situation in women’s position in top management in Hungary observes that in 2004-05 the participation of women has increased in management, but their ratio remained low in top management. Despite the long-term socialist emancipation, Hungarian research findings entirely coincide with European tendencies. It was felt that equal opportunities within organisations existed for both men and women, yet it was articulated that men and women have different skills and subsequently different roles in society and economy. This different perspective results in gendered work hierarchies and inequalities in opportunities. Further the research put it in nutshell that the second influence to this issue

²⁵ Women in Politics: Hungarian Attitudes, They Are A ‘Changing. May 15, 2017. <http://4liberty.eu/women-in-politics-hungarian-attitudes-they-are-achangin/>, Accessed on 18 August 2019.

lies in the traditional values of Hungarian society, which attribute women's abilities as manager less competent and not influential. At present, however, there appears to be a gender-neutral, at least gender policy inactive stance that is prevalent within Hungarian society. This reflects broader scale transition and restructuring, which have ignored gendered processes of change. While interacting with a middle aged female employee in a consultancy organization, she said. "If a younger woman wants to move forward, in her case it will be taken into consideration whether she has a family, and children, or if she is married but does not have any children. I know it very well, because she is explicitly asked about it. Some women told me about it, my friend told this to me as well. When she changed her job within the company she was asked whether she has children, because it is taken into account at the change of position." (Nagy, 2005)

In an interview with a male company owner of a manufacturing organization, who surrounds female workforce in non-traditional jobs, presented a similar opinion. He states, that "Unfortunately the case is that women, who are already in the age (of childbearing) who may be assumed to disappear at any moment have a high-risk that they will drop out of work, as they have dropped out several times. This is a risk. Apart from this, there is no differentiation. To say roughly we do not consider what is between the legs, but what is in the head." (Nagy, 2005, pp 123-127)

Her argument pointed out in the manifest way the male constructive norms of employment, particularly in the market-oriented sectors. A research was conducted by Herta Tóth on gender dilemmas of the work-life balance in Hungary, performed on 30 managers of a multinational business in Hungary. She concluded that the work life of female managers holds immense stress. In Hungary, work-life balance projects are likely to have a much better reception in companies than gender equality or women's programs would have (Crompton & Harris, 1998, pp. 185-193). Owing to the rather limited gender awareness and still-powerful traditional gender norms, companies and managers are likely to refuse outright or ridicule programs and measures that are introduced exclusively for women (Tóth, 2005).

According to the research on dual-earner families in Hungary, women spend 3-10 percent less time on paid work than men, but more than 200 percent more time on domestic work and childcare (Frey, 2001, p. 117).

In another research by Liisa Mäkelä, Vesa Suutari, Helene Mayerhofer, on work life balance concerns portrays the issues of female expatriates. The qualitative research conducted on 20 female expatriates concludes that the balance between female expatriates' work and private lives is a complex phenomenon and merits more attention. Comparison of experiences of Work Life Balance (WLB) between genders is needed in order to build an in-depth view of the phenomenon. For instance, social cognitive career theory may well be suitable to study the kinds of support available in the environment (Mäkelä, Suutari., Mayerhofer., 2011, pp 57-68).

Employment Discrimination and Financial Inequalities

According to the Census about employment and unemployment in Hungary in 2011, only 62 percent of women ageing between 25-29 were employed whereas their male counterparts scored 76 percent of employment rate. This trend sharply increased in the age group of 30-39 when 83.1 percent of men were drawing a salary when only 65.3 percent women were employed (Miklós, 2011, pp 48-49).

Figure: 5 Population by economic activity and sex 2016²⁶

Economic activity	1990	2001	2011	2016
Male				
Person in employment	2,513,659	2,002,956	2,101,551	2,436,550
Unemployed	84,538	255,894	304,364	140,774
Economically inactive receiving benefit	994,397	1,235,000	1,068,866	942,236
Dependent	1,392,310	1,356,800	1,243,698	1,157,982
Together	4,984,904	4,850,650	4,718,479	4,677,542
Female				
Person in employment	2,013,498	1,687,313	1,841,172	2,066,899
Unemployed	41,689	160,316	264,133	109,690
Economically inactive receiving benefit	1,663,858	2,070,541	1,880,861	1,786,056
Dependent	1,670,874	1,429,495	1,232,983	1,163,650
Together	5,389,919	5,347,665	5,219,149	5,126,295
Total				
Person in employment	4,527,157	3,690,269	3,942,723	4,503,449
Unemployed	126,227	416,210	568,497	250,464
Economically inactive receiving benefit	2,658,255	3,305,541	2,949,727	2,728,292

²⁶ Source: Gender Equality Index 2017, p. 93

Dependent	3,063,184	2,786,295	2,476,681	2,321,632
Total	10,374,823	10,198,315	9,937,628	9,803,837

According to the 2015 Gender Equality Index work indicators of Hungary only 42.6 percent was the women's employment rate comparing to 58.0 percent of their male counterparts. This perpetuates gender inequalities and had the effect of limiting the life choices of women and men in Europe (Gender Equality Index 2017, p. 93).

Labour market opportunities of women with young children after childbirth, a study conducted, describes that female employment in Hungary attains a much lower position compared to the 63 percent in the EU 28 member states with only 40 percent of the Hungarian women raising children under the age of 6 are working. This is almost 23 percent less than the EU 28 average. However, it should be noted that the Hungarian family policy institutional system offers a parental leave up to a maximum of three years for women after childbirth. The percentage of employed women with children under the age of 6 is very high in Sweden (81.6 percent), in other countries such as Slovenia, Portugal, the Netherlands, Austria, Luxemburg and Lithuania this percentage is over 70 percent (Fedor Toldi , 2017, pp.107-109).

Fedor and Toldi further conclude that mothers having children experience it as a clear labor market disadvantage. Mothers with the lowest school qualification are most likely to stay at home with the child even beyond three years, while mothers who have completed secondary school or have a higher education degree do not. It appears that the reason mothers with a low school qualification plan to stay at home longer and not return to work is that there is very little difference between the unfavorable wage in the labor market and the amount of maternity allowance. According to the research results, mothers have difficulty in balancing the eight-hour work schedule and family tasks (Fedor Toldi A. 2017, pp 107-109).

Parental leave policies and cultural pressures are tilted towards mothers of young children staying at home. This is reinforced by a shortage of affordable childcare options. Older women are forced to care for elderly relatives in light of limited availability of long-term care, and in contrast to efforts to roll back early retirement schemes and encourage participation a new early retirement program for women was established in 2011. On the labour market, the wage gap between men and women has grown and tax policies result in higher marginal tax rates for second earners. A number of factors affect FLMP in Hungary. Parental leave policies and cultural pressures are tilted towards mothers of young children staying at home. This is

reinforced by a shortage of affordable childcare options. Older women are forced to care for elderly relatives in light of limited availability of long term care and in contrast to efforts to roll back early retirement schemes and encourage participation a new early retirement program for women was established in 2011. On the labour market, the wage gap between men and women has grown and tax policies result in higher marginal tax rates for second earners (IMF Country Report Hungary 2015, pp 23-26).

According to the 2013 Gender Pay Gap EU Report in Hungary women take charge of important unpaid tasks, such as household work and take care of children or relatives on a far larger scale than men. Men on average spend 9 hours per week on unpaid care and household activities, while women work 26 hours – that is almost 4 hours every day. In the labour market, this is reflected by the fact that more than 1 in 3 women reduce their paid hours to part-time, while only 1 in 10 men do the same. Lower employment rates for example when interrupting a career to take care of children or relatives. The gender overall earnings gap in Hungary stands at 32.7 percent while the average gender overall earnings gap in the EU is 41.1 percent. The gender pay gap is the difference in average gross hourly wage between men and women across the economy. In Hungary, the gender pay gap stands at 18.4%. In comparison, the average gender pay gap in the EU is 16.3 percent (Gender Pay Gap, 2013).

The impact of recent activation policies has been uneven. The overall Female Labour Force Participation Rate (FLFPR) increased from 2.8 percent during 2008-13, to 50.6 percent in 2013. A decomposition of this increases by education groups and controlling for “passive” demographic effects (i.e., changes in the absolute size of these groups) reveals that activation policies primarily induced a significant increase in participation amongst women with primary education or less. In other words, while the share and the total number of women with primary education in the female labour force decreased substantially, their participation rate also went up significantly. This was possibly induced by measures such as tightened access to benefits and participation requirements in public works programs. At the other end of the spectrum, a much larger share of working-age women now holds tertiary degrees. While this shift in itself is pushing up the aggregate FLFPR, controlling for its impact shows that women with tertiary education actually decreased their participation. This calls into question the efficacy of activation policies aimed at higher income groups, including tax incentives and attempts at making parental leave policies more flexible (IMF Country Report Hungary, 2015).

In 1980 female graduates were half the number of male graduate of same age group. However slowly and gradually over the years they attained a balanced proportion with the male graduates. In terms of labor market opportunities, women are at a disadvantage when compared to men, but the situation is the opposite at school. The National Review of Hungary states that there are ample number of opportunities in basic school and upper secondary school curriculum to learn about gender roles and gender stereotypes; the topic is included in several subject areas (Education for all 2015).

Whereas Jeannette A.E in a survey conducted on students from Hungarian universities concluded that there were topics based on gender and on female writers, but it depended upon the teachers if they want to emphasize on the topic focusing on gender or not. If the teacher is a female one, she focuses on teaching gender awareness programmes, whereas if there is a male teacher he would teach it in a different form or may be not interested in gender term. One student responded that both male and female students were valued differently and treated differently from each other based on their sex (Jeannette, 2008, p 31).

The examination of gender distribution sheds light on an interesting correlation. Women are overrepresented among students of undivided programmes, while the vast majority of students in traditional university programmes are men. At the other educational levels, the gender ratio is approximately even (Orsolya, 2014, pp. 98-107).

Violence

The acts of violence targeting women are the corollary of structural inequalities experienced by women in the field of work, health, money, power, education and time use. From this point of view, violence against women brings an important aspect to the core domains of the Gender Equality Index. This fundamental difference between the domains of the Gender Equality Index and the violence against women domain justifies the fact that this domain is treated as a satellite. The statistical analysis of violence against women in Hungary and the European Union has a closer meaning. Where 33.0 percent women in EU have experienced physical and sexual violence since the age 15, Hungarian women of the same age recorded only 27.7 percent. The 2015 report further states that 13.1 percent of the cases in Hungary are such in which women experiences physical and sexual violence, but never disclosed. Furthermore, 42 percent of women in Hungary experienced sexual harassment by any perpetrator (Gender Equality Index, 2017, p. 63).

A study on the classroom effects of male violence toward women states “the presence of sexual violence can circumscribe women’s lives by creating a climate in which they are regularly reminded of the potential to experience such violence directly and adjust their daily lives accordingly.” This violent form of social intimidation may cause female students to subconsciously socially withdraw or curtail their physical movement or verbal engagement. Despite all issues women respondents denied that there was any gender bias in higher education, or did not place an importance on the gender bias they had witnessed. This raises a question whether there is a lack of consciousness or articulated feminism among the respondents. This mindset might be an obstacle to the cultivation of a feminist or activist consciousness, without which the gender inequality within Hungarian higher education cannot be addressed (Jeannette, 2008, pp 174-189).

Employment of Women in the Armed forces

The motto "Do or Die" has been used by various leaders during their nations freedom movements. For instance by Subhash Chandra Bose during India’s freedom movement became famous, too. But Conquer or Die contains an intense motivation amongst the warriors in 18th century living for one dream that is to serve their king with complete dedication and fearlessness. The fearless female ruler in Hungarian history, Ilona Zrínyi has been honored in countless ways, and was depicted in the Romantic paintings of Viktor Madarász. Countess Ilona Zrínyi was born in 1643 into one of the most renowned noble families of Croatian and Hungarian history. The family, whose roots have been traced back to Dalmatia in the 11th century, was originally named Subic. In 1347, one of its ancestors took possession of Zrin (Zerin) Castle in Slavonia, so that henceforth the family's name would be Zrínyi (or Zrinski). The clan entered into Hungarian history and legend with the life of Count Miklós (Nikola) Zrínyi (1508–1566), who was both a Hungarian magnate and *ban* (ruler) of Croatia.²⁷ The Kingdom of Dahomey had a force comprising of 4000 audacious women warriors and has defeated the French military many times in 18th century. “Women warriors”, why the term need to be defined in this way? In fact Warrior is a gender-neutral and the human being imbibe those qualities of warrior earns it.

²⁷ Zrínyi, Ilona (1643–1703) Dec 04 2019 <https://www.encyclopedia.com/women/encyclopedias-almanacs-transcripts-and-maps/zrinyi-ilona-1643-1703>

For the better part of 200 years, thousands of female soldiers fought and died to expand the borders of their West African kingdom. Even their conquerors, the French, acknowledged their “prodigious bravery.”²⁸ Another term to revise upon why the soldiers are defined as women soldiers whereas there is no such term called male soldiers as the society in 18th century was more open to accept warrior as gender free and use to honour every warrior regardless if male or female. In this paper the author will discuss female warriors who served their nation in 18th century. The analyses of African, European and Asian warriors will be portrayed under this topic. The Dahomey warriors and India’s Queen of Jhansi’s Laxmi Bai has already casted a dye which proves that women as soldiers are stable for the combat roles. This is the sixty four thousand dollars question according to the modern military leaders if women could fit in the combat positions. The history holds various answers and the modern technology have made it easier to perform together in the area of command and action.²⁹

The establishment of armed forces has roots deep in history, in times when the proportion in men in arms of any country was higher than that of women. Nowadays in most countries, women have equal rights to participate in almost all the working sectors. However, the participation of women in the Indian Army was initiated in 1992 whereas it was founded in 1895. In the 19th century, women got their place in defense forces with a limited quota to serve.

Major Employment Challenges

The Delhi High Court announced it would not allow “sexist bias” to block women’s progress. Female officers in the IAF were not entitled to a pension, because for this to achieve a minimum of 20 years of service was required. However, on 5th September 2015 a landmark judgment at the Delhi High Court announced women to be granted with permanent commission in the Navy, ensuring that female naval officers enjoy rights similar to their male counterparts in the Army and the Air Force. A group of female officers, both retired and serving, from the Logistics Corps filed the petitions to the education and air traffic control departments of the Navy. (Baweja, 2015, p 2; Iqbal, 2015, p 4).

Hungary participates in NATO missions, in which all positions are open to women. Yet most servicewomen serve in medical, public information, communications, administration or logistic roles, and only a few of them serve in infantry squads or other combat positions. The

²⁸ Mike (2011), Dahomey warriors, Retrieved from <http://www.smithsonianmag.com/history/dahomeys-women-warriors-88286072/#VGHvA6aHTZ1Q4OS4.99>

²⁹Ibid

participation of Hungarian female soldiers in multinational operations is successful. There are officers, NCO's and contract soldiers in every mission the HDF participates in. They have to meet the same requirements, and live under the same conditions as men (Kecskeméthy, 2010, pp. 159-160) In contrast, the bulk of the Indian Army is deployed in rugged areas of the country. The posts are isolated and basic facilities are not available for months, operational tasking warrants working in close proximity with men. There are roughly a dozen nations that have opened close combat roles to women; however, it took them a decade to go through the process of integration. In the Indian context, induction of women in combat arms can be considered in a graduated manner, provided they meet the desired physical and professional standards. In the training academy, female officer candidates volunteering to join the combat arms need to pass the same tests as are applicable to male cadets to be posted to the combat arms as young officers (Hansi, 2015, pp 2-6).

Secondary motivation is the evaluation system as it is seen an advantage to have mission experiences gained abroad (Kecskeméthy, 2010, pp 159-160).

A recent research project titled “Women Officers in Indian Army and Work Environment: Indian Perspective” surveyed 600 seniors, juniors, peers, subordinates, women officers and parents. A mixed response was found to the question of whether women officers were willing to lead male troops on a patrol or an ambush. It was noted that female officers with lower age in the service group of one to four years felt thrilled, considering it an adventure activity. Married female officers in the service group of five to eight years considered this out of context and felt nervous and bewildered at the thought of a single woman amongst male soldiers. Some senior officers were evasive and non-committal, while the majority were not in favour of sending female officers on night duty or on ambush and convoy protection duties in counterinsurgency areas. In the HDF forces physical fitness is tested for all personnel annually. Each soldier must meet those requirements in order to be suitable for further military service. The fitness test consists of the same elements (3200 m running, push-ups, sit-ups), but differs by gender and age (Baweja, 2015, p 2; Iqbal, 2015, p 8).

Steps were taken to build up the family support system in Hungary if married couples with children serve in the army, and one of them is on a mission abroad, the other family member with child younger than six years old is exempt from 24 hours duty. The army adopted the civilian law on maternal leave, according to which servicewomen are entitled to six months of

maternity leave. After this period, they can be assigned to personnel reserve status for one more year (Kecskeméthy, 2010, p. 166).

In the Indian Army due to certain social and domestic obligations and physical constraint, military service poses a greater challenge for female officers in comparison to their male counterparts. Their role as wife and / or mother adversely affect their availability to the organization, more so at sub-unit level, where the lack of officers is high. Maternity leave of 180 days, 60 days each of annual leave and furlough deny a unit of an officer for 10 months with no relief forthcoming (Hansi, 2015, p 02) With women forming nearly half of the Indian population, there is a mandated requirement to ensure their proportionate representation in the service in a graduated manner, keeping the exigencies of the respective Service in mind. With a focus of war-fighting shifting to more technologically advanced battles, proliferated with sophisticated platforms and non-contact standoff operations in the realm of cyber, space, intelligence and perception management, adequate avenues increasingly exist for the employment of women in the Indian Army (Hansi, 2015, p 1).

Hansi further concluded though most developed countries have female officers commanding certain non-combat units; women are also enrolled in all ranks. In the Indian context, the prevailing service conditions, the socio-cultural mindset, limited command experience and employment of women only as officers has precluded assignments of command responsibilities to female officers (Hansi, 2015, p 3).

If one compares women in the Indian armed forces with women in the Royal British forces, the differences become visible. In the latter 71% of jobs are open for women in the logistics and warfare branches. Women are commanding or executive officers of various vessels such as mine-hunters and frigates. Sixteen women qualified as principal warfare officers, six as pilots and 22 as observers. Approximately 1200 women serve in a selection of 57 ships in all ranks and rates. A further 130 are serving in other operational or sea-going posts with the remaining being shore-based or under training. There are also females commanding reserve forces units. Servicewomen also fill a variety of roles in operational theatres including Iraq, Afghanistan and the Balkans (Baweja, 2015, p 2).

Recently in the Indian Air Force, women were allowed to apply for the fighter pilot position. Due to cultural biases and preconception, the reaction of male Indians to this opportunity was not highly positive. People of the nation do not believe in the capacity of female officers in the IAF, as the troops will not accept a female officer as their leader because of the cultural barriers

about women. However, in 2017 the first batch of three female fighter pilots has graduated from Indian Air Force Academy. The three operate supersonic fighters (Kaur, 2016, p 184).

The number of professional and contractual female soldiers in the Hungarian Armed Forces increased annually. The growth in the number of female soldiers in ensign and junior officer positions was especially noteworthy. This delightful though problematic growth can be traced back to two causes. One is a significant change in the proportion (the absolute number) of civil and officer assignments in the Hungarian Armed Forces, the other the outpouring of professionals (men) from the military due to better opportunities in civilian life. The Hungarian Armed Forces must therefore cope with a situation in which not only are women soldiers assigned to positions traditionally regarded as appropriate for women but also to many traditionally male positions. Despite the increased number of women employed in its midst, the military remains both physically and psychologically a male profession. That is, confidence, roughness, determination, endurance of physical hardships, competitiveness, the ability to make quick decisions and form opinions, lack of sentimentality, and attempting to be rational--all regarded as male characteristics--are desired. The integration of women into the military who have characteristics differing from the above or who manifest these characteristics in way alien to their sex is a task that needs special attention.³⁰

Special attention should be given not only to the woman choosing the military profession but also to the environment receiving her, with, it is hoped, self criticism and tolerance of the "other." Sometimes this integration is problematic, due to leadership factors, especially when members of society confuse special attention with special treatment, i.e. the receiving or giving of special allowances. Special treatment or allowances in the military are not given for "nominal claims" by the "weaker sex" but are given in special medical or social situations. Moreover, this special treatment applies to both men and women in the force. (There is only one allowance that is given to women only, i.e. one regarding pregnancy, childbirth, and child care). There is a need for special attention, if not for special treatment, on the part of female soldiers as well as their superiors, because society and the family socialize a model that traditionally differentiates between the socializing norms for the sexes. As a result, the family

³⁰ Bolgar. J. (1999): *Women in the Hungarian Armed Forces* |Minerva: Quarterly Report on Women and the Military, Fall-Winter 1999, Retrieved from <https://www.questia.com/read/1G1-66239873/women-in-the-hungarian-armed-forces>

and educational institutions naturally make more effort to develop characteristics important and useful to the military in boys; than in girls.³¹

Institutions for socialization into the military need to correct those attitudes but can do so only when lawful and justified by helping the organization's effective functioning. Those directing and enforcing the corrective process are obliged to accomplish it in ways that enrich the individual and do not cause physical or psychologically harm. Military training for women today is a tough assignment. It is only since 1994 that young women have had the chance to take certain military officer courses. The officer training schools also--in part due to necessity, in part to promote equal opportunity for women--have to deal with an increased number of women. The drastic change in the ratio of the effective military force (civil servant to professional ratio) means that the training of a significantly larger number of women (with many years' experience in civil service) as junior officers requires considerable effort.³²

To get an objective picture of the characteristic value orientations, working conditions, and professional and work-related motivations of professional female soldiers, we have expanded our research in those areas.

“Do You Have It in You?” the Indian Army recruitment information pamphlets with this line fills the aspirants with high morale, but it is time female officers asked themselves “If They Have It in Them?” Unlike in Hungary, the resolution of possible conflicts in India requires a bilateral compromise, since women have to be part of it with empathy and in a positive way in order to resolve the organizational conflicts that represent masculine values. The measure of the acceptance of women is possible only based on equal performance and treatment. In other words, women rightfully expect objective evaluation based on their performance, but they must then accept the results of it (Kecskeméthy, 2010, p. 166).

³¹ Ibid

³² ibid

3.5 SUMMARY

The chapter concludes the work participation and social structure of women in Indian and Hungarian society. The literature portrays the social and economical status of women in the societies. According to the Census report in India the sex ratio after every 1000 males is only 900 females. It is further categorized into urban and rural where the situation is worst in case of Urban population wherein after every 1000 males there are only 890 females, which is alarming.

Whereas in Hungary, the case opposite female ratio and the economical participation of women is much higher than India where unemployment is the biggest issue. Secondly, the cultural barriers further hinders the growth of women in India. They are not allowed to work as their income is not accepted by the families. Whereas in case of Hungary despite Gender inequal pay parity women are more actively participating in the economic of Hungary. The economic participation of women in defense forces is relatively not that old but Female Servicemembers in Hungary are more in number because other ranks are open for women in Hungary. But only officer ranks are available which limits their number in Armed forces. Another observation from a cultural point of view that the states where the sex ratio of females is less they are more likely to join forces than the females from the other states. This is because females in India are pushing the cultural barriers where the resistance is more. Hungary has a standard set of instructions under NATO and EU which keep them standardised economically and culturally.. The following chapter will further define the role of women in the armed forces.

CHAPTER IV

ROLE OF WOMEN IN THE ARMED FORCES

4.1 THEORETICAL APPROACH

Before comparing the status of women in Indian and Hungary, it is relevant to discuss their general status in some selected countries. The participation ranges from gender equality in training and deployment and their feminine identities.

According to the Summary of the National reports of NATO Member and Partner Nations to the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (2016) more than 96% of NATO member nations include gender in pre-deployment training and exercises, and almost 78% include gender in operational planning and 74% of NATO member nations have trained gender advisors and 42.3% have gender focal points (GFP). Almost 81% of NATO member nations reported providing education and training programmes related to gender. All percentages increased from 2015 to 2016.

4.2 NATO COUNTRIES

Figure 6: Representation of Men and Women in the Armed Forces of NATO Member Nations³³

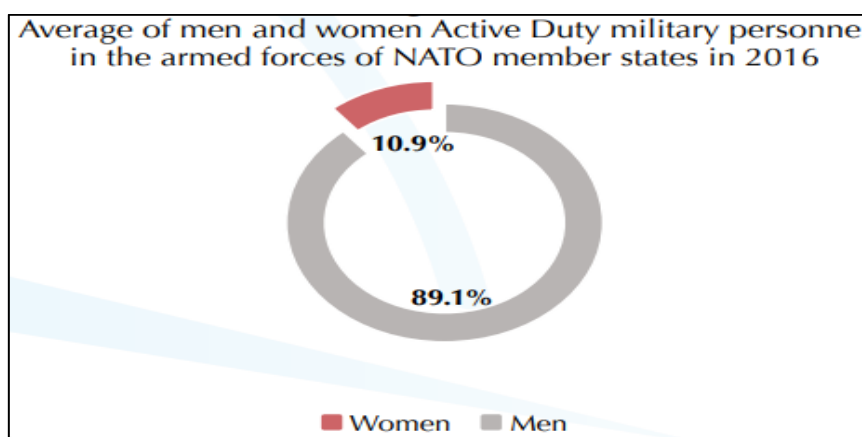


Figure 6 illustrates the average of men and women active duty military personnel in armed forces of NATO member states in 2016. The average percentage of women in NATO member nations is 10 percent, whereas the country wise percentage differs.

³³Source: Summary of the National reports of NATO Member and Partner Nations to the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (2016) https://www.nato.int/nato_static_fl2014/assets/pdf/pdf_2018_01/1801-2016-Summary-NR-to-NCGP.pdf, retrieved on December 20, 2017.

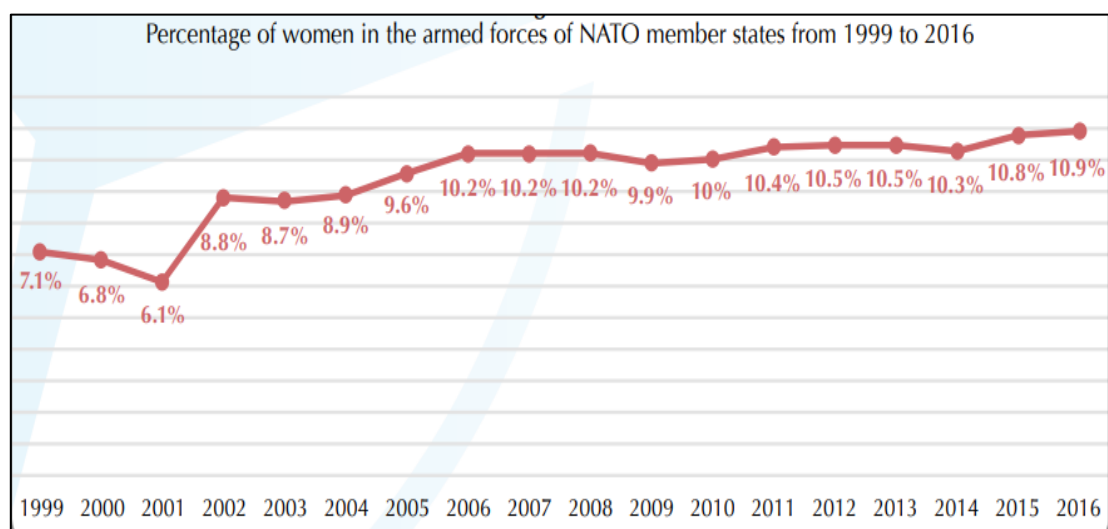
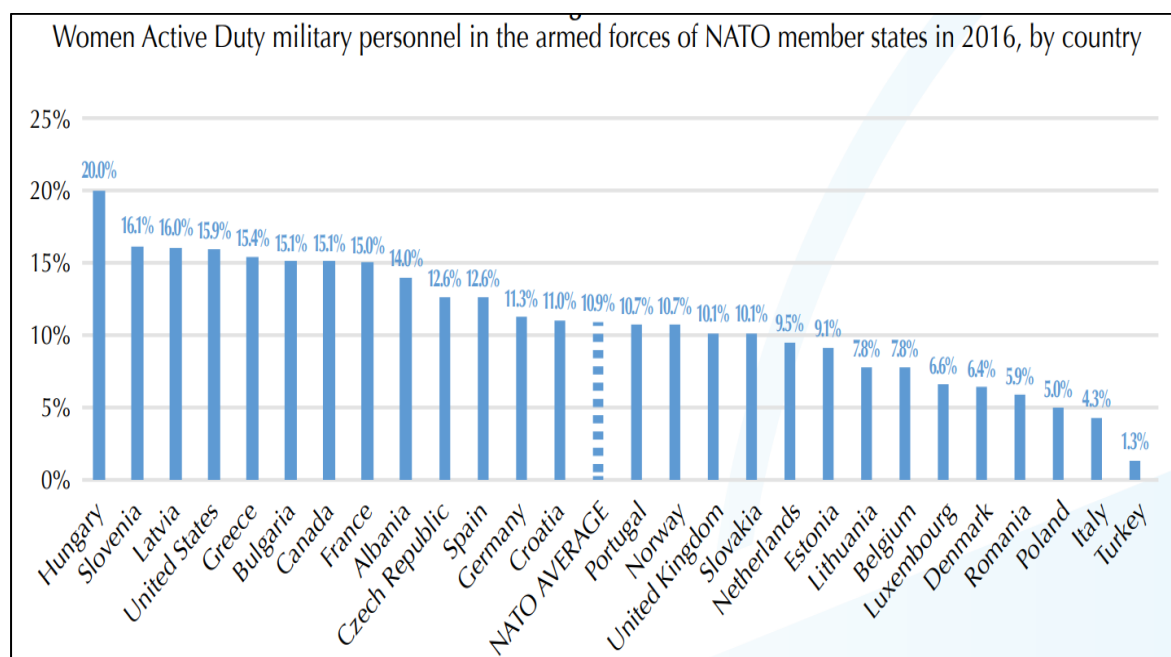
Figure 7: Percentage of women in the NATO member states from 1999-2016³⁴

Figure 7 illustrates the data from 1999 to 2016 the participation of women in NATO member nations has demonstrated an increment from seven to ten percent. The above line graph presents the average percentage of women in the NATO member nations. Though there is a steady increase through the years as the employment structures, social acceptance and the availability of various roles in the armed forces has resulted in this steady change. Moreover the population of European nations has led to more participation of women in the armed forces. In most of the nations the conscript army was practiced and even today in some nations it is followed. Earlier women were not a part of such forces but today they are given more opportunities and most of the women find the career in the armed forces more attractive from employment perspective.

³⁴ Gender Perspectives, 2016

Figure 8: Women active duty military personnel in the armed forces of NATO member states in 2016, by country³⁵



In figure 8 data presented from 2000 when the participation of women in the HDF was 16 percent till 2016 it reached 20 percent in a decade. It is highest amongst other NATO nations, but the ratio of women over the decade increased at a very slow pace. Military officials in general say that they are supporting women in every field and in most NATO nations the combat positions are open for them. The actual participation of women in combat is still classified **Hungary** was observing 16 percent women in armed forces and Latvia was at top with 20 percent of women's participation in the armed forces, but today the situation is reversed. But the armed forces organisation is an attractive employment work place for women in both countries.³⁶

Slovenia has the second highest participation of women. The number of females in the Slovenian armed forces is 16.1 percent. In 2016, almost 10 per cent of military staff and more than 20 per cent of police personnel deployed to international operations and missions. Moreover, this spring, Slovenia gladly answered to the United Nations call to appoint women

³⁵Source: Summary of the National reports of NATO Member and Partner Nations to the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (2016)https://www.nato.int/nato_static_fl2014/assets/pdf/pdf_2018_01/1801-2016-Summary-NR-to-NCGP.pdf, retrieved on December 20, 2017.

³⁶ Summary of the National reports of NATO Member and Partner Nations to the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives, 2016, pp 25-30

in command positions by contributing the first woman contingent commander to the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon (Kuret, 2017, pp 59-62).

Major General Alenka Ermenc was born in 1963 in Ljubljana.

She is a graduate of the Faculty of Social Sciences of the University in Ljubljana (Bachelor of Political Studies). She joined the Territorial Defence of the Republic of Slovenia in 1991 and was awarded the Bronze Medal of General Maister with Swords for her active participation in the War for Slovenia.

In 2008, Major General Ermenc graduated from the Royal College of Defence Studies in London. In 2009, she completed her postgraduate studies at the King's College University of London and obtained the Master of International Studies degree.

Her assignments in the Slovenian Armed Forces (SAF) include a tactical-level command duty and operational- and strategic-level staff duties related to operations, personnel and training. In the multinational forces operation KFOR, she served as Chief of the Personnel Department at KFOR Headquarters (NATO HQ KFOR), a substitute to the Deputy Chief of Staff, Support (DCOS SPT HQ KFOR), and an adviser on personnel matters to KFOR Commander. Throughout her career, she has actively participated in a number of SAF exercises in Slovenia and abroad, as well as in NATO and EU crisis management exercises. Additionally, she has been a member of various inter ministerial and sectoral project- and working groups, boards and commissions.

United Stateswomen in armed forces serve in all ranks and some combat positions are open for their participation. According to the NATO gender report (2016), women in the U.S. armed forces are less likely to be with the Marines with 7 percent only compared. Female service members who participated in missions abroad were 18 percent till 2016. (NATO gender report, 2016, pp 10-14)

The NATO gender report (2016) states that there are 15.8 percent women serving in **Australian Defence Forces** (ADF). Whereas the distribution of women in the Army, Air force and Navy is proportionate, with 41 percent, 30 percent and 29 percent respectively, only 12 percent of Australian female service members have served in missions abroad till 2016. Although female participation in the ADF is striking at a slow pace, but it is in their 2023 target to increase the participation of women by making the Australian armed forces career more attractive to them

and also retention of current serving women. All positions are open for women in all three services (Women in the ADF, 2015-16. p. 149).

According to the NATO gender report (2016), the participation of women in **Greece** is 15.4 percent. Greece observed a hike throughout a decade. In 2006 female service members were only 4.3 percent. According to the report, the recruitment pool for the Hellenic Armed Forces had been shrinking gradually since about 1980 because the population was aging and each recruiting age-group was accordingly smaller. In 1994 the prime recruiting group of 18-22 included 370,000 men. Because of the country's demographics, the Ministry of National Defense announced in 1994 that women may be required to participate in some military training in National Guard units. For a better understanding of the situation in 1985 the armed forces had 201,500 personnel. In 1994 the total number was 159,300, of whom 122,300 (77 percent) were conscripts and 5,900 were women. The Hellenic Army numbered 113,000, the Air Force 26,800, the Navy 19,500 (NATO gender report, 2016).

According to the Bulgarian National Report (2004), at the beginning of 2003 1890 women served in the **Bulgarian Armed Forces** (BAF), 1060 of them being professional soldiers. Military women consisted of 4.2 percent of the total number of the Bulgarian Army, whilst women officers were 1.2 percent from the overall number of officers. They were appointed to jobs where physical capabilities were not the main factor and that excluded direct engagement in combat activities. 37 percent of the serving women officers were in the Land Forces, 35 percent in the Air Forces, 6.4 percent in the Maritime Forces and 21.6 percent in the General Staff. The reasons for that are basically connected with the high unemployment rate in the small provincial towns and the social stability, which the army gives to them. The status of women in the BAF has changed from 4.2 in 2003 to 15.1 percent, which is almost equal to United States of America. BAF has served in missions abroad and the role of female soldiers was dealing with administration, technical and logistics (Bulgarian National Report, 2004, pp 02-25).

According to the NATO Gender Report (2016) **Albanian Armed Forces** (AAF) consist of 14 percent of women service members. A report on gender equality in the AAF states none of these women held leadership positions. However, of them 29.8 percent held decision-making positions, and 51.2 percent held specialist positions. (Embassy of Sweden in Tirana, 2013). However, in his report on Albanian Training resources on Defence reform and Gender states that, no women have attained senior officer levels (Brigadier-General/Commodore), and that

whilst women are most highly represented in the Air Force (14.7 percent). There is a law, which hinders the promotion of women at higher positions or from joining combat branch. (Franks, J, 2013, pp 83-90)

Canada has 15 percent female service members in their nation's armed forces. In Canada a total 11 percent of women participated in all missions, whereas in NATO missions the percentage dropped by 3 percent from the total missions they participated in the year 2016. (NATO Gender Report, 2016, pp 13-19). In the 2014-2015 fiscal year statistics indicated that about 50 percent of women in the Canadian Armed Forces (CAF) was concentrated in six occupations: resource management support clerks, supply technicians, logistics officers, medical technicians, nursing officers, and cooks. The gap between the required and actual numbers of trained and effective regular force members increased from 2.3 percent in 2011-12 to 4.2 percent in 2015-16 fiscal year (Fall reports of the Auditor General of Canada, 2016, pp 72-79).

In Canada initially started inducting females service members as a nurse as their career in 1885. In 1982, Canada adopted the Canadian Charter of Rights and Freedom, which prohibits discrimination based on race, national or ethnic origin, colour, religion, sex, age and mental or physically disability. Afterwards women were free to join any area of employment to enhance their career opportunities in the CAF. In 2003 Major Anne Reiffenstein was the first female to command a combat arms sub-unit. Lieutenant-Commander Marta Mulkins was the first woman to serve as a captain of a Canadian warship. Major Jennie Carignan became the first female Deputy Commanding Officer of a combat arms unit, for 5 Combat Engineer Regiment (5 CER). In 2016 Brigadier-General Jennie Carignan became the first female general in the CAF combat arms. Lieutenant-General Chris Whitecross became the first female Commandant of the NATO Defense College in Rome (Factsheet Canada, 2017, pp 56-60).

French women can take any army posts except those, which involve the possibility of direct combat. Women cannot serve on submarines or marine commando branches. (Ratcliffe, 2011, pp. 89-92) Career progression for women in the French Navy is the same as their male counterparts. The exception is that women who are mothers and were on active duty before January 1, 1999 must volunteer for sea duty. All personnel who join the Navy after January 1, 1999 are eligible for sea duty regardless of rank or family status. Sea trials for women began in the mid-1980s and took effect in 1993. Today, eight warships include mixed gender crews and the addition of the aircraft carrier, Charles de Gaulle, in the summer of 2000 the number

of women on board of French naval vessels almost doubled. Women at sea serve as helicopter pilots, watch officers, helmsmen, electricians, administration personnel, cooks, and missile engineers. Naval vessels continue refurbishing efforts to accommodate female personnel onboard. In the Army, the management and promotion of female officers and NCOs follow the same rules and go through the same departments as the men. Servicewomen serve in transportation, signals, ordnance, administration, supply and other specialties (NATO Report, 2001, pp 12-30).

In the **Czech Republic**, the Army cleared to get first woman General, Colonel Lenka Šmerdová. At the moment, there are exactly 2985 women, which make up 13 percent of all professional soldiers. Most of them are in the ranks of Sergeant Majors and among the lower officers, but you can also see them among the higher officers (Fraňková, 2017, pp. 33-40).

According to a 2003 NATO report, in general, female soldiers in the Czech Armed Forces (CZAF) have lower ranks than their male counterparts. The fastest promotion rate exists among lower ranks (the shortest period of holding a rank is 1-2 years). There are no specializations in the CZAF from which women would be barred. That being said, most women hold economic, administrative, legal, personnel, and technical positions at the lower management level. They much more often than their male counterparts work as staff employees, flight control operators, flight control assistants, nurses, and doctors. In the case of the Czech Army, 22% of female soldiers are in such positions (approximately 2.5 times fewer than men). Their average age is 32 years. One of the reasons why women in the CZAF are less often promoted to command positions than their male counterparts is due to the fact that their maternal role they tend to be interested in professions characterized by regular working hours, lesser time demands, and lesser requirements for physical capabilities, fieldwork, and direct command over a large number of soldiers.³⁷

In **Spain**, the first woman to the Spanish Armed Forces (SAS) orFAE (Fuerzas Armadas Españolas) was appointed in 1988. By the Real Decree-law 1/1988 of February 22, it is regulated for the first time, the incorporation of the Woman to the Armed forces, although with access limitations to certain bodies and certain destinations (Spain's Annual Report, 2005-2006, pp 05-15).

³⁷NATO,(2003). Czech Armed Forces. National Report for CWINF Year 2003. *NATO*. Retrieved on December 14, 2017 from https://www.nato.int/ims/2003/win/national_reports/czech.pdf

In November 2009, Patricia Ortega became the first woman to attain the rank of lieutenant colonel in the SAS. "Women are now able to pursue the career path they wish within the armed forces; there are no quotas or particularities applied to the sexes. Both have the same tasks, training and education, responsibilities, salaries, and are subject to the same disciplinary procedures," says Ismael Kasrou, the head of the Defense Ministry's Equality Observatory. There are now women fighter pilots (1.7 percent of the total), submariners (9.7 percent), and 4.5 percent of those serving in special units are also women. In February 2007, Private Idoia Rodríguez Buján was killed in an explosion in Afghanistan, making her the first female soldier to be killed in a conflict zone. In total, women make up 12.3 percent of the armed forces, but while they represent 16.9 percent of infantry and navy units, far fewer reach senior positions: just 7.3 percent of officers are women, and only 3.2 percent are NCOs. The Defense Ministry says that the percentage of navy commanders or lieutenant captains – currently 6.3 percent – will eventually be the same as for lieutenants and sub-lieutenants (13.7 percent) (González, 2013, pp 14-21).

In **Germany** until January 2000, women could only join the Bundeswehr in the Medical Service and the Military Music Bands. After the unprecedented decision by the European Court of Justice in January 2000, women have to be allowed to work generally in every service and specialty of the Bundeswehr. According to the 2006 NATO gender report Germany contains 11.5 percent of female in the Bundeswehr. (NATO report, 1999-2000, pp 10-25).

Ursula von der Leyen, the former defence minister of Germany was embarrassed in an interview to The Telegraph and said, that there is only one female General in the German Armed forces till now. "In the [military] paramedics, we have just as many young women doctors as young men doctors," she said. "But at the top [of the army], we see almost no women" she said (Huggler, 2015, pp 92-97).

A study was conducted in 2011 by the Federal Ministry of Defense, based on surveys carried out by the Center of Military History and Social Sciences of around 5,000 members of the Bundeswehr, both male and female. The key questions posed were: "How well are women integrated into the army?", "Are they accepted by their male superiors and comrades?", "Are they vulnerable to sexual harassment?" and "What career opportunities do they have?" The German army has lost some of its appeal as an employer of women over the past years. According to recent surveys, only 57.3 percent of women serving in the Bundeswehr say they would choose their job again. By comparison, the figure was nine percentage points higher in

2005. Additionally, only 34.6 percent said they would recommend this path to a female friend (Marx, 2014, pp. 45-50).

Croatia got its first female General (temporary rank) Gordana Garašić in 2014, the first female officer of the Croatian Armed Forces (CRAF) assigned to a general post in ISAF in the quality of Gender Advisor to the ISAF Commander. Female service member's holds 11 percent women in the CRAF. They hold managerial or command duties and 40% of the senior official duties in the Ministry, placing Croatia among the top NATO nations (Ministry of Defence of the Republic of Croatia, 2014, pp 10-15).

Portuguese Armed Forces (PAF) included women for the first time in 1961, with the creation of an all-female corps in the air force. These first women were trained as parachutists with the mission of providing nursing assistance during the war in Portugal's overseas territories in Africa and served in combat areas in Angola, Mozambique and Guinea-Bissau during the 13-year colonial conflict. Portuguese women found this an attractive opportunity. During the years of 1992 and 1993 about 3500 candidates applied for the army, navy and air force. Indeed, the number of female candidates has always been much higher than the number of those actually enlisted. In 2000 almost 300,000 women served as volunteers in the armed forces of 17 of the 19 NATO nations (Carreiras, 2002, pp 32-39).

According to the NATO Gender Report, 2016 in Portugal 11.7 percent of female service members comprises the PAF. According to Portugal resident bill, 2016 is billed as a "significant step in women's integration into the military": Portugal is to see a woman take up the post of General in the Armed Forces - in this case, the Air Force. NATO Gender Report, 2016), (Portugal resident bill, 2016).

Norway introduced compulsory military service for women in bunking them in mixed dorms with men. "In operations, it's an advantage having females. They have access to parts of the population that men don't have, for instance for intelligence gathering," Norwegian women have been able to volunteer for military service for almost 40 years now, helping to gradually feminise the armed forces. The military welcomed its first female helicopter pilot, female jet fighter pilot and female submarine commander already in the early 1990s. A recent survey conducted by the Norwegian Army showed that an overwhelming majority of female soldiers are in favour of unisex dorms. But 18 per cent still said they had been subjected to inappropriate comments or behaviour (The Straits Times, 2016).

In the **United Kingdom** one in 10 members of its armed forces are women – as in the case of many allies. During the 2001-2014 war in Afghanistan, it was vital to collect the local information and there came the solution, entangling female soldiers with the families in the war zone to retrieve the information needed. In 2016, three out of 10 army positions were closed to women. The Royal Air Force (RAF) became the first service to open all roles to women, when it extended the right to apply for its ground fighting force. It will be followed in 2018 by the Royal Navy, when it opens applications for the Royal Marine Commandos to women. They account for 14% of the UK's reserve forces (Bryce, 2017, pp 71-78).

According to the 2016 NATO Gender Report, 10.1 percent of female service members holds various positions in the **Slovak Armed Forces (SLAF)**. The 2005 Slovakia National Report concludes that female soldiers are in all rank categories such as enlisted, non-commissioned officers, warrant officers, and officers. Servicewomen usually serve in aviation, meteorology, military lawyers, personnel management, finance corps, administration, documentary and archival service – registry offices, logistics corps, military police, signal/radio-technical corps and psychological service (NATO Gender Report, 2016, pp 34-40).

In an effort to increase the number of women as conscript soldiers in the year 2018 the Estonian defence minister Juri Luik signed a bill that allows more women than before to serve in the **Estonian Defence Forces (EDF)**. On top of that, women will be able to serve in all branches and units of the EDF. In 2018, up to 108 women will be allowed to join the regularly all-male conscript service. Women have been allowed to serve in the conscript military since 2013. That year there were 15 women taking up the opportunity? In 2016, their number had risen to 33. In 2017, 91 women were allowed to serve in the EDF and 27 have already joined the service (Hankewitz, 2017, pp 72-78).

In **Belgium**, changes in the legislation in 1975 made it possible for women to sign up for service in the Belgian Armed Forces A 1976 law stipulated the conditions for admission of female officers and NCOs. Women began joining the service in 1977. However, under that Act, not all posts were open to women. In 1978, the Belgian Government ratified the New York Treaty of 1953 concerning the political rights of women. Implementation of this law by the Armed Forces in 1981 eliminated all discrimination between women and men. Women were accepted as officer candidates to the Belgian Military Academy in 1978. (NATO report, 1999-2000, pp 6-7).

In **Lithuania** on The Lithuania Tribune, 2015 Prime Minister Algirdas Butkevičius said he did not support the idea to include women into compulsory military draft. Women are always welcomed in armed forces as volunteers. Lithuania is in need of raising the percentage of its overall armed forces and that resulted in the compulsory service for men, but excluding women from the conscript army. Mostly women are in medical roles in the Lithuanian Armed Forces (LAF), who often work in combat support roles (Lithuania National Report, 2007). (The Lithuania Tribune, 2015).

According to the 2004 Romanian National Report in the **Romanian Armed Forces (ROAF)** the first women in military uniform began to appear in 1973, when compulsory military service for all citizens, regardless of gender, was introduced. The main fields in which female officers are found include staff and logistics positions, officers in branches such as finance, medical service, information management and technology, military law and military engineering. In addition, female officers are often found in various centralized structures within the Ministry of National Defence, including project and resource management, administration, public relations and military education. For their part, female warrant officers and NCOs occupy positions in fields such as administration, technology, economics, medical service and finance within the different military services (Romanian National Report, 2004, pp 02-15).

According to The Washington Times (2004) in Italy, the recruitment of women in the **Italian Army** has plummeted as male soldiers turned out to be “molesters in uniform” pestering female recruits with salacious messages and requests for sex. When the positions for female service members were opened in 2000 Italian females in massive numbers attempted to get recruited in the Italian Armed Forces (IAF) almost reaching 21 percent. By 2002, however, female applicants represented 21 percent of those seeking admission. Women seeking to enlist in the IAF, which traces its roots to the mighty legions of Rome, likewise dropped from 40 percent to 25 percent within three years. A report in L’Espresso newsmagazine was published blaming unwelcome sexual advances by male soldiers for the decline in the number of women interested in military life. The weekly cited the example of a woman serving at a barracks in northern Italy whose superior officer fired off text messages to her such as: “I can’t sleep for thinking about you,” “You excite me very much,” and “Would you come on a cruise with me?” (Washington Times, 2004).

According to the 2001 NATO Italy report there would be no restrictions on promotion or career progression, and serving women would be able to reach the highest level of military hierarchy

(Italy National report, 2008). But till 2008 there was no woman holding any of the flag officer position in the IAF (NATO Italy report, 2001, 04-10).

According to the 2001 NATO **Denmark** report all posts are available to women in the Danish Armed Forces (DAF). The highest rank attained by a woman so far is Lieutenant Colonel or Commander Senior Grade, which is the navy equivalent. Admission requirements in the DAF are the same for women and men, and women have the same opportunities as their male colleagues if they desire a career in the DAF. (NATO Denmark report, 2001, pp 30-40). Since 1988 Denmark has had a policy of "total inclusion," which came on the heels of 1985 "combat trials" exploring the capabilities of women to fight on the front lines. "Danish research showed that women performed just as well as men in land combat roles," according to a British MOD study. Although all posts are open to women, physical requirements have so far prevented them from joining the country's Special Operations Forces (Mulrine, 2013).

Turkey is considered to be one of examples of a strong state and a weak civil society, which has roots in the Ottoman Empire. Female officers and non-commissioned officers are employed in various posts in troops, headquarters and agencies including United Nations and NATO duties in and abroad, and in all arms of the Turkish Armed Forces excluding armour, infantry and submarine. Turkey, besides being a huge nation the societal barriers and scarcity of making armed forces an attractive career for women, hinders the participation of women in Turkish Armed forces. Turkey holds women as officers only, which contributes 1.3 percent of women in the Turkish armed forces. Turkey inducts women as officers only (Turkish National Report of female soldiers, 2007, pp 1-8).

4.3 RUSSIA

In Russia in 1980 contract service was introduced to fill in manpower shortfalls. In 1990, half of the contracted military personnel were women (Wendy, 2006, pp 30-35). Women actively participated in World War I under the first women's "battalion of death" inspired by Maria Bochkareva, under the leadership of Russian Provisional government. Alexander Kerensky (Mather, 2000, pp 86-90) Although Bochkareva saw women as a skilled group of individuals who could actively contribute towards the war effort, for Kerensky the Women's Battalion represented an effective propaganda tool of war. If "even women" would participate in war, it will oblige men to follow suit (Young, 2016, pp 154-159).

In the year 2013 there were around 29,000 women serving in the Russian Armed Forces. None of them served above the rank of colonel. Among the 29,000 female personnel, 3.5 percent served in command posts, the remainder in posts such as staff workers, medical and financial specialists, or in the communications troops. There were around 900 female officers that have completed training in the military faculties of civilian institutions of higher education; around 60 have advanced operational and tactical military training. Moreover, 8,300 women served as warrant officers, mostly in communication posts in the combat service support structures focused on logistics and maintenance. There were also approximately 19,000 women serving on contracts as soldiers and sergeants. In 2012, the state decorated 22 female members of the Armed Forces and 4,500 were awarded medals by the defense ministry of Russia (McDermott, 2013). Whereas in 2018 the number has raised upto 50,000 female soldiers.

4.4 ASIAN NATIONS

China had, during the era of Sun Tzu (1250-1192 B.C.) a female general, Hao Fu, who commanded more than 13,000 soldiers of King Wu. Historians have recorded women's participation in the ranks for over 3,000 years (Li, 1994, pp 15-22). Women in Chinese military holds the traditional support for instance of headquarters, medical, research and communication branches. According to a 2009 China Daily report on "Women sing and dance into army", there was a shocking procedure in order to induct women in People's Liberation Army (PLA). The test of artistic ability was included for the first time as part of the standard face to face interview by recruiters on behalf of the PLA, which took place following stringent health screening. The motivation to earn a status in the society leads Chinese women to work hard in order to get their place in the PLA (China Daily, 2009).

China's female soldiers fly fighter jets, but its state media would still focus on their dancing skills. Women across the world are fighting for their equal rights to perform combat duties, but the Chinese military is still heavily focused on, what it sees as women's soft power (Huang, 2017, pp 52-59), There is an independent female air regiment, the first CH female major serves in UN mission in Africa. Xinhua in his report about Chinese women as peacekeepers states that, the female peacekeepers were deployed in Liberia, South Sudan, Mali and other countries, and include not only medical personnel, but military observers, infantry and police officers (Xinhua, 2017, pp 44-50).

In **Japan**, the percentage of women in military has few places to put up. It was 5.7 percent in 2016. As part of a government push for female empowerment, Japan's Defense Ministry is opening up jobs in the Japan Self-Defense Forces (JSDF) to women, including the flying of attack helicopters and special maritime patrol lines. The Ground component of the JSDF will also allow women to pilot anti-tank helicopters and serve in chemical protection units, and the Maritime SDF removed a ban on women serving in special patrol units and minesweeper and missile operations (WITW STAFF, 2016).

In **Pakistan**, in 2006 for the first time the Pakistan Armed Forces (PKAF) inducted women in the military for assignments other than duties in medical setups/units. So far it is difficult to provide the place which they deserve in the Pakistani society, but when the question raises to the PKAF is it difficult in this sector too? Was it because the induction and emancipation of women in the military was only the personal ambition/agenda of a military ruler that ended with the end of his military rule? Were the powerful men dominated military as an institution not backing and supporting the idea of mass enrolment of women in the military? In the year 2013, out of almost 4000 female officers serving in the military 3000 are employed in the Armed Forces Nursing Services (AFNS). Over 600 were female doctors in the Army Medical Corps (AMC). The remaining women serve as female officers in non-combatant roles in the Signals and Engineering departments of the military (Women in Pakistan's military, 2013).

In an interview with The Guardian, Indonesian military spokesman Fuad Basya said, to be a military person, the most important thing is mentality, "Physical and intellectual requirements are secondary". Basya said this in support of the "two finger test" to be conducted on female recruits during medical. If the female aspirant turns to be a virgin she has passed her recruitment process and ready to join forces, but if she is not a virgin she will be considered as "naughty" and face rejection. To make the matter worse the procedure has been carried by a male doctor (Beh, 2015, pp 02-06).

Women in the Indonesian Armed Forces (IDAF) are provided with administrative, medical, teaching positions only. Indonesia still practice the old patriarchy system in which women play the role of a nurturer only and the fighting traits are not her role to perform for the nation (Beh, 2015, pp 2-6).

4.5 OTHER NATIONS

In **Israel** in five years span, women's participation in combat roles will increase in the Israel Defence Forces (IDF) from 3 percent to 9.5 percent (Blum, 2016, pp 80-85).

When the IDF were formed in 1948, the organisation was forced to use any and all available personnel as combat soldiers, regardless of gender. Following the War of Independence, however until the late 1990's, no women were allowed to serve in combat positions, aside from a short attempt in the 1950's to accept women into flight school. But women did take over almost all field instructing positions in the IDF. On May 26, 2011, Defence Minister Ehud Barak oversaw one of the IDF most historic internal events when he approved the promotion of Brigadier General Orna Barbivai to Major General and to the head of the IDF Manpower Directorate. In this case, Barbivai became the first female ever to attain the rank of Major General in the Israel Defence Forces (Women of the Israel Defense Forces, n.a.).

Haaretz Israel news about women in Israeli army losing motivation to serve in combat roles report shows that inadequate facilities and commanders demeaning practices towards trainees highlight the challenge facing female combat soldiers in Israel. The report further illustrates that the lack of infrastructure and commanders involved in training mixed-gender combat units failed to fully comply with medical directives and mental health recommendations, making service harder for women. The shortage of doctors is also noted (Cohen, 2017, pp 132-138).

Jordanian Armed Forces (JAF) let the women to join as early as 1950 as teachers for military schools. The physical fitness criteria for men and women differ slightly allowing for natural gender differences. Alike many other forces in the east the JAF allows women to induct in medical, administration, education, military police, military intelligence, finance, royal guards, flight control assistants cadres to serve in. The women could hold officers positions only (Jordan National Report, 2006, pp 03-10).

According to Lt. Col. Elena O'Bryan, the percentage of women in the JAF is nearing five percent. They have deployed for peacekeeping missions and combat support operations. All-female units in the JAF do exist. A Royal Jordanian Air Force (RJAF) member just became its first female pilot candidate. Once 2nd Lt. Lara Al Hawawsheh, currently in the U.S., completes her specialized English language and initial pilot training, she will be the first of six Jordanian female pilots trained in the U.S. to fly Black Hawks. This training is part of U.S. assistance under the Counter-Terrorism Partnership Fund, through which the RJAF will receive 12 Black

Hawks to enhance Jordan's Quick Reaction Force and boost border security (Lt. Col. Elena O'Bryan, 2017).

In Iraq Kurdistan region the all-female battalion of Peshmerga came into existence in 1997. The 2nd Battalion, a 500-strong force based in Sulaymaniyah in Kurdistan region of, northern Iraq, is led by Colonel Nahida Ahmad Rashid, 49 according to a report by (Webb, 2015) on “The angles of death: ISIS savage fear Kurd women fighters more than any other foe.” Ahd Mohamed, 36, “I always put on lipstick before I go on the frontline.” In an interview to the Mirror (Webb, 2016, p 03) the female fighters of Peshmerga set another standard in the battlefield, they want to look beautiful when they fight and if they die they want to look pretty. The female fighters of Peshmerga have all combat positions open for them. In 2018 they are still fighting against ISIS and for the independence of Kurdistan. In an interview with Roank Mahmud, she was asked, when a woman such as yourself risks her life for what she believes in and is proud of her actions, she is said to be as strong and brave as a man. What do you think of this aspect of our culture? To which her reply was when these qualities are ascribed solely to men, it does seem to me like violence perpetuated by our culture against women. Bravery, dedication, strength, resilience, and loyalty are also manifest in women. In fact, there are countless men who are cowards, liars, and traitors in every sense. It is necessary to recognise these qualities as human qualities, manifest in both men and women (Omar. A, 2017, pp 02-04).

South America

In **Argentina**, women are playing an increasingly important role in the army, holding many senior positions. However, gender equality in the military still lags behind some other Latin American countries. Colonel Amato is proud of her career – and says combat training in no way makes a woman less feminine. “Femininity is part of being a woman. It’s in her hormones, just like masculinity is for men. But a woman can find herself in a combat situation – and here we have to be prepared for that, like all other service personnel. There is no difference.” Szklarz, in Dialogo magazine reported that, the first female General of the Argentinian Army states that, women made up 6 percent of the Argentine contribution to the peacekeeping force in Haiti, when the average percentage of women in United Nations missions is in general less than 3 percent. In the other military services, women have filled very important roles. In 2012, for example, a group of about 10 women performed maintenance tasks at Argentine bases in Antarctica. In 2013, Captain María Inés Uriarte became the first female naval attaché appointed

to Spain. Also in that year, air force colonel Elizabeth Sotelo was invited by the Bolivian Air Force to share Argentina's experience and help open a Gender Affairs Office in the Andean country. Argentina also boasts female helicopter pilots and submariners, while other women have performed important functions with the United Nations in Haiti, including serving as personnel chief. Argentina has reserved slots for women in the armed forces. They serve in support positions only (Szklarz, 2015, pp 03-08; Argentine army welcomes women soldiers, 2011, pp 06-10).

Peru welcomed its first female commander of a coast guard vessel in 2018, Admiral Miguel Grau, a Peruvian naval hero, moved her when she visited the Peruvian Naval Academy in the district of La Punta, a peninsula in the province of Callao. Still in high school, she dreamed of joining the Peruvian Navy. The commander's step opens a lot of doors for female service members because I know I will be able to reach the same level she achieved," Lt. j.g. Maldonado told *Diálogo*. "It's good for me to be able to be with her and continue to learn from her actions. Female service members in Peruvian armed forces hold support positions only (Infante, 2018, pp 67-70).

For the **Brazilian Army**, 18 February 2017, was a date that made history. For the first time ever, 32 women walked through the doors of the Army Cadet Preparatory School, not just wearing a badge of "student" on their chests, but also excited to be members of the first female class to start official combat training in the Brazilian Army. Women's participation in the army is not without precedent. In 1823, Maria Quitéria de Jesus fought alongside other soldiers for Brazilian independence. During World War II, 73 Brazilian nurses served in various U.S. Army hospitals. In 1992, the Brazilian Army Leadership Academy enrolled its first class of 49 women, admitting them into that institution's Auxiliary Officer Corps. But until now, female service members were limited to support duties such as administration, health care, and teaching. The innovation is women's entry into combat career paths. Public Law 12.705, established in 2012, provides for female inclusion in the teaching of war studies. That regulation provided a five-year period for the Armed Forces to adapt to the provision. The Army deemed that we should use the full period to get ready to overhaul our facilities, putting the appropriate structures in place, with separate dormitories, restrooms, showers, etc. That's why it's only now that the first female class is arriving at our school. Admission to the Quartermaster School and the Aviation Training Center is planned to begin in 2018 (Barretto, 2017, pp 78-82).

In **Chile**, in 2016, the Army's Infantry and Armored Cavalry divisions included women in weapons handling and heavy vehicles, such as tanks. So with this new regulation, which eliminates the Female Service Career Ladder, the Army has taken the final step to integrate all of its active duty servicewomen, a process that began in 1995. The proportion of women in the Chilean Armed Forces (CHAF) has reached 14.4 percent. CHAF opened its career ladder to women in 2000, with the entry of the first 40 women into the Air Force Academy. Three years later, it had commissioned its first female line officers. Women represent 17 percent of the total personnel in this service branch, a number that has held steady over time. Chile have excellent female instructors, doctors of engineering, women who have participated in peacekeeping missions, and who have lived outside the country as part of their military work. There are also female pilots flying the president or deployed to Antarctica. The Naval School opened its doors to women in 2007, and the first 27 officers graduated in 2010 (Contreras, 2017, p 51).

4.6 STRUCTURE OF INDIAN ARMED FORCES

President Supreme Commander		
General (Chief of the Army staff)	Admiral (Chief of the Naval Staff)	Air Chief Marshal (Chief of the Air force Staff)
Lt General	Vice Admiral	Air Vice Marshal
Major General	Rear Admiral	Air Marshal
Brigadier	Commodore	Air Commodore
Colonel	Captain	Group Captain
Lt. Colonel	Commander	Wing Commander
Major	Lt. Commander	Squadron Leader
Captain	Lieutenant	Flight Lieutenant
Lieutenant	Sub Lieutenant	Pilot Officer

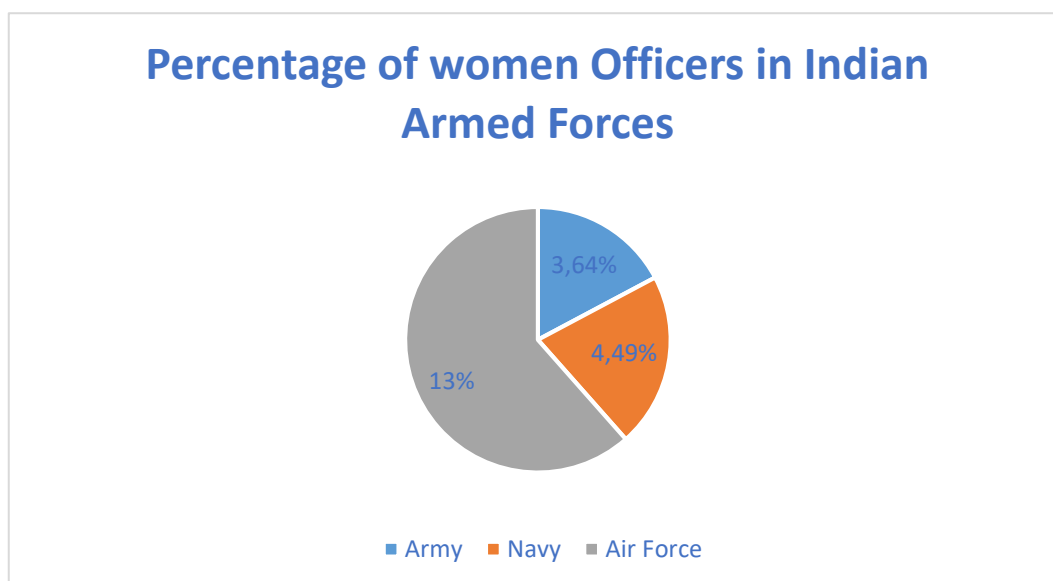
According to the Press Information Bureau's Report provided by the Ministry of Defence India, at present, women are recruited in the Indian Army as officers through Short Service

Commission (SSC) along with men candidates. Female officers are inducted in Army Service Corps, Army Ordnance Corps, Army Education Corps, and Judge Advocate General Branch including Engineers, Signals, Intelligence and Electrical & Mechanical Engineering branches. In addition, they are also commissioned in Medical Branch Army Medical Corps (AMC), Army Dental Corps (ADC) and Military Nursing Service (MNS). Further, female officers are eligible for grant of Permanent Commission in Judge Advocate General (JAG) Department and in Army Education Corps (AEC) of Army (Press Information Bureau's, 2017, pp 02-05).

Women in IAF serve the armed forces as officers only; no other ranks are available for female service members. The Indian Air Force has pioneered the entry of women as officers in flying and ground duty. (Press Information Bureau's, 2017, pp 01-03) In the Indian Navy (IN), female officers are inducted through Short Service Commission, in Logistics, Law, Observers, Air Traffic Control (ATC), Pilots (Maritime Reconnaissance Stream), Naval Armament Inspectorate cadre (NAIC), Naval Architecture and Education Branch. The details of women officers in the IA (excluding Medical, Dental & Nursing Branch), in Indian Air Force (excluding Medical and Dental Branch) and in the IN recruited during the last three years, Service-wise, as per (Press Information Bureau, 2017, pp 01-03).

Figure 9: Represents the data regarding the recruitment of women in the IAF in last three years. (Press Information Bureau, 2017)

Year	Army	Navy	Air Force
2014	104	57	155
2015	72	35	223
2016	69	43	108

Figure 10: Women as officers in Indian Armed forces, as on July 2017.³⁸

Source: Own design

The Press Information Bureau (PIB) report from 2017 further clarifies that, in 2011, the Government of India considered female service members inducted as Short Service Commission Officers (SSCOs) as permanent commission along with men commissioned as Short Service Commission Officers (SSCOs). The permanent commission was specific to some branches of the IAF those are Judge Advocate General (JAG) and Army Education Corps (AEC) of the IA and their corresponding branches in the IN and the IAF, Naval constructor in IN and the accounts branch of the IAF (Press information Bureau, 2017, pp 01-03).

The Ministry of Defence report by PIB further states that, in March 2016, approval has been accorded for the induction of women Short Service Commission (SSC) officers as Pilots in Maritime Reconnaissance (MR) stream and in the Naval Armament Inspectorate (NAI) cadre. The planned amendment came into act from the mid-2017. In the IAF since 1993, female officers have been recruited in all branches and stream as Short Service Commissioned Officers (SSCOs) except in the fighter stream. However, IAF has revised Short Service Commission scheme to induct women into the fighter stream on experimental basis for five years. The first batch of three women officers was commissioned in the fighter stream on June 18, 2016. In addition, steps like increasing tenure of women officers and improving promotional prospects in the IA have been taken to increase participation of women in this service (Press information Bureau, 2017, pp 01-03).

³⁸Press information Bureau. (July 28, 2017). Women Personnel in defence Forces. Ministry of Defence, Government of India. Retrieved from <http://pib.nic.in/newsite/PrintRelease.aspx?relid=169200> retrieved on December 17, 2017.

4.7 STRUCTURE OF HUNGARIAN DEFENCE FORCES

Figure. 11. Ranking Structure of the Hungarian armed forces.

NATO code	Hungarian rank name	literal translation	English rank name according to HMoD
OF-9	Vezérezredes (vezds)	Chief Regiment (leader), Chief Regimental Commander	General, Colonel General
OF-8	Altábornagy (altbgy)	Vice field marshal	Lieutenant General
OF-7	Vezérőrnagy (vórgy)	Leader Guard-Major	Major General
OF-6	Dandártábornok (ddtbk)	Brigade-General	Brigadier General
OF-5	Ezredes (ezds)	Regiment (leader), Regimentist	Colonel
OF-4	Alezredes (alez)	Junior Regiment (leader), Junior Regimentist	Lieutenant Colonel
OF-3	Őrnagy (örgy)	Guard-Major	Major
OF-2	Százados (szds)	Squadron (leader), Centurion	Captain
OF-1	Főhadnagy (fhdgy)	Chief Military-Major	First Lieutenant
OF-1	Hadnagy (hdgy)	Military-Major, Army-Major	Second Lieutenant

Policies (policy changes/new policy affecting women in uniform)³⁹

Policy changes or pending initiatives, to include legislation passed, and service regulations concerning employment of women in the military (political, social, personnel management)

No change

New policy or initiatives concerning implementation of gender mainstreaming in Armed Forces

Hungary has recently adopted a long-term strategic plan for gender equality for the period 2010-2020. The plan is aimed at not only creating gender equality, but also at transforming the traditional approach to gender relations. The plan is implemented by means of three-year action plans in each relevant domain, including the armed forces. The action plan compiled by the Ministry of Defence lays down concrete actions for 5 priorities, including opening up positions with male dominance to female soldiers, averting sexual harassments by means of an enhanced system of legal remedy etc.

A national action plan for mainstreaming human rights and gender into crisis management activities is being developed by Hungary, with the participation of the Ministry of Social Affairs, Ministry of Defence and Ministry of Justice and Law Enforcement. The action plan is intended to be the part of a more general and comprehensive strategy covering a wide range of human right aspects, and its implementation is aimed to be ensured by two-year action plans. In CSDP, gender mainstreaming is identified as a priority of the Spanish-Belgian-Hungarian trio presidency. Hungary is a committed supporter of gender policy. It is attested by the fact that Hungary was the only EU member state to undertake and realise the full “Roadmap 2006-2010” programme. As a result, companies with more than 50 employees have to develop an equal rights plan. Hungary will continue to develop and realise such plans.

Any initiatives, programmes implemented or pending on base of ‘‘CWINF Guidance for NATO Gender Mainstreaming’’

Important goal of the Hungarian Defence Forces and the EU presidency next year will be to adopt and implement the *UN Resolution 1325* and promote the Human Rights. Although the Resolution mentions only protection of women, the right attitude is to focus on gender, both men and women, in order to reach the best result.

³⁹ NATIONAL REPORT OF HUNGARY 2010 Retrieved from https://ec.europa.eu/info/sites/info/files/file_import/2019-european-semester-country-report-hungary_en.pdf

Gender Guidelines for 2010-2011 of Ministry of Defence: it is a short-term guidance to take concrete steps for Gender Mainstreaming.

Organisation (information provided in chart format is encouraged)

% of female flag officers	% of female senior officers	% of female junior officers	% of female NCO	% female of soldiers lower rank than NCO
0%	10%	24%	26%	10%

Rank	OR1	OR2	OR3	OR4	OR5	OR6	OR7	OR8	OR9	OR10	OF1	OF1	OF2	OF3	OF4	OF5	OF6	OF7	OF8	OF9	Total
Female (%)	10%	7%	11%	10%	23%	25%	28%	39%	48%	0%	18%	28%	23%	14%	6%	4%	0%	0%	0%	0%	20%

Army (Combat units)	11%
Army (Combat support units)	17%
Army (Combat service support units)	20%
Air Force (Air bases and support)	17%
Ministry and administration	23%
Academy and training centers	19%
Hospitals and medical centers	61%

Recruitment

Entrance criteria to Military Academies, Colleges

Servicewomen can attend the same specialization courses and participate in all trainings and schools required for promotion to higher rank. There are no limits restricting access of women to military schools.

New initiatives, if any (e.g. actions to attract more female candidates). Thank to the big number of female applicants, special program for recruitment is not necessary.

Retention programs (if applicable). NTR

Areas forbidden for female soldiers. All programs and faculties are open to women.

Areas now opened to female soldiers lately, which have been closed / forbidden for women in the past. NTR

The most popular programs or disciplines chosen by female applicants in military academies.

The most popular faculty for women is the logistic and finance department

Excluded programs or disciplines for women, if they are. NTR

Training

New policies/programs, initiatives or standards, etc specific to female soldiers. NTR

In the National Defence University and NCO training center all faculties are open to both women and men, without discrimination in entrance or studies. Training programs (basic, advanced military, etc.) for women are identical with the ones for their male counterparts, and are organized in the same institutes and training centers. All personnel in the trainings must fulfil the same requirements. There is no significant difference in studies, but the physical fitness standards are distinct for men and women, and different age groups.

Physical fitness

Physical fitness: Fitness is being tested for all personnel annually related to his/her specific functions (office work or combat units, paratroopers, special forces, military divers, etc.), and in special cases, as before getting higher job, before deployments and before schools abroad. All the soldiers should meet those requirements in order to be suitable for military service. The fitness test differs in age and genders, and consists of the same elements as that of the specific fitness test (see below).

The annual physical test is scaled by age groups and by types of physical work. There are 4 categories for identifying the physical demands and stress of jobs:

T1: Basic fitness for sedentary occupation

Cardio test: 3200 m running in training suit or 6 km march in training suit (max. 140 points)

Muscle-power test for males: push-up or pull-up and sit-up (max 100-100 points)

Muscle-power test for females: light push-up and light sit-up (max 100-100 points)

Max. points: 340 point

Min. points: 200 point

T2: Medium level of fitness for light physical jobs

(Are the same elements, as in T1.)

Max. points: 340 point

Min. points: 220 point

T3: Advanced level of fitness for medium physical work

Cardio test: 3200 m running in training suit (max. 160 points)

Muscle-power test: pull up or push-up and sit-up (max 100-100 points)

Max. points: 360 point

Min. points: 240 point

T4: Enhanced level of fitness for heavy physical work

(Are the same elements, as in T3.)

Max. points: 360 point

Min. points: 260 point

The fitness test is changing from time to time, in order to reduce the causeless difference between the achievement of men and women. Some organizations and units have special or additional physical training programs.

Job (career) qualification standards for female soldiers

According to the Defence Law, females have the same opportunities to develop their careers as males. Servicewomen can attend the same specialization courses and participate in all trainings and schools required for promotion to higher rank.

Deployments (i.e. peace building operations, peacekeeping operations etc.)

References; Decisive factors determining deployment of women (e.g. conditions are to be fulfilled, others not related to specified requirements etc.). Factors determining deployment according to national regulations (obligatory, voluntary basis etc.)

To apply for a mission is on voluntary base. The selection is based on capabilities and requirements: women can be selected for combat positions, too if they meet the requirements. Men and women have even chances in selection; background, abilities and capabilities will decide among them.

Lessons learned, areas/posts specifically occupied by female soldiers

Hungarian Defence Forces still do not have systematic and analysed database on gender perspectives of deployments. Having no need for taking special care on women in deployments underpins that there is no discrimination, women are treated equal to their male counterpart.

As there is a need – especially in NATO - for Lessons Learned on gender, collection of data is going on. There is a new staff element for collection of Lessons Learned at all level of command; gender issues are one of the important collection area.

NATO calls for increase the number of women in deployments. Most of our positions in the missions are „combat positions” where solders carry out “male-type-tasks”. As majority of women work in administrative, logistical, medical, or communication fields and not in combat positions, therefore the ratio of women in missions is always lower than the normal ratio in the army. Therefore it would be unreal requirement to enhance the number of women in missions and expect the same 20% ratio (or more) we have in our country.

There is no quota for women in CE of national contingents. In spite of this fact commanders always select women in critical jobs (Force Protection team, CIMIC, PSYOPS teams, etc.) – due to the operational experiences. The more-year-long mission experiences underpin that without women in critical jobs the mission cannot be successful.

The main gender related challenges in the deployments are the conflicts of the small, crowded camp, lack of communication means and the long absence from the family. The family support system should be improved. Added to it the security threat levels are low in some missions,

where the soldiers get tasks not every day; in those camps happen much more gender related conflicts than in camps with high threat level.

Career Development

Mentoring programmes are not available and it is not planned.

Education and awareness programs are still not available, but they are planned already (see point 1).

Specialist of Equal Rights Training was launched in cooperation of the civilian „Szent István” University and the military „Zrínyi Miklós” National Defense University in 2010. The training is post-gradual and has 2 semesters. The program was financed by Norwegian Program.

A special medical program was launched for women. In the first round a research is going on for „Effects of integration of women in the army on health status and on transformation of female values”. The second round, questionnaires and medical check (test of hormone level) will begin from September.

Parallel with this research a special program will be organized for health prevention of women.

Leadership programs only for women are still not available. The military academy is open to women without limitation.

Obstacles in career advancement

Unfortunately, there are some obstacles in career advancement: some of them are related to genders, some of them not.

- prejudice
- stereotypes
- positive/negative discrimination
- maternity
- married couples in the army
- women are employed mostly in offices; therefore there is a lack of military experience (especially in command functions)
- Short time of military service of women in uniform: the first women graduated from military collage in 1998. This time was not enough to reach higher ranks

Special Interest Items/Events (Recent and Projected Developments)

Concerns and successes regarding gender initiatives

The biggest success is that necessity of women in peace operations has been proved and their work was acknowledged. Therefore the gender issues are incorporated in pre-deployment training, SOPs, and exercises.

Gender related concern is the number of women in the army: it is worth thinking of the right gender balance and defining the best ratio of men and women.

Maternity/Paternity leave (short description of rules)

Hungarian Defence Forces adopted the civilian law on maternal leave. The law allows also men to be on maternity leave.

According to the Service Law women get 168 days (approximately 6 months) maternity leave, which is 100% paid by the army (75% in civilian life). The maternity leave is followed by breast feeding break: during this time women are allowed to be on “leave without salary” status until the baby is 2 years old. (It was 3 years until July last year, but the law was changed due to the financial restrictions: it was reduced to 2 years). During the breast feeding time women get no salary from the workplace, the National Health Insurance pays allowance every month (the first year a bit more than minimum salary; in the second year only small allowance).

Initiatives to improve the work-life balance (day care for children, flexible hours, part-time work etc.)

The Service Law binds commanders to employ women in the same positions after maternity leave where they served just before giving birth. However, continuation of their military carrier is complicated, especially in cases where the units they have served have been disbanded during their absence due to restructuring of the military.

The biggest challenge of employment of women is to harmonise and deconflict the family life with career. Maternity is one of the key points in women’s life but maternity leave is one of the biggest concerns of commanders because of the long absence from work (2 or more years).

The mother (father) are given 2 days extra holidays relating to their mother/father status.

Child care support – Single mothers (or fathers) cannot be obligated to be on 24 hours duty until the child is 6 years old.

The welfare system in the army provides some financial support (e.g. contribution for giving birth and children's study).

Summer Camps are organized next to Lake Balaton for military families being in weak financial position or for soldiers who cannot solve taking care of their children during the school summer vacation.

Part time work – At present there is not opportunity to ensure part time work for woman and man in the army. However there is intention to adopt the civilian law and have part time work within the army, too, it has not been realized yet.

Woman need flexible work time, but it is not provided for them because of the current rules. Despite they can work flexible in accordance with their superior's acceptance.

Other

There are 3 organizations with 3 different functions to deal with gender related issues:

We have the **Women's section of Military Trade Union**. It fights for rights and allowances of (military and civilian) women within the army.

There are appointed persons in each unit whose responsibility is to promote the **Equal Rights for Men and Women** in each units. Those soldiers meet twice a year; the main topic will be "The Gender" in September this year

Committee of Women in Uniform is advisory body to Chief of Defence Staff in gender issues. The 11 members of the committee meet on regular bases. It has many contacts to other female organizations and meets women in different units. The committee operates a web site on military intranet providing a platform for gender-related dialogue. From the collected information prepares reports and proposals for solution to the Defence Staff.

New facts

As female undergarment is not available in the military shops servicewomen receive money for buying it in civilian shops.

4.8 SUMMARY

Over the last years many efforts have been taken to improve the policy, legislation and service condition for women in uniforms in the Hungarian Defence Forces. Hungary has an overarching policy on servicewomen which is works very well. However, the Gender Issue is still not familiarized well with the commanding staff of the Forces and there is a need to continue and widen the elaborated programs in many areas. There are two areas which have to be prioritized in the near future: carrier development and personnel deployment of women soldiers. The MOD and the higher military leadership should work hard to overcome the difficulties in the carrier development. The special institutions (Women Section in the Military Trade Union, equal rights desk officers network in the troops, Committee of Women in Uniform) dealing with gender issues have been developed over the last decade and they work properly. The best ration of man and women and the right gender balance in the Forces should be discussed with the new MOD leadership this year. According to the NATO report, since 1989 the Hungarian constitution has changed to reflect the rights of women citizens in terms of their civil, political, economic, social and cultural rights. In 1996, the law was modified concerning service relations of professional military people. In particular, it prohibits discrimination of any kind, including promotion of its members. The legal regulations stipulate women's military service rights. In the 1980s, Hungarian servicewomen worked in typical small garrisons usually at small military staff units such as air-defence, missile, and radio technical reconnaissance. Additionally, wives of professional soldiers mostly worked as civilian employees for the military due to the cost of living, and the fact that families could not live on one salary only. This supports UN missions. Previously, civilian female personnel working for the Air Force were assimilated into the active force as air traffic controllers, intelligence, and resource management. The highest-ranking female in the Air Force is a Major. (NATO report, 1999-2000)

Chapter V

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEES FOR WOMEN IN ARMED FORCES

5.1 INTRODUCTION

The purpose to introduce this chapter is to understand the committees working behind Gender mainstreaming in Armed forces Internationally. Hungary is a part of European Union, NATO and United Nation Peacekeeping organisations. United Nations Peacekeeping organisation pulls India and Hungary under the common Umbrella. A complete segment is devoted to women in Peacekeeping in India and Hungary in the upcoming chapters. This chapter illustrates the policies organised on various levels in order to upgrade the morale, working culture, lifestyle and attitudes towards women in forces.

Recently, an Indian Army officer and woman peacekeeper, who has served with the UN Mission in South Sudan (UNMISS), and a Brazilian woman commander have been selected for the prestigious United Nations Military Gender Advocate of the Year Award (2019), with UN Chief António Guterres describing them as “powerful role models”.⁴⁰

Created in 2016, the award recognises the dedication and effort of an individual military peacekeeper in promoting the principles of the UN Security Resolution 1325,, which is on women, peace and security in a peace operation as nominated by Heads and Force Commanders of peace operations. For the first time, two peacekeepers received the award jointly.⁴¹ Major Suman Gawani and Brazilian Naval Officer Commander Carla Monteiro de Castro Araujo will receive the award during an online ceremony presided over by United Nations Secretary-General Guterres on May 29, the International Day of UN Peacekeepers.⁴²

Military operations in present world require a diversity of qualifications and resources to ensure that peace and security are achieved and maintained. The chapter is focusing on the committees formed for Gender mainstreaming in Armed forces. NATO defines gender as the social attributes associated with being male and female learned through socialisation and determines

⁴⁰ Indian peacekeeper Suman Gawani to be honoured with UN Gender Advocate Award
Major Suman Gawani is the first Indian to receive the award (25 May 2020) Retrieved from <https://www.tribuneindia.com/news/nation/indian-peacekeeper-suman-gawani-to-be-honoured-with-un-gender-advocate-award-89841> Assessed on 1 June 2020.

⁴¹ Ibid

⁴² Ibid

a person's position and value in a given context. Given that social value and positions are always defined and negotiated between men, women, boys and girls, gender does not exclusively refer to women.⁴³

The complementary skills of both male and female personnel are essential for the operational effectiveness of NATO operations, especially in light of the increasing complexity of civil-military interaction, public relations and intelligence gathering. The integration of the gender perspective into all aspects of NATO operations can be beneficial and have key influence on increased operational effectiveness.

Secondly, the United Nations Peacekeeping reached the 19th anniversary of landmark United Nations Security Council resolution 1325 on Women, Peace and Security, the Security and Gender Group underlines that the inclusion and meaningful participation of women is a necessary condition for peace, stability and democratic development. In the lead up to the announcement of the final results of the 2019 Kosovo early legislative elections, the Security and Gender Group reminds political parties of their obligation to ensure equal representation of women and men during and after the electoral process in accordance with Law No. 05/L-020 on Gender Equality which stipulates that:⁴⁴

“Legislative, executive, judicial bodies at all levels and other public institutions shall be obliged to adopt and implement special measures to increase representation of underrepresented gender, until equal representation of women and men according to this Law is achieved” (Article 6, paragraph 7); “Equal gender representation in all legislative, executive and judiciary bodies and other public institutions is achieved when ensured a minimum representation of fifty percent (50%) for each gender, including their governing and decision-making bodies.” (Article 7, paragraph 8).⁴⁵

The Security and Gender Group regrets that in their lists of candidates, political parties opted to apply the minimum standards set out under the Law No. 03/L-073 on General Elections, rather than aiming to advance full gender equality representation by adhering to the Law on Gender Equality. This was despite concerns raised by women's rights organisations and a court challenge raised by the Ombudsperson in which he emphasized that provisions of the Law on

⁴³ HQ SACT Office of the Gender Advisor. Retrieved from <https://www.act.nato.int/gender-advisor>

⁴⁴ United Nations Peacekeeping. Retrieved from <https://unmik.unmissions.org/security-and-gender-group-urges-newly-elected-polit...> Accessed on 10 June 2020.

⁴⁵ Ibid

Gender Equality as *lex specialis* have preeminence over provisions of Law on General Elections. The Security and Gender Group underlines the urgent need for the Law on General Elections to be harmonized with the Law on Gender Equality so that Kosovo is well-positioned to achieve a higher standard for women's representation in politics and decision-making. While there was a slight increase in the number of women candidates in the Early Legislative Elections from 31.1 per cent in 2017 to 31.2 per cent in 2019, the preliminary report of the European Election Observation Mission concluded that political platforms did not sufficiently address gender issues and women's turnout in the rallies observed averaged 23 per cent while female speakers accounted for 22 per cent of the total speakers at observed rallies.⁴⁶

Equal participation of women and men in decision-making is a necessary condition for the better functioning of a democratic society and political parties have a key role to play as the “gatekeepers” of democracy and women's participation. This is also an essential condition for Kosovo institutions to fully observe international and regional standards as reflected in CEDAW and EU *acquis communautaire*. The Security and Gender Group therefore urges all elected political leaders to step up their efforts to address underrepresentation of women in decision-making, particularly at senior levels. In this regard, the Security and Gender Group encourages elected leaders to adhere to a minimum standard of 50 per cent representation of women in government institutions in line with requirements set out under the Law on Gender Equality. Such measures will ensure that the new government fully respects and represents the views of all women and men in Kosovo.⁴⁷

5.2 FORMATION OF UNSCR 1325: WOMEN, PEACE and SECURITY

On 31 Oct 2000, the United Nations Security Council (UNSC) adopted Security Council Resolution 1325 (UNSCR 1325) on Women, Peace and Security. After the adoption of Resolution 1325, the United Nations Headquarters, peacekeeping operations and Member States have been working to meet these goals, but progress is far from satisfactory. On the civilian side, the percentage of women recruited, hired and deployed by the Secretariat to work in peacekeeping operations has reached 30 per cent, bringing gender parity well within reach. Progress has been much slower on the uniformed components of UN peacekeeping operations,

⁴⁶ United Nations Peacekeeping. Retrieved from <https://unmik.unmissions.org/security-and-gender-group-urges-newly-elected-polit...> Assessed on 09 June 2020

⁴⁷ Ibid

which Member States contribute and now have less than 3 per cent women. This includes 8 per cent of the 10,000 police officers and 2 per cent of the 80,000 military personnel.⁴⁸ UNSCR 1325 recognises the distinct impact that war and conflict have on men, women, boys and girls and brings to the forefront that women have been historically omitted in peace process and nation stabilization.⁴⁹ UNSCR 1325 calls for full and equal participation of women at all levels in issues ranging from early conflict prevention to post-conflict reconstruction, peace and security.⁵⁰

NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (NCGP) in 2009

On 19 Jun 2008 the UNSC reaffirmed the focus on these issues with the adoption of UNSCR 1820. The Military Committee (MC) recognises the need to promote gender mainstreaming as a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies, programmes and military operations. Therefore the mandate of the Committee on Women in the NATO Forces (CWINF) is extended to include this dimension. The CWINF evolves into the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (NCGP) in 2009.⁵¹

Aim. a. To authorise the NCGP and the NATO Office on Gender Perspectives (NOGP); b. To provide a conceptual reference to the NCGP as subcommittee to the MC, defining the responsibilities of the NCGP related to gender mainstreaming and related to the support of the integration of a gender perspective into NATO's military operations, specifically to the implementation of the UNSCR 1325 and 1820, as well as other future related UNSCRs;⁵²

History. Initiatives by senior national military women in NATO during the 1960s and 1970s led to ad hoc conferences. In 1973, a committee was formed and the first terms of reference (TOR) were made. Since the official recognition (MC 249 of 1976 and MC 281 of 1977) the Committee has met once a year. The TORs were renewed in 1998. From 1998 a permanent office, the OWINF, was established in the International Military Staff (IMS) to provide

⁴⁸ United Nation Organisation. Retrieved from <https://www.un.org/en/events/peacekeepersday/2009/> Assessed on 10 June 2020.

⁴⁹ Women Transforming Peace through Peacekeeping. Retrieved from https://peacekeeping.un.org/sites/default/files/policy_brief.pdf Assessed on 12 June 2020.

⁵⁰ NATO Committee on Gender Perspective (2012) Retrieved from https://www.nato.int/issues/women_nato/2012/HANDBOOK_2012.pdf p. 10 Assessed on 12 May 2020

⁵¹ Ibid

⁵² Ibid

information on gender and diversity issues and support the work of CWINF. In 2009, in order to extend the CWINF's mandate to support the integration of a gender perspective into NATO's operations specifically to support the implementation of UNSCR 1325 and 1820 as well as future related UNSCRs, the Executive Committee (EC) decided to revise MC 249/1 including the existing TORs of the Committee and the Office.⁵³

Other aspects:

A. The NOGP provides and supports information to NATO upon request, within means and capabilities.

B. Other nations may be invited to attend meetings and conferences, as per MC approval.⁵⁴

Purpose

A. As per the TOR, the purpose of the NCGP is to be a consultative body to promote gender mainstreaming as a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies, programmes and military operations.

B. The Committee also has a role as advisory for the MC on gender related policies for the Armed Forces of the Alliance.⁵⁵

Policy

A. UNSCR 1325 recognises the urgent need to mainstream a gender perspective into peacekeeping operations since it will contribute to the maintenance and promotion of international peace and security.

B. Mainstreaming a gender perspective is the process of assessing the implications for women and men of any planned action, including legislation, policies or programmes, in all areas and at all levels. It is a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies and programmes and operations.⁵⁶

⁵³ NATO Committee on Gender Perspective (2012) Retrieved from https://www.nato.int/issues/women_nato/2012/HANDBOOK_2012.pdf p. 11 Assessed on 12 May 2020

⁵⁴ Ibid

⁵⁵ Ibid

⁵⁶ Ibid p. 12

C. The NCGP is comprised of senior military officers or civilian equivalent of each NATO nation, whose primary responsibility lies in the domain of gender mainstreaming. The NCGP is comprised of an Executive Committee (EC) and of delegates, as per TOR.

D. The Committee is supported in its work by the NOGP as per TOR of the Office. The Office is the permanent focal point for collecting, providing and sharing information regarding national programmes, policies and procedures on gender related issues, including the implementation of UNSCRs 1325 and 1820 and future related UNSCRs.

E. The NCGP meets periodically in whole and in part, provides guidance and shares information. The NCGP may request an individual or agency to provide information on relevant issues.

F. The NCGP meets in NATO HQ Brussels once a year as a minimum or as required by the chairperson, as per TOR of the Committee.

TERMS OF REFERENCE FOR THE NATO COMMITTEE ON GENDER PERSPECTIVES (NCGP)

1. **Establishment.** An ad hoc committee on Women in the NATO Forces was formed during the NATO Conference of Senior Women Officers held in Brussels between 10 and 14 Nov 73. The Committee was granted formal recognition by the Military Committee on 19 Jul 76 under reference of MC 249 (Final). The Committee on Women in the NATO Forces (CWINF) evolved into the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (NCGP) in 2009.⁵⁷

2. **Mission Statement.** The NCGP advises NATO leadership and member nations on gender related issues, including the implementation of relevant United Nations Security Council Resolutions (UNSCRs).

3. **Purpose and Responsibility.**⁵⁸

A. Is an advisory body to the Military Committee (MC) on gender related policies for the Armed Forces of the Alliance.

⁵⁷ NATO Committee on Gender Perspective (2012) Retrieved from https://www.nato.int/issues/women_nato/2012/HANDBOOK_2012.pdf p. 10 Assessed on 12 May 2020

⁵⁸ Ibid

B. Promotes gender mainstreaming as a strategy for making women's as well as men's concerns and experiences an integral dimension of the design, implementation, monitoring and evaluation of policies, programmes and military operations.

C. Responsibilities. The Committee's responsibilities are: (a) To facilitate the exchange of information among NATO Nations, on gender related policies and gender mainstreaming. (b) To facilitate the exchange of information within the NATO Command Structure (NCS), and specifically within NATO HQ. (c) To liaise with international organizations and agencies concerned with the integration of a gender perspective into military operations as well as with gender related issues.⁵⁹

D. As the NATO focal point, to collect, analyze and disseminate relevant information from NATO and Partner nations. (a) To provide advice to the MC on gender issues, including the implementation of UNSCRs 1325 and 1820 and future related UNSCRs. (b) As requested by the MC, to advise and support on specific gender related issues.⁶⁰

4. Organisation of the NCGP. (a) The NCGP is governed by an Executive Committee (EC) and supported by the NATO Office on Gender Perspectives (NOGP). (b) Each NATO nation having a representative in the MC is entitled to designate one delegate to the NCGP. Delegates should be active duty officers of senior rank or civilian equivalent. They should be familiar with the latest national developments in gender methods, approaches and tools for gender mainstreaming. They should also be familiar with relevant UNSCRs, especially with UNSCRs 1325 and 1820 and with national policies or actions taken to implement these resolutions. (c) Non-NATO nations may be invited to contribute to the activities of the NCGP. d. The NCGP can be either tasked by the MC or EC on specific gender related issues.⁶¹

5. Organisation of the EC. (1) The EC comprises of the Chairperson, the Chair Elect, and two Deputy Chairpersons. (a) The Chairperson and the Chair Elect are designated nationally and should be active duty female officers of senior rank. (b) Deputy Chairpersons are designated nationally and should be active duty officers of senior rank. (c) The Chairperson, Chair Elect and Deputy Chairpersons are non-voting members of the NCGP. They are elected for a two-year period and are in addition to the nation's designated delegate. The Chair-Elect takes over the chairing of the Committee after a 2 year co-chairing period. (d) The EC represents

⁵⁹ NATO Committee on Gender Perspective (2012) Retrieved from https://www.nato.int/issues/women_nato/2012/HANDBOOK_2012.pdf p. 13 Assessed on 12 May 2020

⁶⁰ Ibid

⁶¹ Ibid

the committee on international fora. (e) All EC members should be familiar with: (2) (a). The latest international developments in gender methods, approaches and tools for gender mainstreaming; (b) Relevant UNSCRs, especially UNSCRs 1325 and 1820 and with national and international policies or actions taken to implement these resolutions;. © Women's integration programmes; d. Personnel policies. (3) EC members should be able to identify and transcend cultural differences and to bridge cultural gaps in order to successfully implement gender initiatives and policies in an international environment. (4) The Chief of the NATO Office on Gender Perspectives (NOGP) is appointed to the Committee and acts as a nonvoting Secretary. The Secretary acts as a point of contact between the EC and NATO authorities within NATO HQ.⁶²

6. Elections of new representatives to the EC. Every two years, during the annual committee meeting, elections of new representatives to the EC are to be performed. Prior to the meeting, NATO Nations are requested to nominate a candidate and submit the candidature to the NOGP. Only National Delegates are entitled to vote. In the event of a tie, delegates vote again until a majority is reached.⁶³

7. Method of work and tasking methods. (a) The NCGP can be tasked by the MC or by the EC. (b) Given the annual frequency of the NCGP meeting and to ensure enough time is provided for collaboration among NATO Nations, the MC should task the committee via the EC in advance, but no later than 1st October each year. Upon receipt of the tasking, the Chairperson tasks the Deputy Chairs. Relevant taskings are to be sent out to National Delegates. (c) Based on national inputs and other subject experts, a draft document is to be developed by the EC and circulated among nations for further development. The final draft is to be presented and discussed during the annual NCGP meeting, before being presented to the MC. (d) In order to resolve issues/ taskings requiring speedy resolution, the Chair is authorised to call special meetings or clear them by correspondence.⁶⁴

8. Frequency of Meetings, Venue and Scheduling. (a) Frequency of the NCGP meeting. The NCGP is to meet once a year as a minimum or as required by the chairperson. The committee meeting is to be held in May. The duration of the meeting is to be determined by the agenda, with a maximum length of five working days. (b) Location. The NCGP meeting is to take place in the NATO HQ in Brussels in order to maintain and reinforce the interaction with the IMS

⁶² Ibid p. 13

⁶³ Ibid

⁶⁴ Ibid p. 14

and the MC. (c.) Frequency of the EC meeting. The EC is to meet once a year as a minimum or as directed by the chairperson. The EC meetings normally are to take place at NATO Headquarters in Brussels.⁶⁵

9. Financial arrangements. (a) Expenses for lodging and meals are the financial responsibility of each participating Nation. (b) Other expenses related to the organizing of the meeting are the financial responsibility of the Chairing Nation. Note: the NOGP is required to co-ordinate the meeting facilities and one official dinner for the attendees.⁶⁶

10. Communication Channels. (a) On an annual basis, the Chairperson formally briefs the MC on the results of the committee's work. (b) The Secretary of the NCGP circulates recommendations, reports and other relevant documents as promulgated in IMSSOP-1. (c.) The Secretary, on behalf of the Chairperson and Deputy Chairs, communicates directly with national delegates on matters of routine business. (d) Any communication to NATO Military Authorities should be coordinated via the Secretary. € Distribution and circulation NCGP correspondence, discussion, positions and documentation should be facilitated via the NATO web site to the maximum practical within NATO's security guidelines.⁶⁷

5.3 TERMS OF REFERENCE FOR THE NATO OFFICE ON GENDER PERSPECTIVE

1. **Aim.** The NATO Office on Gender Perspectives (NOGP) serves as the Secretariat for the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (NCGP) and the advisor to the Committee Chairperson. As the Office of Primary Responsibility (OPR) within the International Military Staff (IMS), it provides information and advice on gender issues.⁶⁸

2. **Organisation and Composition.** a. The personnel forming the NOGP are assigned to the Executive Coordinator (EXCO) Office, IMS, and are responsible to the: (1) NCGP to carry out the duties and responsibilities as outlined in paragraph 3. (2) Director of the International Military Staff (DIMS), through the EXCO of the IMS, on gender issues within the Alliance to

⁶⁵ Ibid

⁶⁶ Ibid

⁶⁷ Ibid

⁶⁸ Ibid p. 15

carry out the duties and responsibilities as outlined in paragraph 4. b. The composition of the NOGP is as promulgated in MC 500, the authorised Peacetime Establishment for the IMS.⁶⁹

3. Committee Duties and Responsibilities. a. Provides administrative support and information to the NCGP Chairperson on all Committee meetings, activities and events. b. Collects, analyses and disseminates information from NATO and Partner Nations regarding national programmes, policies and procedures on gender related issues, including the implementation of UNSCRs 1325 and 1820 and future related UNSCRs. Maintains an international database, including sources of information on research, recommendations, resolutions, lessons learned and programmes concerning the integration of a gender perspective. c. Responds for internal and external requests for information, in coordination with the NCGP Executive Committee (EC) in accordance with NATO protocol. d. Liaises with international organizations and agencies concerned with the integration of a gender perspective into military operations, as well as with gender related issues. e. Maintains continuity of the NCGP publications and results of the annual meetings, the recommendations and rationales. f. Coordinates the organization of NCGP and EC meetings in accordance with NATO protocol. Formulates and distributes the official Committee meeting record. g. Disseminates NCGP recommendations. h. Facilitates the exchange of information among NATO Nations, on gender related policies and gender mainstreaming. i. In consultation with the EC, coordinates appropriate press releases and press conferences with the NATO and the IMS Public Affairs Advisor Office.⁷⁰

4. OPR Staff Duties and Responsibilities. a. Provides advice and support to the EXCO on gender issues, including the implementation of relevant UNSCRs, especially UNSCRs 1325 and 1820. As directed by the EXCO the Chief of the Office will represent the IMS in Committees/ Working groups/ Cross HQ Task Forces, maintains liaison with International Staff (IS)/ NATO Military Authorities (NMAs) at NATO HQ and coordinates relevant aspects with EXCO. b. Promotes awareness on the effective utilisation and development of military women and on the importance of integrating a gender perspective into military operations. c. Facilitates the dialogue with Partnership for Peace (PfP) countries and Mediterranean Dialogue (MD) countries on relevant gender issues. d. In coordination with the EC, provides briefings

⁶⁹ Ibid

⁷⁰ Ibid

on significant milestones and the status of the integration of the gender perspective within the Alliance.⁷¹

5.5 NATIONAL REPORTS TO THE NATO COMMITTEE ON GENDER PERSPECTIVE

The third edition of the Summary of the national reports to the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (NCGP) is a digest of the statistics and progress made, in 2016, by the 28 NATO members and 13 partners on the implementation of the United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 on Women, Peace and Security.⁷²

Figure 12: Summary of the National Reports of NATO Member and Partner Nations⁷³



The summary's is to highlight the NATO-wide progress and share national approaches on the implementation of UNSCR 1325 and the integration of gender perspectives in the daily business of the armed forces. It demonstrates that the representation of women in Allied armed forces has increased to 10.9%, reaching the highest representation since 1999. Women representation in NATO operations has increased to 6.8% from 6.4% in 2015.⁷⁴

⁷¹ Ibid p. 16

⁷² NATO Annual Report on Gender Perspectives in Allied Armed Forces: progress made in pre-deployment training and work-life balance (15 December 2017) Retrieved from https://www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/news_149993.htm

⁷³ Ibid

⁷⁴ ibid

There is a noticeable development in the integration of gender perspectives in military operations and work-life balance. In 2016, more than 96% of NATO member nations included gender in pre-deployment training and exercises compared to 92% in 2015, and 78% of Allies included gender in operational planning compared to 73% in 2015. Additionally, 74% of NATO member nations have trained gender advisors and 42.3% had gender focal points in 2016.⁷⁵

In 2016, 96.3% of NATO member nations had all positions open to women in the armed forces which is an 11.7% increase from the previous year and a 26% increase compared to 2014. Almost 67% of NATO member nations reported the use of special programmes or measures to support parents, when both enlisted, compared to 52% in 2015. There was also an increase in support for single parents, with regard to service duties, to almost 67% from 65% in 2015.⁷⁶ For the first time, the summary provides an overview of the national implementations of the 2015 and 2016 NCGP Recommendations to the NATO Military Committee.

From 4 to 7 June 2019, approximately 150 participants from 24 NATO Member nations, the Republic of North Macedonia and 11 Partner nations gathered to participate in the 43rd NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (NCGP) Annual Conference. The Open Conference included three Panel discussions related to integrating gender perspectives in the armed forces - role of strategic military leadership; NATO's historic engagement with gender in military operations; and Gender Advisors' and Senior NCOs' successes and challenges in implementation at the tactical level. A book launch and discussion on "NATO, Gender and the Military: Women Organising from Within" also took place.⁷⁷

The NATO Secretary General Jens Stoltenberg opened the 2019 NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (NCGP) Conference on *Integrating Gender Perspective and Accountability: Top-down versus Bottom-up Approach*. The Secretary General highlighted the importance of mainstreaming the three I's of Integration, Inclusiveness and Integrity throughout the Alliance's daily work. He re-emphasized how "gender equality is an integral part of all NATO

⁷⁵ *ibid*

⁷⁶ *ibid*

⁷⁷ Integrating Gender Perspective and Accountability - 43rd NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (NCGP) Annual Conference (07 June 2019) Retrieved from https://www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/news_167021.htm Assessed on 11 June 2020.

*policies, programmes and projects” and that “gender should be at the centre of planning, doctrine and training”.*⁷⁸

The NCGP-Chair, Lieutenant Colonel Katrien D’Hert, stressed that the integration of principles from UNSCR 1325 and Gender Perspective into our day to day business in the political, civilian and military environments *“must be a common approach, it is a ‘need to have’, it never was and never will be a ‘nice to have’.* *“We must delve deeper into the professionalisation of the gender advisor and strengthen integrating gender perspective into professional military education. Without these advances integrated throughout our military institution, I fear we will be subjected to relive this conversation at the 25th anniversary in 2025.”*⁷⁹

5.6 International Military Staff Office of the Gender Advisor

The IMS Office of the Gender Advisor (IMS GENAD) reports directly to the Director General of the International Military Staff (DGIMS) and provides information and advice on gender issues, including the effective implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 and related Resolutions. It also serves as the Secretariat for the NATO Committee on Gender Perspectives (NCGP).⁸⁰

Among its responsibilities, IMS GENAD collects and disseminates information on the national policies relating to gender and the implementation of UNSCR 1325 and related Resolutions in NATO member and partner nations’ armed forces. Additionally, the Office facilitates dialogue with partner countries on relevant gender issues and liaises with international organisations and agencies concerned with the integration of a gender perspective into military operations.⁸¹

Responding to the call for action

The WPS mandate is fundamental to NATO’s common values of individual liberty, democracy, human rights and obligations under the Charter of the United Nations. In line with the UNSCRs on WPS, NATO aims to address gender inequality and integrate WPS priorities

⁷⁸ Ibid

⁷⁹ Ibid

⁸⁰ Gender perspective in NATO armed forces (22 August 2019) Retrieved from https://www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/topics_101372.htm Assessed on 11 June 2020.

⁸¹ Ibid

through the Alliance's three core tasks of collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security.⁸²

NATO is actively seeking to incorporate gender perspectives within the analysis, planning, execution and evaluation of its operations and missions. This is also an important focus in NATO's cooperation with partner countries, both in the preparation of troops that will deploy in NATO-led operations and missions, as well as in wider cooperation on defence capacity building. NATO is also seeking to promote greater gender equality and increase the participation of women in defence and security institutions within the Organization and its member countries.⁸³

NATO cooperates with other international organisations to advance the overall agenda on WPS. The Regional Acceleration of Resolution 1325 (RAR) framework serves as a joint platform for NATO, the EU, OSCE, UN and AU for sharing best practices on WPS. NATO also recognises the important role civil society organisations continue to play in overseeing the promotion of women's and girls' empowerment and the protection of their rights. To better support NATO's implementation of the UNSCRs on WPS, the Civil Society Advisory Panel (CSAP) was established. The CSAP provides overarching recommendations on the integration of a gender perspective into NATO's core tasks and liaises with women's organisations in national settings.⁸⁴

A number of gender-related projects under the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme involve civil networks of experts from Allied and partner countries, providing a forum for sharing knowledge and solving issues of common interest.⁸⁵

⁸² Women, Peace and Security (10 July 2019) Retrieved from https://www.nato.int/cps/en/natohq/topics_91091.htm Assessed on 13 June 2020.

⁸³ Ibid

⁸⁴ Ibid

⁸⁵ Ibid

NATO/EAPC Action Plan for the Implementation of the NATO/EAPC Policy on Women, Peace and Security⁸⁶

The first NATO/EAPC Action Plan to support the NATO/EAPC Policy on the Implementation of the United Nations Security Council Resolutions (UNSCRs) on Women, Peace and Security (WPS) was endorsed at the Lisbon Summit in 2010. The Action Plan that complements the NATO/EAPC Policy, has been revised on a biannual basis since 2014 to reflect its implementation. This Action Plan covers the period of July 2018 - July 2020. An Implementation Plan will be drafted to further detail the activities within this Action Plan, by December 2018, in consultation with Allies and associated partners for NAC decision.⁸⁷

The NATO/EAPC ACTION PLAN ON WOMEN, PEACE AND SECURITY is intended to work in tandem with the NATO/EAPC Policy on Women, Peace and Security; both derivatives of the UNSCRs on Women, Peace and Security. The overarching agenda is based on the principles set out in the Charter of the United Nations and other international agreements that form the framework for women's rights and gender equality.⁸⁸

NATO and its partners aim to contribute to the implementation of the WPS agenda by supporting in full the implementation of this Action Plan as an integral part of everyday business in both civilian and military structures. In line with the Policy, NATO aims to address gender inequality and integrate WPS through the Alliance's three core tasks of collective defence, crisis management and cooperative security. NATO and its partners recognise the adoption of the WPS agenda and support the advancement of gender equality through the guiding principles of: a. Integration: gender equality must be considered as an integral part of NATO policies, programmes and projects guided by effective gender mainstreaming practices. Achieving gender equality requires the recognition that each policy, programme and project affects women and men differently. b. Inclusiveness: representation of women across NATO and in national forces is pivotal to enhance operational effectiveness and success. NATO will seek to increase the participation of women in all tasks throughout the International Staff (IS) and International Military Staff (IMS), including in meetings, training opportunities, and public engagement. c. Integrity: systemic inequalities are addressed to ensure fair and equal treatment of women and men in the Alliance. Accountability on efforts to increase awareness and

⁸⁶ NATO/EAPC Action Plan for the Implementation of the NATO/EAPC Policy on Women, Peace and Security (2018) Retrieved from https://www.nato.int/nato_static_fl2014/assets/pdf/pdf_2018_09/20180920_180920-WPS-Action-Plan-2018.pdf p. 18 Assessed on 13 June 2020.

⁸⁷ Ibid p. 18

⁸⁸ Ibid

implementation of the WPS agenda shall be made a priority in accordance with international frameworks. The NATO/EAPC Policy on Women, Peace and Security and the Action Plan are the basis for the work on WPS for each division in NATO's International Staff and International Military Staff. Individual divisional work plans will be developed to incorporate gender equality provisions and promote sustainable outcomes.⁸⁹

Integration: Achieving gender equality requires the recognition that each policy, programme and project affects women and men differently. Gender equality therefore must be considered as an integral part of NATO policies, programmes and projects. To promote effective integration of gender, a gender lens will be applied throughout NATO's core tasks in accordance with international and normative frameworks on WPS. Cooperative Security Outcome⁹⁰

A. Actions Strengthened institutional framework. Include gender perspectives/WPS priorities in cooperative security frameworks and programmes, including Individual Partnership Action Plans Individual Partnership and Cooperation Programme Planning and Review Processes; as well as defence related capacity building efforts. Implement and develop research and capacity-building efforts within the NATO Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme in support of Women, Peace and Security, including on cross cutting topics such as countering violent extremism, counter-terrorism, and cyber defence.⁹¹ Integrate gender perspectives into early warning analysis to enhance situational awareness and intelligence gathering. Mainstream gender perspectives/WPS priorities into existing NATO standards and develop policy guidelines on topics where appropriate. Provide support to Allies and partners on the development and revision of National Action Plans (NAPs) by developing a database of best practice to facilitate the establishment of comprehensive and accessible information. Map current NATO WPS training activities to ensure that gender perspectives/WPS priorities are included in relevant training activities. Design and develop training and capacity-building activities on gender sensitive reporting to strengthen the knowledge and inclusion of sex-disaggregated data into NATO reporting, as appropriate.⁹²

⁸⁹ Ibid

⁹⁰ Ibid p. 18

⁹¹ Science for Peace and Security (SPS) Programme 2018 Work Programme (AC/340-N(2017)0236-REV2) and Report on SPS Activities in support of the implementation of United Nations Security Council Resolution (UNSCR) 1325 on Women, Peace, and Security (AC/340-N(2017)0219).

⁹² NATO/EAPC Action Plan for the Implementation of the NATO/EAPC Policy on Women, Peace and Security (2018) Retrieved from https://www.nato.int/nato_static_fl2014/assets/pdf/pdf_2018_09/20180920_180920-WPS-Action-Plan-2018.pdf p. 19 Assessed on 13 June 2020.

B. Enhanced engagement, cooperation and coordination with other international organisations on WPS13. Conduct targeted and coordinated efforts with relevant organisations to incorporate WPS priorities through, inter alliance staff-to-staff talks, exchanges of information, lessons learned and best practices, joint initiatives, and training activities for participants, including in theatre. Cooperate with the European Union on a staff to staff level¹⁴, including on a) development of early warning indicators and a roadmap for future engagement b) fostering cooperation on gender and WPS related aspects in building partners' capacity in areas as appropriate,⁹³ and c) development of capacity building efforts on gender analysis. Cooperate with the African Union on activities including a) development of gendered early warning indicators, b) support to the development and knowledge sharing on NAPs and c) sharing best practices for the development of a NATO Sexual Exploitation and Abuse Policy. Enhance cooperation with international organisations through the established Regional Acceleration of Resolution 1325 (RAR) framework as a platform for knowledge sharing.⁹⁴

C. Strengthened Civil Society/NATO cooperation through regular engagement with the Civil Society Advisory Panel (CSAP). Conduct monthly consultations with members of CSAP. Organise the CSAP's annual meeting in Brussels to promote better consultation and dialogue between civil society and NATO. Identify entry points for CSAP engagement with NATO to enhance the inclusion of gender perspectives into NATO activities. Research on women's perceptions of defence and security, with the engagement of CSAP, aiming to enhance understanding of societal factors shaping women's perceptions of security, their needs, and their views of NATO. Conduct a comprehensive independent review of the CSAP structure in order to strengthen the mechanism of consultation and allow for better engagement as needed. This review will aim to assess the impact of the CSAP and will be consulted with Allies and associated partners.⁹⁵

Crisis Management: NATO-led activities, operations and missions are enhanced through the integration of gender perspectives. Enhance knowledge and skills on gender analysis within NATO by engaging with relevant stakeholders. Develop a gender analysis methodology for NATO led activities, operations and missions. Research and analyse the operational impact of Gender Advisers across NATO, to clarify what is needed to enhance operational effectiveness.

⁹³ Ibid p. 20

⁹⁴ Ibid

⁹⁵ Ibid

Integrate gender perspectives into political and military guidance, including operational directives, concepts of operations and operational plans. Ensure all efforts are made to support continued deployment of trained, full-time gender advisers with clearly defined roles and responsibilities to operations and missions with regular engagement with the Commander or head of NATO body,⁹⁶ and support from gender focal points. Integrate gender perspectives/WPS principles into all training developed for NATO activities, operations and missions. Ensure the inclusion of gender perspectives within the exercise objectives of the Crisis Management Exercise (CMX). Integrate gender perspectives in Civil Emergency Planning guidelines.⁹⁷

Collective Defence

A. Actions Mechanisms to encourage exchanging information and sharing best practices are strengthened. Provide opportunities for Nations to exchange information and share best practices on WPS. Continue to collect and strengthen data to include in the annual ‘Summary of National Reports of NATO Member and Partner Nations’ to encourage the exchange of best practice on recruitment and retention efforts for women in the military. Provide advice and recommendations to Nations, if requested, on the development of appropriate education and training programmes, and tools on gender perspectives/WPS principles, and to advise on methods to integrate gender perspectives in exercises and programmes.⁹⁸

B. Actions Gender Perspectives are addressed in efforts and strategies related to Emerging Security Challenges. Integrate gender perspectives into Cyber Defence Pledge, in order to both enhance the number of women as stakeholders in cyber defence and to guarantee gender perspectives are taken into account when strengthening and enhancing the cyber defence of national infrastructures and networks. Integrate gender perspectives into efforts to counter hybrid warfare, in order to both enhance the number of women as stakeholders and to encourage gender perspectives be taken into account in strategies to counter hybrid warfare. Reinforce NATO’s efforts to implement all relevant UNSCRs on WPS and include gender perspectives in countering terrorism efforts for their long term sustainability, including by supporting gender-sensitive research conducted by the SPS programme aimed at identifying

⁹⁶ Ibid p.21

⁹⁷ Ibid p. 21

⁹⁸ Ibid p. 22

radicalisation and violent extremism and developing evidencebased responses, including the empowerment of women to safeguard communities.⁹⁹

C. Actions Gender Perspectives are included in Defence Planning Process. Continue to include gender perspectives in the NATO Defence Planning Process through the Political guidance 2019.¹⁰⁰

Inclusiveness

Inclusion of women across NATO and in national forces can contribute to enhanced operational effectiveness. Respect for diversity and professional accountability is needed. NATO will seek to increase the participation of women in tasks throughout the IMS and IS, including in meetings, training opportunities, and public engagement

A. Greater gender balance is in place across NATO. Map the obstacles and implement activities to increase the number of women in NATO, especially in leadership roles. Provide support to the Executive Management Division to implement gender balance practices based on existing policies to increase the number of women in the International Staff at all levels. Provide continued support for initiatives on management training, including on how to avoid unconscious bias.¹⁰¹

B. Improved understanding by NATO civilian and military staff of the practical implications and benefits of the WPS agenda. Develop and implement a mandatory Gender Awareness training package for civilian and military NATO staff at all levels at HQ. Develop a handbook on preventing, responding, monitoring, and reporting on conflict-related sexual and gender-based violence (CR-SGBV) in line with the Military Guidelines on the Prevention of and Response to CR-SGBV. Increase and further develop the network of Gender Focal Points across NATO bodies, civilian and military staffs and national representations to these bodies. Ensure regular coordination of GFPs, support enhanced knowledge development and encourage senior management support to mainstream gender/WPS principles across NATO. Design and implement a coaching and mentoring programme to senior staff and leadership on the implementation of WPS and gender equality.¹⁰²

⁹⁹ Ibid p. 22

¹⁰⁰ Ibid p. 22

¹⁰¹ Ibid p. 23

¹⁰² Ibid

C. Gender Perspectives are integrated in NATO's defence and security related capacity building efforts. Include gender perspectives in the development of NATO's defence and security related capacity building efforts. Include Gender and WPS as part of the DCB packages and into NATO's ongoing efforts to enhance the training and education curricula of partner nations.¹⁰³

Integrity

Systemic inequalities are addressed to ensure fair and equal treatment of women and men in the Alliance. Accountability on all efforts to increase awareness and implementation of the WPS agenda shall be made a priority in accordance with international frameworks. Support from senior leadership is integral to enhancing efforts and promoting gender equality.¹⁰⁴

A. Specific measures to prevent sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA) in NATO led operations and missions are enforced. Develop a NATO Policy on combatting sexual exploitation and abuse (SEA) in consultation with stakeholders, including relevant international organisations. Develop a handbook on the prevention of and response to SEA in line with an agreed NATO SEA Policy. Develop training for NATO on identifying, preventing and responding to SEA in NATO-led operations and missions.¹⁰⁵

B. Measures to prevent and respond to sexual harassment at NATO are improved. Promote the current policies and guidelines on sexual harassment and codes of conduct widely across NATO; and increase opportunities for dialogue and communication on the issues to civilian staff. Promote awareness of procedures on prevention and response to sexual harassment, including support to the 'Persons of Confidence' network.¹⁰⁶

C. Enhanced protection of women and girls from human trafficking through the updated NATO Policy on Combatting Trafficking in Human Beings. Update the 'NATO Policy on Combatting Trafficking in Human Beings' in consultation with relevant stakeholders, which will better reflect the linkage between WPS and human security and reinforce efforts to protect civilians, in particular women and girls who are the primary victims of trafficking. Identify national and international good practices on human trafficking prevention.¹⁰⁷

¹⁰³ Ibid

¹⁰⁴ Ibid p 24

¹⁰⁵ Ibid

¹⁰⁶ Ibid

¹⁰⁷ Ibid

Public Diplomacy Outcome

Increased visibility of NATO's Women, Peace and Security agenda and of the efforts undertaken on the implementation. Develop a NATO Communications Strategy on Women, Peace and Security, in coordination with Allies. Provide input and recommendations to strategic communications products to include gender perspectives. Develop key messages on gender perspectives/WPS priorities through a glossary of terms and concepts to enhance awareness and promote consistency of gendered language across NATO. Ensure targeted public diplomacy engagements (visits, seminars, conferences, projects), including SGSR WPS outreach, aimed at promoting NATO's efforts and progress in meeting Allies' and partners commitments to implement UNSCRs on WPS.¹⁰⁸

Monitoring and Evaluation Outcome

Enhanced accountability is in line with monitoring and evaluation mechanisms. Engage in a NATO wide assessment and evaluation of the WPS mandate to understand the progress and persistent challenges to the implementation of WPS. Identify key data collection, analysis, monitoring and reporting mechanisms on WPS, in order to encourage that all NATO internal reports to include a reference to WPS and data provided can be disaggregated by sex. The Secretary General of NATO will continue to provide information on the implementation of the WPS Action Plan in the annual report. Continue and reinforce the operation of the Women, Peace and Security Task Force, to monitor the implementation of the Action Plan. Institutionalise a leadership task force at managerial level to meet bi-annually to support and guide the work on WPS and ensure accountability for all initiatives foreseen in this Action Plan. Relevant NATO bodies, with partners as appropriate, will discuss progress and further lines of action on WPS every six months or earlier at the request of nations. Publish a public annual progress report on the implementation of this Action Plan.¹⁰⁹

5.7 Summary

The chapter complies the International committees and resolutions already taken, ongoing and to be implemented in order to meet Gender equality, Peace and growth in Armed forces. NATO as an intergovernmental military alliance committed to international peace, sees the integration

¹⁰⁸ Ibid p. 25

¹⁰⁹ Ibid

of gender perspective as one of the methods to improve its operational effectiveness and to help provide the most appropriate response to a crisis.¹¹⁰

As a culmination of the efforts of NGOs, various UN bodies, and the contribution of a number of smaller member states and non-permanent members of the Security Council, including Namibia, Bangladesh, Jamaica, Mali, and Canada, the UN Security Council adopted resolution 1325, a landmark resolution on women, peace and security on 31 October 2000.¹¹¹

Resolution 1325 has three fundamental pillars to implementing the work on women peace and security:

1. **Prevention** means all efforts to prevent violations of men and women's human rights. Efforts can include preventing gender-based sexual violence, prosecute offenders of sexual violence and strengthen legal support for women's rights.
2. **Protection** – Since armed conflict affects men, women, boys and girls differently, they may need different sorts of protection.
3. **Participation** – Women and men should participate on equal terms in all levels of the peace process, in the post-conflict work and before, during and after the conflict. At the moment, this is rarely the case and women often have less influence than men in these processes. The results of the misrepresentation of women in peace processes is that their rights often are overlooked in the post-conflict work.¹¹²

The UNSCR 1325 states that the method to achieve protection, prevention and participation is through gender mainstreaming of all activities. This means that a gender perspective should be used in all activities in order to address the whole population (men, women, boys and girls).¹¹³

Currently, there are ten resolutions on the topic of Women, Peace and Security. The landmark resolution 1325 came in 2000 but the progress with the implementation was slow. Nine more resolutions were adopted from 2008 and forward to promote the implementation of the original UNSCR 1325.¹¹⁴

¹¹⁰ HQ SACT Office Gender Advisor, (2019) Retrieved from <https://www.act.nato.int/gender-advisor> Assessed on 15 June 2020.

¹¹¹ HQ SACT Office Gender Advisor, (2019) Retrieved from <https://www.act.nato.int/gender-advisor> Assessed on 16 June 2020.

¹¹² Ibid

¹¹³ Ibid

¹¹⁴ Ibid

UNSCR 1325 (2000): Prevention, protection and participation

UNSCR 1820 (2008): Protection against sexual violence (systematic)

UNSCR 1888 (2009): Reaffirms the importance of 1325 and 1820

UNSCR 1889 (2009): Peace building, anniversary of 1325 & indicators

UNSCR 1960 (2010): Monitoring and reporting system on CRSV

UNSCR 2106 (2013): Need for gender education and gender advisors, and CRSGBV recognized as affecting boys and men as well

UNSCR 2122 (2013): Female Participation, gaps in WPS implementation

UNSCR 2242 (2015): Addressed women's role in countering terrorism

UNSCR 2467 (2019): Sexual violence in conflict

UNSCR 2493 (2019): Urges member states to commit to implementing the nine previously adopted resolutions.

Furthermore, while they are not part of the WPS framework, it is important to mention two additional resolutions:

UNSCR 2272 (2016): Sexual exploitation and abuse in peace operations

UNSCR 2331 (2016): First resolution on human trafficking and its impact

The next chapter is leading towards women in the Indian and Hungarian Armed Forces. Their motivation, self actualization in the armed forces, Reasons to become a part of armed forces.

The upcoming chapter will illustrate how women in Indian and Hungarian armed forces are imbued, what are the reasons to join forces and how the international policies are working for women in forces.

Chapter VI

WOMEN IN THE INDIAN AND HUNGARIAN ARMED FORCES

6.1 HISTORICAL OVERVIEW

Reasons for Women to Join the Armed Forces

In a Pew Research Survey of Veterans, women's reasons for joining the military were not significantly different from men's. Female veterans say they joined to serve their country, receive education benefits, see more of the world, and gain job skills. However, more female veterans say they joined the military because jobs were hard to find (42 percent in contrast to 25 percent of men). The combat experiences of female veterans differ from those of their male counterparts, however. Females are less likely to have served in combat and to have served with someone who was killed, and they are more likely to have never been deployed away from their permanent duty station. However, they are equally likely to have emotionally traumatic or distressing experiences while serving, and their transition back into civilian life has been equally tough, including strains in their family relationships (Amara., 2014, pp 22-32).

Furthermore, an overwhelming percentage, 97 percent (96 percent for men) say they feel proud of their service and 91 percent (compared to 92 percent for men) have had someone to thank them for their military service. Female veterans see their service as useful in building their confidence and self-development, with 93 percent of women and men indicating their military experience was useful in helping them grow and mature as a person and, as a result, more than 78 percent of women say they would advise a young person close to them to join the military compared to 82 percent of men. Professionally, female veterans say their military experience has helped them to get ahead in life and feel the military was useful in terms of preparing them for a job or career (Patten, and Parker, 2011).

6.2 TWO MILITARIES TWO PRACTICES

Reasons for Indian Women to Join the IAF

There are some emotional and motivational aspects, which attract women towards armed forces. For instance, Upma, a retired officer from the Indian Army explained her desire to join the elite armed forces strengthened when she wore the uniform for the first time during NCC

(National Cadet Corps) days. National Cadet Corps is the Indian military cadet corps, Headquarters placed in New Delhi, which is a voluntary service open to school and college students. The dream was sealed during the Republic Day parade camp where she got the opportunity to have a look at the life in forces from close quarters. Of course till then the major attraction was the glitz and glamour behind the crisp uniform, but somewhere deep within Upma was the life she always dreamt of. She had been a sportsperson and loved challenges in any form, whether physical or mental. Making it through to the army was her biggest dream come true." Upma, who now works as a blogger and an online content writer, now tells us that leaving the army (Because of the short service commission) was never an easy decision for her, but made this tough decision in favour of her kids (Vachher, 2017, pp.72-80).

Another motivation to join the IAF is to wear the olive green uniform. The love for the uniform was the main reason many female officers mentioned till now in their interviews. The passion to do something different and adventurous in life, full of new challenges was another major attraction for the young women to wear the uniform. The economic and social benefits are addition to the motivation for more females to work for the armed forces organisation.

Reasons for women to join the HDF

The major motivation of women to join forces is the economical aspect. Whereas in the IAF inducting into the armed forces is a passion to pursue, economic benefits are obviously considered, but men and women join forces with the passion to do something different in their lives.

Women join forces for the same reasons as their male counterparts. There are economic aspects, status and identity to stand by themselves. Apart from mentioned reasons, armed forces provide various benefits that attracts men and women to serve their nation (Tóth, 1999, pp 361-375).

Figure 13. Changes in career motivation in Hungary from 1982- 1990¹¹⁵

1982	1990
a. Interest in techniques	a. Acquiring a flat
b. Continuation of studies	b. Financial motivation

¹¹⁵ Tóth, 1999, pp. 361-375 (Edited by author)

c. Financial motivations	c. Interest in techniques
4. Childhood ambitions	d. Continuation of studies

Career motivations were similar, only the priority changed over the period of eight years. The benefits professional soldiers are entitled to enjoy might also be attractive. This includes medical care, regular promotions, decorations of honour, concession in travel fares, reasonable holiday's accommodations.

A research on women in the HDF also showed the importance of equal opportunities, a sense of vocation, team spirit and confidence (Bolgár, 1999, pp 38-49).

The main motivation for choosing this profession is financial. The military is able to offer something that is rare in today's world such as a secure workplace with an acceptable income that can even be maintained after the maternity leave. It is now becoming increasingly seldom that someone chooses a military career primarily for sentimental reasons such as protection of the homeland or the nation (Szálkai, 2013).

Another study further clears the basic attitudes of motivation when classified in men and women, which was not strictly related to the HDF, but in general. Researcher figured out that men and women do not differ substantially on their most important life goals. Those considered most important can be arranged into the following hierarchies:

Men

- a. Happiness in family life
- b. Living in peace
- c. Pleasure of work
- d. Respect from others
- e. An adventurous life

Women

- a. Happiness in family life
- b. Living in peace
- c. Pleasure of work
- d. Respect from others
- e. To be intelligent and well qualified

6.3 MOTIVATION AND SELF ACTUALIZATION

Self-Actualization

Maslow describes the good life as one directed towards self-actualization, the pinnacle need. Self-actualization occurs when you maximize your potential, doing the best that you are capable of doing. Maslow studied individuals whom he believed to be self-actualized, including Abraham Lincoln, Thomas Jefferson, and Albert Einstein, to derive the common characteristics of the self-actualized person (Sze, 2017, p. 117).

While the goal of self-actualization and the fostering of "self-actualization values" seem to have become closely intertwined with the belief systems that predominate in most liberal democratic societies, it is less certain just how extensive the acceptance of such values actually are in the population as a whole. Is it the case, in other words, that there is a wide-ranging consensus on the ranking of self-actualization values by all citizens, or are there instead systematic differences in the degree to which different social groups embrace these orientations (Rokeach, 1973, pp 87-93)

Sex differences

There are various researchers who have formulated psychological theories to explain the sex differences in estimation of intelligence. One suggested that underestimation (modesty) is observed only in tasks that are gender typed. There is an observable psychological phenomenon where by females are subject to a response bias when judging their ability or performance on gender incongruent tasks. According to the study conducted the females are not inaccurately negative self-evaluators in general, but only in masculine domains. Therefore, research on self-evaluation should always take the gender type of the domain being measured into account. In contrast, males' experiences seem to be optimistic regardless of a task's gender type..The evidence that many parents have inaccurately low perceptions of their daughter's abilities in such areas as maths and the parents perceptions are eventually shared by their daughters. Thus, girls learn from their parents and society to underestimate their competence. Less emphasis has been placed upon self and others perceptions of males (Beyer, 1999, pp 55-72).

Occupation and Self Actualization

As measured by the POL in a research found that teachers who were higher on self-actualization were rated as more successful teachers by their students. (Murray, M.E 1966. p 22) Lafferty has reported normative data on the POI for different occupational samples such as teachers, entrepreneurs, priests, nurses and managers. (Lafferty, 1969, pp 37-45)

Ladenberger compared top and middle level management in different industries. Results were similar, but top-level managers were higher on Self Actualizing Value and Self Regard (Ladenberger, 1971, pp 180-189; Wendy, 2006, p 211).

The review of different countries has been added where women from different parts of the world are serving their respective nations. The current study figured the reasons why the females of India and Hungary have joined the armed forces. The self-actualization based on gender, occupation, personality and age are defined. The study has executed the same pattern with the gender and work related attitudes.

6.4 WORK RELATED ATTITUDES

Job Satisfaction

Lock's value theory describes that job satisfaction is the extent to which rewards received match outcomes that are valued. Determinants of job satisfaction are organisational i.e. pay, benefits, supervision, work and social stimulation and personal traits, life satisfaction (Greenberg and Baron, 2000, pp. 174-177; Wendy, 2006, p. 167).

Job satisfaction is vital for organizations because it increases employee's productivity and this devotion is beneficial for organizational progress. Thus, it is a positive factor in development of any organization (Kabir & Parvin, 2011, pp. 113-123). Women were more satisfied with their work and co-workers whereas men were more satisfied with their pay, promotions and supervision. (Kim, 2005, pp 112-119). While studying gender differences in different institutions indicated that women in public sector are equally satisfied with their jobs as men (also see Yasin and Naqvi, 2016, p. 153).

One view of job satisfaction holds that women are satisfied with jobs in which they can interact with others in a supportive and cooperative way, even though the jobs may be only minimally demanding and challenging. The basis for this view is that women are socialized into values, attitudes, and behaviors that are communal in nature, whereas men's socialization reflects agentic values and behaviors. A communal orientation involves a concern with others,

selflessness, and desire to be at one with other, whereas an agentic orientation is manifested in self-assertion and the urge to master (Bakan, 1966, pp 96-100; Eagly, 1987, pp 49-56).

Consequently, most studies have focused on which demographic and job characteristics might determine job satisfaction, and as a result, several robust relationships emerged. For instance, job satisfaction is u-shaped in age, increases if married, and often decreases with education. Two of the most studied determinants of job satisfaction are labor union status and gender. Empirically, labor union status is often found to significantly decrease job satisfaction, and this result has primarily stemmed from coefficients on union dummy variables (Artz, 2012, pp 146-157).

Life Satisfaction

Lifestyle satisfaction relates to job satisfaction. The thesis measures satisfaction with the armed forces life style such as transfers, separation from family and life after retirement, indicators that are unique in their own way to the life style of the armed forces. The life satisfaction is connected with the overall well-being of a human, satisfaction with the armed forces life style would be an important part of the life satisfaction.

Morale

In the motivation to retain and to retain the motivation the morale is the key. It could be defined in various layers. The organization's leadership and management is the basic structure, which build the morale of their employees. To sustain the zeal, the work in the particular organization will be the life satisfaction goal that will further lead to the fulfilment of life's wellbeing of the service members of the organization.

After World War Two, "morale" was important for military and civilians. The researcher stressed the intellectual aspect i.e. one is convinced what is being done will achieve the goal. Whereas the emotional aspect comes from the zest that goes with health and competence, the social aspect stands for the feeling of agreement with superiors and others with whom one co-operates. Morale is high when a person knows his objectives and he and his leaders believe they are worthwhile and attainable. Indicators of good morale are low rates of malingering, absence without leave, court martial, and loss of equipment, slackness in dress, saluting or carrying out orders, or requests for transfer (Boring, 1988, pp. 325-343; Wendy, 2006, p.123). Britt and Dickinson's morale construct is highly relevant and important to military organizations, even when applied to a nonoperational setting. Among non-deployed military

personnel, morale appears to be nurtured through their confidence in their own job skills and abilities, through the recognition that the work they are doing is important and meaningful, and through a sense of trust in those they work closely with. Accordingly, military leaders can set the conditions for high morale through training and development, rewards and recognition, communication, and team building. Doing so could enhance service members' willingness to deploy on operations, their intentions to stay with the organization, and their psychological well-being (Britt & Dickinson, 2006, pp 67-76).

The affective commitment suggested by the goal congruence approach, where the organizational goals become 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; Wendy, 2006, pp 122-125).

6.5 EMPLOYMENT, FAMILY AND SOCIAL SUPPORT

Family and Military

The military wife as a mother socializes future military generations and as unpaid labour and volunteer moves her husband's career graph upwards. Military husbands are not expected to play the same helpmate' nurturing role for the military, nor is he expected to quit his job and move as his soldier wife is transferred' or be deferential to the general/general's wife, or provide unpaid labour to make the base a community (Enloe, 1983, p. 79).

A survey of 1,000 women working in India's capital, Delhi, and its neighbouring areas found that only 18-34% of married women continued to work after having a child. Mothers traditionally bring up children in India. Few employers provide flexible working hours or crèche facilities, so many working mums end up quitting their jobs after having children. "Even women who have family support or can afford to pay for child care have a lot of guilt. This is because of the social conditioning of women that their responsibility is to bring up children," says MP and leading business woman Anu Aga. Also, there is a tendency to give greater importance to a man's job than a woman's job in India. So, companies are not willing to make special allowances to integrate women after they take a break for becoming mothers (Arya, 2015, pp 04-10).

No matter how high their position or designation is in the office, women in India are still viewed as the family manager back home. They are expected to return home at a certain time, cook,

clean and take care of family affairs. In fact, men who help out around their house are often the butt of jokes by their male friends. This makes life extremely stressful for women who have little help around the house and have to do it all.

According to a report conducted by the World Bank, and complied by BBC correspondent the numbers are stark. For the first time in India's recent history, not only was there a decline in the female labour participation rate, but also a shrinking of the total number of women in the workforce (Biswas, 2017).

1. Nearly 20 million Indian women quit work between 2004-05 to 2011-12;
2. The labour force participation rate for women of working age declined from 42 percent in 1993-94 to 31 percent in 2011-12;
3. Some 53 percent of the total drop - the largest chunk - happened among women aged 15-24 and living in villages;
4. In rural areas, the female labour force participation rate dropped from 49 percent to 37.8 percent between 2004-05 and 2009-10;
5. While more than 24 million men joined the work force between 2004-5 to 2009-10; the number of women in the work force dropped by 21.7 million.

The report further concludes that social norms are attributed to women quitting work in India such as marriage, motherhood, vexed gender relations and biases, and patriarchy. But they may not be the only reasons. Marriage, for example, does affect the rate of participation of women in the workforce. But in villages, the workforce participation rate of married women has been found to be higher than that of unmarried women – whereas in the cities, the situation is reversed. Significantly, rising aspirations and relative prosperity may be actually responsible for putting a large cohort of women out of work in India (Biswas, 2017, pp 01-09).

However, the situation of the Hungarian labour force is different, but challenging in its own way for the working women. Work-life policies that aim at achieving these goals include, inter alia, reduced working week arrangements, flexible hours, the provision of child care programmes, and job share schemes (Dex, 1999, pp 34-45; Bowen, 2000, pp.48-50; Dex & Smith, 2002, pp 67-75). Originally targeted towards women, these programmes now also benefit men and so highlight broader benefits to families and society (Wise & Bond, 2003, pp. 20-32). In addition, work-life organizational strategies emphasise how employers can adopt policies to make organizations more inclusive and enhance business performance (DTI, 2001).

Research into work-life balance policies in the organizational context in Hungary has been absent so far, partly because of the relative novelty of the work-life balance topic in organizations and professional forums, and partly because of a generally modest interest in gendered organizational phenomena in nations (Pongrácz, 2001; Frey, 2001). Like other post-socialist states, transition processes have tended to ignore gender dynamics (Metcalf & Afanassieva, 2005, pp 180-187). At the organization level there has been little attempt to promote work-life balance programmes and childcare is now assumed to be the main responsibility for women not men (Gatrell, 2005; Toth, 2005).

A study exploring trends in women's employment in Hungary with a focus on women returning to the labour market after childbirth and maternity leave resulted in 84.5% of the respondents that women with children were at a disadvantage in the Hungarian labour market. The gravest problems encountered by employed mothers included discrimination, lack of self-assurance, lack of crèche services, difficulty finding a person to care for a sick child at home, etc. On the other hand, it was found that the attitude of mothers with young children often did not automatically meet the expectations of the employer. Often, employers had to make a compromise regarding the nature and content of the job if they wanted to employ a mother. These burdens often render the reintegration of women in the labour market more difficult, which can affect their taking on a job and can prolong their inactive status (Andrea & Timea, 2009, pp. 92-97).

Family and Military Women

Who serves faces many of the same challenges that all working mothers do. These challenges include trying to balance work and home, taking sick days because a child has a fever, and the fighting of the unending perception that because we work, we are somehow short changing our children or that we are less than devoted mothers. But there is a harsher reality that military mothers face which most civilian mothers cannot comprehend unless they are in law enforcement or another similar field (Scott, 2010).

According to a 2009 CNN report the pull between family and career can be difficult for women in the armed forces, much like it is outside the military. Sixty-two percent of the employed mothers in a Pew Research Center survey said they would prefer to work part time. Female soldiers cite "the amount of time separated from family" as the most important reason for leaving the military before retirement, "Military life appears to take a greater toll on their

marriages. Female troops suffer a much higher divorce rate than do the men in uniform. Their marriages failed at almost triple the rate in 2008 -9.2 percent, versus 3.3 percent for male troops (CNN Report, 2009).

When it comes to dual military couples' careers, analyzing the timing and sequencing of military career transitions in conjunction with the partner's career and the family pathways is important to understanding the meaning of roles and their transitions. While the military is a male-dominated institution, women and men in dual military couples are not able to follow the traditional breadwinner model and serve together. Similarly, dual-career couples may prioritize work and family differently as they struggle to maintain two careers in a work domain structured to support only the male career in each family with the assumption that there is a full-time wife to provide support and help meet the work demands of the military. In response to what popular media began depicting as the "opt-out revolution" by working women, work and family researchers studied working couples and found that most women were not leaving work for family reasons (pulled). Rather, working women were being forced away from paid market work by the workplace (pushed) (Stone, 2007, pp 47-50). In the current historical period when women's paid work is the norm, women are finding that as they enter the labour force and attempt to meet the social and cultural expectations of paid work based on the "ideal worker" norm, they are encountering a workplace and organizational culture that does not accept them. In what has been labelled the "double bind" by Hochschild (2003) or the "choice gap" by Stone, women are expected to comply with the social norms of "intensive mothering" and "concerted cultivation" while performing as an "ideal worker" (Hays.S, 1996, pp 57-59; Lareau, 2003, pp 88-90). Additionally, women still contend that husband's jobs cross over and affect their own in terms of support for his job. The husbands' job is still privileged in most dual-career marriages. In reality, it appears that women are making decisions about career and family within the constraints that exist today in society (Smith, 2015, pp 03-08).

Women in dual military couples in this study find role transitions are influential in creating a work-family fit while managing two careers, finding co-located jobs with their husbands, and dealing with time away from each other. In coordinating two careers with a family, maintaining flexibility and options is vital to achieving work and family goals based on life stage timing. The fast track military culture pushing people toward the most competitive career path is limiting for women who are fitting together two careers while trying to get nearby job assignments. Because these couples have twice as many factors to coordinate in the same

organizational system, intricate and long-term planning is required to meet career and family goals as they negotiate the job assignment process and work to achieve co-location. Finding co-located job assignments for their individual career paths is challenging and often perceived to require more time and other family types (Smith, 2015, pp 03-08).

While there are many similarities with other dual career couples, the nature of deployments and sea service, routine changes of location every 2-3 years, and relatively compact and structured career paths controls and limits work and family role transitions as found in the meaning these women described. Similar meaning and experience could likely be found with enlisted Navy women and women from other Services and countries contending with the same military work context in combat occupational specialties. From the life course perspective concept of human agency, decision-making based on exerting control of every aspect of their lives emerges from the conversations with these couples. The organizational constraints and demands are so overwhelming and comprehensive with two people in the same organization that these couples focus their time, energy, and efforts on keeping control of their lives and not letting the organization dictate any more decision-making than necessary. These dual-career couples use an integrated couples approach in their work and family decisions which focuses on the interaction with the organization instead of within the couple (Smith, 2015, pp 03-08).

In an interview with an Indian Navy female officer defended the idea that defence career wouldn't clash with her family life "unless I get a difficult remote posting" said / stated / according to Lt Joshi. Compulsory transfers happen once every three or four years. "There are married women officers and they are striking a balance between their professional and personal life. There isn't any specific challenge in the navy. It may not be everyone's cup of tea, but I love it," she elaborates. Like Joshi has mentioned, an encouraging and accommodating family is crucial in making things work. Cdr. Sowjanya Sree's 13-year-old son is in a boarding school in Hyderabad because she didn't want him to move to different institutions in his secondary schooling years. Cdr. Sowjanya Sree opines that bringing up children while being in service has become relatively easier. "These days, female officers can take almost a year's leave on having a baby by clubbing maternity leave, annual leave, furlough leave, and so on. I used to leave my three-month-old baby in a crèche and go to work," remarks the officer, who was earlier working on missile control systems in Defense Research and Development Organisation (DRDO) in Visakhapatnam (Vijay, 2015, pp 02-04).

The literature reviewed in this section has portrayed a picture about the issues women need to cope with. When having a career and in addition the family to balance, makes it difficult for a women, particularly women in armed forces. The family and social support is a huge requirement in order to pursue their ambitious career. The present study has investigated the need of family and social support for married women in Indian and Hungarian armed forces.

6.6 SUMMARY

Based on the chapter Gender and Women the research has focused on women in the Indian and Hungarian Armed forces with certain assumptions, leading to particular dimensions.

Gender stereotype exist in the armed forces, for full integration of women in both Indian and Hungarian armed forces, Attitudes towards women in combat and leading positions need to be examined. There will be gender differences in motivation, work related attitudes amongst women in HDF and IAF.

The present chapter portrayed developments in the work related attitudes, self-actualization, motivation, stress, personality, social support, gender equality attitudes and peace keeping participation attribute of women in HDF and IAF.

Chapter VII

WOMEN IN COMBAT

Much of the commentary on women in the military till date and most particularly in relation to their ability to adapt and perform combat roles has been strongly influenced by socio-cultural perspectives flowing from an exclusively male oriented warrior framework or at least the assumptions underlying it. Moreover, until recently, much of the social and behavioural science-based evidence has been downplayed or ignored in favour of anecdotal evidence, personal opinion and / or uninformed conjecture. However, fundamental questions have been raised regarding expansion of women's roles, which call for responses based on the evidence available today. A study conducted by United States Heritage Foundation, addresses such issues revolving around the physical and mental suitability of women for combat operational roles, the impact of women on group cohesion and effectiveness, and public and personal attitude towards women in combat.¹¹⁶

In the IAF, women serve in combat support arms like the Corps of Signals, Army Air defence, Corps of Engineers, Intelligence Corps, and apart from this they also serve in Service arms Army Ordnance Corps, Judge Advocate General branch, Education Corps, Medical Corps the Corps of Electronic and Mechanical Engineers, and the Army Service Corps. In the Indian air force, women are now been inducted in all streams, including Fighters. In the Indian navy, there are restrictions on posting women officers aboard ships and submarines. Most militaries worldwide induct women, but only a few allow them to perform active combat roles,. Among these countries are Canada, Denmark, Finland, France, Germany, Norway and Switzerland. Countries like United Kingdom and Israel allow women to serve in combat arms positions like artillery roles, but exclude them from infantry units. The US allows women in most combat flying positions (Sharma, 2008, p 2).

India will allow women to take up combat roles across all three branches of the military, the country's President said, indicating a path to gender equality in one of the world's largest armies. "In the future, my government will induct women in all fighter streams of our armed forces," President Pranab Mukherjee said in an address to the Indian Parliament, according to Reuters. Women only make up 2.5 percent of the Indian Army's million-plus personnel, mostly in medical or administrative roles. The army has largely resisted a move to induct women into

¹¹⁶ David.J(2005) Women warriors; A history, Potomac Books, Incorporated, pp 247-265.

combat, expressing concerns over their ability to handle the high physical strain and vulnerability in case of capture (Iyengar, 2016, pp 76-82).

According to the 2006 Hungarian National Report combat positions have been opened for female soldiers since 1996. There is no regulation, nor confirmation concerning allowed or forbidden branches and services for servicewomen. As a consequence theoretically, women are allowed to serve in all career fields. In practice, despite of openness serving in any branch most of servicewomen still are performing their duties in administrative, human, financial and medical positions. HDF holds committee on women service members to collect local experience of the female soldiers for further analysis (Hungarian National Report, 2006, pp 3-25).

Whereas in the U.S. Armed Forces on January 1994, the Department of Defence (DoD) lifted the Risk Rule and replaced it with the direct ground combat exclusion assignment rule, stating that the DoD can assign personnel to all positions for which they are qualified in support units, except that women shall be excluded from assignment to combat units whose primary mission is to engage in direct combat on the ground. This essentially prevented women from positions in infantry, artillery, armour, combat engineering, and special operations units of battalion size or smaller. As a result, women began serving on combatant ships in the navy and, in 1998 U.S. women aviators flew combat aircraft on combat missions for the first time during Operation Desert Fox in Iraq. Since 2001, more than half of women service members reported being deployed, and of these, over half reported multiple deployments. Of the women deployed, approximately 42 percent indicated they had also been involved in combat operations, compared to 58 percent of men. The nature of women's involvement and duties has changed significantly compared to prior war eras (Amara, 2014, pp 94-104).

In times of crisis, women are suddenly indispensable to services. In times of peace, they are just as quickly disposable. "I want all the women off this base by noon," a Navy nurse recalls the orders of her base commander at the conclusion of World War II The USA Defense Department pointed the use of the term "combat" in expanding women's assignment was artificial. Though technically women were considered non-combatant, they had received hostile-fire pay and combat awards in past conflicts, from the revolutionary War to Vietnam (Francke, 1997, p 184).

In 1979 a bid for repeal never got out of subcommittee. While the civilian secretaries of air force and the navy supported repeal in their testimony, the chief of naval operations was not so sure. The Marine Corps personnel chief testified flat out against it, as did retired Army Chief

of Staff General William Westmoreland: “No man with gumption wants a woman to fight his nation’s battles.” (Martha et. al., 1991, p 92).

Women instructor pilots had been flying high performance air force jets for years, teaching men to fly the supersonic jets similar to those that the men, but not the women, could go on to fly in combat squadrons. Top pilots among them, like test pilot Jackie Parker, had withstood “G-forces” up to 7.3 times the gravitational pull on earth and flown the contour-hugging F-111 two hundred feet above the ground through the canyons of New Mexico at 600 knots. Flying ability could not be the issue. There was no rationale either for Section 6015 of title 10, which held the Navy women “may not be assigned to duty on vessel or in aircraft that are engaged in combat missions.” (Francke, 1997, p. 120).

Female sailors were already serving on the navy oilers and ammunition and supply ships that followed the aircraft carriers around the seas of the world, while navy pilots were catapulting off the flight deck of USS Lexington, the one aircraft carrier open to women for training. They kept women from jobs they have proven they are perfectly capable of doing. *The Canadian, Scandinavian and Dutch navies* had long opened all their ships to women including *Britain’s Royal Navy*. “We have concluded that to attempt to categorise ships into ‘combat’ and ‘non-combat’ would be artificial and misleading, when all ships will be liable to service in potentially dangerous waters,” Britain’s Conservative armed forces minister, Archie Hamilton, had concluded in 1989. The day the air war kicked off in Iraq in January 1991, twenty female sailors were among a crew of 254 deployed from England to the gulf aboard the British frigate HMS Brilliant (Kate, 1992, p. 45).

Women make up 15.4 per cent of the permanent ADF (*Australian Defence Forces*) workforce and 266 women are serving on current overseas operations, or 14.9 per cent of the total deployed force, according to the Women in the ADF Report 2013-14. Removing exclusions for women in the U.S. military, which was announced in 2013, is estimated to open up 237,000 jobs to women by the beginning of 2016. But how many will apply for the roles is another matter. “Keeping women out of combat roles limits their careers and contributions to the idea that men do the real fighting, and it ignores the evidence that women have always fought.” (Fox, 2015, pp 145-147).

Even in the 21st century the struggle of women continues in the area of armed forces. Despite the fact humankind has become technologically advanced, well trained and more adaptable but the struggle of the gender prevails.

Should the Armed Forces Expand the Recruitment of Women?

Some observers contended that additional military jobs could be opened to women. Others contended that adding more women to non-combat posts reduce the number of rotation slots available for men in combat units. The education, aptitude, physical size and strength, psychological differences between men and women are the factors reasoned. At issue are the qualifications needed for modern armed forces, whether women meet these qualifications, the effect more women in the services would have on the ability of the armed forces to carry out their missions, and the effect on society. One qualification is education, which some believe is becoming more important with the growing complexity of modern weapons systems. The services have been able to achieve higher standards for women recruits than for men because of the small recruitment levels for women. A principal argument in favor of increasing the numbers of women in the armed forces has been that it would be better to raise the number of women recruits who are better educated than to recruit less educated men. If the number of women recruits is increased, however, and the male recruiting requirements decline, the differences in education level between male and female recruits have narrowed. Moreover, some argue that while educational credentials may indicate a recruit's likelihood of completing an enlistment term, they are not necessarily an indicator of ability to perform a military mission (Burrelli, 1998, pp 109-112)

7.1 WOMEN AS PEACEKEEPERS

Traditionally, war, national defense, armed forces, interstate relations, security policy and peacekeeping have primarily been seen as male arena of activity. As such, the impact of militarism and military objectives on women and men, women's and men's identities and the relationship between them, has historically been neglected, or at best, underestimated (Enloe, 2000b, p. 36).

However, during the 1980s and 1990s several feminist researchers as well as women's rights organizations and advocates questioned what have traditionally been taken as logical or natural and successfully proven that military training, as well as war itself, are highly gendered activities, linked strongly to notions regarding sexuality, power, masculinity and femininity (Ethnic and Racial Studies 1998, p 19; Cockburn & Zarkov, 2002, p. 31).

Meanwhile, international peacekeeping forces and operations are playing an increasingly important role in global security policy. Claims have therefore been made for the need of integrating gender and gender equality at all levels of military activity, including peacekeeping operations. That is, in the training and sex composition of the soldiers, in the mandate and task of responsibility of each military and civilian peacekeeping force and in the planning and carrying out of the peace keeping operations (Gustafsson, 2006, p. 226).

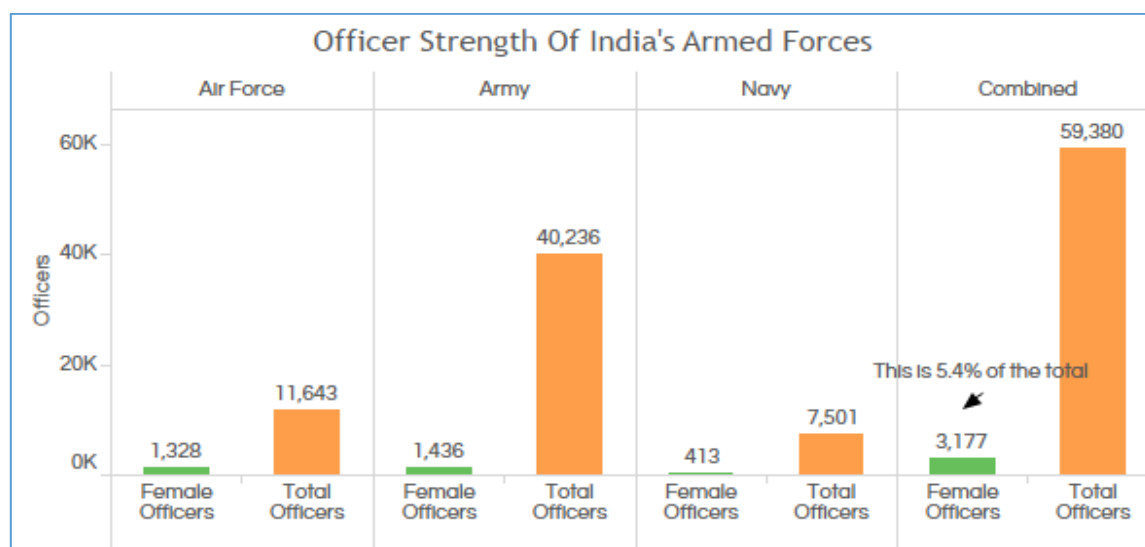
The need for women peacekeepers is more pressing than ever. In many cases, women are better-placed to carry out a number of crucial peacekeeping tasks, including interviewing victims of sexual and gender-based violence, working in women's prisons, assisting female ex-combatants during the process of demobilizing and reintegration into civilian life or mentoring female cadets at police academies. The percentage of women deployed as civilians in peacekeeping operations has reached 30 percent. Although progress has been slower with the uniformed components of UN peacekeeping operations, the UN continues to engage with police and troop contributing countries in efforts to increase the numbers of uniformed women in peacekeeping operations. Seven per cent of the 13,000 police officers and two per cent of the 87,000 military personnel were women in 2010 (Factsheet, 2010, pp 71-84).

The motivation to increase the number of women in peacekeeping is based on the assumption that women peacekeepers enhance the access of local women to services, improve community relations, reduce the incidence of sexual and gender-based violence, build the capacity of local women and break down traditional views that discriminate and marginalize women. The extent to which women are able to perform these functions needs to be interrogated, as much of this rhetoric does not reflect the realities that women face on the ground. This is reflected in the findings of a study conducted among South African male and female peacekeepers returning from missions in Congo and Sudan. The findings are revealing, often countering many of the above-mentioned essentialist claims (Heineken,, 2018, pp 102-116).

7.2 INDIAN CONTRIBUTION TO PEACEKEEPING

According to to UN Peacekeeping Organisation Report from 31 December 2017 India contributed 6697 members in the category of Troops, Military observers, Police and experts and hold *the third position* on the contributors list after Ethiopia and Bangladesh attaining first and second respectively (UN Peacekeeping data, n.a)

Figure 14: Representation of female officers in the Indian Armed Forces as defined by Lok Sabha and TOI. (Mallapur, C, 2015)



Women as peacekeepers

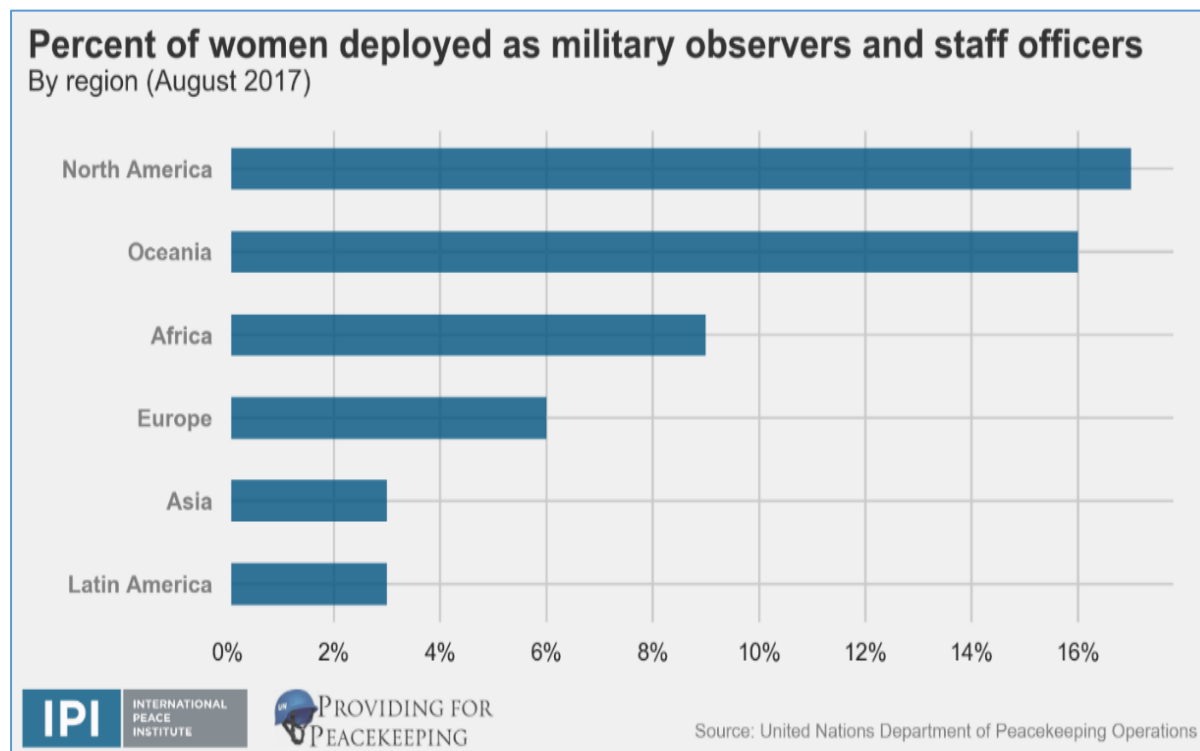
“We don’t want it to be said anymore that behind every great man stands a woman. We want her to be in the front and not in the shadow” according to a female Roundtable Participant (UNIFIL, 2014).

Figure 15: According to DPKO/OMA Statistical Report on Female Military and Police Personnel in UN Peacekeeping Operations Prepared for the 10th Anniversary of the SCR 1325, in 2010. (DPKO/OMA (2010))

UN Military Experts on Mission (UNMEM) (Includes Military Observers, Military Liaison Officers and Military Advisers)	4.14%
TROOPS (Includes Staff Officers)	2.42%
POLICE (Includes Individual Police and Police Formed Units)	8.70%
PERCENTAGE OF FEMALE/TOTAL	3.33%

Although the percentage of women in peacekeeping is improving, but still in most of the countries the percentage of women as peacekeepers is low. Participation of women as peacekeepers would resolve many problems existing.

Figure 16: Deployment of women in Peacekeeping regional division¹¹⁷



¹¹⁷ Source: UN Peacekeeping Organisation: Retrieved from <https://peacekeeping.un.org/en/women-peacekeeping>

Figure 17: Women in Peacekeeping: A growing Force¹¹⁸



Women as Communicators:

How it worked in case of peacekeeping missions and how Indian women performed in peacekeeping Liberia and how can the situation of Kashmir could become better . For instance Hungarian women in armed forces and how they are managing and what lessons Indian female officers can adopt. Unfortunately, debate regarding female soldiers appears to be more on their

¹¹⁸ Source: UN Peacekeeping <https://peacekeeping.un.org/en/women-peacekeeping>

role in combat rather than focusing on how best to utilize the strengths of female officers in peacekeeping operations (UN Women India, 2013, pp 57-68).

Access to the local population becomes particularly relevant when considering the current nature of conflicts in which UN peacekeepers find themselves. Most peacekeeping operations are mandated to protect civilians under imminent threat of danger, yet in practice this is both a daunting and immensely challenging task. Take, for example, MONUSCO, the UN mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo (DRC). This mission has to protect civilians over a territory the size of Western Europe from approximately 40 armed groups that roam and often terrorize local populations (Ivanovic, 2014, p. 44).

Studies conducted by the UN in support of resolution 1325, from experience in operations in Cambodia, Kosovo, Timor-Leste, Afghanistan, Liberia and the DRC, have demonstrated that female soldiers do not face the same cultural restrictions as their male counterparts, and are able to gain information from women and children. This ability to gain the trust of local populations should be considered a vital component of any peacekeeping operation. In fact, in Afghanistan, “Female Engagement Teams” were able to penetrate the conservative male-dominated society by regularly interacting with local women, gaining their trust until they were willing to share valuable information about areas where the Taliban were recruiting. In the DRC, the UN actively employs unmanned aerial vehicles as part of its intelligence-gathering capabilities. The ability to fully and accurately synthesize this information can only be done with supported human intelligence. With resource and budget constraints of peacekeeping operations, the UN must look to use more effectively the non-combatant elements of its mission (Ivanovic, 2014, pp 44-48).

Indian Contribution to peacekeeping

“We see you as family,” - Liberian President Ellen Johnson-Sirleaf recently told the women of the all-female Indian police unit serving in her country under the United Nations flag.

“If I had my will, I would have recommended for another unit of the United Nations Mission in Liberia (UNMIL) to leave, so that the Indian Formed Police Unit (FPU) would continue its stay in the country for the time being,” she said, speaking to a large crowd at their recent farewell ceremony, organized to coincide with India’s Republic Day, there have been nine rotations of all-female police units from India, whose primary responsibilities have been to

provide 24-hour guard duty and public order management and to conduct night patrols in and around the capital Monrovia, while assisting to build the capacity of local security institutions. A total of 125 women and supporting personnel that constitute the unit will pack their bags and return home to all corners of India following their one-year rotation in the post-conflict nation (UN news centre, 2016).

Ten years ago, there were 16,000 UN uniformed personnel in Liberia. By the end of June, there will be 1,240 militaries and 606 police. “The all-female Indian FPU will not be replaced, but its legacy will continue in Liberia and throughout peacekeeping,” said the Special Representative of the Secretary-General and Head of UNMIL, Farid Zarif (UN news centre, 2016).

In India, special trainings and all-women peacekeeper units tackle sexual violence. Officers from 16 countries, including Cyprus, Ghana, India and Tajikistan received training on how to respond to sexual violence in conflict areas. If you were a UN peacekeeper in a conflict country, what would you do if you came across a badly wounded teenage girl who had been gang-raped? Which UN rules and regulations would you follow? What would be your responsibility?” (UN news centre, 2016)

These were just some of the questions that 56 UN peacekeepers considered during a two-day training workshop organized by the Centre for United Nations Peacekeeping (CUNPK) and UN Women in September 2013. “The presence of female peacekeepers positively impacts the confidence of the local population; the reporting of gender-based violence increases; and in fact, my troops become role models for the local girls,” says Seema Dhundia, Deputy Inspector General of the Central Reserve Police Force in Chandigarh Union Territory, north of New Delhi. She was the commander of the world’s first all-female UN peacekeeping force that was dispatched to Liberia in 2007. (UN news centre, 2013).

7.3 HUNGARIAN PEACEKEEPING CONTRIBUTION

According to the military budget of Hungary, Expenditure of the HDF is US\$37,185 (the global average is approximately US\$65,905; and a regional European average of US\$7,755). Total participation of FSHDF in peacekeeping operations is 93 female service members as per 31 August 2015, which has put Hungary on 72nd rank worldwide and on rank 13th in EU members; and 12th NATO member (Szenes, 2015).

Hungarian peacekeepers participated in UN and UN mandated operations in Cyprus, Lebanon and Western Sahara, Kosovo, the Democratic Republic of Congo and Bosnia and Herzegovina. Hungary equally attached great importance to the success of the stabilisation process in Afghanistan where it was the lead nation of the Baghlan Provincial Reconstruction Team between 2006-2014 (Hungary reliable candidate, 2012-2013, p 4).

The contribution of women towards peace is a huge step towards humanity as to destroy the peace is easier than maintaining it. Women in armed forces of both India and Hungary have contributed in UN peacekeeping missions regardless of less in number. They demonstrated to be better integrators and good communicators in the conflict zone. Be it the women in East or in West, the attitudes of the societies are the same. Although the number of female soldiers is high in the HDF, but only 16 servicewomen took part in peacekeeping missions. Indian female officers besides very low in number compared to Hungarian female soldiers served more in number in peacekeeping operations abroad. The cultural attitude of society towards women aspects are same in both the nations, only in Hungary the word gender isn't highlighted but the gender gap does exist.

The UN has a particularly poor record regarding the number of female officers. In 2013 there were just 69 women military experts in its 16 missions. To help fix this imbalance, the UN Women Organisation brought more than 40 female officers together to discuss their experiences. Participants said that it wasn't just in responding to sexual violence that women have an advantage. Major Shikha Mahotra, an Indian officer with the UN Organisation Stabilisation Mission in the Democratic Republic of the Congo said that the difference between men and women in conflict lies in emotional intelligence and empathy – traits which she says don't always come naturally to her male counterparts (Allison, 2015, pp 61-78).

7.4 FEMALE PERSONNEL IN ARMED FORCES AND STRESS

According to statistics, stress affects about one out of four workers. Stress involves not only personnel in leadership positions, but it is the problem of everyone at any level. People are losing their jobs due to economic and debt crises, and many others are in daily stress whether not soon becoming one of them. Not many recognize the importance of addressing this issue, which can cause serious health problems of employees and economic losses. The European

Agency for Safety and Health¹¹⁹ at Work provides on its website interesting stress issue-relating statistics and information (Seňová,& Antořová , 2014, pp.90-105).

Other ‘human costs’ of stress and psychosocial risks at work include the emotional strain and reduction in quality of life experienced by affected individuals (Hoel et al., 2001). There is evidence that workplace stress is related to a decline in the quality of relationships with spouse, children and other family members (Crouter et al., 2001, pp 147-162; Dembe, 2001, pp 228-238; Amick & Mustard, 2005, pp 62-75).

The three factors related to stress in work environment will be analysed as relevant to women in the military that is occupational role stress, post-traumatic stress disorder and sexual harassment. Though this section has presented research on and sexual harassment and gender parity in armed forces of the two selected nations since these stressors have been widely experienced by women in the armed forces, the present research has not investigated these two aspects since this is beyond the scope of the present study. The present study has concentrated on occupational role stress.

Occupational Role Stress (ORS)

The concept of role is a key to understand how an individual functions in any system. It is through his or her role that an individual interacts with and gets integrated into a system (Parteek, 1976). The research on occupational stress in the armed forces has explored mostly environmental stressors specific to the military and their impact on soldiers' health and performance (MacDonough, 1991, pp. 2-5). It appears that little formal inquiry has been made into the association of work-related stress in the military with such outcomes as job satisfaction and work commitment, or into the social psychological resources, such as workplace, leadership and perceived organizational support, that could moderate the relationship of work stress with both the individual and the organization (Tzvetanka & et al. 2002, p. 113).

Past research has consistently documented an association between occupational role stressors and wellbeing a finding supported by the present study. Of particular interest was the strong and consistent association between role conflict relative to the other role stressors and both individual (strain) and organizational (job satisfaction and affective commitment) well-being. An exploration of the items in the role conflict subscale revealed that, unlike the other role stressors, role conflict items triggered thoughts that went beyond the immediate structure and

¹¹⁹https://europa.eu/european-union/about-eu/agencies/eu-osha_en Accessed on 19 August 2019.

nature of the work roles and tasks, into a deeper intrapersonal questioning about one's values, loyalties, and pride (Babin & Boles, 1996, pp. 57-75; Bhalla et al., 1991, pp. 289-299.; Hughes, 2001, pp. 34-40 ; O'Driscoll & Cooper, 1996, pp. 188-223; Tzvetanka et al. 2002, pp. 111-121)

In the last decade India has not indulged in any war activity, though several counter-insurgency operations have been accomplished by the army. The stress levels, however, have still increased. According to some, although military personnel have managed to adapt to the temporary hardships of wartime and humanitarian missions, the chronic stressors faced at the home base are found to be beyond their tolerance limit. Moreover, occupational stress arising out of routine military work environment is found to have significant negative impact on the mental health of military personnel (Pflanz, 2001, pp. 457-462.; Pflanz & Ogle, 2006, pp. 861-865; Sharma, 2015, pp.185-195).

Unique military demands can have a significant impact upon family life. Although most Canadian Armed Forces (CAF) families are able to cope effectively with the stressors of military life, some may experience marital conflicts, contributing to spousal violence. Moreover, there is evidence that certain personal resources can buffer the impact of spousal violence on psychological distress (Skomorovsky & LeBlanc, 2017, pp.148-158).

As per reports appearing in the press, the Indian Army lost 333 soldiers due to suicides and 75 soldiers to fratricide during the period 2004 to 2006. It has been a cause of major concern. Such incidents were unheard of earlier. Unfortunately, the emphasis has always been on material, obvious and well-known reasons – prolonged deployment in highly dangerous environments protracted separation from families, financial inequities and lack of liberty (as enjoyed by other citizens). These are all very relevant factors and do contribute in generating considerable stress. The Indian Army is a command oriented organization. Promotions are totally dependent on command performance. All commanders in their respective short tenures have to earn their spurs and hence cannot allow any leisure time to the troops (Suman, 2014).

The Times of India published that, all this is also compounded by poor salaries, denial of leave and lack of basic amenities, ineffectual leadership and sometimes humiliation at the hands of their superiors. The Indian Defence Ministry, on its part, says a large number of officers have been trained as counsellors, apart from hiring of some civilian psychological counsellors to provide "mental health services". Other measures include improvement in living and working conditions, provision of additional family accommodation and a liberalized leave policy as well

as strengthening of grievance redressal mechanisms and the conduct of yoga and meditation as part of a unit's routine (Times of India, 2017).

The Army in particular is having a large pool of deficiency in the number of officers. The shortage of officers in IAF is leading to greater stress among junior officers. The need to perform multiple functions and inadequate me and opportunity essential for intimate administration of personnel under command. Considering the fact that such shortage of officers coupled with stressful conditions in the most inhospitable climate, terrain and environment, particularly in counter-insurgency operations areas, impinge upon performance of both officers and soldiers. Hence, it is high time to initiate concrete and result-oriented steps to reduce stress at unit and sub-unit level (Dixit, 2011, pp 85-98).

Stress and Female Soldiers

The glaring gap in combat exposure instrumentation is the underrepresentation of women veterans in the validation of instruments, thereby indicating a measurement gender bias at least in the initial assessment of these instruments. The majority of instruments were initially validated based on the combat experiences of male veterans. With the exception of the Women's Wartime Stressor Scale and the Combat Experiences Scale, although many were subsequently used in mixed-gender samples. Measurement instruments developed and validated with previous generations of male veterans may not reflect the combat experiences faced by women veterans or more recent veterans of either gender. Men and women may have different reactions to traumatic experiences (Dedert et al., 2009, pp. 830-836; Luxton et al., 2010, pp. 1027-1033; Nayback, 2008, pp. 41-51; Tolin and Foa, 2006, pp. 959-992). For example, there are gender-specific risk factors making women veterans more susceptible to the psychological effects of witnessing or experiencing violence, such as prior trauma and differing physiological and emotional response patterns (Nayback, 2008, pp. 41-51; Street et al., 2009, pp. 685-694; Tolin and Foa, 2006, pp. 959-992). Women veterans also report not being as prepared for deployment and combat as their male counterparts which could contribute to combat stress reactions. (Vogt, Proctor, King, King, and Vasterling, 2008, pp. 391-403), Emerging research suggests a biological stress hormone link making some women more susceptible to a stress reaction from severe trauma (Ressler et al., 2011, pp. 492-497).

Many studies examined combat exposure, but did not utilize a validated instrument for its measurement, or constructed one specifically for their study based on other exposure instruments without reporting any psychometric results. These studies were excluded based on

their sheer number and the scope of this analysis, but may provide valuable information in further exploration of combat exposure instruments (Sternke, 2011, pp 213-120).

Finally, combat exposure instruments are not static in nature and in some cases have been adapted over time. For example, the Laufer Combat Scale was initially developed with a sample of male Vietnam veterans, later adapted for use with a mixed-gender sample of Gulf War veterans by adding several conflict-specific combat questions (Erickson, Wolfe, King, King, and Sharkansky, 2001). The Combat Exposure Index was initially validated with a sample of male Vietnam veterans, then modified in several studies with mixed-gender samples of veterans from varying conflicts. (Murdoch et al., 2003, pp 67-75; Murdoch, Polusny, Hodges, and Cowper, 2006, pp167-178; Murdoch et al., 2010, pp 116-126) The Deployment Risk and Resilience Inventory was developed, and has been used multiple times, with mixed-gender samples of veterans. These subsequent uses of instruments may affect the stability of this review (King et al, 2006).

Although measured core combat constructs probably do not change, it is likely that instrument psychometric properties will thus highlighting the importance of tracking measurement instrument usage and adaptation over time. Implications of this review include the need for future research on the use of established instruments with veterans from different combat eras and between genders, as well as the validity of using male-oriented instruments in the women veteran population (Sternke, 2011, pp 37-47).

Some write that, in the modern day of electronic warfare, it's more about overcoming stress in warfare than physical combat. It has been proven scientifically that women handle stress better and are also mentally tougher. This is not to undermine a woman's physical capability. Women have done extremely well in physical training. In the first few batches at the armed forces training academies women displayed more endurance and some even outran their male counterparts in cross-country runs and long distance marches. They carry on this tradition and keep setting new records. As commissioned officers at the age of 22-23 years, they may often have subordinates older than their parents. Hence, from day one, it is a challenge and leadership qualities are under test (Nair, 2009).

On the contrary, data collected during a month's long experiment showed Marine teams with female members performed at lower overall levels, completed tasks more slowly and fired weapons with less accuracy than their all-male counterparts. In addition, female Marines

sustained significantly higher injury rates and demonstrated lower levels of physical performance capacity overall (Seck, 2015, pp. 77-89).

The Marine Corps' data findings included the following (Seck, 2015, pp. 77-89):

1. All-male squads and teams outperformed those that included women on 69 percent of the 134 ground combat tasks evaluated.
2. All-male teams were outperformed by mixed-gender teams on two tasks: accuracy in firing the 50-caliber machine gun in traditional rifleman units and the same skill in provisional units. Researchers did not know why gender-mixed teams did better on these skills, but said the advantage did not persist when the teams continued on to movement-under-load exercises.
3. All-male squads in every infantry job were faster than mixed-gender squads in each tactical movement evaluated. The differences between the teams were most pronounced in crew-served weapons teams. Those teams had to carry weapons and ammunition in addition to their individual combat loads.
4. Male-only rifleman squads were more accurate than gender-integrated counterparts on each individual weapons system, including the M4 carbine rifle, the M27 infantry automatic rifle and the M203 grenade launcher.
5. Male Marines with no formal infantry training outperformed infantry-trained women on each weapons system, at levels ranging from 11 to 16 percentage points.

Reproductive health has not been an issue for combat oriented units in the past because women could not serve in these types of roles, but reproductive health will become an issue as units integrate. The overall health of soldiers has always been an issue for combat units; therefore, understanding how women's personal health is affected as units integrate women into combat roles is imperative. Some conducted a study to determine the factors that enabled women to integrate more efficiently into combat units within the Israeli Defense Forces (IDF) (Tarrasch, Lurie, Yanovich, & Moran, 2011, pp. 305-307).

Stress levels and the number of women seeking medical treatment provide insights into the personal health of women in combat units. Others expand from physical health to mental health in a study using data from the Behavioral Risk Factor Surveillance System (BRFSS) survey. BRFSS data was used from 2010-2012 from states that completed the optional "Veteran's Health" module providing a sample of 41,903 participants (26,206 women and 15,697 men) to investigate the mental health of veterans. It was found that when male deployed veterans were

compared to female deployed veterans the odds of adverse mental health were nearly the same, suggesting an association between serving in a combat zone and poor mental health regardless of gender. This study was possibly limited by selection bias as mentally unhealthy people might be more likely not to complete a survey (Hoglund & Schwartz, 2014, pp. 19-25).

As a result of operations in Iraq and Afghanistan, women have increasingly served on the front line, performing combat roles once reserved exclusively for men. Western military culture may have both impeded and facilitated female accession. In line with the feminist concept of hegemonic masculinity. At the same time, some highly competent women have begun to be accepted and a new cultural classification has been developed for them: they are 'honorary men'. This new status represents an important development for the armed forces and an opportunity for women. Yet, the category is so narrow that it is very difficult for women to maintain it (King, 2016).

Western forces required increased numbers of women on the front line to sustain personnel numbers and to provide specialist functions for combat units. Indeed, personnel pressure was so intense that in the case of the US and the UK, women were assigned to front-line units to fight alongside male soldiers, even though this was formally forbidden by defence policy. Operational exigencies compelled a *de facto* inclusion of women, whatever the existing norms or gendered interests of men. On this account, military necessity has demanded the inclusion of women and is, therefore, solely responsible for the emergence of the new 'honorary man' category. Indeed, some have claimed that the renegotiation of military gender norms are the more or less inevitable result of institutional and operational requirements (Sandhoff & Segal, 2013, pp. 273-294).

Yet, this organizational explanation, though plausible and necessary, is not in itself sufficient. The inclusion of women into combat units as a result of operational requirements did not, in and of itself, demand a revision of gender categories. There are examples when armies have been under similar pressure but have not revised their gender norms, even in cases when they have drafted women. For instance, a researcher has shown that the inclusion of women into combat units in the Soviet army during the Second World War involved no radical change of gender identities: 'a non-oppositional though still binary concept of gender' was institutionalized (Krylova, 2010, p 133). Soviet women and men could serve on the front line together but they were still regarded as fundamentally different, with different functions. Although the Israeli Defence Force has historically had a high level of female participation and women have served as combat instructors, in fact, conventional gender norms are typically

enforced and, indeed, are being re-inscribed (Sasoon-Levy, 2003, p. 440-65; Van Creveld, 2000a, pp. 1-20, 2000b, pp. 82-92).

Figure 18. Female Casualties in Recent Operations as of November 2016

Female Deaths.¹²⁰

Operation	Army	Navy	Marine Corps	Air Force	Total
OEF	36	4	2	8	50
OIF	89	10	8	3	110
OND	0	1	0	0	1
OIR	0	0	0	1	1
OFS	0	0	0	4	4
Total	125	15	10	14	166

Females Wounded in Action

Wounded in Action	Army	Navy	Marine Corps	Air Force	Total
OEF	314	6	29	34	383
OIF	547	6	41	33	627
OND	11	0	0	1	12
OIR	0	0	0	0	0
OFS	8	0	0	3	11
Total	873	12	70	63	1,033

Figure 19. Integration of Women into Special Operations Career Fields as of September 2016¹²¹

Component	Occupation	Applied	Accepted	In-progress	Failed	Graduated
Army Special Operations Command	Special Forces	4	2	0	0	0
USASOC	Officer					
Special Forces NCO	1	1	0	0	0	0
Naval Special Warfare	SEAL Officer	0	0	0	0	0

¹²⁰Kamarck.N.K, (December 13, 2016) Women in Combat: Issues for Congress, Retrieved from Congressional Research Service, pp 9-20. <https://fas.org/sgp/crs/natsec/R42075.pdf>

¹²¹United States Special Operations Command, Memorandum for Defense Advisory Committee on Women in the Services (DACOWITS), SOCOM Response to Requests for Information (RFI) in Advance of September 2016 Meeting,.

Kamarck.N.K, (December 13, 2016) Women in Combat: Issues for Congress, Retrieved from Congressional Research Service, pp 9-20. <https://fas.org/sgp/crs/natsec/R42075.pdf>

SEAL Enlisted	0	0	0	0	0	0
SWCC (Special Boat) Marine	3	1	0	0	0	0
Special Operations Command (MARSOC) Critical Skills Operator	Special Operations Officer	0	0	0	0	0
Air Force Special Operations Command (AFSOC) Combat Control Technician	Special Tactics Officer	3	2	1	1	0
Special Ops Weather Tech	0	0	0	0	0	0

Sexual Harassment

The U.S Department of Veteran Affairs defines Military Sexual Trauma (MST) as “sexual harassment that is threatening in character or physical assault of a sexual nature that occurred while the victim was in the military, regardless of geographic location of the trauma, gender of victim, or the relationship to the perpetrator.” According to UK Foreign Minister William Hague, SGBV (sexual and gender-based violence) is used in conflict as a weapon of war, substituted for guns and tanks. It terrorizes civilian populations, and it humiliates, scars, and aims to destroy ethnic, religious, or opposition groups (Isaksson, 2014, pp 126-142).

Research suggests that 81-93 percent of female veterans have been exposed to some type of trauma. Twenty-seven to 49 percent of women veterans experienced childhood sexual abuse and 35 percent have experienced childhood physical abuse. Traumatic experiences continue in adulthood with 29-40 percent of female veterans experiencing sexual assault and about half experiencing physical assault. Domestic violence is a significant issue for this group, as 18-19 percent of female veterans have experienced it (Zinzow et al., 2007, pp. 384-400).

In a 2002 survey of active duty military women, more than one out of every five reported physical and / or sexual assault by intimate partners, often partners who were active duty or

retired military. Prevalence of military sexual assault among female veterans ranges from 20-48 percent, and 80 percent of female veterans have reported being sexually harassed (Foster and Vince, 2009, pp 135-153). Despite the implementation of prevention programs and improved reporting mechanisms, female soldiers continue to experience sexual harassment and assault and are reluctant to report incidences. According to the Department of Defense, approximately one in three military women has been sexually assaulted compared to one in six civilians (Foster and Vince, 2009, pp 135-153).

A research conducted for the naval postgraduate school Calhoun found that in the fiscal year 2012, the survey indicated that 6.1 percent of active duty women and 1.2 percent of active duty men experienced some kind of unwanted sexual contact in the prior 12 months. For women, this represents an increase over the 4.4 percent rate measured in 2010. In the same year, there were 3,374 reports of sexual assault from abusive sexual contact to rape involving service members either as victims or perpetrators. This represents a 6 percent increase over the 3,192 reports of sexual assault received the prior fiscal year, 2011. The 3,374 reports involved 2,949 service member victims. In fiscal year 2012, the DOD Safe Helpline, the Department's confidential 24/7 hotline resource for sexual assault victims, received more than 49,000 unique visitors to its website and more than 4,600 individuals received specialized care through its online chat, telephone helpline, and texting referral services (Amara, 2014, pp 22-32).

Experiences of trauma and the subsequent impact on daily functioning can present a significant challenge as women veterans readjust to civilian life, and can be a risk factor for homelessness. Female veterans are at four times greater risk of homelessness than their civilian counterparts. (Foster, 2010).

The Daily Mail's findings indicate that in March 2011, in a rare incident when the Indian Defence Minister got to reply to questions from Members of Parliament on sexual offences in the IAF. He noted that between 2008 and 2010, seven officers were punished after probes into eight cases of sexual harassment of women officers. The investigations also revealed that in July 2008, Captain Poonam Kaur of the Indian Army, who was then posted with the 5682 Army Services Corps (AC) Battalion in Kalka, was dismissed from service after she dared to highlight sexual abuse by her seniors, in fact by three senior officers. As always, once again, a rather manipulated Court of Inquiry found no basis for her complaint (The Daily Mail's, 2017).

7.5 FUTURE CHALLENGES

The challenges will be no different than what they are today. How will bearing and raising children affect a women's readiness to deploy on short notice, as its frequently required from military units. On the contrary nature has made women more capable of taking pain and giving birth so that lifts the assumption that women are unable to perform under pain.

1. Are women suited to the rigours of ground combat? According to a study conducted in the last decade there are few challenges in which, most military women reported physical symptoms equal to those of military men, but there were differences between the genders in terms of mental health and drug use.¹²²
2. What are the potential consequences of women and men operating in intimate

7.6 SUMMARY

The chapter summarises the contribution of women in various corps including combat support roles. Indian Armed forces have opened fighter position in Air force whereas in HDF the position was always available. Slowly and gradually the attitude towards women in armed forces is changing and the number of women in forces is increasing in forces. Whereas in Indian armed forces the vacancy for women is still only for officer's position but according to Defence Minister speech in 2018 batch for other positions are under examination. But women in active combat is still a question of concern for both India and Hungary, with no wonder women are perform very well in support combat roles.

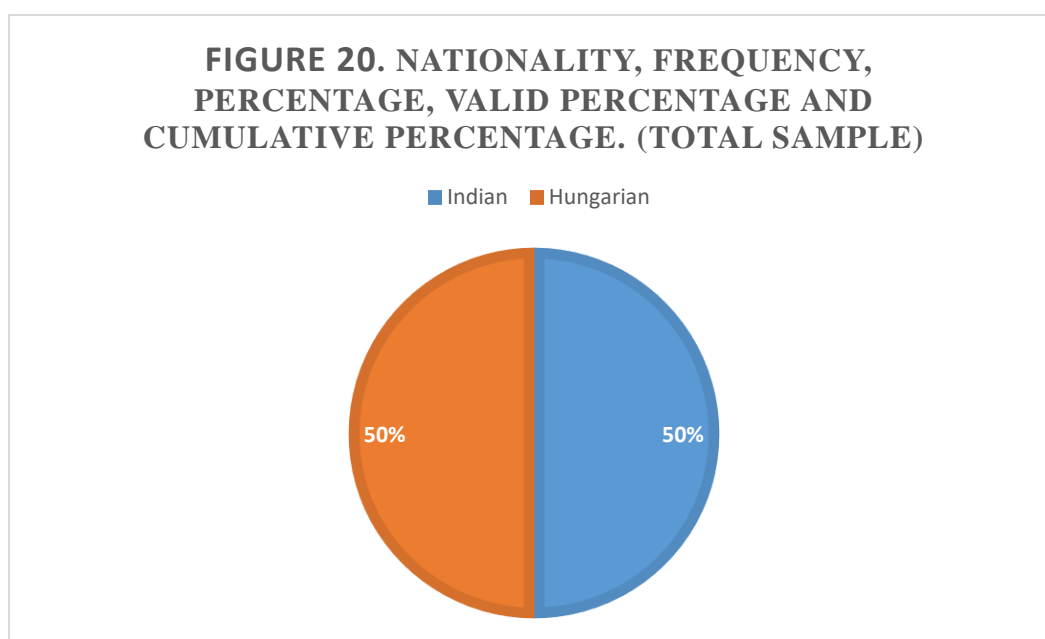
¹²² Fadum, E.A., Strand, L.Å., Martinussen, M. *et al.* Fit for fight – self-reported health in military women: a cross-sectional study. *BMC Women's Health* **19**, 119 (2019). <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12905-019-0820-4>

Chapter VIII

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

Female service members of India and Hungary devoted their precious time to fill the questionnaire on the basis of which the results were analyzed the following factors were examined:

1. **Work related attitudes:** job satisfaction, armed forces lifestyle satisfaction and morale;
2. **Gender equality attitudes:** perceived attitudes towards FSIAF and FSHDF, general attitudes towards female service members.
3. **Work Value Motivation:** economic, lifestyle and motivation.
4. Factors related to **women in combat** were analysed, to find out whether female service members in the two selected nations were willing to take combat voluntarily, as a compulsion or if it should not be permitted to women in forces in HDF and IAF.
5. Contribution of **social support to work-related attitudes** of married female service members from HDF and IAF were investigated.



Source: Own design

Figure 20. illustrates the equal percentage of sample taken from two selected countries armed force.

8.1 SUMMARY DISCUSSIONS

Hypothesis 1. FSHDF will be significantly better on work related attitudes than FSIAF.

- i. FSHDF will score significantly higher on job satisfaction than FSIAF.
- ii. FSHDF will score significantly higher on morale than FSIAF.
- iii. FSHDF will score significantly higher on armed forces lifestyle than FSIAF.

Rationale: Although women have made a non-traditional career choice in IAF and elected to serve in the highly disciplined, male dominated environment by their own choice, it was proved that their work related attitudes are higher than that of the male officers in India but in comparison with HDF, FSHDF would be significantly higher on work related attitudes.

i. FSHDF will score significantly higher on Job Satisfaction than FSIAF.

The responses of the two selected groups regarding job satisfaction questions based on the scale of highly satisfied, satisfied, neither satisfied nor dissatisfied, dissatisfied to highly dissatisfied. The Job satisfaction part contained 16 questions and in four out of those, the answers of FSHDF and FSIAF differed in Welfare amenities, change of promotion, initiative to act independently, prestige of your profession. Tables 4, 5, 6, 7 (Appendix) show the four variables, which were responded differently by FSIAF and FSHDF on job satisfaction.

On job satisfaction the ex-female service members in HDF scored more on promotion and initiative to act independently during their work whereas on the two other questions, which retrieved the significant value on ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) table i.e. the prestige of your profession and welfare amenities were responded to as “highly satisfied” by FSIAF.

On chance of promotion question FSHDF scored highly satisfied rate of 75 percent. Whereas FSIAF scored only 25-33 percent of satisfaction rate. Women in IAF are inducted for officer's positions only, however, in HDF for female service members all ranks are open and they can compete for them. This might be the reason why FSHDF scored higher on job satisfaction promotion. Another variable on which FSHDF scored higher than FSIAF is initiative and to act independent during their service. The cross tabulation table dealing with initiative and act independently variable portrays FSHDF with the percentage of 71-80 as highly satisfied whereas only 20-28 percent FSIAF were satisfied with the work related satisfaction level.

On the contrary FSIAF score higher than FSHDF on two variables having significant value as projected in Table 3, (Appendix) which is dealing with work related attitudes of FSIAF and FSHDF. Female service members of IAF scored 75 percent as highly satisfied with the welfare amenities provided to them during their service. Whereas only 25 percent was the satisfaction rate of FSHDF with the welfare amenities provided to them by HDF. For instance the welfare programs, canteen facilities, medical other welfare schemes government have for the respective armed forces personnel.

The prestige of IAF is high. In India the armed forces is seen as the ‘elite’. Government has a strong defence system and it is highly maintained by the central government of India. Table 7, prestige of the armed forces projects, FSIAF outnumbered FSHDF with 93.8 percent and ex-FSHDF scored only 6.2 percent on the scale as highly satisfied. However the scores of both HDF and IAF ex female service members are nearly similar except the four variables, but overall score in the Tables 2 and 3 (Appendix) projects that FSHDF scored significantly higher than FSIAF on job satisfaction. Hence the null Hypothesis is rejected. Therefore, it is proved that FSHDF scored significantly higher than FSIAF on job satisfaction.

ii. FSHDF will score significantly higher on morale than FSIAF

A 1991 assessment of various definitions and uses of the term morale in the military arrived as a useful working definition, and the assessment asserts that the term is really relevant only for individuals who are members of a goal-oriented group (Manning, 1991). This definition focuses on the degree to which group members are enthusiastic about and committed to carrying out the duties of that group. This assessment also noted that research indicates morale to be a function of cohesion at both the primary (small) working group or sub-unit level and the secondary (larger) unit level. *The morale of both the FSHDF and FSIAF scored same.* The variables included to measure morale were selected on the basis of overall job satisfaction measures. How do they sustain morale throughout their service?

Tables 8 and 9 (Appendix) show the results related to the selected variables to measure morale. Both IAF and HDF female service members scored equal in Table 8, with both the mean and the SD, being 2.70 on the variable “Justice in the armed forces.” This conclusion is also supported by the response to the open ended question as to whether the opportunity to do something new upheld their morale and also if the zeal to achieve their target sets them on mission. Both IAF and HDF female service members are proud to serve their respective armed forces.

iii. FSHDF will score significantly higher on armed forces lifestyle than FSIAF.

Armed forces and lifestyle inventory under job satisfaction included five variables. The variables for which the responses collected were dealing with the social attitudes amongst the armed forces, transfers, discipline made them physically and mentally strong, effects of regimentation, and if they feel cut off from the civil life. The friends in the armed forces are friends for a lifetime. These questions were dealt on the scale of highly dissatisfied, satisfied, neutral, satisfied and highly satisfied. Female service member's attitudes towards armed forces lifestyle was recorded under this section. Table dealing with Armed forces lifestyle are Tables 10, 11 and 12 (Appendix). The lifestyle satisfaction of FSIAF scored more than FSHDF, in terms of postings army couples are transferred in the same location. Leading to a more satisfied lifestyle.

Combining the overall score, **FSHDF will score significantly higher on Job Satisfaction than FSIAF is proved. FSHDF will score significantly higher on morale than FSIAF is void. SHDF will score significantly higher on armed forces lifestyle than FSIAF is rejected.**

Hereby Hypothesis 1. FSHDF score significantly higher than FSIAF on job satisfaction variable is rejected .

Hypothesis 2. There will be a significant difference between FSHDF and FSIAF on gender equality attitudes.

- i. FSHDF will score significantly higher on gender attitudes towards women in the armed forces than FSIAF.
- ii. FSHDF will give lower significance to reasons for combat exclusion than FSIAF.
- iii. FSIAF will have significantly lower scores than FSHDF on perception of attitudes of male colleagues, senior males, and male subordinates towards female service members.

Rationale: The gender gap in both nations *varies*. Assuming that women in IAF believe in gender equality it was expected that they would have better attitude towards IAF and would be less in agreement with reasons for excluding women from combat as compared to FSHDF. Male dominated organization like IAF still have difficulty in accepting women in the armed forces. HDF has own concerns when it comes to gender equality. The gender inequality has been practiced in a different form. But when compared to FSIAF, the FSHDF *has a better position* in their armed forces, be it in terms of vacancies, high position or combat roles.

i. FSHDF will score significantly higher on gender attitudes towards women in the armed forces than FSIAF.

The gender equality variables were:

- a. If only soft jobs should be given to women,
- b. If female service members are capable enough to perform any task
- c. If, female service members are competent enough for all ranks?

Tables 13 and 14 are dealing with these three gender quality variables. Female service members answered these questions related to the gender equality, which could be put under the gender stereotype too.

The answers to these three variables scored different by both FSHDF and FSIAF. The difference in attitudes was measured under the scale of highly satisfied, satisfied, neutral, dissatisfied and highly dissatisfied.

The three variables were tested to measure the gender equality between the armed forces of HDF and IAF. The gender related attitudes of FSIAF and FSHDF. The three variables are as follow,

1. Only soft jobs should be given to women.
 2. If women are competent enough to attain all ranks in the armed forces.
 3. If female service members are capable enough to perform any task provided to them.
- The data presented in Tables 15, 16 and 17 (appendix) is dealing with these three variables.

Table 13. General Attitudes towards women in Armed forces				
		Nationality		
		Indian	Hungarian	Total
Women competent for all ranks	Mean	3.97	2.77	3.37
	Std. Deviation	1.098	1.073	1.235
Soft jobs for women	Mean	1.93	2.63	2.28
	Std. Deviation	.980	1.066	1.075
Capable to perform any task	Mean	3.73	3.00	3.37
	Std. Deviation	1.112	1.259	1.235

Table 14. Gender equality Attitudes in Armed forces, Sum of square, df, Mean square, F, Sig.						
		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Women competent for all ranks	Between Groups (Combined)	21.600	1	21.600	18.334	.000
	Within Groups	68.333	58	1.178		
	Total	89.933	59			
Soft jobs for women	Between Groups (Combined)	7.350	1	7.350	7.008	.010
	Within Groups	60.833	58	1.049		
	Total	68.183	59			

Capable to perform any task	Between Groups	(Combined)	8.067	1	8.067	5.715	.020
	Within Groups		81.867	58	1.411		
	Total		89.933	59			

Table 15, relating data for the question, if women are competent to attain all ranks. It was examined that 70 percent of the Hungarian female service member responded as neutral whereas 58-100 percent FSHDF responded that women are capable enough to maintain all the ranks in the armed forces. Only 41 percent of FSHDF agreed with the statement.

Table 16 contains data regarding if soft jobs for women should be the only option. To which 73 percent of the FSIAF strongly disagreed, but on the contrary 60 percent of FSHDF strongly supported the statement that women should be given the soft jobs during their service. To put it in a nutshell the answer to the above stated result lies in the cultural patterns of the two nations. In India women need to go through more challenges, hence an attitude of accepting the challenges has been developed which is reflected in the data.

Female service members in law enforcement:

In comparison to that policewomen had displayed better communication skills and were able to show empathy with both victims and offenders, which often helped to defuse a tense situation. Usually that was the only ‘weapon’ a female officer had, so learned how to control situations through communication skills. Good communication skills are also essential when interviewing either a victim or suspected offender to ensure as much detail of the incident is obtained. This comment points to how empathy not only enables a police officer emotionally to ‘connect’ with a victim of crime, thus displaying genuine concern, but also how it functions as a mollifying tool which is key to calming a ‘tense situation’ involving an offender. In this respect, it is regarded as a quality which compensates for a female officer’s lack of physical stature and strength. However, empathy is also part of a skillful communicative approach and has an important part to play in police interviewing when it is necessary to gather a detailed account of an incident.¹²³ (Southern, 2018, pp. 44-63).

¹²³ Southern.N (2018). Political conflict, policing and the challenges of masculinity: The experiences of women officers in the Royal Ulster Constabulary GC, Vol. 91(1) pp 44–63. DOI: 10.1177/0032258X16687165

Table 17, dealing with the capability of women to perform any task in the armed forces. Again ex-FSIAF scored higher with 70 percent with “strongly agree” response, whereas ex-FSHDF 80 percent “disagreed” and 66 percent of them “strongly disagreed” to the statement that women could execute all the tasks in the armed forces. The armed forces should be a gender neutral organization and should provide equal rights, said an interviewed former IAF officer. In 2017, India got its first three females as fighter pilots and more are on the way ex-FSHDF and ex-FSIAF are both efficient enough to perform every task given by their respective armed forces.

FSIAF scored higher on gender equality attitude scale than FSHDF. Hence FSHDF will score significantly higher on gender attitudes towards women in the armed forces than FSIAF hypothesis is rejected.

ii. FSHDF will give lower weightage to reasons for combat exclusion than FSIAF. To test the above hypothesis.

Tables 18, 19 and 20 (appendix) on combat exclusion was studied and following results were extracted that FSIAF and FSHDF scored relatively same on the combat exclusion variables, but only one variable they differ on i.e. “pregnancy unsuitable for combat”. Table 18 cross tabulation displays that 70 percent of the FSIAF “agreed” that pregnancy is unsuitable for combat. Pregnancy is a biological phenomenon.

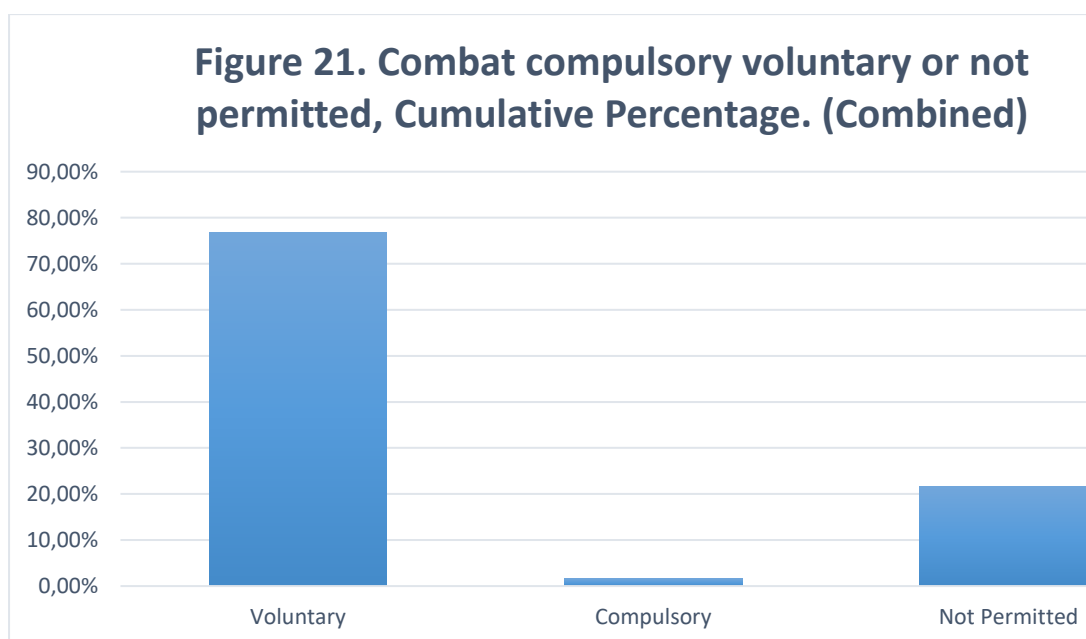
Therefore FSHDF will give lower weight to reasons for combat exclusion than FSIAF, Hence, female service members of HDF gave low weightage to combat exclusion roles and null hypothesis is rejected.

iii. FSIAF will have significantly lower scores than FSHDF on perception of attitudes of male colleagues, senior males, and male subordinates towards female service members.

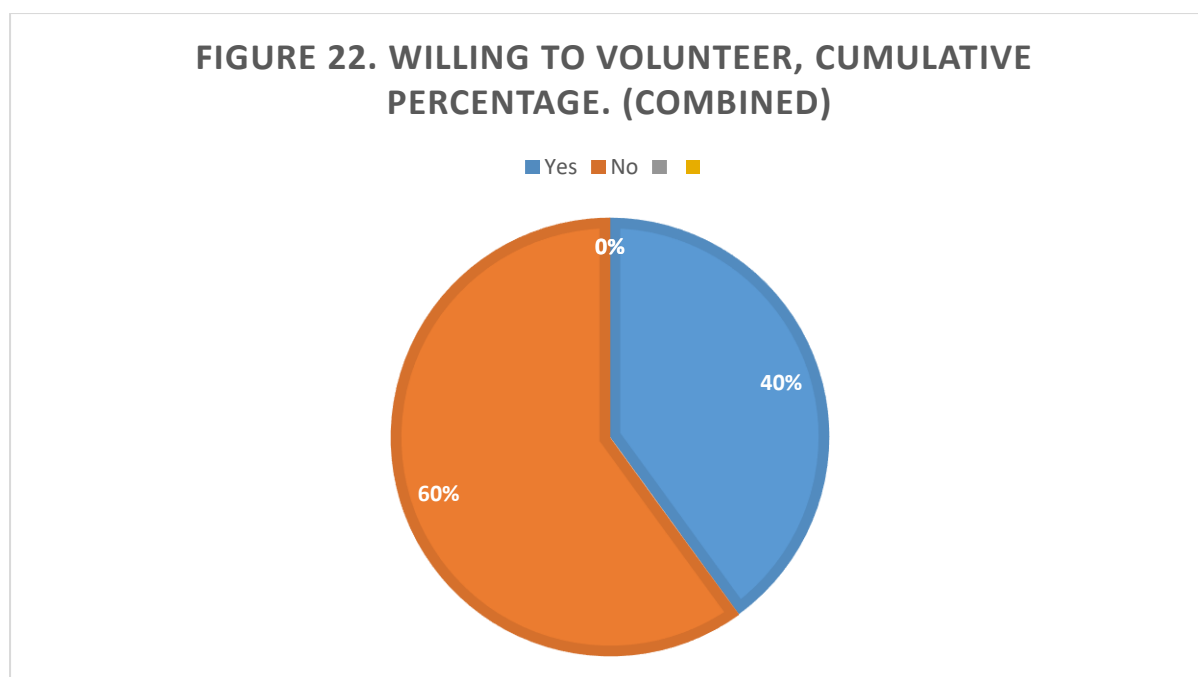
There is no significant difference in the attitudes of male colleagues towards their female counterparts. Table 21 and 22(Appendix) portrays the attitudes of males towards their female service members in HDF and IAF. Both the selected groups responded the same on the variables selected to measure the attitude of male colleagues, male subordinates and male officers towards their female counterparts.

Therefore, FSIAF will have significantly lower scores than FSHDF on perception of attitudes of male colleagues, senior males, and male subordinates towards female service member's hypothesis is rejected. Hence, the null hypothesis is accepted.

conclusion the overall gender equality attitudes of female service members Hypothesis 2 was examined in three sub hypothesis, in which two sub hypotheses were rejected and only one was accepted. Therefore, there is a significant difference between FSHDF and FSIAF on gender equality attitudes. Therefore, hypothesis is rejected. Hence, null hypothesis is accepted.



Source: Own design



Source: Own design

Hypothesis 3. There will be a significant difference within and between FSIAF and FSHDF who are willing to volunteer for combat and FSIAF who are not willing to volunteer for combat in work related attitudes towards combat roles. Whereas FSHDF have a different significance they are aligned well with combat readiness.

Rationale: It was assumed that two attitudes exist in FSIAF. First, the female officers in their initial years of service are highly motivated to volunteer for combat roles, but after a few years of serving in the armed forces at certain non-combat roles they lose their motivation. In contrast, women in the HDF serve in difficult areas and have different attitude towards the combat roles.

Figure 21 and 22 portray data with the total sample responding to if the combat should be voluntary, compulsory or not permitted. About 76.7 percent of the total sample responded that it should be voluntary and 60 percent responded that they would volunteer for the combat roles.

Therefore, the third Hypothesis stating, if there will be a significant difference within and between FSIAF and FSHDF would be willing to volunteer for combat and FSIAF concludes that both FSIAF and FSHDF are willing to volunteer for combat roles there is a very low significant difference between the percentage of the FSIAF and FSHDF.

The "1948 Women's Armed Services Integration Act formally integrated women into the peacetime military" after World War. Their roles were constrained to those outside of

"combat". The shift of societal constructs and norms in the 1970s, including the introduction of the all-volunteer force, led to a greater number of women choosing to serve in the military.' By 1988, approximately half of all positions within the U.S.military were open to women," and the Department of Defense ("DoD") created a formal combat exclusion- the "Risk Rule."¹²⁴

Tables 25 and 26 display the cross tabulation of the combat voluntary, compulsory or not permitted questions where both FSIAF and FSHDF responded the same with 76.7 percent to voluntary combat service, but when it comes to volunteer for the combat roles 63.3 percent of FSIAF responded that they would volunteer for it. In contrast to this only 56.7 percent of FSHDF would like to volunteer for the combat roles. Hence, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Hypothesis 4. FSIDF will score significantly higher on work values motivation than FSHDF.

Rationale: The armed forces culture and lifestyle have specific traditions and values. Women in both in HDF and IAF have undergone tough initiation and training to succeed in an area previously identified as male. Hence, it was assumed that female service members would have higher core and lifestyle motives. However, the motives of female service members joining the armed forces are different. Where FSIAF joined the IAF to attain their passion and attraction for the uniform, there the FSHDF's highest motivation is the economic equality.

Tables 27 and 28 (appendix) are dealing with work values motivation. There are six variables on with the FSIAF and FSHDF responses varies, i.e. the importance of discipline, opportunity to new challenges, opportunity to live differently, to live an active life, attraction to uniform and prestige of serving in the armed forces.

The first variable discipline and atmosphere 75 percent of FSHDF responded as it is "important" to have a disciplined atmosphere and 65 percent of FSIAF responded "extremely important" role discipline plays in the armed forces.

¹²⁴Brittany.W. (2018). University of San Francisco Law Review, Vol. 52, Issue 1 (2018) L. / 52 U.S.F. L. Rev. 175 (2018) /, pp. 175-198

Table 25. Will you volunteer for Combat roles? Cross Tabulation				
		Willing to Volunteer		
		NO	YES	
INDIAN	Count	11	19	30
	% within nationality	36.7%	63.3%	100.0%
	% within willing to volunteer	45.8%	52.8%	50.0%
	% of Total	18.3%	31.7%	50.0%
HUNGARIAN	Count	13	17	30
	% within nationality	43.3%	56.7%	100.0%
	% within willing to volunteer	54.2%	47.2%	50.0%
	% of Total	21.7%	28.3%	50.0%
Total	Count	24	36	60
	% within nationality	40.0%	60.0%	100.0%
	% within willing to volunteer	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	40.0%	60.0%	100.0%

Tables 29, 30, 31, 32, 33 and 34 are dealing with following variables with the significant value in Table 28 describing core motives, lifestyle and economic satisfaction.

Opportunity to new challenges was scored higher by FSHDF, with 76 percent responding “extremely important” whereas 66 percent FSIAF responded “little important” when one is in service a lot of other tasks matters.

Opportunity to live a differently was well scored as 76.9 percent by FSHDF rated as “extremely important”. However, 66.7 percent FSIAF felt it “important” too. An active life variable scored

the same as opportunity to live differently with both the samples giving exactly the same response.

Attraction to uniform has scored nearly the same by both the groups. FSIAF scored 81 percent responding as “most important” and 88 percent FSHDF responded “more important”.

The last variable on the list, which significant was prestige of being a member of the armed forces was recorded as “Extremely important” with 82.6 percent of FSIAF. Whereas only 16.7 percent of FSHDF responded “important” on this variable.

Table35 shows that out of the total sample of 60 from HDF and IAF ex-female service members, only 33 were married. To calculate the social satisfaction of the 33 FSIAF and FSIDF further the variables were tested. Tables 30, 31 and 32 and 33 are dealing with the fourth hypothesis about the social support and satisfaction level of the two selected groups.

Table 36 deals with the responses by the ex-female service members from HDF and IAF about their choice of partner. Altogether 71.7 percent ex-female service members responded that it made their life easy if their partner could understand their profession and at times could extend some help too. Moreover the unmarried female service members from both IAF and HDF they would like to get married in the forces itself. As far as in a relationship the understanding and bonding is concerned. Hence, it is proved that Hypothesis 5. Female service members both in HDF and IAF would like to choose their life partner from the armed forces is proved.

Therefore, Hypothesis 4 FSIAF will score significantly higher on work values motivation than FSHDF is rejected. *Null hypothesis is accepted.*

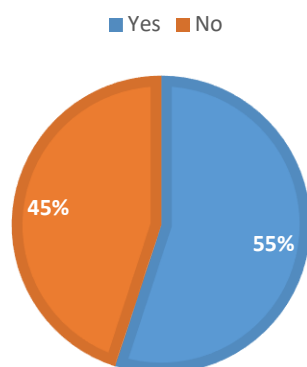
		Table 30. Opportunities to new challenges, cross tabulation				Total
		LITTLE IMPORTAN T	MORE IMPORTAN T	VERY IMPORTAN T	EXTRE MELY IMPOR TANT	
INDIAN	Count	2	8	17	3	30
	% within nationality	6.7%	26.7%	56.7%	10.0%	100.0%

	% within opportunities to new challenges	66.7%	61.5%	54.8%	23.1%	50.0%
	% of Total	3.3%	13.3%	28.3%	5.0%	50.0%
HUNGARIAN	Count	1	5	14	10	30
	% within nationality	3.3%	16.7%	46.7%	33.3%	100.0%
	% within opportunities to new challenges	33.3%	38.5%	45.2%	76.9%	50.0%
	% of Total	1.7%	8.3%	23.3%	16.7%	50.0%
Total	Count	3	13	31	13	60
	% within nationality	5.0%	21.7%	51.7%	21.7%	100.0%
	% within opportunities to new challenges	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	5.0%	21.7%	51.7%	21.7%	100.0%

		Table 33. Attraction for the uniform, Cross tabulation.					
		LEAST IMPORTANT	LITTLE IMPORTANT	MORE IMPORTANT	VERY IMPORTANT	EXTREMELY IMPORTANT	Total
INDIAN	Count	1	0	1	11	17	30
	% within nationality	3.3%	.0%	3.3%	36.7%	56.7%	100.0%
	% within attraction for the uniform	16.7%	.0%	11.1%	64.7%	81.0%	50.0%

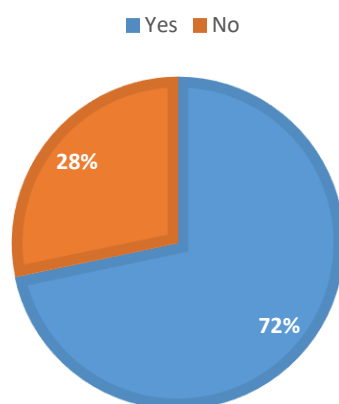
	% of Total	1.7%	.0%	1.7%	18.3%	28.3%	50.0%
HUNGARIAN	Count	5	7	8	6	4	30
	% within nationality	16.7%	23.3%	26.7%	20.0%	13.3%	100.0%
	% within attraction for the uniform	83.3%	100.0%	88.9%	35.3%	19.0%	50.0%
	% of Total	8.3%	11.7%	13.3%	10.0%	6.7%	50.0%
Total	Count	6	7	9	17	21	60
	% within nationality	10.0%	11.7%	15.0%	28.3%	35.0%	100.0%
	% within attraction for the uniform	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%	100.0%
	% of Total	10.0%	11.7%	15.0%	28.3%	35.0%	100.0%

FIGURE 35. ARE YOU MARRIED? FREQUENCY, PERCENT, VALID PERCENT, CUMULATIVE PERCENT.



Source: Own Design

TABLE 36. PREFER SPOUSE WITHIN THE ARMED FORCES. FREQUENCY, PERCENT, VALID PERCENT, CUMULATIVE PERCENT.



Source: Own Design

Hypothesis 5. FSHDF will score significantly higher on the social support than FSIAF. Female service members both in HDF and IAF would like to choose their life partner from the armed forces only.

Rationale: It was assumed that women who combine a career with family would have better motivation, work related attitudes and less role of stress if they had more social support.

Tables 37, 38, 39 and 40 (appendix) are dealing with the social support inventory of the FSIAF and FSHDF. The social support is integral of both a male and a female's life. When a woman decides to wear soldier's boots she makes sure to attain a balance between her professional and a personal life. The variables that play a pivotal role in order to attain that equilibrium are support from spouse, from parents, in laws, house hold help, and Leisure time, financial security.

Tables 39 and 40 are discussing the two variables on with the responses differed by FSIAF and FSHDF. Table 40 on support from spouse concludes that 70 percent of the FSIAF responded "satisfied" with the spouse support and relatively 57 percent of FSHDF supported their spouses help extended to them. In contrast, 27 percent of ex-female service members in IAF responded "neutral" to the statement.

Table 39 is dealing with "leisure time" variable to measure the social support female service members could grab some time for themselves during their service. A 66.7 percent of FSIAF responded as "satisfied" whereas 75 percent of FSHDF responded as "highly satisfied".

Therefore, Hypothesis 5 is accepted as FSHDF have scored significantly higher on the social support than FSIAF. Female service members both in HDF and IAF would like to choose their life partner from the armed forces only. Null Hypothesis is rejected.

Open ended questions

This section is dealing with the likes and dislikes of the FSHDF and FSIAF. Followed by the debatable question what do the female service members think about if chosen for combat roles and if they become prisoner of war?

Last two questions referred to the IAF where there are limited vacancies for female service members as they have limited roles to perform in the armed forces, what they think about it.

Last question dealt with specifically female service members in HDF, both husband and wife who are in armed forces when given different postings, how do they coordinate?

Question 1. What I like the most about the armed forces

There were mixed responses to this question and it is recorded collectively for both FSHDF and FSIAF. Most of the service members portrayed the following responses to the question.

1. It keeps me fit;
2. Challenges;
3. Discipline and well organized structure and impressive lifestyle;
4. Marksmanship
5. Camaraderie, adventure and patriotism;
6. Secure job, good social support, good atmosphere, more respect in society;
7. The love for the uniform and the opportunities it provides for the sports persons like me;
8. Responsibility and perks;
9. Discipline, sports, different skills what we can earn during service. I can't imagine myself in the civilian life;
10. It gave me the independence I always wanted;
11. The work culture and the prestige of armed forces;
12. Everything, I can count on;

13. The younger generation started accepting the competent female officers, I like to make decisions, to lead and having the responsibility;
14. Stories of valour.

Question 2. What I like least about the armed forces

1. The rigidity in the armed forces;
2. Not giving combat duties to women;
3. Manipulation and misuse of power by some senior officers;
4. The partial attitude;
5. Transfers;
6. The rigid mindset in army at times and the heavy working hours;
7. I like to be an officer, and satisfied with the opportunities the army gives me;
8. Sometimes it is unpredictable, we need to be really flexible;
9. Old school theories are still in fashion (memories of the Soviet Union era);
10. Wait for 6 years for a promotion;
11. Lack of assessment;
12. The frequent change in locations;
13. The separation reduces family bond;
14. No leisure time;
15. Sometimes it's hard to meet the balance between work and the social life;
16. Biased towards men;
17. Exhausting;
18. Same position is still male oriented;
19. Needs a lot of modernization in all areas; (equipment structure). This problem, however seems to be manageable;
20. Gender Biasness against female soldiers while considering for higher rank promotions.
21. That it is still male oriented and it is hard to get the deserved credit for the work I did;
22. Sometimes discrimination.

Question 3. If female members in armed forces are inducted in combat positions they might not be able to take stress. What if they become prisoner of war (PoW)? Please specify your view to above argument

1. Women have more mental strength not to give up that easily;
2. I feel combat role should be totally voluntary, after explaining to them all possibilities like Prisoner of War if somebody is willing to take it then there should not be a problem;
3. True but women are raped any way in the country too so how does it matter at least we should be given equal chance to fight for our pride and who knows I might get a gallantry award for commanding well in a war;
4. It's a load of rubbish, women are more level-headed in stressful situations. If women become PoW, they'll probably end up getting sexually abused, and then killed;
5. I think if someone is captured and become a prisoner of war, he/she needs help. Maybe he/she has to go to a psychologist and has to process the happenings;
6. She will act for what she is trained;
7. Stressful situation for them. They may be victims of sexual harassment. But, we are provided the same training as men. Apart from this there is not only a man to man combat, but various other roles too;
8. We are soldiers and we will face it with the same vigor;
9. It can be difficult and stressful for a male member of the armed forces to become a PoW. It is gender-free, but must admit that in some cases female members can be more vulnerable;
10. Well, as already mentioned earlier in combat exclusion section part, India is a huge nation and is still not ready to take any such chance, where the culturally connected morale of the troops would be jeopardized. The question regarding women as prisoner of war, the societies need to be socially upgraded but the change won't come all of a sudden. It will take some time for the armed forces organization to accept the participation of women as warriors. In 2014 Indian air force opened the fighter pilot position for female officers and in 2017 we got our first fighter pilot female officers. The change won't come overnight. And regarding women as prisoner of war, the men are at the same risk too but just because a lot of nation's emotions are attached with a women and they won't be able to accept women in such vulnerable position so they see it better not to put her at the position.
11. Training imparted is same to both genders, women in combat equally prepare for adversaries;
12. Well this is a serious question, and the major reason why women can't take combat position is this only, as women are competent enough to fight. But the answer lies in

- the mindsets of the societies and the cultures. It's not only that we have it in east but in the west too;
13. As far as I experienced this situation depends on the personal basis and personality but less depends on the gender;
 14. This is a difficult matter; of course more harm can be done in case of a woman than a man but I do have an opinion that women are capable of practice self-defense alike men. But as I mentioned there are some women who are tougher than men;
 15. It depends on women's abilities and her mental strength;
 16. I really don't understand how a man can handle stress better than a woman? When they can't even do multitasking. It is clear that majority of women couldn't and wouldn't opt for armed forces, but those who do and who accept the combat positions are the strongest ones;
 17. We will remain high spirited and fight till the end;
 18. Training is same so why it is a pre believed notion that they won't be able to take stress. If required. Training levels may be increased. Women of other countries are members of combat arms then why not Indian women officers?

Question 4. (For female officers in IAF to answer) what do you think about the limited number of vacancies offered to women as compared to males in the IAF

1. They must increase the vacancies as women in forces have already proved her worth. The number of vacancies to be equalized;
2. I feel equal opportunity, equal work, equal appreciation and equal respect should be provided first before thinking about improving limited vacancies;
3. Yes, I got inducted in my last chance of SSB just because of merit out and no vacancies available for women in Indian armed forces;
4. It is a beginning. Once we prove our mettle the numbers will increase. There is the shortage of officers in Indian armed forces and the female aspirants once recommended should be put in pool for at least two years and the vacancies for women should be increased;
5. It should be increased as the aspirants have increased by manifolds;
6. Bias;
7. It takes time, but unfair. They should be given equal opportunities;

8. This is a problem as there are limited roles for female's officers so the vacancies are limited too and in order to increase the vacancies more roles should be open for women in the Indian armed forces;
9. The vacancies in non-combat role should increase & introduction of few seats in combat role;
10. The major reason behind the limited vacancies lies in two conditions Indian armed forces have.
 1. The jawans (lower ranking male soldiers) will resent to see females doing the same jobs as they are doing, they are not ready to accept this fact yet that females can take us other ranks in IAF.
 2. In case of females as officers only they have to open all the positions for women in all the cadres but that is not possible as women can work in infantry and armored and some other battalions who will be the first to send to the war zone. Things are changing but taking their own pace.

Question 5. (For female officers in the HDF to answer) How difficult it is to manage if you are married to and defence officer and you are not given same postings?

1. It is not my case. I have a higher rank than my husband, but it did not/does not matter in our marriage;
2. I don't think that it is difficult to be a wife and a soldier and a mother at the same time. As a mom I think it is hard with managing life with work and my child. During my service I could take all the positions what I wanted and my first assignment was as a platoon leader, then company commander and after that I got an S4 deputy position, as I wanted, so I can't say anything else about it;
3. I'm not married, but my boyfriend is in the same class as me. It is very difficult to connect the civilian and the military life and difficult to decide which life would you bring to the fore. So it's hard to take sides;
4. Very difficult;
5. I've never been in a situation like that. In my opinion it would be tough to compromise and meet the requirements;
6. I maintained an equilibrium with the support of my family members;
7. It depends on the type of postings.

8. Have to manage.

The results of the present research indicate that FSIAF and HDF are homogenous sample on many variables.

Married ex-female service members have the same social support in both the samples.

Combat volunteer and readiness show that it does not matter if one belongs to any culture, but being a soldier is the only culture in the armed forces and female service members from HDF and IAF follow the same equally.

Male colleague's extent the same support and understanding to the female colleagues at work in both the Indian and Hungarian case.

The work related attitudes and lifestyle of the armed forces equally satisfies both the selected groups.

Qualitative analysis gave some interesting insights into the armed forces lifestyle of the HDF and IAF.

Women are commissioned only at officer level in the IAF and are excluded from combat duty. Again, the Indian Army was the first in Asia 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. Whereas women in the HDF have all fields open for female service members. Though female service members are free to join any cadre in HDF, but still there is only 8-10 percent of women who have been deployed in missions. Besides this, woman play a key role in peacekeeping, but both the selected countries are participate lesser in number as compared to male forces participation as peacekeepers. All together seven per cent of the 13,000 police officers and two per cent of the 87,000 military personnel as military observers were women (Factsheet, 2010, pp 48-54).

Although India is facing shortage of officers in the armed forces the authorities are reluctant to work on the structure, apart from female officers serving in medical, signals, education and judge advocate general branch they have permanent commission and more vacancies. However, Pandit's report to The Times of India expressed that the IAF are still *reluctant* to induct women officers in larger numbers, even though they are now given permanent commission in some selected branches. In 2014 the number of female officers was just about 1,300 in the army, 1,400 in the air force and 350 in the navy despite them being inducted in the armed forces since 1992-93. They, of course, are not allowed to serve in combat arms like infantry, artillery or armoured corps, nor serve on board operational warships or fly fighter jets.

In 2017, India got its first batch of women officers as fighter pilots from the Dundigal Air Force Academy, India. (Pandit, 2014)

The final results of the comparison between the two selected countries have given interesting insights. Armed forces, which were earlier the male dominated profession, *women have been portraying their skills in the various areas remarkably.*

The comparison of the status of women between two countries from two different continents has revealed some interesting facts too.

Feminists have different views regarding women in combat roles, the cultural patterns and sociological barriers have set some standards/roles for the participation of women in the armed forces. Feminists define it from both aspects if women should have equal opportunities in all areas or on the flip side of the coin stay the other perspective that women are biologically weak as compared to their men counterparts. This study dealt with women in combat position.

The mission of this study was to explore how the sociological aspects regarding women in Hungary and India have an impact on the female service members. The attitudes of females towards their own armed forces, attitude of people towards the armed forces and attitude of male soldiers towards the female service members are been recorded in the study.

The Indian Army finally aims to induct 100 women soldiers every year for the next 17 years to reach the marks 1700 women soldiers in the Military Police. The selection process for the first batch of 100 women soldiers is underway and their training is expected to start in December 2019. Training for a period of 61 weeks will be exactly the same as male soldiers. The women cadre will be maintained at 1700 unless reviewed.

If the numbers go down due to medical or other reasons it will be catered for during future inductions as we go along, said a source. Women being part of military police will be a big step towards addressing gender biases in the armed forces. Till now, women in Indian army are part of various establishments but only as officers. For the first time, women in Indian army will be inducted in the ranks as soldiers. Currently, women are recruited for selected roles in medical, education, legal, signals and engineering wings and only as officers.¹²⁵

¹²⁵ Bhalla.A (September 2, 2019) Military police to induct 100 female soldiers every year for next 17 years Retrieved from <https://www.indiatoday.in/india/story/military-police-to-induct-100-women-soldiers-every-year-for-next-17-years-1594645-2019-09-02>

Although this question will take its time to develop an answer, most of the countries in the West have initiated the changes to induct women in most of the positions that were earlier not accessible for women.

Can India take women as NCO's? Talking about combat if the women service members in IAF and HDF are ready for the combat duties? In 2017 the chief of army staff announced that, they will have women in military police soon, but when the plan will be executed is not defined. Whereas in Hungary females are a part of lower ranks as well and they are performing well in their work, in an interaction with one ex-FSHDF she said, While conducting the questionnaire one of the Hungarian female officer she discussed that in Hungarian Defence Forces have a huge number of women as service members and its growing, but still there are some male colleagues who think women are not strong enough to work in armed forces, I was shocked to learn this from one of my male colleague.

The attitude towards women in Hungary and in India is almost similar, however there are few areas where the attitudes changes, for instance, females in IAF are not a part of the NCO Corps nor of other ranks because the '*Jawaans*' (other rank soldiers) are not ready to accept women in other ranks than 'Officers'.

With rigorous trainings and having to keep proving her mettle, women have earned their place in the armed forces. The purpose of comparing women in the two nations was that Hungary has about 20 percent women in the HDF and India 2.5 percent despite having the third largest armed forces in the world still is struggling with the acceptance of women in various areas, which might relate to the combat roles.

Although the position of women in IAF is changing, India has only three female officers who cleared their fighter pilot training in 2017, despite all the roles open for women in HDF there is none female service member who cleared this course yet. There are various stereotype attached to the position of fighter pilot but in World War Two women were participating in aerial missions.

All these factors point out to the need of an exploratory study to investigate the psychosocial correlates of work related attitudes, gender equality attitudes and attitudes towards the armed forces and Female service members. The results revealed in this research study are summarized in this chapter.

8.2 THE MAIN FINDINGS

The sample of 60 FSIAF and FSHDF were studied and following were the main findings:

1. **Work related attitudes:**

Women in IAF are inducted as officer's only, whereas in HDF female service members can compete for all the available ranks. This might be the reason why FSHDF scored higher on job satisfaction promotion. There are no females serving as generals' in the HDF, whereas in the IAF there are females as 'Generals' in army medical corps, judge advocate general and in army medical corps. Another variable on which FSHDF scored higher than FSIAF, was initiative and to act more independently during their service. FSHDF scored 71-80 percent as 'highly satisfied' on the work satisfaction level whereas only 20-28 percent FSIAF were satisfied working with IAF.

2. **Gender Equality attitudes:**

The three variables which scored significant on the gender related attitudes were, if only soft jobs should be given to women. More Hungarian female service member responded neutral as their response to if women in armed forces should be given soft jobs only. In India women needs to prove herself more as compared to men, that lead to more IAF lady officers to respond 'women are capable to perform all duties' . Soft jobs for women should be the only option? To which 73 percent of the FSIAF strongly disagreed but on the contrary 60 percent of FSHDF strongly supported the statement that women should be given the soft jobs during their service. To put it in a nutshell the answer to the above stated result lies in the cultural patterns of the two nations. In India women need to go through more challenges, hence an attitude of accepting the challenges has been developed which is reflected in the data.

The capability of women to perform any task in the armed forces. Again FSIAF scored higher with 70 percent with "Strongly agree" response, whereas FSHDF 80 percent "disagreed" and 66 percent of them "Strongly disagreed" to the statement that women could execute all the tasks in the armed forces. The armed forces should be a gender neutral organization and be it a man or a woman should be provided equal rights, said an interviewed former IAF officer

3. **Combat exclusion** was studied and following results were extracted that FSIAF and FSHDF scored relatively same on the combat exclusion variables but only one variable

they differ on i.e. “Pregnancy unsuitable for Combat, 70 percent of the FSIAF “agreed” that pregnancy is unsuitable for combat. Combat voluntary, compulsory or not permitted question where both FSIAF and FSHDF responded the same with 76.7 percent to voluntary combat serve but when it comes to volunteer for the combat roles 63.3 percent of FSIAF responded that they will volunteer for it. Whereas 56.7 percent of FSHDF would like to volunteer for the combat roles.

4. **Core Motives, Lifestyle and Economic Satisfaction:** There are six variables on with the FSIAF and FSHDF responses varies, i.e. the importance of discipline, Opportunity to new challenges, Opportunity to live differently, to live an active life, Attraction to uniform and prestige of serving in the armed forces. The first variable discipline and atmosphere 75 percent of FSHDF responded as it is “important” to have a disciplined atmosphere and 65 percent of FSIAF responded “extremely important” role discipline plays in the armed forces. Opportunity to new challenges was scored higher by FSHDF, 76 percent responding “extremely important” whereas 66 percent FSIAF responded “little important” when you are in service a lot of other tasks matters. Opportunity to live a differently was well scored as 76.9 percent by FSHDF as “extremely important”. However, 66.7 percent FSIAF feel its “important” too. An active life variable scored the same as opportunity to live differently with both the samples giving exactly the same response.

Attraction to uniform has scored nearly the same by both the groups. FSIAF scored 81 percent responding as “most important” and 88 percent FSHDF responded “more important”.

The last variable on the list which was significant was prestige of being a member of the armed forces was recorded as “Extremely important” with 82.6 percent of FSIAF. Whereas only 16.7 percent of FSHDF responded “important” on this variable.

Both the selected groups responded the same on the variables selected to measure the attitude of male colleagues, male subordinates and male officers towards their female counterparts.

5. **Social requirements: Choice of partner** 71.7 percent ex-females service members responded that it makes their life easy if their partner could understand their profession and at times could extend some help too. Moreover, the unmarried female service

members from both IAF and HDF said they would like to get married in the forces itself as far as in a relationship the understanding and bonding is concerned.

Married female service members: Support from spouse concludes that 70 percent of the FSIAF responded “Satisfied” with the spouse support and relatively 57 percent of FSHDF supported their spouses help extended to them.

8.3 SCIENTIFIC ACCOMPLISHMENTS and RECOMMENDATIONS

1. The study is the first scientific study conducted on Female service members of India and Hungary. Out of five selected areas three hypotheses are in favour of Female service members Hungarian Defence forces.

2. Although India is huge independent country whereas Hungary is a part of NATO and EU, which faces immense pressure to meet the guidelines prepared by the two international Organisations. In the EU resolution held in Istanbul in 2019, the non-legislative resolution, adopted by 500 votes in favour, 91 against and 50 abstentions, calls on the Council to urgently conclude the EU ratification of the *Convention on preventing and combating violence against women*, also known as the Istanbul Convention. It urges the seven member states that have signed but not yet ratified it - Bulgaria, Czechia, Hungary, Lithuania, Latvia, Slovakia and the UK - to do so without delay.¹²⁶ The EP also reiterates its position in favour of specifically earmarking 193.6 million euros for actions preventing and combating gender-based violence in the Rights and Values programme.¹²⁷ That is the reason the female service members working under EU are better off on the selected scales for this study.

3. Both the countries are under the umbrella of United Nation Peacekeeping which envisages them to follow the UN Law. Therefore the uniformity of female service members working in various peacekeeping operations is examined. The result states that, despite FSIAF are lesser in number but they have increased participation than FSHDF in peacekeeping missions.

India being a liberal country has always been struggling with having the right balance of gender in the forces. The factors leading to such results are cultural and societal. In 2019 Modi government had announced 33% reservation for women in paramilitary forces but barely 5% of the personnel

¹²⁶ European Parliament, <https://www.europarl.europa.eu/news/en/press-room/20191121IPR67113/istanbul-convention-all-member-states-must-ratify-it-without-delay-say-meps#:~:text=The%20non%20legislative%20resolution%2C%20adopted,known%20as%20the%20Istanbul%20Convention>. Accessed on 17 June 17, 2020.

¹²⁷ Ibid

in these forces are women.¹²⁸ The Central Reserve Police Force (CRPF), which is the largest paramilitary force in the country for law and order duties, has 2,96,382 personnel, of which just 7,824 or 2.64 per cent are women. The Indo-Tibetan Border Police (ITBP), which has a strength of 80,000 personnel, has 2,000 women among them a total of 2.5 per cent. The Border Security Force (BSF) has 2,45,000 personnel, of which only 5,129 are women, which is 2.12 per cent, while the Sashastra Seema Bal (SSB) is the worst in this regard as it has only 1,817 women in its total strength of 98,000 personnel, which works out to 1.85 per cent.¹²⁹

Armed forces form an integral part of any country. Conducting a research such organisation will display just one perspective, but there are many by which the armed forces could be studied. The present study is based on women in the armed forces. Women in the armed forces have proved themselves as skilled soldiers. The organisation once was male dominated, but in 90's women were inducted in the forces apart from medical, engineering and law corps both in Hungary and India. There is no such study conducted in past on Hungary and Indian female service members therefore it part of one of the finding too.

The study exploring the sociological side of women in armed forces has provided interesting insights and shown a long road for women to reach where they want to be in the armed forces.

¹²⁸ The Print (March 19, 2019) <https://theprint.in/india/governance/no-takers-for-womens-quota-in-crpf-cisf-or-bsf-as-forces-strive-to-fulfil-modi-govt-plan/207485/#:~:text=Of%20the%201%2C56%2C013%20personnel,CISF%2C%20only%208%2C588%20are%20women.&text=The%20Central%20Reserve%20Police%20Force,2.64%20per%20cent%20are%20women.>

Accessed on June 17, 2020.

¹²⁹

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