

FEMALE OFFICERS IN THE CANADIAN MILITIA:

ATTITUDES TOWARD SERVICE AND COMBAT

by

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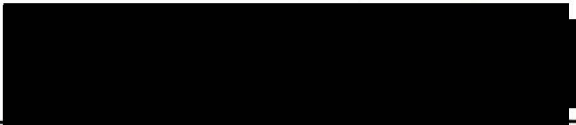
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ABSTRACT

War has been an intimate part of human existence since the beginnings of time. The struggle for resources and territory has necessitated the formation of armies. These armies have in themselves required vast amounts of resources, the most notable being "manpower".

Women have not been part of the formal organizational structure of an army with few exceptions, until quite recently. The increasing utilization of women in the Armed Forces during the 1970's sparked the beginnings of sociological research. Significant questions revolve around the current quotas on female participation, occupational restrictions, and women in combat.

The present study examines female officers in the Canadian Armed Forces Militia, and their views concerning the expansion of female participation in the Forces. Of interest is how these attitudes relate to specific demographic, military and social psychological attributes.

Personal interviews and a mailed questionnaire were developed to gather the data. The survey was distributed to a convenience sample of 118 officers across Canada. A total of 90 responses were recovered. A statistical analysis consisting of crosstabulations was performed to obtain Chi-square or Somer's d for each association.


The majority of female officers favoured an expanded inclusion of women in the Forces with two exceptions; women in combat roles (i.e. infanteer) and admitting lesbians. The sample was also split with regards to the question of a standard of physical strength and fitness required of women if in combat.

Further research is required to provide definitive answers as to the relationship between these attitudes and the attributes of interest (i.e. age, length of service, and religiosity). Specifically, the relationship between rank and androgyny, and religiosity and attitudes, must be examined in detail. In addition, research must be conducted comparing male/female, civilian/military, Regular Force/Reserves and officer/other rank samples in order to determine the relationship between attitudes and the unique characteristics of the military environment.

Attention must be directed to addressing this issue of expanding female participation in the military as the trend of social change indicates that a policy of restricted female involvement in the Forces will be untenable in the long run as it precludes utilization of a significant resource.

Examiners:


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INTRODUCTION

After the family, and the school, the military is the most important socializing institution in American society. Since the end of World War II 30 million people have experienced basic training (Rustad, 1982:1).

(War has been an intimate part of human existence since the beginnings of time.) The struggle for food supplies, territory, material, and human resources has provided a history rich in physical confrontation whether it be revolution, crusades, wars, uprisings or battles. These conflicts have been waged in the hopes of defeating the enemy and thereby ensuring subordination of the people, or on the other side of the coin, hopes of defending one's own people against an invading force. This in turn led to the formation of specialized groups, within a society, who had unique knowledge, organization and resources, for carrying out the assigned task of warfare. These professional organizations became known as armies. Armies do not and have not, existed in a vacuum, but instead, have required vast amounts of resources in the form of equipment, food supplies, and most notable for this discussion, "manpower".

* Armies have been the private domain of men for centuries, that is, women have not been part of the formal organizational structure of an army, with few exceptions, until quite recently. Female participation in the military received little interest until the 1970's when military planners and academics began to focus on the increasing utilization of women in the Armed Forces

of the western cultures. This increase in the employment of women sparked the beginnings of sociological research. However, according to Butler (1978:679), "Although there are historical and descriptive accounts of female participation in the military, systematic empirical studies have been scarce if not absent." Most published studies have focussed on military effectiveness questions without examining the structural antecedents of female participation. The female experience in the military remains largely unexplored.

Significant questions revolve around the current quotas on female participation, occupational restrictions, and women in combat. These issues are important and controversial, and their resolution could have significant social, political, and military implications. The position of women in the Armed Forces offers a striking case of the changing role of women in occupational and bureaucratic structures, and as such, requires further investigation. How do military women themselves feel about an expanded inclusion of women in the Armed Forces? Do they favour women in combat? Are they against increasing the number of women in the Forces?

This is a study of female officers in the Canadian Armed Forces Militia, and their views concerning the expansion of female participation in the Forces and how these attitudes are related to specific social, demographic and military variables. The first chapter begins with an examination of the female soldier's role from a social historical perspective since it is necessary to

study the social history of military women to understand their contemporary position. This chapter will also present a discussion of the current role women fill in the Armed Forces and the theoretical perspectives available for analyzing the current situation. Tokenism is discussed briefly as an important characteristic of female participation in the military. The combat restriction is discussed in detail as it is the single most important area of controversy. A summary of the research to date and a closing summary concerning the purpose of this research end the chapter.

In chapter 2, the fifteen hypotheses of interest to the study are presented. Demographic, military and social psychological variables and their expected direction of association with regards to positive attitudes toward an expanded inclusion for women in the Armed Forces are presented. The particular variables of interest were drawn from the review of the literature.

Chapter 3 describes the methodological procedure adopted for the conduct of this study and chapter 4 presents the results of the study. Each hypothesis is discussed individually with relation to the attitude questions concerning the expansion of female participation in the military. Chapter 5 examines the results with regards to the limitations imposed by the sample characteristics -- homogeneity, representativeness and generalizability. The chapter continues with a look at interesting variations and possible hypotheses for further investigation, and ends with a brief discussion of tokenism.

CHAPTER 1

Female Participation in the Military

Chapter one begins with a brief history of female participation in the military. Section two discusses the current role of women in the Armed Forces from a number of theoretical frameworks. Important characteristics such as the proportion of women to men in the Armed Forces and gender related skills are also discussed. Little research is available on the topic of women in the Forces even though significant questions arise with regards to civil rights, feminism, legal challenges, and the relationship between the military and the discussed in detail to provide an indication of the complexity of the debate. The chapter continues with a literature review and concludes with a statement concerning the purpose of the present research.

1.1 The History of Female Participation in the Military

The natural history of the participation of women in the military is a complex process that involved several steps from external participation to incorporation and integration, from status discrimination to status assimilation, and fusion, from job segregation to equal employment, in sum, from periphery to center (Martin, 1982:306).

The history of female participation in the military is not short in terms of years, but it is incomplete as much has been irretrievable lost by military historians and sociologists who have centered on and continue to focus nearly exclusively on male roles. However, historical accounts and anecdotes are available

from which insights can be gained from the past on women's participation in the military. According to Rustad (1982), the history of female involvement in the Armed Forces can be broken up into four broad social-historical periods. In this section each of the four time periods will be discussed with examples provided for each from several different countries.

The first stage begins with antiquity and ends with the seventeenth century (pre-state armies). Recorded as epics, ballads, and legends, much of the information from this period is difficult to verify empirically but instead has been passed down through the centuries as myth. In book six of the Iliad, the Amazons, a nation of women warriors who fought using military equipment and tactics but lived without men, were described as foes of the Greek hero Bellerophon (Rustad, 1982). Anglo-Saxon chronicles of the Augustus Empire cite the first historical reference to women in organized combat. In A.D. 60, Boudicea, a British Queen, led a revolt against the Romans after her husband was killed in battle (Goldman, 1982). The Trung sisters of Vietnam led a force against the occupying Chinese forces in the first century A.D. and have thrilled Vietnamese patriots for nearly two thousand years. The two were able to raise an army which in A.D. 40 drove the Chinese out of Vietnam. According to legend, seven of the military commanders were women. This period was characterized by what Rustad labels crisis participation. Women were included in warfare only in times of great national need. Goldman states;

If we go through the Bible and legends carefully we see that whenever Jewish survival was at stake, Jewish women were called upon to be strong and aggressive. When the crisis was over it was back to patriarchy (Goldman, 1982:10).

Stage two, women in early industrial armies from approximately 1600 to 1900, was characterized by an emphasis on the political and economic rights associated with bearing arms. The rise of large citizen armies composed of disciplined peasants precluded female participation and relegated women to a non-citizenship role. Camp followers best exemplify women's status for this period. Ideologically marginalized from the essential function of armies - combat - women provided essential services as laundresses, cooks, nurses, and canteen-keepers, but were only tolerated so long as military commanders were satisfied that they weren't slowing down the march or tainting the troop's reputation. In the mid-seventeenth century, one European army was reported to have had 40,000 soldiers and 100,000 soldier's wives, whores, maids, and other camp followers (Enloe, 1983:1). In Russia, women participated sporadically and minimally during the 19th century wars, as peasant partisans against the French in 1812, and as nurses since the Crimean War, and steadily and importantly in the Russian revolutionary tradition from the 1870's through the civil war. In the United States women disguised themselves as men and fought in the Revolutionary, Civil and Spanish-American wars (i.e. Deborah Sampson, Lucy Brewer, and Loretta Velasquez).

As an organized military apparatus developed, camp followers were gradually removed. Professional military status for women began with the establishment of the military nursing services in England and the United States during the Crimean and Civil Wars respectively when professional civilian nurses were organized to care for the sick and wounded. A professional ideology gradually arose to replace the stigmatized tender of the sick as a prostitute.

A third phase of female participation in the Armed Forces began in 1900 and ended in 1945 when external crisis (WWI and WWII) gave rise to women as military reservists and auxiliaries, therefore releasing men for the battlefield. Numerous paramilitary auxiliaries were organized and women's status became one of patriot rather than whore. In the United States, auxiliaries of female nurses were added to the army in 1901 and the navy in 1908 but they were not given status as full components of the military until 1944. Britain conscripted women for war service, and a peak strength of 437,000 was reached in 1945 (Goldman, 1982). Serious consideration was never given to the employment of women in combat but considerable numbers of volunteers were assigned to active antiaircraft batteries.

Denmark did not use women during WWII in the army but a women's role began with the resistance movement and the Home Guard Association which was composed of men and women. Russia serves as a unique example during this period as women appeared in a variety of roles. In WWI until the fall of the monarchy in February,

1917 women entered as volunteers and fought in combat; during the eight months of the provisional government that succeeded the monarchy in 1917 they served in regularly constituted women's battalions; then after the Communist revolution of October 25, 1917, they fought against counterrevolutionaries in the civil war (1918-1920). Twenty years of peace and the virtual absence of women (1920-1941) followed until their massive involvement in WWII as combat aircrew, tank drivers, and snipers. These women served in the all female 122nd Air Group composed of the 586th Fighter Air Regiment, 587th Bomber and 588th Night Bomber Air Regiments (Cassin-Scott, 1980:33) and an all female infantry regiment. Faced with appalling losses and serious manpower shortfalls Russia conscripted approximately 800,000 women in 1941.

With the exception of the nursing sisters of the Royal Canadian Army Medical Corps, women were not admitted into the Armed Forces of Canada until the second year of WWII. The Canadian Women's Army Corps was formed on the 13th of August, 1941 and women were employed as clerical workers, cooks, waitresses and storemen (Pierson, 1978).

From WWII to the present women have served in peripheral roles in limited wars and during peace time activities. All but four (Iceland, Italy, Luxembourg and Portugal) of the fifteen NATO member countries have integrated women volunteers into some aspect of their military services (Klick, 1978). Women in the Canadian Forces represented 1.8% of the Forces in 1970, 5.9% in 1979 and 8.9% in 1986, a larger percentage than any NATO country except for

the United States. *In Canadian forces now,* Women serve as firefighters, vehicle technicians, machinists, plumbers, gas fitters, and ammunition technicians. Women receive training on the standard rifle and other small arms. ((Combat roles are closed to women, and remain the only military occupation classifications restricted solely to men in the Canadian Forces.)) ^{still.}

In Japan, women have occupied positions other than as nurses in the Japanese Self-Defence Forces, only since 1967. At no time prior to 1967 were women trained to replace men in any military function. Women were first enlisted in the Regular Danish Armed Forces in 1972 but are restricted to non-combat roles.

Israel is unique on several accounts. It is the only country in the world at present to draft women for military service (Quester in Goldman, 1982). Colonel Dahlia Raz (Commander of the Israeli Women's Corps) stated;

To be a woman in the Israeli Army seems quite natural to us. We grow up with the Army and are part of it, and in many ways we are equal to the men in it...Women go for two years and stay in the reserve until the age of 22. We draft 98% of the country's men at the age of 18 but with women, unfortunately, although we are short of manpower in the Israeli Army, we draft only 55% (Owen, 1977:3).

Secondly, women served in combat roles during the War of Independence (1947-49). Beginning in 1948 1,200 women were mobilized and trained in infiltration, surprise attack and assault. Five women commanded combat units and 114 women soldiers lost their lives (Bloom in Goldman, 1982). Women also served as saboteurs, wireless operators, and medics.

The growth of women's participation in the Armed Forces as peace time soldiers, in non-combat roles, has been partly connected with the most recent phase of the feminist or women's movement. The extreme variation in the use of women in combat seems to depend on cultural traditions, prevailing ideologies, religious systems and the concrete circumstances of the particular war. Up to this point in time there appears to be no correlation between women's participation during war and their place in a nation's peacetime army. For example, the United States Congress defeated a request by President Carter to register women and men for the draft. At this time NATO militaries have limited women to non-combat roles and have placed quotas on the number of women allowed to enroll in the Forces. What would happen if Canada or some other NATO country was suddenly invaded by a hostile Force? Would women's role be expanded to include combat duty?

In general, historically and cross-culturally, societies with the greatest depletion of male reserves have had the highest military participation ratio of women. Rustad (1982) uses the external crisis theory to explain the temporary nature of female participation - a cycle of crisis (war), mobilization, and demobilization. However, for the United States an internal crisis - the feminist movement - demanding full citizenship participation would better explain the present push for opening combat roles to women.

This section has dealt briefly with the history of women's participation in warfare. By necessity limited, it will serve to

provide some background to the questions presently of interest. The next section will explore and characterize the current role of women in the Armed Forces, discuss employment restrictions and present theoretical frameworks from which to view these restrictions.

1.2 Analysis of Female Participation in the Armed Forces

The military has in the past been the exclusive province of men. However, women have suffered the ravages of war since time immemorial, and male military elites have used women while all the time denying their dependence on women. This is the essence of the "camp follower" formula (women who worked for the army but were never considered part of the army). One thing that has given rise to the need for women in the military has been women's possession of unique skills. For example, as females began to dominate the nursing field, the Services were compelled to use women because men were simply no longer available in sufficient numbers to fill military nursing needs. Switchboard operators also became a needed skill that was monopolized by women (Arbogust, 1973). One Militia woman stated:

I let them (men) do what they do and I do my own thing and now I'm indispensable because I know the Finance and Administration and no one else does (28 Sept. 1985).

Significant questions revolve around the current quotas on female participation, occupational restrictions, and women in combat. An international symposium on the role of women in the

Armed Forces, sponsored by the Inter-University Seminar on Armed Forces and Society (October, 1980) elicited unusual interest providing striking evidence that the issue of women in the Forces has come of age in academic and military circles, and for the general public.

The controversy takes many forms and depends on the type of analysis undertaken. First, full participation in the Armed Forces has been considered by many (especially the American population) to be the right of full citizenship in the tradition of representative government (Woelfel, 1977; Feld, 1978; Goodman, 1979; Stiehm, 1982; and Segal, 1983). Participation in the military life of a nation has been deemed a unique political responsibility. The idea of citizenship and military service have been intertwined historically, and the role of combatant, in many cases, has been restricted to the most politically relevant segment of society (Segal, 1977). For example, three quarters of black soldiers in the American segregated army of WWII were employed in non-combat positions. It was not until 1948 that Blacks were integrated into previously all-white combat units proving themselves to be competent combat soldiers. Military service as a mark of privilege persists today. Military service and eligibility for service creates a personal relationship between the individual and the state. The present restrictions place women in a position of civic inferiority. If women were allowed the use of legitimate violence radical changes could occur in the conventional perceptions of both men and women with regards

to, for example, masculinity, femininity, domestic violence (Feld, 1978) and warfare.

Secondly, a common assumption that the military, even more so than any other patriarchal organization, is a male preserve, has made the Forces almost immune to feminist investigation. The military has been presented to women as inaccessible, a masculine club that doesn't need women, hence few women have first hand experience inside the military. For feminists, a dilemma arises between a demand for equal participation, and the entrenchment of patriarchal society through the militarism of society. Present restrictions deny women access to significant jobs, power and privilege that flows from weapons industry and combat experience, and denies the nation a pool of competent workers who might be willing to volunteer. Discrimination is a significant issue because the military is an important institution both practically and politically. The sheer size of armies makes it significant as an employer that offers unique and tangible benefits including education, medical plans, and pensions. The military is also an ideal institution for instituting change in male/female relations as it is a closed system in which members work and live closely together, and the authoritarian nature demands that enlisted personnel obey orders from those in command positions. Yet, such efforts may only reinforce the military as an institution and militarism as an ideology. Feminists face a dilemma of wanting equality through equal opportunity in an institution whose reason for being perpetuates violence.

Specific measures of equality for military women have been occupational placement. After WWII about 45,000 women were demobilized from the Canadian Armed Forces. By 1965 there were 1500 women in the Forces, and by 1970 women were free to participate in all military activities with the exception of postings to; (1) combat units as combat soldiers, (2) ships at sea, (3) isolated postings, and (4) military colleges (Danson, 1979). Of 127 trades and classifications women were eligible for 81 including vehicle and air frame mechanic, electrician and air traffic controller. The Military Colleges were finally opened up to servicewomen in 1978. At the present time (Defence 1984, 1985) women are eligible to serve in 91 of 136 Regular Force classifications and trades. Women are not eligible for duty as combat soldiers, fighter pilots, or sailors on fighting ships. (Women cannot work as map reproducers, air-borne electronic sensor operators,) or do search and rescue work because these jobs are considered combat related. Many other occupations such as chaplains and cooks are open to only a limited number of women as most positions must be reserved for men who might have to operate on the front-lines. Women are also restricted in numbers. For example, the Militia medical company can employ no more than 20% of its members as females. In the Militia women are restricted to those positions that are designated as "male/female" and cannot fill "male" only slots. Female officers in the Militia cannot be Commanding Officers although they can be appointed as Acting Commanding Officers.

Legal challenges revolve around these occupational restrictions, and investigate the purpose of gender distinctions by examining the precise ways the distinction advances the aim of the military. The new Canadian Human Rights Act has been used to challenge some of these restrictions. For example, Natalie Bedard appealed her exclusion from guard duty on Parliament Hill with the Canadian Grenadier Guards and the Governor-General's Foot Guards. The ceremonial duty had always been performed by a combat unit drawn from the above units. She won her case and was allowed to apply for guard duty in Ottawa (Danson, 1979).

Fourth, there is the question of the relationship between the Armed Forces and the supportive social system. Is the military establishment responsible for including among its objectives the concrete achievement of social values professed by the general public? More importantly is such an orientation necessary for the military to function effectively in tandem with the civil system?

How do women in the military respond to the movement towards occupational equality in the Forces? Goldman (1973) proposed two hypotheses. The first, based on the notion of relative deprivation stated that the increasing numbers and roles open to women in the army would produce greater women's militancy. The second hypothesis, claimed that selective recruitment would limit the strain in that women who voluntarily selected the military profession would be likely to accept its existing authority structure and its internal values. Any opinion poll conducted today among young women in the American military shows relatively

little identification with the visible feminist movement (Quester, 1977).

This brings up the question of proportion, that is, the relative numbers of socially and culturally different people in a group. Women in the Armed Forces are present in small numbers. How does this fact in itself affect qualitative transformations in group interaction (Kanter, 1977)? The significance of numbers in social life was first proposed by George Simmel (1950). However, his analyses dealt almost exclusively with absolute numbers and not relative proportions. The study of particular proportions of women in predominantly male groups is thus relevant to this study. More specifically, a focus on what happens to women who occupy token statuses and are alone or nearly alone in a peer group of men is interesting.

The proportional rarity of tokens is associated with three perceptual phenomena: visibility, polarization, and assimilation (Kanter, 1977). First, because tokens have higher visibility they capture a larger awareness share. Exaggeration of differences is the second tendency. There is a tendency to exaggerate the extent of the differences, because tokens are too few in number to prevent the application of familiar generalizations. Assimilation, the third tendency, involves the use of stereotypes or familiar generalizations about a person's social type. The characteristics of a token tend to be distorted to fit the generalization. This analysis points to the importance of situational pressures rather than sex differences hence its

importance when analyzing female soldiers' attitudes toward expanding the participation of women in the Armed Forces. Tokens appear to operate under a number of handicaps in work settings. Their possible social isolation may exclude them from situations in which important learning about a task is taking place. Tokens often either underachieve or overachieve and they are likely to accept distorting roles which permit them to disclose only limited parts of themselves. Women in the Armed Forces in view of their low numbers can be classified as tokens. The significance of this observation cannot be overlooked in relation to the attitudes professed by the group of women on the topic of occupational restrictions.

In this section the current role of women in the Armed Forces has been discussed in relation to citizenship, feminism, legal challenges and the society at large. In addition, the question of proportionality with regards to the theoretical framework of tokenism has been discussed. The next section will look more specifically at the major occupational restriction placed on women, that being exemption from combat roles. This discussion is presented to provide an indication of the complexity of the debate.

1.3 Women in Combat

I'd like to see women soldiers go into combat. I think that more women with children should be in, because I think if we sent more women into wars, wars would not last very long, because you cannot carry a child for nine months, nurture him for eighteen years

and then see him slaughtered, without saying, 'stop, its enough, there has to be another way...'
Lynn Bower, U.S. nurse in Vietnam, 93rd Evac (Saywell, 1985:313).

At present, controversy rages over the topic of closed combat specialties for women. In Canada and the United States, it has become a people's issue and public debate is becoming more serious and more scientific. The debate deals with fundamental issues of national survival in revolution and in war, and deals with emotionally laden values and sentiments. A focus on such a topic would have been premature 20 years ago either for the future of women or the future of war but at present it is an important issue, and the idea of opening combat specialties to women, in the United States and Canada, has become one of central concern to the military. In this section the factors involved in bringing about this controversy will be presented, followed by a definition of combat, and finally arguments used both for and against the idea of female combatants will be discussed.

Although women have at times been in military combat in the premodern period, women in combat first became a salient issue with the advent of the industrial revolution. During this period institutionalization produced large, complex bureaucratic institutions based on an increasing division of labour. Women were excluded from these complex organizations, one of which was the professional military. Cultural norms and values reflected in religious, ethical and political goals precluded female participation (Goldman, 1982). However, women have been used

effectively during revolutionary setting where societies have undergone fundamental social and political change. Russia's utilization of women during WWII is the single major example of a large scale use of women in combat in regular international war. It would be an overstatement to assert that social analysis would produce a single explanation of the patterns and trends in the utilization of women in combat, but there are individual factors that one must include in any such analysis of the present situation in Canada and the United States, as every society is subject to fluctuating combinations of forces and circumstances, domestic and foreign. In Canada and the United States these factors included; (1) the growth of sexual permissiveness which resulted in a breakdown of some traditional notions of morality, child birth, and child rearing, and (2) the women's liberation movement which demanded equal access to all employment opportunities including military jobs. Egalitarian notions concerning the need to distribute equitably the duties, liabilities and privileges of citizenship were part of this feminist doctrine as the issue of women in combat supplied a test for the logic of full equality. There has also been a willingness of important military officers to take the lead in pushing aside old ideas and traditions to try out women in new positions.

A marked decline in eligible males through demographic changes has also been cause for alarm especially since the draft was abolished with the subsequent dependence on an all-volunteer Force. In addition, there has been a general turning away from

compulsory military service, most notably in the United States since the Vietnam war. There have also been major changes in the technology employed by the military and changes in the sharp end, (fighting component) tail end (logistics) ratio, in the direction of the tail end resulting in a smaller total proportion of soldiers per se. These are some of the factors that have brought the issue of women in combat to the forefront in public, government and military discussions.

Since women are allowed to participate in non-combat positions the issue really is the degree to which jobs involve offensive or defensive combat potential (Segal in Goldman, 1982). That is, women are presently allowed in positions where they can be killed by enemy fire but these same women are not allowed to initiate attack. Women are barred from jobs that routinely participate in offensive warfare (i.e. infantry foot soldier and artillery officer) but this does not realistically exclude women from combat. In earlier centuries it was much easier to define "combatant" because weaponry was limited in power and by distance. At the present time it is possible to kill miles away from the actual site of the enemy (i.e. missiles, artillery). The combat role can be defined by three components; function, colocation and level of danger (Tuten in Goldman, 1982). A combatant is one whose duty involves direct action designed to kill or capture the enemy. To be in combat can also be accomplished by colocation with combatants as is the case when medics are assigned to an infantry unit. The level of danger can also be used to define

combat. Women who served in Saigon hospitals, although not at the front, were frequently subject to shelling by artillery units of the Viet Cong.

The dilemma of women in combat revolves around specific issues, many of which are not directly articulated in debate. For some, especially military strategists, the issue is clear - exclusion is based on a requirement to win and to employ physically weaker personnel is a tactical disadvantage. In contrast, some feminists suggest that specific criteria should serve as the selection criteria, not gender. Another group proposes that male bonding would be disrupted, under stress, if women were admitted to combat units. The presence of women would interfere with the process of devotion men feel for each other in combat; women as outsiders would not be part of this male subculture. Sexual competition between men for female favours may further destroy group solidarity. It is still unknown to what extent women would affect group dynamics, however, it is known that high group morale and cohesion have improved performance in combat and reduced the incidence of psychiatric breakdown. The possibility of pregnancy is a problem for some, although with the contraceptives presently available others argue that this should not be used as an argument for barring women from combat. Pregnancy is now a choice, and many women choose to postpone, plan for, or not have children. Menstruation and how it affects a woman's performance of her duties, along with the inconvenience associated with lack of privacy and cleanliness in combat

situations, pose problems for women in combat. Others assume that women are primarily responsible for children and therefore there would be a lack of childcare if women went off to fight. Psychiatric concerns include questions dealing with women's; (1) ability to perform under the stress of combat (no evidence that women are less capable of performing than men), (2) stereotypical personalities characterized as warm, passive and nurturant, and (3) desire to participate in combat. Some fear for the survival of the species as women have been responsible for the transmission of cultural beliefs and ideals to the young. If women were in combat feminine traits (gentleness, warmth, nurturance) may have a lower probability of survival, and in the same way the masculine role of warrior may be forever destroyed and with it a proving ground for masculinity. There are also concerns about the attitudes of allies and adversaries. Will enemies perceive women in combat as a sign of weakness? Will men fight harder to beat women?

In conclusion, the complex issue of women in combat is often simplified when in fact many variables must be considered before a logical and reasonable decision can be formulated. In this section, the issue of women in combat has been discussed with regards to factors that have brought the issue to the forefront, and the dilemma faced by those contemplating a decision about women as combatants. The next section presents a summary of the research to date on the topic of women in the Armed Forces. From

this review specific hypotheses will be developed and presented in Chapter 2.

1.4 Literature Review

A systematic review of the available literature on women in the military and attitudes toward women in the Forces, shows that little is known. It appears that research on this topic is an area with a brief history. Until the early 1970's, this area was relatively neglected by social researchers. Hunter's (1978) annotated bibliography lists Coye's (1971) study on Navy line officers as its earliest reference to women in the military, and includes only ten references that were published prior to 1976. Specifically, little work has been done on Canadian military women, and there are no studies reported in the scholarly journals on Militia women.

According to Segal (1978), research conducted in the area of female participation in the Armed Forces has been oriented toward the development of policy, rather than toward the advancement of a body of social science knowledge. Little attention has been given to the direct testing of social science theories, as most of the work has been descriptive in nature. Secondly, most of the research has been done by military personnel, or by civilians supported by military contracts. This type of arrangement makes it difficult for social scientists to see problems from a broad theoretical perspective. Thirdly, most of the research in the field has involved the use of questionnaires or interviews to

measure the attitudes of military personnel, with little attention given to the dynamics involved in the military environment. However, as Segal suggests, this is an area of rapid social change that has had insufficient time to develop appropriate theories and their applications. Much of the literature presented is of an exploratory nature, and requires further definition and explanation.

The literature review to follow will discuss in detail studies that have investigated attitudes toward an expanded inclusion of women in combat, and other non-traditional military occupations. Researchers have studied different populations (i.e. civilian, service academies, and military samples). They have used various techniques for obtaining attitudinal data on the topic of interest. For example, the Attitudes Toward Women Scale and the Dogmatism Scale, examined many independent variables to explain differences in attitudes toward women in combat; (i.e. education and number of siblings). These studies will be presented in chronological order as there are so few of interest to this particular research. However, studies specifically related to the American Service academies will be presented in a second section of the literature review, also in chronological order.

Attitudes and Predictors of Attitudes Toward Women in the Forces

1. Coye, Denby, Hooper and Mullen (1973) implemented a survey in an attempt to ascertain the attitudes of both Navy men and women officers toward proposed changes in career patterns for women line officers. Two samples of naval officers were drawn - 342 WAVE line officers and 303 male officers from the College of Naval Warfare. The questionnaire was designed around five key issues; 1) management potential of women as executives in all segments of society, 2) capabilities of women to function effectively as line officers, 3) and 4) command and flag potential of women line officers, and 5) sea duty for women officers. In general, women strongly favoured equal opportunities for female officers compared to male officers. However, the majority of men were favourable to the idea of women as line officers; but their responses reflected uncertainty and inconsistency. The women did show wide variances in opinion with respect to their rank; (i.e. captains, most in favour of women at sea, commanders, least in favour). The study concluded with a statement of need for additional research into recruitment, training, assignment and lines of responsibility for the role of the women officer.

2. Segal, Kinzer and Woelfel (1977) explored attitudes toward women in combat. Data were collected from three sources: (1) a survey of 724 Army personnel at Fort Lewis, Washington, (2) the Quarterly Survey of Army Personnel; (a worldwide sample of male and female officers and enlisted personnel with a n of 12,564);

and (3) a survey of the Detroit Standard Metropolitan Statistical Area; (respondents were over 18 years of age and residing in housing units). Using a wide range of questions, these three independent samples, surveyed between 1973 and 1974, indicated that between half and three quarters of the persons interviewed, civilians and military personnel alike, resisted women in combat. Interestingly enough, it was the civilian sample who most favoured women in combat.

Segal et al purposed three hypotheses based on the historical process of citizenship extension to explain their results. The association, between the right to bear arms, and the citizen role grew out of the American and French revolution, as both events emphasized the right of every citizen to bear arms and belong to the officer corps. The right to bear arms has been seen to be part of the normative definition of citizenship where the right to fight has been granted as a means for the individual to prove his loyalty to the state. The first of the three hypotheses stated that women would be more in favour of women in combat than men. Secondly, political liberals, as opposed to political conservatives, would be more in favour of women in combat; and respondents with no religious affiliation would be more in favour of women in combat compared to those with a religious affiliation. Thirdly, those with more education would be more in favour of combat roles for women as compared to those with less education.

The results provided support for the first hypothesis, but only for the military samples - women were more in favour of

combat roles for women than were men. There was no sex difference found for the civilian sample in terms of attitudes toward women in combat. The second hypothesis was supported by all three samples; but there were stronger correlations for the political dimension as compared to the religious measurement. Those with "liberal" religious and political backgrounds were more in favour of women in combat than those with conservative backgrounds. The third hypothesis did not receive significant support for any for the three samples. In conclusion, Segal et al stated that a movement towards political liberalism, and a decrease in traditional organized religion should result in the extension of women's "right to fight" in a military combat role. (Segal, et al., 1977:476)

3. Thomas and Durning (1978) examined those factors that influenced young women to enlist in the Navy, and compare those factors to men's reasons for joining the Forces. A second objective was to study sex role attitudes of junior enlisted women in the Navy (contemporary versus traditional orientation towards women's roles). Approximately 1,000 female recruits and 1,041 men were surveyed on personal history, motivation for enlisting, and occupational work values. An additional 361 enlisted women were surveyed to determine sex-role attitudes. It was found that men and women entering the Navy came from similar backgrounds, but differed in their extra-curricular high school activities. Men and women also appeared to enlist for the same reasons; (a desire

to make something of their lives, acquire more education, and travel and meet people). Occupational work values differed between the two groups. For example, women preferred a clean, cheerful work environment that was people oriented; while men preferred advancement to supervisory levels.

With regards to sex-role attitudes, Navy women had more contemporary role affiliation than Navy wives; but were more traditional than Army women. The majority of enlisted women rejected subsidiary roles for women in the military - 93% felt that women should have access to all jobs that they were capable of performing.

4. The Canadian Department of National Defence (1978) conducted a survey on attitudes toward women in combat roles and isolated postings. In May 1978 approximately 4500 servicemen, servicewomen and spouses were surveyed on the employment of women in combat and isolated postings. A descriptive account of the results was reported by Simpson, Toole, and Player, (1979). Briefly, the majority was opposed to women in combat. However, servicewomen and spouses were more in favour of women in combat than servicemen. Servicewomen and spouses were also more in favour of women in support ships, destroyers, submarines, aircrew, and combat support than men. Spouses were the least in favour of women in isolated postings compared to servicemen, and servicewomen.

Respondents were also questioned on potential problems that could arise if women were in combat. Physical capabilities, marital conflict, emotional stability, and women's impact on operational capabilities were judged to be the most serious by servicemen. Servicewomen, on the other hand, were much more optimistic, and only held one reservation - marital conflict. On the whole, servicewomen were the most optimistic about the successful expansion of military roles for women when compared to servicemen and their spouses.

5. Savell, Woelfel, Collins and Bentler (1979) conducted a study investigating the extent to which soldiers believed certain military jobs were appropriate for women, and in particular how these beliefs related to sex, rank, and expectation of leaving the Army before retirement. The sample included 540 men and 181 women, 401 officers and 320 enlisted personnel.

The questionnaire included a list of 24 jobs, and each respondent was asked to indicate the appropriateness of each job for women. The overall pattern of responses indicated a higher endorsement for those jobs that were traditional (i.e. nurse, cook) as compared to less traditional jobs (i.e. pilot, welder). Only the infantry foot soldier was consistently judged by the majority to be inappropriate for women. However, all the other jobs, including pilot and bomb disposal specialist were judged as appropriate for women by the majority of respondents.

The officer-enlisted dichotomy revealed the fact that officers were more likely to consider the job appropriate as compared to enlisted personnel. The explanation offered to account for this discrepancy was the difference in amounts of education between the two groups. Ferree (1974) had shown a positive relationship between educational attainment and liberalism in sex-role attitudes. Others, including the following have also showed this relationship between education and sex-role attitudes; Erskine, 1974, Mason and Bumpass, 1975, and Yankelovich, 1974 (Savell et al, 1979:46). The male-female variable showed that differences varied in both magnitude and direction. For six of the jobs, women judged the job more appropriate for women than the men. However, in three cases (statistician, bartender and butcher) men judged the job more appropriate for women than the women themselves. With regards to the third variable, intent to stay in the Army, no evidence was found to indicate that those with more contemporary sex-role attitudes were more likely to leave the Army sooner than those with more traditional sex-role attitudes. Further to this, no relationship was found between intent to stay until retirement and judgements on job appropriateness. The results however, according to Savell et al., may have been biased for two reasons; (1) a nontraditional sample may have been obtained, as an intense troop indoctrination program was taking place at the time of the study, aimed at changing attitudes toward the utilization of women in the Forces, and (2) respondents may have been trying to represent

themselves in a more liberal light than what may have been true in everyday situations. In any case, all but the infanteer, were judged by the majority to be appropriate jobs for women in the Armed Forces.

6. Larwood, Glasser and McDonald (1980) examined attitudes of male and female Army ROTC cadets towards the movement of women into nontraditional and leadership positions in the military. A total of 247 men and 22 women were randomly selected from nine ROTC platoons during the summer of 1976. The Training Attitude Survey (background information on training, experience, number of siblings, sex and age) was used as the instrument of measurement, along with five questions from the Sex-Role Attitudes in the Army questionnaire; and three questions about attitudes toward the reliance on women in the Army. Items were aligned on a single significant factor (contemporary versus traditional sex role attitudes) which developers had correlated with sex, education, rank and political conservatism (women less traditional, better educated and less conservative, the less traditional). The results indicated that men were less in favour of having women in non-traditional roles, when compared to women (hypothesis 1) and no evidence was found to support the hypothesis that men who had trained with women were more in favour of non-traditional careers for women when compared to those men who had not trained with women (hypothesis 2). No evidence was found to support Hypothesis 3 which stated that as men and women spend longer periods of time

together in mixed-sex training camp units, men will become more accepting of women. It was also discovered that male cadets with more sisters were more favourable towards women than cadets having more brothers.

In the second part of the study 28 female and 102 male cadets in ROTC were surveyed at three Southern California universities. Questions were asked about family background, ROTC experience and attitudes toward women in leadership roles. Women were more positive than men toward women in superior, peer, subordinate and general leadership roles (hypothesis 4). The length and intensity of the ROTC experience was not found to improve the confidence men felt toward women in the military (hypothesis 5). In conclusion it was found that men were less positive than women toward women in non-traditional military specialties, or in close work relationships.

7. Martin (1982) studied various aspects of the dynamics of the integration of women into the French armed forces. Theoretically, he discussed Karl Mannheim's process by which peripherized social clusters (of which women compose the largest group) are "pulled" into the "central" institution and value systems of the society through an expansion of citizenship rights. A 1981 survey (26 item questionnaire) on public and military attitudes toward women in the armed forces was described and discussed. Only a quarter of all respondents (civilian sample) favoured women in combat roles, and interestingly, women were less in favour than men.

However, women were more in favour of integrating women into the same corps as the male military personnel; while more men favoured integration of women into a separate corps. Of these data collected on attitudes toward women; neither social origin, age, or political preference were correlated at a significant level. For the military sample, male officers were the most conservative and female personnel the most liberal. It was most interesting to note that female NCOs were more in favour of increasing the number of women, integrating women into mixed corps, and putting women into combat, than female officers. The study concluded with a statement that on the whole male military personnel did not exhibit a particularly strong conservative view on the issue of women's participation in the military, except for what concerned their integration into the traditional center of the institution (combat roles).

8. Davis, Lauby and Sheatsley (1983) analyzed a special six page supplement to the General Social Survey conducted by the National Opinion Research Center (NORC) in the United States. This supplement dealt with questions on issues related to the United States military with one chapter devoted to attitudes toward women in the military. Positive attitudes toward women in the service were proposed to be, strongly related to the "Stouffer syndrome" items (a general package of liberal attitudes on social questions such as feminism, race relations, free speech and permissive attitudes toward sex behavior).

The results indicated that Americans strongly endorsed the increase in numbers of women in the military from 2% to the present 9%, opposed women in hand-to-hand combat, but favoured women in a wide range of other military roles. The majority of those who favoured the draft, also favoured the draft for women. The Stouffer syndrome variables were divided into two categories; (1) attitudes (favour ERA, women should not stay at home, favour racial intermarriage, favour free speech, favour wives working and tolerant to premarital sex) and (2) personal characteristics (religious preference not strong, better educated, younger, other than from the Southern regions, working women and mother worked after marriage). The feminist items were good predictors of favourable attitudes toward women in the military. In addition, support for women in the military was greatest among the (1) better educated, (2) younger adults, (3) Northerners, and (4) less religious. Davis et al. concluded that support for women seemed to be part of a broad, complex set of liberal social attitudes.

The Service Academies

The American service academies came under intensive study when they were opened to women in 1976 (West Point, USAFA). Project Athena, undertaken by the Army Research Institute, was designed to study the impact of women on West Point as well as the impact of West Point on women. Priest, Prince and Vitters (1978) summarized some of the findings from this project. A total of 119 women and 1,366 men cadets were given a battery of tests and

questionnaires (AWS, SIF, FEAR, TESTANX, ROTTERIE, TSCS, MALVAL, FEMVAL, MCCOG etc.). The results indicated that men and women had similar patterns of attributes at entrance to West Point. In general women adjusted to summer training the same way as men, however, men cadets became significantly more traditional over time in their sex-role beliefs, while women did not change. In leadership ratings, women tended to receive lower than average peer ratings.

1. Defleur, Gillman and Marshall (1978) focussed on the integration of 157 women into the USAFA in 1980. The Attitudes Toward Women Scale was distributed to upperclassmen entering male and female USAF cadets, and University of Texas male and female undergraduate students. Female cadets were found to be less traditional than males, and similar to the female undergraduates of the University of Texas. In addition, male attitudes were observed to become more traditional after the initial integration of women to the Academy. These results were discussed in terms of structural and interactional factors which contribute to maintaining traditional sex-role attitudes.

2. Defleur and Gillman (1978) presented a paper in which they attempted to describe and explain the maintenance and change of intergroup relationships between entering male and female cadets at the USAFA during the first year of integration. They were interested in beliefs, attitudes and interactions of male and female cadets, specifically attitudes toward general societal sex-roles and roles for women in military settings. A sample of

367 male and 42 female cadets were administered the Spence-Helmreich Attitudes Toward Women Scale, questions on attitudes toward women in the Air Force Academy, and military leadership and combat roles. Women were less traditional than men and men became slightly more traditional when tested again six months later. The results were explained in light of conditions labelled the "contact hypothesis" where (1) incongruent roles, (2) interdependent behavior and common fate and (3) structured support, are thought to reduce intergroup prejudice.

3. Adam's (1984) longitudinal study of 3,700 male and 300 female cadets at West Point investigated the integration process during the cadet's first three years at West Point. Specifically, Adam was interested in gender-related personality characteristics, leadership evaluation systems, and social aspects of the integration process. Male and female cadets had similar personality characteristics, however, they differed markedly in their perceptions of women's roles. Men were significantly more traditional in their attitudes compared to women, but the degree of significance declined from the Class of 1980 to 1982.

4. Cheatham's (1984) study reported male attitudes towards admission of women in 1976, to the U.S. Coast Guard Academy. The intent, to systematically assess male attitudes toward women in this new, nontraditional role of fellow cadets, in a previously all-male preserve. A random sample of 99 members of the Class of 1980 was collected in Dec., 1977 and a further sample of 99 was collected in Jan., 1978. A random sample was also taken of the

Class of 1979. These students were administered the Dogmatism Scale (measured open-mindedness and close-mindedness), The Attitude Towards Women Scale (AWS) (contained items regarding women's behavior and rights, such as "women should be given equal opportunity with men for apprenticeship in various trades"), and an adaptation of a survey from the Air Force Academy's Department of Leadership and Behavioral Science, with the purpose of assessing attitudes toward women in the military. Demographic data were also collected on number, age and gender of sibling, family's religious and political preference or affiliation, respondents legal residence, and father's occupation.

The results yielded no consistent correlations between the demographic items and the attitude dimensions. Religion had no effect on any of the three attitude dimensions. However, respondent's score on the Dogmatism scale was significantly affected by the father's occupation. In addition, attitudes were related to political affiliation where Democrats were least positive toward women in the military, and Republicans were most positive. Subjects from the Northeast indicated the most favourable attitudes toward women, while those from the Midwest were the most conservative. When looking over time, the Class of 1980 was more in favour of women compared to the Class of 1979. In conclusion, the overall trend, for attitudes in favour of women in the Academy, appeared to become more positive after an initial downturn when women were first introduced into the academy in 1976.

In conclusion, although, an overview of the literature suggests that researchers have probed into the study of differences between people who favour and oppose women in the military, it is clear that there has been little interest in ascertaining the differences among military women themselves, as a separate group from men. The studies presented have looked at male/female, military/civilian, and officer/enlisted differences, but have not focussed on female/female differences. Many of the studies have found that military and civilian women are more in favour of women in non-traditional careers, including combat, than military or civilian men (Coye et al, 1973; Segal, 1977; DeFleur, 1978; NDHQ, 1978; DeFleur and Gillman, 1978; Larwood, 1980; and Adams, 1984), and civilians are more in favour of combat roles for women than military samples (Segal, 1977).

Contradictory and inconclusive evidence is available on the relationship between specific demographic variables and attitudes toward female participation in the military. Segal (1977) found that those with liberal political affiliations were more in favour of women in combat than conservatives, while Cheatman (1984) discovered that Republicans were more in favour than Democrats, and Martin (1982) found no significant relationship for political preference. Less religiosity resulted in greater favourability towards women in the military (Segal, 1977; Davis, 1983) but Cheatman (1984) found no significance for religiosity. Those with more education (higher rank) were more in favour of female participation (Savell, 1979; Davis, 1983) however, Coye (1973)

found that the relationship was insignificant. Younger persons were more favourable to female participation than older persons (Davis, 1983) but Martin (1982) did not find age to be a significant factor. In the United States, persons residing in the northern regions were most in favour of women in the military (Davis, 1983; Cheatman, 1984), compared to other regions of the States -- a finding not contradicted by other research. Social origin (Martin, 1982) and intent to stay in the military (Savell, 1979) were not found to be significant factors when compared to attitudes toward women in the Forces. Although there is inconclusive evidence as to how political affiliation, religiosity, education, rank, and age, relate to attitudes toward female military participation, it does appear that support for women in the military is part of a broad complex set of liberal social attitudes and attributes (Davis, 1983).

Additional questions arise as to how attitudes toward women in the forces would be affected by a general societal move towards, for example, a more liberal political ideology, or a further breakdown of formal religious practices. There is also the question of Canada's present international situation, as we are not presently at war. How would these attitudes be affected by external or internal strife? More important to the current research is how these various liberal attitudes and attributes interact with the attitudes under investigation? Which indicators are more important and what sort of a casual relationship exists?

This section has explored the available literature on military women with regards to attitudes toward the expansion of women's inclusion in the Forces. From this review significant attitudes and attributes of interest were drawn to form the hypotheses for the current study. The next section will present the scope and purpose of the current research.

1.5 The Purpose of this Research

Since there are few studies which have directly evaluated the attitudes of military women, on questions of women's role in the military, and none that have specifically studied Canadian female military officers, the purpose of this study was to sample female Militia officers to investigate (1) attitudes toward expanding women's inclusion in the military, and (2) how demographic, military and social psychological indicators, for example, age, length of service and political affiliation, were associated with these attitudes. As an exploratory study this research investigated military women's attitudes toward women; in combat, on sea duty, and as aircrew for flight training schools, along with attitudes toward increasing the number of women in the forces, allowing lesbians admission to the military and sending women to isolated posts. In addition, this study sought to determine attitudes toward; combat restrictions if women were in combat, women as commanding officers of Militia service battalion and medical units, women's competence, and employing pregnant servicewomen. An attempt was made to isolate those demographic,

military and social psychological variables that were associated with a "liberal" package of items about expanding women's inclusion in the military, for the purpose of uncovering tentative hypotheses that could be further tested by more research. Exploratory studies are seldom definitive because of the issue of representativeness and as such only point the way toward an answer.

The subject of women in the military is an emotional one that evokes immediate and strong responses based on traditional beliefs about the nature of war and the nature of women. How do women in the military themselves feel about expanding female participation in the military especially when present restrictions short circuit career progression both within the Regular Force and Reserves? Women in the Militia have first hand knowledge in experiencing the discrimination presently practiced by the military. Are these women in favour of or unconcerned with the present situation? How do their attitudes differ from the general consciousness found in society? Little is known about the attitudes of military women in the Canadian Militia, and although few in numbers (290 female officers in the Militia), their presence is bound to have marked effects on the present military environment. This research was concerned with adding to the small body of social science knowledge in the field of military sociology -- women. The next chapter will present the hypotheses of interest for this study.

CHAPTER 2

THE HYPOTHESES

A number of hypotheses are proposed which have been suggested in the literature on attitudes toward women in the military. The following is a presentation of the hypotheses, based on the previously discussed literature.

2.1 Attitudes

This study was concerned with exploring differences in attitudes toward an expanded inclusion of women in the military for a military population. These attitudes were broken down into a number of subgroups:

1. Agreement or disagreement with women in the military roles of;
 - A. combat in general
 - B. aircrew at flight training schools
 - C. draftee
 - D. infantry foot soldier
 - E. sailor aboard support ships
2. Agreement or disagreement with increasing the number of women in the Forces;
3. Agreement or disagreement with posting women to isolated locations;

4. Agreement or disagreement with opening the Forces to the enlistment of lesbians;
5. Agreement or disagreement with women's competence as;
 - A. leaders
 - B. commanding officers of medical and service battalion units in the militia
 - C. pregnant workers
6. Agreement or disagreement with the following combat restrictions on women if permitted combat roles;
 - A. only if single
 - B. only if childless
 - C. only if serving in all female units
 - D. only if women could pass the standard of physical fitness and strength required of men in combat
 - E. only if women could pass a physical fitness and strength test designed specifically for women

2.2 Indicators

The indicators, dealing with respondent's social attitudes and attributes, were broken down into three parts - demographic, military and social/psychological:

1. Demographic
 - A. age
 - B. marital status

- C. religion
- D. education
- E. parental status
- F. political party
- G. occupation

2. Military

- A. length of service
- B. rank
- C. commitment to Militia

3. Social/Psychological

- A. religiousity
- B. political ideology
- C. androgyny
- D. feminism

2.3 The Hypotheses

Those women who favour an expanded inclusion for women in the military are a different segment of the population when compared to those who disapprove of an expanded inclusion for women in the Forces.

Positive attitudes toward an expanded inclusion for women in the military, will tend to be associated with:

H:1 Demographic Variables

H:1:1 Younger women as compared to older women

- H:1:2 Single women as compared with married, divorced, separated and common-law women
- H:1:3 Non-religious persons and Catholics compared to Protestants
- H:1:4 Better educated women as compared to less educated women
- H:1:5 Fewer children than more children
- H:1:6 Liberal political party support as compared to conservative political party support
- H:1:7 Professional women, students or those on Class A, B, or C service compared to unemployed or semi-professional women
- H:2 Military Variables
 - H:2:1 Longer length of service compared with shorter length of service
 - H:2:2 Higher rank compared to lower rank
 - H:2:3 Higher commitment to the Militia as opposed to lower commitment to the Militia
- H:3 Social/Psychological Variables
 - H:3:1 Lower religiosity as compared to higher religiosity
 - H:3:2 Liberal political ideology as compared with a conservative political ideology
 - H:3:3 More masculine sex-role categorization as compared to a more feminine sex-role categorization
 - H:3:4 Stronger feminist ideology as compared with a weaker feminist ideology

In summary, a number of hypotheses have been proposed correlating attitudes toward women in the Forces to demographic, military and social/psychological variables. The testings of these hypotheses will provide some idea as to which factors may be important for predicting female officers' attitudes toward women's service in the military.

TABLE 2-1

SUMMARY OF HYPOTHESES

Positive attitudes toward expanding female participation in the Forces will tend to be associated with:

<u>Indicators</u>	<u>Attitudes</u>
Military Roles, Combat, Lesbians, Women's Competence	
<u>Demographic Variables</u>	
AGE	Younger women
MARITAL STATUS	Single or engaged women
RELIGION	Non-religious persons or Catholics
EDUCATION	Better educated
PARENTAL STATUS	Fewer Children
POLITICAL PARTY	Liberal political party support
OCCUPATION	Professional women, students or Class A,B,C
<u>Military Variables</u>	
LENGTH OF SERVICE	Longer length of service
RANK	Higher rank
COMMITMENT	Higher commitment to the Militia
<u>Social Psychological Variables</u>	
RELIGIOUSITY	Lower Religiosity
POLITICAL IDEOLOGY	Liberal political ideology
FEMINIST IDEOLOGY	Stronger feminist ideology
ANDROGYNY	More masculine sex-role categories

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This chapter will focus on the research methods utilized for this study. First, there will be a discussion of the research design followed by a description of the sample, the sampling technique employed, and a description of the questionnaire and its construction. The chapter will conclude with the implementation procedure adopted for the distribution of the questionnaire, and the statistical analysis employed for analyzing the data.

3.1 Research Design

The selected operational design for this study, can simply be defined as sociological survey research of an exploratory nature, that employed female Militia officers as the unit of analysis.

A Likert scale was developed to measure the sample's attitudes toward an expanded inclusion of women in the military. In addition, data were collected on demographic, military, and social/psychological dimensions. This information was sought with the hopes of determining; (1) the sample's stratification by attitude, (2) the sample's breakdown by demographic, military and social/psychological factors, and (3) how the attitudes were related to demographic, military and social/psychological dimensions of interest. The intent was to uncover differences between those holding positive attitudes and those possessing negative attitudes, if any, as reflected by the proposed hypotheses mentioned earlier.

3.2 Instrument Development

3.2.1 The Interview Schedule

As an initial step to studying female officers attitudes toward women in the military, personal interviews were conducted using a structured interview schedule (Appendix B).

The interview was comprised of open-ended questions which were grouped according to topic - family background, military experience, attitudes toward the military, social/psychological issues, and social activities. Open-ended questions were used to facilitate a full investigation of the various aspects of the topics of interest as the questions were to be answered according to the respondents own interpretation. Extensive use of probing was employed to clarify or obtain a more extensive or explicit expression of a particular opinion or attitude.

3.2.2 The Questionnaire

This survey (Appendix G) was based on Dillman's (1978) total design method (TDM) in which both the quality and quantity of responses to the mailed questionnaire are maximized by paying attention to every detail that may affect response behavior. Boyd's (1975) study, "Performance of 1st tour WAC enlisted women: data base for the Performance Orientation of Women's Basic Training," and Goodfellow's (1976) "Reserve Force Study" were used as examples of questionnaires that had been used for surveying military populations.

The questionnaire consisted of four parts. The first dealt with attributes and behaviors of respondents with regards to their own military experience. The second part questioned respondent's attitudes toward women in the military, and the third part consisted of the Bem Sex Role Inventory. The fourth section questioned respondents on their demographic attributes.

Questions one to eighteen were developed from a number of sources. Questions 1,2,4,5, and 6, (rank, unit, classification, position and training) were devised from the researchers own military experience. Question six (length of service) was taken directly from Boyd's questionnaire (1975:82). Questions seven to ten (find out about Militia, father, brother, or relatives in Armed Forces) tapped preenlistment variables and were culled from Thomas and Durning's (1978) study on Navy women. Question eleven asked for the main reason respondents joined the Militia. The response categories were drawn from the initial interviews and also from Thomas and Durning's study (wanted to travel and meet people, needed a job and few jobs where I lived, and wanted to leave family or hometown). Boyd's (1975:104-105) study provided questions twelve and thirteen, however, a partially close ended question structure was adopted with pre-formed answers whereas Boyd's study used an open-ended question format. The partially close-ended question layout made it easier to code the responses, but still allowed freedom for those who wished a unique response. The pre-formed answers were developed from the initial responses to the open-ended question, "What do you like and dislike about

the Militia?", asked of respondents in the interview situation. Maham (1976:165), who rank ordered college objectives for ROTC women, and Card and Farrell's (1983:1017) aspects of Army attractiveness, were also incorporated as response categories for question twelve. Questions fourteen to eighteen were culled from the initial interviews and were concerned with eliciting information on past and present behavior with regards to the military.

The second part of the questionnaire was developed to determine attitudes toward expanding the role of women in a military environment. Question nineteen (women in combat) was an adaptation of a Gallup Report question (29 Aug 85), (see page 72). Questions 21,22, and 25 were adopted from a discussion of employment opportunities presented in Defence 1984, (1985:72). Davis's et al (1983:31-32) study on how Americans view the military provided the basis for questions 24 and 30. Questions 26 and 29 were adapted from Coye's et al (1973:85) study on women in Navy management. The remainder of questions in this section were drawn from respondent's comments during the initial interviews (lesbians, as foot soldiers, pregnancy, and restrictions on women if in combat). The third part of the survey consisted of the Bem Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974:156). The 60 personality characteristics were arranged in two columns so that the entire inventory would fit on one page.

The final section of the survey was designed to illicit demographic information from respondents. Questions 32-36, 39,

41, and 43 were replications of questions from Dillman (1978:134-36) who provided an acceptable format for these commonly asked survey questions (marital status, number and ages of children, occupation, age, education and religious attendance). Adaptations or additions to answer categories were made when appropriate, for example, a "common-law" category was added to the marital status question. Thomas and Durning (1978:141) provided the basis for questions 37 and 38 on birth position and number of siblings. Question 42 was added as a third indicator of religiosity and was taken from census data (92-912). Question 44 was adapted from the Gallup Report (6 Feb 86) question, "If there was a Federal election today, which party's candidate do you think you would favour?". The last question examined the sample's identification with the political ideological positions of liberalism and conservatism. This question came from two sources, Dillman (1978:136) and Pierce (1982:179).

3.2.3 The Questionnaire Package

The survey cover letter (Appendix C) was designed to fit onto a single page to maintain simplicity and attractiveness. The letter itself consisted of several parts, these being; the official letterhead, date mailed, respondent's name in blue point ink, what study was about and its usefulness, why recipient was important, a promise of confidentiality, what to do if questions arose, appreciation, pressed blue ball ink signature and researcher's title. The second follow-up letter (Appendix F) was

somewhat different in tone compared to the first in that recipients were told that their questionnaire had not yet been received.

The follow-up postcard (Appendix E) was written to jog memories, and contained the following information; date mailed, tie to previous letter, thanks to early respondents, why recipient was important, invitation to get replacement questionnaire, pressed blue ball point signature and researcher's title.

3.3 The Sampling Process

The Canadian Armed Forces is organized into a number of functional and regional commands headed by the Chief of Defence Staff, who reports to the Minister of National Defence. The Forces are divided into seven commands; 1) Maritime, 2) Mobile 3) Air, 4) Communication, 5) Canadian Forces Europe, 6) Canadian Forces Training System, and 7) Northern Region. Four of these commands have within their organization a component of the Primary Reserve - Air, Naval, Communication and Militia (Table 3-1). The Primary Reserve is an integral part of the Canadian Forces organization, however, the Reserves is an organization made up of citizens who are not regular soldiers but who instead undergo training on a part-time basis throughout the year in addition to their civilian commitments. The role of the Reserves is to augment the Regular Force during peacetime activities and emergency or defence operations. The Canadian Reserve force

itself consists of the Primary Reserve (Air, Naval, Communication and Militia), the Supplementary Reserve, Cadet Instructors List, and the Canadian Rangers (Table 3-2). The Supplementary reserve is a list of retired officers and other ranks from the Regular Force, former members of the Primary Reserve, and Cadet Instructors, who have volunteered to return to the service if required by a state or national emergency. The Cadet Instructors list is composed of officers who train cadets, and the Canadian Rangers provide a military force in the largely unsettled northern regions of Canada. The strength of the Canadian Forces at the end of 1984 was:

Regular Force	83,630
Primary Reserve	23,849
Supplementary Reserve and Cadet Instructor List	26,274 (Defence 1984, 1985)

The Militia is composed of five operational regions across Canada - Pacific, Prairie, Central, Secteur de l'est and Atlantic. Each contains infantry, armoured, artillery, service, medical and band units. Based on the British regimental system, each unit is comprised of a small officer corp and several companies of enlisted personnel (the number depending on the particular unit). In 1984, the Militia contained approximately 16,000 all ranks, 16% of which were female or 2560 personnel. Of these 2560 personnel

TABLE 3-1

ORGANIZATION OF THE CANADIAN ARMED FORCES

MINISTER OF NATIONAL DEFENCE

CHIEF OF DEFENCE STAFF

MARITIME COMMAND	AIR COMMAND	COMMUNICATION COMMAND	MOBILE COMMAND	CANADIAN FORCES EUROPE	CANADIAN FORCES TRAINING SYSTEM	NORTHERN REGION
NAVAL RESERVE	AIR RESERVE	COMMUNICATION RESERVE	MILITIA			

MILAREA PACIFIC - 19 UNITS

MILAREA PRAIRIE - 37 UNITS

MILAREA CENTRAL - 60 UNITS

SECTEUR DE L'EST - 36 UNITS

MILAREA ATLANTIC - 31 UNITS

 SOURCE: Defence 1984(1985)

TABLE 3-2

ORGANIZATION OF THE CANADIAN RESERVE FORCE

PRIMARY RESERVE	SUPPLEMENTARY RESERVE	CADET INSTRUCTOR'S LIST	CANADIAN RANGERS
-----------------	-----------------------	-------------------------	---------------------

NAVAL RESERVE
 AIR RESERVE
 COMMUNICATIONS RES.
 MILITIA

 SOURCE: DEFENCE 1984(1985)

290 were officers as of the 31st of October 1985 (Conference of Defence Associations Resolution 21/86). A true random sample of all 290 female Militia officers was the original intent of this study, however, it was not possible to obtain a complete list of these officers. The Director of Reserves advised the researcher that, "The names and home addresses of all female officers in the Reserves cannot be provided unless they first volunteer in advance of your study being conducted." (7200-1(D RES 2-3) 25 Nov 85). In compliance with this directive three methods were used to compile a list of names. Initially, a letter was sent to a unit in each of the 22 districts across Canada requesting the names of female officers in that particular district. Eleven replies were received resulting in the names of 56 female officers. Secondly, individual units were canvassed by telephone. The units that were most likely to employ female officers (i.e. medical companies and service battalions) were the first to be contacted. However, due to time and financial restraints not all of the 136 units in Canada were contacted. This procedure resulted in an additional 50 names. Personal acquaintances of the researcher were also contacted. A snowball sampling technique best describes this part of the sampling procedure (Babbie, 1979). These friends were asked to provide the names of their acquaintances who were then asked to provide the names of their friends. This resulted in 12 additional names of female officers, giving a total sample of 118 officers. This sample is known as a convenience sample (Cook and Campbell, 1979:71). The only requirements for prospective

respondents were that they be female officers, in the Militia, and on active duty, whether Class A, B, or C service (as opposed to the Supplementary List).

3.4 Implementing the Research Design

Step one consisted of ascertaining the interest of six female officers in the Canadian Armed Forces, Militia, Victoria, to participate in a research project consisting of personal interviews. The interviewer identified herself as a graduate sociology student at the University of Victoria completing a thesis requirement for a Masters degree. The officers were then explained the topic of the research and asked if they would be willing to participate in the study. All six agreed, and appointments were set up at convenient times for both parties.

The interviews took place at the University of Victoria and at Bay Street Armouries. At the time of the interview respondents were informed of their right to refuse to answer any of the interview questions. They were also assured that their responses would be strictly confidential. The interview schedule was then read to each correspondent. The interviewer used a tape recorder to record the responses, which were later transcribed to a written form. At the conclusion of the interview all respondents received a written pledge of confidentiality (Appendix C) indicating the researcher's credibility. The length of each interview varied from one, to two and one half hours. The open-ended interviews

provided a rich source of material for the second stage of the study - the mailed questionnaire.

The second stage consisted of assembling the questionnaire package and mailing it out to the respondents. The name of the respondent was hand written on each cover letter. Addresses, and the researcher's signature were written in blue ink using what is described as the "pressed blue ball point pen" method (Dillman, 1978). A standard brown business envelope was used to mail out the questionnaire, cover letter, and return envelope. Names and addresses were individually printed on each envelope using blue ink with the surname placed last as is standard practice for business correspondence. The follow-up post card was printed by a print shop to ensure a professional quality of paper, print and cut. These cards were also signed by the researcher in blue ink and each was individually addressed by hand. First class postage was used to avoid the unimportance associated with bulk rate insignia. A preaddressed and stamped brown business envelope was also included in the package to serve as a return envelope for the questionnaire.

The questionnaire package, after several revisions, and a pre-test, was initially mailed out between the 23rd and 27th of January, 1986 to 118 officers. Step two consisted of mailing out the reminder card (Appendix D). This card was sent to 107 respondents who had not yet returned the questionnaire. It was possible to determine who had returned questionnaires because all but one had included her name and address on the outside of the

return envelope requesting a copy of the results (11 out of 12 returns). A third letter and an additional questionnaire was sent out to 42 officers between the 18th and 20th of March, 1986. Up to this point 83 questionnaires had been received. Again it was possible to reduce the number of second questionnaires required because most individuals has included their name and address on the return envelope. An additional seven questionnaires were received for a total of 90 returns. Two of the returns were not used in the analysis as one was returned incompleted, and one was received after the analysis had been completed. However, a total of 88 responses were used for the analysis giving an unadjusted response rate of $90/118 = 76.3\%$ or an adjusted rate of $88/118 = 74.6\%$.

3.5 Sample Demographics

A total of eighty eight usable questionnaires were received. Table 3-3 provides the breakdown of replies received by each Militia Area compared to the number of questionnaires mailed out. Central Militia Area returned the fewest in proportion to the number sent out, however, it is difficult to determine if this was in fact true when fifteen of the questionnaires location of mailing was unknown.

TABLE 3-3

Comparison of Questionnaires Received to Number Mailed Out by Militia Area

Milarea	Number of Replies Received	Number of Questionnaires Sent Out
Pacific	11	17
Prairie	16	24
Central	23	42
Secteur de		
l'est	13	16
Atlantic	12	19
Unknown	15	0
N = 90		N = 118

The sample was young with almost two thirds of the respondents 30 years of age or younger (Table 3-4A). This is not unusual as the militia experiences a high rate of attrition for all its personnel regardless of gender, although it would be interesting to know if women's attrition rates were higher compared to men's. Not quite half the sample was married, with 40% never have being married. The largest proportion considered themselves to be Catholics (45%), in keeping with the Canadian female population of 47.5% Catholic. Most interesting is that over 18% of the sample professed no religious affiliation - approximately three times higher than the general female Canadian public of 6.2%. This difference may be explained by the age distribution of the sample (i.e. young women having less religious participation than older women) or by the unique population attracted to the military.

The majority had attended university, (79.5%) for varying lengths of time depending on age. This was not surprising as most officers are required to be in possession of a degree, or working towards a degree, before they will be accepted into the military as an officer and presented with a commission.

Close to three quarters of the sample did not have children and very few had more than two. Of those who responded to the question which political party would you support if an election was called today, over half would vote for the Progressive Conservative Party, while 38% would vote Liberal, and 11% would choose the NDP. This is a distribution that is somewhat different

from the general Canadian population (Gallup Report, 6 Feb 86) where, of those with an opinion, 41% would vote for the PC, 36% for the Liberals and 23% for the NDP. The militia sample was more in favour of the Progressive Conservative Party. It was also interesting to note that several individuals refused to answer this question because of a belief that military personnel must remain neutral in discussions of politics. Occupational category included 26% of the sample as students, 19% unemployed (some by choice), 13% professionals (doctors, lawyers, and accountants), 34% semi-professional (non-degree nurses, business managers, officer personnel), and 9% on Class B or C callouts with the militia. The large percentage of students can be explained by the nature of the militia. Many officers use the Militia as a summer employment opportunity while attending university full-time (i.e. the Reserve Entry Scheme Officer Program, RESO, is a three year employment program specifically designed for university students).

TABLE 3-4A

Respondent Demographic Characteristics By Percentage

Characteristic	Sample	Canadian Sample a
<u>Age</u>		
19-30 Years	66.3	
31-40 Years	26.7	
41-50 Years	7.0	
	100.0 (N=86)	
<u>Marital Status</u>		
Married	48.3	
Never Married	39.1	
Engaged	5.7	
Common-law	4.6	
Divorced	2.3	
	100.0 (N=87)	
<u>Religion</u>		
Protestant	35.6	42.3
Catholic	44.8	47.5
Jewish	1.1	1.2
None	18.4	6.2
Other	--	2.8
	100.0 (N=87)	100.0
<u>Years of University</u>		
0	20.9	
1	11.6	
2	11.6	
3	26.7	
4	15.1	
5	5.8	
6	4.7	
7	3.5	
	100.0 (N=86)	

Table 3-4B

Respondent Demographic Characteristics By Percentage

Characteristic	Sample	Sample b	Canadian Sample*
<u>Number of Children</u>			
None	73.9		
One	10.2		
Two	9.1		
Three	5.7		
Four	<u>1.1</u>		
	100.0 (N=88)		
<u>Political Party</u>			
Progressive Conservative	43.2	51.4	41.0
Liberal	31.8	37.8	36.0
NDP	9.1	10.8	23.0
None	11.4	--	--
Don't Know	4.5	--	--
Other	--	--	1.0
	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>
	(N=88)	(N=74)	
<u>Occupation</u>			
Semi-professional	33.7		
Student	25.6		
Unemployed	18.6		
Professional	12.8		
Class B or C	<u>9.3</u>		
	100.0 (N=86)		

* Gallup Report 6 Feb 86 - Canadian population by political support.

a Statistics Canada 92-912 (Vol. 1) - Census breakdown for female population by religion.

b The categories of "None" and "Don't know" removed so that data comparable to Canadian sample.

3.6 Measurement and Distribution of Military and Social Psychological Variables

In this section measurements for the military and social/psychological variables will be identified along with the sample's distribution on these measurements (Table 3-5 and 3-6).

The largest category by rank was that of Captain as 40% held this position. This is not surprising given the nature of the military promotion system, where Captain is the first substantive rank in an officer's career progression. The largest group of officers had served from zero to five years (43%), and 36% had stayed from six to ten years.

The commitment variable was measured using two indicators; 1) how long individuals planned to stay in the militia, and 2) orientation towards the militia (career vs. job). Although intentions regarding career continuation behavior are not synonymous with subsequent behavior, such intentions have been consistently shown to be the best available predictor of behavior (Meeker, 1983).

The majority of the sample (61%) plan to stay in the militia from zero to five more years. Over 40% considered their militia occupation a career and 59% considered the militia to be a job, a seemingly important distinction.

TABLE 3-5

Respondent Military Characteristics By Percentage

Characteristic	Sample (N=88)
<u>Length of Service</u>	
0 - 5 years	43.2
6 - 10 years	36.4
11 - 15 years	13.6
16 - 21 years	6.8
	<u>100.0</u>
<u>Rank</u>	
Officer Cadet	1.1
2nd Lieutenant	19.3
Lieutenant	31.8
Captain	39.8
Major	8.0
	<u>100.0</u>
<u>How Long plan to stay in Militia?</u>	
0 - 5 years	60.9
6 or more years	39.1
	<u>100.0 (N=87)</u>
<u>Orientation Towards Militia</u>	
As a career	40.9
As a job	59.1
	<u>100.0 (N=88)</u>

Religiosity was also measured by two indicators (Table 3-6). Respondents were asked to rate themselves on a scale from "very" religious to "not at all" religious. The largest group was "somewhat" religious and constituted 47% of the sample. Of most interest was the "not at all" religious category of 31%. Religious attendance, measured on a scale from "weekly" attendance to "never" attend church, showed that 18% "never" attend church, 58% attend "a few times a year" and 24% "once a month" to "weekly".

A political ideology scale of very conservative to very liberal indicated that most respondents (49%) considered themselves to be middle-of-the-road while the rest of the sample was evenly split between conservative and liberal ideologies. The question on feminist ideology also split the sample almost in half with 40% considering themselves feminists and 44% not labelling themselves feminists. The Bem Sex Role Inventory was used to classify the sample as masculine, feminine, androgynous, and undifferentiated. The sample consisted mainly of androgynous individuals (63%), but 27% were a masculine type and 8% were accorded a feminine designation. All in all, the majority of the sample can be characterized as; young, educated, childless, somewhat religious, androgynous, and possessing a low commitment to the militia.

The sample appears to be split on the characteristics of marital status (married/single), religion (Catholic, Protestant,

none), political party support (Liberal, P.C.), occupation, rank, length of service, feminism, and political ideology.

TABLE 3-6
Social Psychological Respondent Characteristics By Percentage

Characteristic	Sample
<u>How Religious</u>	
Very	4.5
Quite	18.2
Somewhat	46.6
Not at all	30.7
	100.0 (N=88)
<u>Religious Attendance</u>	
Weekly	13.6
1 - 2x/month	10.2
Few times a year	58.2
Never	18.2
	100.0 (N=88)
<u>Political Ideology</u>	
Conservative	21.6
Middle-of-the-Road	48.9
Liberal	22.7
No View	6.8
	100.0 (N=88)
<u>Do you consider yourself a feminist?</u>	
Yes	39.5
Uncertain	16.3
No	44.2
	100.0 (N=86)
<u>BSRI Classification</u>	
Masculine	28.7
Androgynous	63.2
Feminine	8.0
Undifferentiated	0.0
	100.0 (N=87)

3.7 Statistical Analysis

The fifteen demographic, military, and social psychological variables were crosstabulated against the attitude toward female participation in the military dimensions using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSSX) program. The 210 associations were screened for statistical significance (chi-square $p < \text{ or } = .05$), magnitude (Somer's d) and sense. Chi-square was used for nominal level data and Somer's d was calculated for the ordinal level variables.

Somer's d was used as it is an appropriate measure for collapsed ordinal level variables that have been arrayed in bivariate tables. It is interpretable by the logic of PRE and, computationally, based on a comparison of the number of pairs of cases ranked in the same order on both variables with the number of pairs ranked differently. Somer's d incorporates tied pairs of cases, that is, pairs that are tied on the dependent variable but not the independent.

Somer's d is an asymmetric measure of association because it will change values depending on which variable is taken as independent. Somer's d indicates a positive or negative relationship of a particular strength. In predicting the order of pairs of cases on the dependent variable Somer's d can be interpreted as the percentage of fewer errors when predicting from the order of the pairs on the independent variable. This measure of association was also used as it was less sensitive to the

skewed distributions of the attitude and attribute dimensions than, for example, gamma. However, the use of gamma, Kendall's tau-b and Somer's d generally result in the same conclusion with regards to existence, strength, and direction of an association. But, the values of Somer's d will always be less than the value of gamma because Somer's d includes the pairs of cases tied on the dependent variable in its denominator. The next chapter presents the results of this study. Each of the fifteen hypotheses is discussed individually.

CHAPTER 4

THE RESULTS

This chapter will present the results of the study. The first section will deal with respondents' attitudes toward women in the military. This will be followed by a presentation of the hypotheses and the tentative findings associated with correlating the attitude questions to the demographic, military and social psychological dimensions.

4.1 Attitudes Toward Female Participation in the Military

Among the items included on the questionnaire were five questions concerning attitudes toward female participation in the military roles of combatant, infanteer, draftee, sailor aboard support ships, and aircrew at flight training schools. Table 4-1 provides the frequencies of respondent endorsement for each item. The overall pattern is consistent with what one would expect - higher frequencies of endorsement for jobs that are more traditional (i.e. women as sailors aboard support ships and women as aircrew for flight training schools), compared to the less conventional occupations associated with combat roles or more specifically, as infantry foot soldiers.

In the sample, over half (52%) favoured women in combat roles, and the majority favoured women for sea duty aboard support ships (78%), and as air crew for flight training schools (85%). The greatest portion of the sample favoured women as draftees

(89%) if a draft was reinstated, while only 45% felt that women should be enrolled as infantry foot soldiers.

TABLE 4-1
Percentage of Respondents Attitudes Toward Female Participation in
the Armed Forces (N = 88)

Issue	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Total
1. Women should be permitted to serve in combat roles	52.3	14.8	33.0	100.0
2. Women should be enrolled in the Armed Forces as infantry foot soldiers	45.4	20.5	34.1	100.0
3. If a draft was to become compulsory women should be required to participate.	88.6	4.5	6.8	100.0
4. Women should be employed for sea duty aboard support ships.	78.4	13.6	8.0	100.0
5. Women should be employed as aircrew at flight training schools.	85.2	11.4	3.4	100.0

These results were similar to those found by the Directorate of Personnel Development Study (1978) for Canadian Regular Force servicewomen; 76% were in favour of women serving on support ships, and 86.6% were in favour of women as aircrew. Perhaps the most interesting thing about the table, is question two, on women as infantry foot soldiers. Although less than half (46%) favoured women as combatants, over 20% were "undecided" on the issue, indicating a fair degree of ambivalence on the subject.

When compared to the Canadian population (Table 4-2) this sample of female militia officers were less in favour of women in combat roles than the general Canadian female population and more in favour than the general Canadian male population, but the difference were small and not significant (difference of proportion sig = .23). Again there is a difference in the percentage of those who were "uncertain" on the issue, with the militia sample being much more "uncertain" than the Canadian sample. It is interesting that the militia sample reflected the Canadian population to the extent that it did considering the nature of the sample.

TABLE 4-2

Comparison of Attitude Toward Women in Combat Roles Between Sample
and Canadian Population By Sex (percentages)

Attitude	Female Militia Officers	Canadian Population*		
		Female	Male	National
Favour	52.3	56.0	52.0	54.0
Oppose	33.0	38.0	44.0	41.0
Uncertain	14.8	6.0	5.0	6.0
	<u>100.0</u> (N=88)	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>	<u>100.0</u>

* Gallup Report 29 August 85

Question: Currently women in the Armed Forces are not trained for or assigned to combat. It has been proposed that the Forces change this policy to permit women to serve in combat roles. Are you in favour or opposed to this change?

Three items measured; agreement or disagreement with increasing the number of women in the Forces, posting women to isolated areas and admitting lesbians to the Forces (Table 4-3). The majority (78%) favoured increasing the number of women in the Forces and most (82%) thought that women should be eligible for assignment to isolated posts.

This sample of women officers in the Militia tended not to favour admitting lesbians to the Armed Forces (44%) however, a sizeable percentage (37%) favoured lesbian participation in the Forces.

Table 4-3

Percentage of Respondent Attitudes Toward Women in the Military

Issue	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Total
1. There should be more women in the Forces.	78.4	17.0	4.5	100.0
2. Women should be eligible for assignment to isolated postings.	81.8	9.1	9.1	100.0
3. Lesbians should be permitted to enlist in the Armed Forces	36.8	19.5	43.7	100.0

N = 88

Three questions were asked to determine respondent's attitudes toward women's ability and efficiency as, leaders in general, as commanding officers of medical companies and service battalions, and as pregnant servicewomen in non-combat roles (Table 4-4). The overwhelming majority (92%) stated that women were as likely as men to have the personality necessary to perform effectively as "leaders". Most respondents (96.6%) felt that women should be permitted commanding officer roles in medical companies and service battalions of militia units, and a large percentage (89.5%) stated that pregnant service women in non-combat roles should be able to remain in the service.

TABLE 4-4
Percentage of
Respondent Attitudes Toward Women's Ability and Efficiency

Issue	Agree	Uncertain	Disagree	Total
Women as likely as men to have personality to perform effectively as "leaders".	92.0	2.3	5.7	100.0 N=88
Women should be permitted commanding officer roles in Medical and Service Bn units.	96.6	1.1	2.3	100.0 N=88
Pregnant service women in non-combat roles should be able to remain in service.	89.5	8.1	2.3	100.0 N=86

Finally, of those women who favoured women in combat roles or were "uncertain" about a combat role for women (n = 59), the majority felt that women could be married (74%), have children (69%) and still be placed in a combat role (Table 4-5). The majority (62%) also stated that women should not be segregated into all female units. There was almost an equal split between those who thought women must be as strong as men to be in combat (53%) and those who thought women need to be selected on the basis of a female standard (49%). It was not possible to include the attitudes of women who opposed females in combat roles as a significant number answered the question dealing with this issue by stating "no" to all of the restrictions, making their responses invalid.

TABLE 4-5

Percentage of Respondent Attitudes Toward Restrictions on Women in
 Combat For Those Who Favour or Are Uncertain About Combat Roles
 For Women

Restriction	Favour Combat or Uncertain (n=59)			Total
	<u>Yes</u>	<u>Uncertain</u>	<u>No</u>	
Only if Single	10.3	15.5	74.1	100.0
Only if Childless	12.1	19.0	69.0	100.0
Only if in an all female unit	20.7	17.2	62.1	100.0
Only if I can pass standard of physical fitness and strength required of men	52.5	13.6	33.9	100.0
Only if women can pass a physical strength and fitness test designed for women	49.2	5.1	45.8	100.0

4.2 Correlations

4.2.1 Demographic Variables

HYPOTHESIS 1.1

Positive attitudes toward an expanded inclusion for women in the military will tend to be associated with younger women as compared to older women.

To test hypothesis one, Somer's d , a type B ordinal measure of association, was calculated to assess how well age correlated to attitudes toward expanding female participation in the military. The hypothesis was generally not supported by the data - a finding contrary to the literature (Table 4-6A-B). However, younger women may be in greater favour of increasing the number of women in the forces, posting women to isolated areas, appointing women as commanding officers and employing pregnant servicewomen. In addition, a small correlation was found between age and strength test required of women if in combat. Younger women may be more supportive of a physical strength and fitness test designed for women as the criteria for determining the combat suitability of servicewomen (-.20). Davis et al (1983:40) discovered that younger adults were more supportive of the military's innovations regarding women in the forces, (i.e significant Chi-square value obtained between youth and positive attitude toward assigning women to hand-to-hand combat) however he did find that the young were also the least supportive

of the military in general (i.e. less confident in military leaders and less supportive of military spending). Therefore, it is interesting to note that older women may be more in favour of the remainder of innovations measured by the attitude questions. It must be remembered that these findings are not definitive because of the question of representativeness.

TABLE 4-6A
Correlations Between Positive Respondent Attitudes
Toward Women in the Military and Demographic Characteristics (Somer's d)

Characteristic Attitude	Age	Education	Parental Status
Permitted Combat Role	+.13	.01	+.03
As Foot Soldiers	+.10	-.02	+.06
Should Be included in draft	+.08	+.11	-.06
As Air Crew	+.03	-.07	+.04
On Sea Duty	+.17	-.04	+.04
More numbers	-.08	-.14	+.07
Isolated Postings	-.03	-.01	-.06
Lesbians	.01	+.17	-.09
Good as Leaders	-.03	-.09	+.06
Commanding Officers	-.07	.00	-.04
Pregnant Servicewomen	-.16	-.08	+.02

N = 88

TABLE 4-6B
 Correlations Between Combat Restrictions and Demographic Variables for those Women who Favour
 or are Uncertain About Combat Roles For Women (Somer's d)

Restriction	Demographic Variables		
	Age	Education	Parental Status
Only if single	+0.06	+0.17	-0.07
Only if Childless	-0.02	+0.10	-0.13
Only if in an all Female unit	+0.14	+0.08	-0.03
Only if can pass standard of physical fitness and strength required of men	+0.19	+0.01	-0.09
Only if women can pass a physical strength and fitness test designed for women	-0.20	-0.11	-0.04

N=59

HYPOTHESIS 1.2

Positive attitudes toward an expanded inclusion for women in the military will tend to be associated with single women as compared to married, divorced, separated and common-law women.

Marital status may not be a significant indicator of attitudes toward female participation in the military with a possible exception -- a significant chi-squared value for support of women as aircrew ($X^2 \text{ sig} = .003$) was obtained. Single women were less in favour of women as aircrew (82%) than married (including common law) (87%), and divorced individuals. (100%). However, this finding is not definitive because of the nature of the sample.

TABLE 4-7

Crosstabulation of Marital Status By Women as Aircrew

<u>Women as Aircrew</u>	Never Married	<u>Marital Status</u>			Total
		Married	Divorced	Common-Law	
Agree	32	37	2	3	74
Uncertain	4	5	0	1	10
Disagree	3	0	0	0	3
Total	39	42	2	4	87

Chi-square sig. = .003

HYPOTHESIS 1.3

Positive attitudes toward an expanded inclusion for women in the Military will tend to be associated with Catholics and non-religious persons as compared to Protestants.

Religion may not be a significant indicator of attitudes toward female participation in the military with two possible exceptions. There appeared to be a relationship between religion and "permitted combat role" (chi square = .004), and between religion and "as foot soldiers" (chi square = .012). Of all who agreed that women should be in combat 60% were Catholics but Catholics only constituted 48% of the sample. Of all Catholics 69% agreed that women should be in combat compared to 50% of the non-religious persons and 31% of the Protestants (Table 4-8).

Inclusive in the question of women in combat is the issue of women as foot soldiers. Of all those who agreed that women should be foot soldiers (63%) only 21% were Protestant even though Protestants constituted 37% of the sample.

Of all non-religious types 63% agreed that women should be infanteers, as compared to 54% of the Catholics and 25% of the Protestants (Table 4-8).

TABLE 4-8
Frequencies of
Attitude Toward Women in Combat Roles and As Foot Soldiers By Religion (percentages in
parentheses)

<u>Women should be in Combat</u>	<u>Religion</u>			<u>Total</u>
	<u>Protestant</u>	<u>Catholic</u>	<u>None</u>	
Agree	10 (11.5%)	27 (31.0%)	8 (9.2%)	45 (63%)
Uncertain	5 (5.7%)	7 (8.0%)	1 (1.4%)	13 (15.1%)
Disagree	<u>17 (19.5%)</u>	<u>5 (5.7%)</u>	<u>7 (8.0%)</u>	<u>29 (33.2%)</u>
Total	32 (36.7%)	39 (44.7%)	16 (18.6%)	87 (100%)

Chi-squared significance = .004
N=87

<u>Woman as Foot Soldiers</u>	<u>Protestant</u>	<u>Catholic</u>	<u>None</u>	<u>Total</u>
Agree	8 (9.2%)	21 (24.1%)	10 (11.5%)	39 (44.8%)
Uncertain	6 (6.9%)	10 (11.5%)	2 (2.3%)	18 (20.7%)
Disagree	<u>18 (20.7%)</u>	<u>8 (9.2%)</u>	<u>4 (4.6%)</u>	<u>30 (34.5%)</u>
Total	32 (36.8%)	39 (44.8%)	16 (18.4%)	87 (100%)

Chi-square significance = .012
N=87

These findings are congruent with the literature, in that, Protestants were the most opposed to female participation in combat roles including the role of foot soldier. Davis (1983) and Segal (1977) found that support for women in the military was greater among the less devout. When Segal looked specifically at attitudes toward women in combat he found that there was a tendency for non-Protestants to be less opposed to combat roles for women than Protestants -- a finding that was difficult to interpret because of the heterogeneity of the Protestant category. However, Segal did find that those respondents who claimed no religious preference were the least opposed to women in combat. It was reasonable to assume that this would hold true for all the attitudes toward women in the military as measured by the questionnaire (i.e. the less devote would be more in favour of women in isolated postings, than Protestants or Catholics, etc.), however, this did not prove to be the case.

HYPOTHESIS 1.4

Positive attitudes toward an expanded inclusion for women in the military will tend to be associated with better educated as compared to less educated women.

The hypothesis was partially supported by the data (Table 4-6-A-B). Better educated women may be more likely to favour women as draftees, (.11) and enlisting lesbians (.17). However, better educated women may be more likely to oppose women in

greater numbers (-.14) and as aircrew (-.07). In addition, they were less likely to favour employing pregnant servicewomen (-.08), and were less likely to perceive women to be as good in leadership roles as men (-.09). The better educated were more likely to favour placing restrictions on women in combat roles.

The literature is somewhat perplexing with regards to this variable. Segal et al (1977) stated that groups which hold high status by virtue of their own achievements should be unthreatened by the extension of citizenship rights and therefore those with more education (a clear achievement of status) should be more in favour of women in the military, however, the results of his study failed to find support for this hypothesis.

Davis et al (1983) found that support for women in the military was greater among the better educated (13+ years) compared to those with less education (0-11 years). However, the better educated were also those least likely to support the military in general.

Savel et al (1979) found that officers were more likely to consider a job appropriate for a woman in the military when compared to enlisted soldiers. He stated that the most plausible explanation to explain these differences was the average difference in educational level. Most studies -- certainly most of those since 1972 (see Ferree, 1974) have shown a positive relationship between educational attainment and liberalism in sex-role attitudes (e.g., Erskine, 1971; Ferree, 1974; Mason and Bumpass, 1975; Yankelovich, 1974). The results obtained from the

current study may be explained by the fact that the sample is homogeneous with regards to education. Most of the officers are college or university trained.

HYPOTHESIS 1.5

Positive attitudes toward an expanded inclusion for women in the military will tend to be associated with those women with few children than more children.

The hypothesis was generally unsupported by the data (Table 4-6AB). However, those with fewer children tended to favour; the draft for women, women as commanding officers, admitting lesbians, and isolated postings for women. Those with fewer children were more likely to favour combat restrictions if women were admitted to combat roles.

HYPOTHESIS 1.6

Positive attitudes toward an expanded inclusion for women in the military will tend to be associated with liberal as compared to conservative political party support.

Hypothesis 1.6 was tested using the chi-square test of independence. Political party support tended to be independent of attitudes toward female participation in the military, a finding contrary to the hypothesis that those supporting more liberal governments would be more in favour of female involvement in the Forces. Cheatman (1984) found that attitudes measured on the WIM

(assessed attitudes toward women in the military) were related to political affiliation however, the results were contrary to the above suggested hypothesis. Republicans were the most positive, while Democrats were least positive toward women in the military. Those classified as Unaffiliated were less positive than the Republicans but more positive than the Democrats. The difference of course may be explained by the marked dissimilarities between the Canadian and American political party system.

HYPOTHESIS 1.7

Positive attitudes toward an expanded inclusion for women in the military will tend to be associated with professional women, students and those on Class B, or C service compared to unemployed and semi-professional women.

Occupational status may not be a significant indicator of attitudes toward female participation, using the chi square measure of independence as an indicator. This is not surprising considering the broad categorization of unemployed, student, semi-professional, professional and Class B and C service. However, Cheatman (1984) stated that researchers had consistently demonstrated high correlations between personality dimensions and occupational classification. In his study he used Holland's scheme of classifying occupations as realistic, investigative, social, enterprising, artistic, and conservative, to categorize the father's occupation of Coast Guard Academy Students. The

highest dogmatism scores (most in favour of women) were associated with those cadets whose father's occupation was classified as social (teacher, minister) and the lowest scores were obtained from those whose fathers were classified as realistic (carpenter, trucker). Therefore, it seemed realistic to assume that there would also be a significant correlation between the respondent's own occupation and her attitudes toward women in the Forces, but such a correlation was not found using the classification system stated in the hypothesis.

4.22 Military Variables

HYPOTHESIS 2.1

Positive attitudes toward an expanded inclusion for women in the military will tend to be associated with longer lengths of service.

Mixed results were obtained for this hypothesis. Women who served for a longer period of time in the military tended to favour women in combat (.16), women as foot soldiers (.05), sailors (.05) and aircrew (.06), and favoured the draft for women (.16) - findings that support the hypothesis (Table 4-9A-B). In addition, these women tended to favour women as commanding officers (.06) and thought women were as good in leadership roles as men (.18). However, these same women tended to oppose more women in the Forces (-.15), opposed women in isolated areas

(-.15), and were less inclined to admit lesbians to the military (-.15).

In the literature, Savel et al (1979) found no significant correlation between length of time in the Army and beliefs about the appropriateness of various jobs for women in the Army. Savel stated that the variables "length of time in the Army", "intention to stay in the Army", and "paygrade within rank", were closely related.

TABLE 4-9 A
 Correlations Between Positive Respondent Attitudes
 Toward Women in the Military and Military
 Variables (Somer's d)

Characteristic Attitude	Length of Service	Rank
Permitted Combat Role	+ .16	+ .09
As Foot Soldiers	+ .05	+ .02
Should be included in draft	+ .16	+ .24
As Aircrew	+ .06	+ .10
On Sea Duty	+ .05	+ .09
More numbers	- .15	- .17
Isolated Postings	- .15	- .09
Lesbians	- .15	+ .06
Good as Leaders	+ .18	+ .08
Commanding Officers	+ .06	+ .11
Pregnant Servicewomen	.02	- .05

N = 86

TABLE 4-9B

Correlations Between Combat Restrictions and Military Variables for Women Who Favour or are
Uncertain About Combat Roles For Women (Somer's d)

Characteristic Attitude	Length of Service	Rank
Only if single	+ .02	.00
Only if Childless	-.04	-.08
Only if in an all Female unit	+ .05	+ .06
Only if can pass standard of physical fitness and strength required of men	-.04	-.09
Only if women can pass a physical strength and fitness test designed for women	-.02	-.02

N=59

HYPOTHESIS 2.2

Positive attitudes toward an expanded inclusion for women in the military will tend to be associated with higher rank.

Those women with higher rank tended to favour an expanded role for women in the Forces (Table 4-9A-B).

Larwood (1980) examined both male and female attitudes toward military sex integration and discovered that women's commitment to the Armed Forces was strongly related to rank, as is the case for men. This fact was hidden until women were examined as a separate group from men. When compared to the men, women were younger and of lower rank. If a woman is more committed to the army as a Captain than as a 2nd Lieutenant, she may also be more in favour of women in the military in general as her own success substantiates her belief that women can perform satisfactorily in a male world. However, it was interesting to note that women with higher ranks tended to oppose more women in the Forces (-.17), women at isolated posts(-.09), and employing pregnant service women (-.05). They were also somewhat less in favour of childless women in combat and generally opposed to mixed units in combat.

HYPOTHESIS 2.3

Positive attitudes toward an expanded inclusion for women in the military will tend to be associated with high commitment to the Militia.

Commitment to the Militia was operationalized in two ways; (1) "plans to stay" in the militia (the longer an officer plans to stay the higher the commitment) and (2) orientation towards the militia (i.e. an officer with a "career" orientation showing higher commitment to the militia than an officer with a "job" orientation"). Little evidence was found to support the hypothesis that those with a higher commitment were more in favour of female participation than those with less commitment with one possible exception. Of the women who favoured or were uncertain about combat roles for women, those with a "career" orientation towards the militia were more likely to disagree with a physical fitness and strength test designed for men as a criteria for female participation in combat compared to those with a "job" orientation towards the militia (Table 4-10). These tentative findings support the literature.

TABLE 4-10

Frequencies of Attitude Toward Women Passing a Physical Fitness and Strength Test Designed For Men, If Women Permitted A Combat Role, By Orientation

Menstren	Career Orientation	Job Orientation	Total
Agree	8 (13.6%)	23 (40%)	31 (56.6%)
Uncertain	5 (8.5%)	3 (5.1%)	8 (13.6%)
Disagree	11 (18.6%)	9 (15.3%)	20 (33.9%)
Total	24 (40.7%)	35 (60.4%)	59 (100%)

n=59

Chi-squared Significance = .05

Savel et al (1979) tested the hypothesis that disproportionate numbers of soldiers with contemporary sex-role attitudes were leaving the army sooner than those with traditional sex-role attitudes, or in keeping with this line of reasoning, women who joined the Army were not offended by the restrictions placed on them (Goldman, 1973). The study produced no evidence to indicate that those with more contemporary sex-role attitudes were likely to leave the Army sooner than those with more traditional sex-role attitudes. This finding tended to be supported by the current data.

4.2.3 Social/Psychological Variables

Positive attitudes toward an expanded inclusion for women in the military will tend to be associated with low religiosity.

Those officers with low religiosity (as measured by how religious a person was, and religious service attendance) tended to favour an expanded role for women in the forces (in combat, as foot soldiers, aircrew and sailors) including admitting lesbians, adding support to the hypothesis (Table 4-11A-B). Moderate correlations were found between the combat restrictions, only if single, only if childless, and only if in an all female unit by "how religious" an individual perceived herself to be. These women with low "how religious" self descriptions were somewhat less in favour of placing restrictions on women if permitted combat roles. In addition, those women with low religious attendance were somewhat less in favour of restricting combat roles to childless women than women with high religiosity. Women with low religiosity were more likely to favour women as foot soldiers (-.19) and women for sea duty aboard support ships (-.20).

TABLE 4-11A
 Correlations Between Positive Respondent Attitudes Toward
 Women in the Military and Social Psychological
 Variables (Somer's d)

Characteristic	Religiosity		Political	Feminist	Bem
Attitude	Howrel	Relatten	Ideology (Liberalism)		(Masculinity)
Permitted Combat Role	-.09	-.15	+.16	+.02	+.23
As Foot Soldiers	-.19	-.13	+.30	+.11	+.13
Should be included in Draft	.00	-.03	.00	+.05	+.27
As aircrew	-.06	-.01	+.12	+.19	+.09
On Sea Duty	-.20	-.17	+.10	+.20	+.06
More numbers	+.04	+.07	+.21	+.16	-.03
Isolated Postings	-.04	-.10	.00	+.05	+.09
Lesbians	-.09	-.04	+.19	+.10	-.02
Good as Leaders	+.03	+.11	+.14	-.01	+.07
Commanding Officers	+.04	.00	.00	+.03	+.16
Pregnant Servicewomen	+.19	+.16	+.23	-.02	-.01

N = 88

TABLE 4-11B

Correlations Between Combat Restrictions and Social Psychological Variables for Women Who Favour or Are Uncertain About Combat Roles For Women (Somer's d)

Characteristic Restriction	Religiosity		Political Ideology (Liberalism)	Feminist	Bem (Masculinity)
	Howrell	Ratten			
Only if Single	.36	.17	-.10	-.09	+.04
Only if Childless	.36	.21	-.06	-.08	-.02
Only if in an all Female Unit	.23	.03	-.10	-.15	-.09
Only if can pass standard of physical fitness and strength required of men	.05	.02	-.19	-.04	-.05
Only if women can pass a physical strength and fitness test designed for women	.16	.06	+.22	+.13	.00

n=59

Contrary to the hypothesis, women with low religiosity tended to oppose more women in the forces, women as commanding officers, and did not feel women were as likely as men to have a "leadership" personality. A small correlation was found between high religiosity and approval of employing pregnant servicewomen (.19).

The findings are somewhat unclear but it does appear that the "how religious" question provided better predictability power than the "religious attendance" measure.

HYPOTHESIS 3.2

Positive attitudes toward an expanded inclusion for women in the military will tend to be associated with a liberal as compared to a conservative political ideology.

In support of the thesis, those officers with a more "liberal" political ideology tended to favour an expanded inclusion for women in the military (Table 4-11A-B) for all the attitude measures.

Small correlations were found between liberalism and favour for women in combat (.16), women as foot soldiers (.30), increasing the number of women in the military (.21), employing pregnant servicewomen (.23) and using a female standard of fitness if allowed combat roles (.22).

Segal (1977) suggested that the issue of women in combat was actually one of citizenship therefore an expansion of citizen

participation would result in a change of the status quo and would be considered a liberal position by most citizens. On the other hand, the exclusion of women from combat maintains the present citizen rights of the majority of the population and would by most be considered a conservative stand. Hence, women with a liberal political ideology should be more in favour of women in combat. It was reasonable to assume that this would be true for the other attitudes measured for this study and this did tend to be the case. The tentative finding from the present study provide support for Segal's (1977) study (Table 4-12).

TABLE 4-12

Comparison of Correlations of Political Ideology by Attitude Toward Female Participation in the Military for Sample and Segal's (1977) Study

	Sample	Segal's Sample
Combat Infantry/ Foot Soldier	.30	.17
Should serve on front-line/Combat role	.16	.13 n=724

HYPOTHESIS 3.3

Positive attitudes toward an expanded inclusion for women in the military will tend to be associated with more masculine as compared to more feminine sex-role categorizations.

Women categorized as more masculine (as measured by the Bem Sex Role Inventory) tended to favour female participation in the military providing some support for the stated hypothesis. Small correlations were obtained between masculinity and employing women in combat roles (.23), drafting women (.27) and employing women as commanding officers (.16) (Table 4-11A-B).

But of great interest is the fact that these "masculine" women tended to oppose greater numbers of women in the Forces (-.03) -- quite at odds with their other opinions -- opposed enrolling lesbians in the forces (-.02), and opposed married women in combat (.04). However, these correlations are very small and would require further substantiation before a definitive statement could be made.

Heron (1980) included the Bem Sex Role Inventory in her study to determine how subjects perceived their occupational environment as a function of their sex-role orientation. Table 4-13 provides a comparison between Heron's study and this sample.

TABLE 4-13

Comparison Of Bem Sex Role Classification Between Sample
and Heron and McGowan's (1980) Sample of Canadian Female
Non-Commissioned Officers in the Regular Force (percentages)

Classification	Militia Sample (N = 87)	Regular Force Female Non-commissioned* Officers (N=47)
Masculine	28.7	19.0
Androgynous	63.2	8.5
Feminine	8.0	45.0
Undifferentiated	<u>0.0</u>	<u>28.0</u>
Total	100.0	100.0

* Heron and McGowan (1980:64)

The Bem Sex Role Inventory assumes that both genders can possess characteristics that have, in the past, been associated only with one sex, thus both genders can fall into one of four groups; masculine, androgynous, feminine or undifferentiated. In any case a parallelism exists between the definition of a sex role and requirements for a given occupational role. Since the military is considered a male preserve it follows that occupations in the military would be classified as masculine (i.e. infantry foot-soldier) therefore, those women classified as "Masculine" should be more in favour of women foot soldiers than "Feminine" women. Women who are "Masculine" see themselves as possessing those traits necessary to be a foot soldier and therefore are more likely to favour women as infanters. Dissonance would occur if "Feminine" women were in favour of women in combat because they do not feel they possess the so-called masculine attributes of assertiveness, aggressiveness, and leadership ability necessary for success as combat soldiers.

HYPOTHESIS 3.4

Positive attitudes toward an expanded inclusion for women in the military will tend to be associated with a strong compared to a weak feminist ideology.

The evidence lends some support to the hypothesis that women with a feminist ideology favour women's expanded inclusion in the military. On all the attitude measures, with the exception of

employing pregnant servicewomen, and women as good as men for leadership, feminists were more likely to favour than non-feminists. Small correlations were found between a strong feminist ideology and support for women as aircrew (.19) and as sailors for sea duty (.20), with a reasonable correlation for more women in the Forces (.16).

Davis et al (1983) measured a broad range of "liberal" attitudes. Feminist items, such as attitudes toward the ERA and attitudes toward women's employment, were found to be good predictors of favourability toward women in the military. According to Davis, one element of speculation was laid to rest -- strong feminists are frequently anti-military in their politics, and thus it was possible that feminists would not be in favour of women in the military, especially with regards to the draft for women. However, according to Davis, "For the population in general, it is clear that a feminist stance on military matters is part and parcel of a general endorsement of sex equality." (Davis, 1983:38)

This chapter has presented tentative results to the fifteen stated hypotheses. These results hint at possible answers and provide insights into the research methods that could provide definitive answers. The next chapter opens with a summary of the results and then goes on to discuss the interesting aspects of this study and possibilities for further research.

CHAPTER 5

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

This chapter will commence with a summary of the tentative results presented in the previous chapter. This will be followed by a discussion of the results with a focus on identifying hypotheses of interest for further investigation.

5.1 Summary

The major results of this study suggest that of those women studied, the majority favoured an expanded role for women in the Armed Forces as aircrew, on sea duty aboard support ships, and at isolated postings. These women also supported female participation in a draft, if it were reinstated, and most agreed that more women should participate in the military. However, there were three cases where majority support was lacking; just over half favoured women in combat roles (52.3%), less than half approved of women as infantry foot soldiers (45.5%), and only a third (36.8%) would admit lesbians to the military.

Of those women who favoured combat roles for females (or were uncertain), the majority agreed that women could be married (74.1%) and have children (69.0%), and still participate in combat roles. Sixty two percent agreed that women could participate in mixed gender combat units. The sample was split on the question concerning the level of physical fitness or strength required of women if in combat roles -- 52.5% favoured a male standard, while 49.2% favoured a female standard.

Small correlations were obtained for many of the associations between the attitude questions and the attribute dimensions. However, these results are not generalizable beyond the sample itself but simply serve to provide indications of possible areas for further study.

Longer service, higher rank, lower religiosity, more liberal political ideology, higher masculine sex-categorization and a stronger feminist ideology all tended to be positively correlated to expanding female inclusion in the Armed Forces. Mixed results were obtained for the variables age and education. Marital status, number of children, political party support, occupational classification, commitment and religious preference, (with the exception of combat and infanters) tended to be insignificant indicators of attitudes toward women in the Armed Forces. These results raise many questions but can only hint at the answers. The next section will explore some of these questions and how answers could be obtained.

5.2 Discussion

This exploratory study was a unique opportunity to study pioneering women, and its significance in this light cannot be overlooked. However, the discussion offered here must be regarded as provocative, and suggestive of further research. This study was an attempt to add to the small body of sociological knowledge available on the topic of attitudes toward expanding the inclusion of women in the military. This section will present the

limitations associated with a convenience sample, discuss generalizability, the general lack of variation within the sample and the possibility of a selection factor. Interesting variations will be discussed in light of testable hypotheses for further research.

The results of the study must first be discussed in relation to the issue of representativeness. The purpose of scientific sampling is to select a few who can be taken to represent the many. Sampling is the process of selecting a subset of observations from among many for the purpose of drawing conclusions about the larger set of possible observations. Survey samples must represent the populations from which they are drawn if they are to provide useful estimates about the characteristics of those populations. A sample will not be representative of the population from which it is selected unless all members of the population have an equal chance of being selected in the sample. This study did not use a probability sampling technique but instead employed a convenience sampling technique. The sample was selected on the basis of a knowledge of the population, its numbers and the nature of the research. This study selected a small subset of the larger population because the enumeration of all was impossible. As such, this technique has consequences with regards to generalizability. To what extent are the women sampled, and more specifically, those that returned a questionnaire, representative of the more general class. Are the 88 women surveyed representative of all female officers in the

Militia? A logical link exists between representativeness and generalizability. The results of this study cannot be generalized outside the bounds of the sample itself.

Secondly, there is the question of homogeneity. The study sample was a very unique group -- female officers in the Militia and as such displayed little variation in most of the attitude questions or on many of the demographic, military and social psychological variables. For example, the sample was characterized by little differentiation with respect to education, age, and parental status. In addition, most favoured women as; aircrew, sailors aboard support ships and commanding officers of medical companies and service battalions. This lack of variation is interesting in itself but makes it impossible to test the stated hypotheses with any degree of accuracy.

Why does the sample exhibit the degree of homogeneity that it does? There are the obvious constraints imposed by the Armed Forces themselves, for example, age restrictions, educational requirements and medical fitness, but at the same time the military is a unique environment that is not necessarily appropriate for many men and women. Keeping this in mind it is probable that a selection process is taking place within the Militia organization. Those women who perceive themselves to fit a "leadership" role are more likely to stay in the Militia and therefore perceive themselves to be just as effective as men. Those women with shorter lengths of service are more likely to contain within their ranks less capable officers. For example,

officers of higher rank tended to be more in favour of women as Commanding Officers than younger women. In addition, those with longer lengths of service were more likely to feel that women were as likely as men to have the personality necessary to perform effectively as leaders. Women with a higher rank were also more likely to favour drafting women. It may be that younger women are less likely to know many women who could "handle" the military environment, or as Davis (1983) stated, younger women were less supportive of the military in general (i.e. the young tended not to favour women in combat roles, as foot soldiers, as sailors or as effective as men in leadership roles but were more likely to favour more women in the Forces, isolated postings, and female Commanding Officers).

How then does one explain the homogeneity of attitudes in all but three cases (i.e. combat, infanters, lesbians)? The vast majority favoured women as commanding officers, sailors aboard support ships, and as aircrew etc. Are these attitudes generally accepted by the majority of the general population? According to Davis (1983) 84% of the U.S. population wish to keep or increase the proportion of women in the Services compared to 78.4% of this study's sample. If there is in fact no significant difference in attitudes between this group of military women and the general population it could be hypothesized that these attitudes are independent of the military environment. It must also be remembered that Militia soldiers are part-time participants in the military. They are not subject to the same socializing parameters

as full-time soldiers. This may be a significant factor that certainly requires further research.

Although homogeneity is characteristic of the sample, variations did occur for several variables. A much larger percentage of "no religious" preference (i.e. 18% compared to 6% in the Canadian population) persons were present in the sample than what one would expect. Are non-religious women attracted to the military? This is an interesting hypothesis that requires further study.

There is also the Bem Sex Role Categorizations. When compared to the Heron (1980) study there are significant differences between the percentage of androgynous, masculine, feminine and undifferentiated groups. Are these differences a product of rank, type of service (i.e. regular vs. reserve) or some other unknown variable. Further study using Regular Force vs. Reserves, and officers vs. "other ranks" would be most profitable for a research topic.

There are also substantial differences observed for three of the attitude questions. The sample showed great variety on the issue of women in combat, women as infanteers and admitting lesbians. The opening of combat specialties to women has become a political issue and its resolution has yet to be reached. There does not appear to be a grass-roots movement in Canada favouring women's right to participate in all military activities and yet the majority of the sample favoured expanding women's participation in the military in all areas but these two (combat

roles including foot soldiers, and admitting lesbians). The idea of male, female egalitarianism has achieved some of the status of a dominant social value. One would expect to find more and more women changing their attitudes toward female participation in the military in the future to bring them in line with these values, and society's expectations. However, this does not explain the split opinion on this topic. Why do some women favour combat roles for women while others do not? The hypotheses posed in this study are the first steps to answering this question but a more representative and larger sample would be necessary to provide definitive answers to the correlations obtained in this study.

It is interesting to note that admitting lesbians received the least approval. Berube (1984) stated that women in the military are particularly vulnerable to antisexual policies and that these military women constitute a so called deviant group that too easily fits the popular stereotype of lesbians, and therefore, military women are particularly sensitive to the issue. Several Militia women commented on their concerns:

I knew a girl in the service battalion that was a lesbian. She finally quit because of the 'hassling' she was getting. I've never had a problem that way myself.

They're (lesbians) a security risk if in the closet, but the moral argument just doesn't exist. I shared a "huchie" with a girl who was known to be a lesbian, and with men, and my virtue remained intact.

I won't want to share a hotel room, while on a military course or military exercise with a lesbian or a man. It's difficult to maintain my reputation as it is without spending time with lesbians.

There appear to be several factors involved; 1) concern for security within the Forces, 2) fear of forced or implied involvement with lesbians and 3) societal attitudes in general. The low percentage in favour of admitting lesbians is probably largely a reflection of societal disfavour of lesbians in Canadian society but is compounded by the uniqueness of the military environment.

Tokenism

It is also important to take into account the unique position women fill in the Armed Forces. That is, as was pointed out in chapter one, female soldiers are present in small numbers within the Militia. According to Kanter (1977) numbers affect qualitative transformations in group interaction. Groups that are split by differing cultural backgrounds or status differ qualitatively in dynamics and process. It's claimed by the author that conclusions on women's behavior or attitudes, may confuse the effect of the situation with the effect of sex roles. Tokens must demonstrate their loyalty to the dominant group as the group seeks reassurance that tokens will not turn against them to harm the group. They accomplish this by getting tokens to turn against members of the latter's own category (i.e. turn against "the girls" to be one of "the boys"). This may account for some differences but the sample was only slightly less in favour of combat roles than the general Canadian population. It would appear more probable that these attitudes are a reflection of

attitudes presently held in Canadian society and not unique to this sample. This is interesting in itself, as one might expect the sample to hold divergent views because of their own involvement in the military. However, the draft question was significantly different from Davis' (1983) results whereby 54.3% of his general American sample compared to 88.6% of the Militia sample, favoured the draft, if reinstated, for women -- an interesting difference. In all, the attitudes expressed by this sample were remarkable similar to the general population.

However, it is most interesting to look at some of the associations obtained from this study within the framework of tokenism. The question of admitting more women to the Forces was interesting because of its discrepancies, as was the question, are women as likely as men to have the personality necessary to perform effectively as leaders. Again Kanter's (1977) discussion of tokenism provides some insight. One characteristic of tokenism is "visibility". Tokens capture a larger "awareness share" than non-tokens. It has been my observation that women in the Militia while receiving a great deal of negative attention, also receive much positive consideration as they are a scarce "resource". If more women were introduced into the Forces this special distinction would be lost. As individuals (tokens) come to represent a larger numerical proportion of the group, they potentially lose a share of the group member's awareness, whether of a positive or negative nature. Those with longer lengths of service, higher ranks, more education, greater masculinity and

higher religiosity tended to oppose more women in the Forces -- interesting.

This study has not provided definitive answers to any of the questions first posed, but has instead provided a wealth of information on a specific group of women and in doing so has created many more questions that can only be answered by continued research into the area.

The changing role of women in Canadian society, including increased participation in the labour force and broader citizenship participation generally, has contributed to the increased interest in full citizenship for women. As one respondent replied, "We (all Armed Forces females) have been ignored for so long and discouraged at every turn that it's nice to finally see someone noticing us." (19 Feb, 1986) A second officer commented:

Today's female reserve Captains and Majors are on the crest of a wave that is moving forward. It would benefit us all if we could set an example for those following us by being visibly interested in our own Militia careers in the most positive and assertive way possible. (5 Feb, 1986)

As military service has come to be increasingly defined as simply another form of employment increased representation of women in the military may be seen as an outgrowth of greater labour force participation (i.e. aircrew, and sailor). This has not yet been extended to combat roles, but would be a logical advance in the ongoing citizenship revolution. However, the role

of warrior is one which still violates traditional values about the ideal women.

The results of this study are but one link in the process of investigating female officers' attitudes toward service in the military. Hopefully, this study will spark the interest of some men and women in decision making positions to critically examine the present organizational structure of the military, the role of the military in Canadian society, and their own attitudes toward military service.

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APPENDIX A

The Bem Sex-Role Inventory

The Bem Sex Role Inventory was designed to measure masculinity and femininity as two separate dimensions of personality, making it possible to classify individuals as masculine, androgynous feminine or undifferentiated. In the past femininity and masculinity have been conceptualized as opposite ends on a single continuum whereby a person must be one or the other. Researchers in this area have proposed an alternative to this bipolar conceptualization (Bem, 1974:155). This second hypothesis treats masculinity and femininity as two separate continuums which enables an individual to be both masculine and feminine, in varying amounts, at the same time independent of each other. This separation of masculinity and femininity would in theory allow a person to exhibit both masculine and feminine behaviors according to the perceived appropriateness of the action to the situation. For example, some individuals may be androgynous, that is, they may be both assertive - a masculine characteristic - or yielding - a feminine characteristic, depending on situational variables. Conversely, those who are either masculine or feminine may have a seriously limited repertoire of behaviors available for a specific circumstance.

Bem's Sex Role Inventory is comprised of both a Masculinity scale and a Femininity scale, each of which contains 20 personality characteristics. These characteristics were selected

on the basis of sex-typed social desirability as opposed to the differential endorsement of males and females. Thus a trait is considered feminine if it is more desirable for a woman to be in possession of this particular quality as compared to a man. Individuals are classified as masculine, feminine, androgynous, or undifferentiated, according to the difference recorded between the masculine and feminine scales. If the difference between the two scales is small individuals are judged to be androgynous, if the masculine or feminine scale is much greater than the other, a person is classified accordingly. If both scores are very low the person is classified as undifferentiated. Finally, a Social Desirability Scale is included which consists of 10 positive and 10 negative personality traits, but these characteristics are not associated with any particular gender. This scale was developed to measure an individual's tendency to describe himself/herself in a positive light.

For the purpose of this research, respondents were asked to indicate on a 7 point scale how well each of the 60 characteristics described herself (Appendix G). The scale ranges from one (never or almost never true) to seven (always or almost always true). On the basis of the response each case was assigned a Masculinity score, a Femininity score and an Androgyny score. The Masculinity and Femininity score were calculated by taking the mean of all 20 items for each dimension. This mean could range from 1 to 7. Both scores are logically independent and therefore free to vary within the specified range. The Androgyny score was

calculated by subtracting the masculinity mean score from the femininity mean score and then multiplying this difference by 2.322 to approximate the t-ratio value (Bem, 1974:158). With 78 degrees of freedom and a .05 probability of 1.991, a difference between the two scores of greater than .8 resulted in a sex-typed score (masculine or feminine). If the mean difference was .8 or less individuals were classified as androgynous. Mean scores of 3.00 or less on both the masculine and feminine scale were classified as undifferentiated (no cases of this classification for this study). The Androgyny score reflects the relative amounts of masculinity and femininity that a person includes in her or his self-description. According to Bem this inventory is measuring a very specific tendency to describe oneself in accordance with sex-typed stereotyped standards of desirable behavior for men and women. In conclusion, it has been the sex-typed individual (i.e. masculine or feminine) that has typified a mentally healthy individual when perhaps a more flexible sex-role would be advantageous to psychological health (Bem, 1974:162).

APPENDIX B

INTERVIEW SCHEDULEBackground

Age

Unit

Would you tell me about your family background?

Where did you grow up? Where did you go to school? Family members?

Birth Position? Activities in the home? Extracurricular activities in high school? Were your parents or close relatives involved in the military?

Would you consider your upbringing as happy?

When did you move away from home?

Are you presently married? Kids? Husbands occupation? Husbands military involvement? Does your husband support your military career?

Tell me about your education? High School, technical and university - where, when, number of years and area of study?

What is your civilian occupation? How long have you been working at the present position? What other types of jobs have you been involved in over the last ____ years? Do you plan any changes in your job/career over the next five years?

What kinds of extracurricular activities do you enjoy? Health?

Militia

What is your present rank?

What is your present MOC?

Why did you choose this MOC?

How long have you been in the Reserves?

Which units have you served with?

How did you find out about the Reserves? Who or what had the greatest influence on your decision to join the Reserves?

Are your friends/family involved with the Reserves?

Are you RESO or MITCP? Which blocks have you completed? Other training courses?

What is your present job in the Reserves? Duties? Responsibilities?

What other jobs have you performed in your militia career?

What positions have you held within your unit? What have you done for summer training?

Do you in fact directly supervise other officers, enlisted males/females?

How do you feel about this? Are there areas where you would like to improve your skills/knowledge? How much leadership have you actually exercised in your present job/past job? How many persons have you supervised?

What is your relationship with your peers/subordinates/supervisors?

Do you think you are a good officer? Do you think your peers/supervisors have an accurate picture of your military proficiency?

What do you really like/dislike about the militia?

Militia Career

What are your future goals in the Reserves?

Do you see any problems meeting these goals?

How long do you plan to stay with the Reserves?

Do you consider the Militia a career?

When you joined the Militia were your expectations appropriate?

Have you been in the regular force? When, length of service, posting, MOC, rank, reason for getting out?

Have you thought about joining the Regular Forces? Why/why not?

Issues

Have you ever been sexually harassed?

Do you feel accepted as a woman?

Have you experienced any problems as a woman in the Forces?

Discrimination?

Do you think promotion practices are fair?

Is there anything you would like to see changed about the utilization of women in the Militia/Regular Force? Do you think women are capable of filling command positions (CO of unit)?

Combat MOC's?

How do you feel about women in combat?

How do you feel about weapons training for women?

Do you think that all racial groups are treated the same within the Militia?

Homosexuals are currently barred from enlisting in the Canadian Armed Forces and if discovered within the Armed Forces are

immediately discharged. What do you think of this policy? Has this ever come up as an issue for you personally?

Do you consider yourself a feminist?

Social

Do you socialize with other Militia officers/enlisted persons, male/female?

Have you ever dated anyone in the Militia? Officer/enlisted?

Do you feel that mess activities are appropriate? Do you feel part of these activities?

How do you think the community looks at the Reserves? Female officers?

Would you recommend the Militia to a female friend? Why?

Have you experienced personal growth in the Militia?

Have there been any other significant events in your life that have influenced your present circumstances?

APPENDIX C

PLEDGE OF CONFIDENTIALITY

I guarantee that all the information you have provided will be used solely for the purpose of the research in question. Your responses will be kept confidential and your identity will not be revealed to anyone.

Should you have any questions concerning this research you may contact myself or Dr. J. Veevers, Professor of Sociology, University of Victoria, at this number, 721-7572.

Katherine Rothermel
MA Candidate
Department of Sociology
University of Victoria

Victoria, B.C.



UNIVERSITY OF VICTORIA

PO BOX 1700, VICTORIA, BRITISH COLUMBIA, CANADA V8W 2Y2
TELEPHONE (604) 721-7211, TELEFAX 049-7222

24 January 1986

Dear

Currently one in five Reserve members is female and yet little is known about this group of women. Decisions affecting women soldiers are being made on the basis of incomplete and often non-existent information. What do you like and dislike about the Militia? What are your goals in the Militia? How do you feel about the possible expansion of women's role in the Forces? How are you adapting to a military environment?

You are one of approximately 120 female officers in the Militia who is being asked to describe herself and give her opinion on these matters. You are a member of a small group who has actually experienced the military environment and therefore your opinions are very valuable. In order for the results to be truly representative, it is important that each questionnaire be completed and returned, of course your participation is voluntary.

You may be assured of complete anonymity. The questionnaire will not be marked with your name and once the material has been coded the questionnaire will be destroyed. The material will be grouped into categories so there will be no chance of identifying individuals.

The results of this research will be published in social science journals. You may receive a pre-publishing summary of results by writing "copy of results requested" on the back of the return envelope and printing your name and address below it. Please do not put this information on the questionnaire itself.

I would be most happy to answer any questions you may have. Please write or call. The telephone number is (604) 721-7572.

Thank you for your assistance.

Yours sincerely,

Katherine Rothermel
University of Victoria
11 Medical Company
Capt

APPENDIX E

POSTCARD FOLLOW-UP SENT ELEVEN DAYS AFTER ORIGINAL MAILING

5 February, 1986

Last week a questionnaire seeking your opinion about the military environment, as it relates to women, was mailed out to you.

If you have already completed and returned it to me please accept my sincere thanks. If not please send it as soon as possible. If you decide not to fill it out please send the blank questionnaire to me. It is so important that yours be included in the study because there are so few female officers in the Militia. For the results to be truly accurate everyone's opinion should be taken into account.

If, by some chance you did not receive the questionnaire, or it got misplaced, please call me right now, collect (604)385-7952 and I will get another one in the mail to you today.

Sincerely,

Katherine Rothermel
University of Victoria

A NATIONWIDE SURVEY OF FEMALE OFFICERS ABOUT CRITICAL ISSUES FACING
WOMEN IN A MILITARY ENVIROMENT

This survey is being done to better understand how female officers in the Militia feel about a variety of important issues now confronting us. Please answer as many of the questions as possible. If you wish to comment on any questions or qualify your answers feel free to use the space in the margins. Your comments will be read and taken into account.

If there is anything else you would like to tell us about your experience in the Militia please use the back of this booklet for that purpose. Also, any comments you wish to make that you think may help us in future efforts to understand the experience of Militia officers will be appreciated either here or on a separate sheet.

Your contribution to this effort is greatly appreciated.
Thank you for your time and effort.

Department of Sociology
P.O. Box 1700
University of Victoria
Victoria, B.C.

This first set of questions deals with your own military experience. It is important that they be answered as accurately as possible. Circle the number you wish to indicate as your choice.

Q-1 What is your present rank? (circle number)

- 1 OCDT
- 2 2LT
- 3 LT
- 4 CAPT
- 5 MAJ

Q-2 In which unit are you presently enrolled? (circle number)

- 1 MEDICAL
- 2 SERVICE BN
- 3 ARTILLERY
- 4 ARMOURED
- 5 INFANTRY
- 6 OTHER (specify) _____

Q-3 How long have you been in the Militia?

____(years) ____ (months)

Q-4 What is your Military classification? (Example: Logistics - Supply)

- 1 LOGISTICS (specify) _____
- 2 MEDICAL (specify) _____
- 3 OTHER (specify) _____

Q-5 What is your present position within your unit?

- 1 FINANCE OFFICER
- 2 LOGISTICS OFFICER
- 3 TRANSPORT OFFICER
- 4 ADJUTANT
- 5 DCO
- 6 OTHER (specify) _____

Q-6 Indicate the RESO and/or MITCP courses you have taken to date.

- 1 RESO (number of phases completed) _____
- 2 MITCP (number of blocks completed) _____
- 3 OTHER (specify) _____

Q-7 How did you find out about the Militia?

- 1 FAMILY MEMBER
- 2 FRIEND
- 3 NEWSPAPER AD
- 4 OTHER READING MATERIAL / TV
- 5 OTHER (specify) _____

Q-8 Is or was your father in the military?

- 1 NO
- 2 YES - IF YES REGULAR OR RESERVES? _____

Q-9 Is or was your brother in the military?

- 1 NO
- 2 NOT APPLICABLE
- 3 YES - IF YES REGULAR OR RESERVES? _____

Q-10 Are or were there other of your relatives in the military?

- 1 NO
- 2 YES - IF YES GIVE RELATIONSHIP (ie. mother): _____
IF YES REGULAR OR RESERVES? _____

Q-11 What is the main reason you joined the Militia?

- 1 NEEDED A SUMMER JOB
- 2 WANTED A JOB THAT WAS EXCITING AND DIFFERENT
- 3 WANTED A CHANCE TO TRAVEL
- 4 WANTED TO MEET NEW PEOPLE
- 5 WANTED TO GET OUT OF THE HOUSE ON A PART-TIME BASIS
- 6 WANTED TO MOVE AWAY FROM HOME IN THE SUMMER
- 7 TO SERVE MY COUNTRY
- 8 OTHER (specify) _____

Q-12 What three things do you like most about the Militia? Circle the three numbers and then rank order your choices from 1 (most important) to 3 (least important) by filling the blanks to the right of your choices.

- 1 DEVELOP SELF-DISCIPLINE OF MIND AND BODY _____
- 2 GAIN EXPERIENCE AND ABILITY AS A LEADER _____
- 3 DEVELOP SOCIAL SKILLS AND MAKE LASTING FRIENDSHIPS _____
- 4 EARN MONEY _____
- 5 TRAVELLING _____
- 6 RESPONSIBILITY OF GETTING A JOB DONE _____
- 7 COMRADESHIP _____
- 8 SOCIAL FUNCTIONS _____
- 9 CHANCE TO LEARN NEW SKILLS _____
- 10 CHANGE OF PACE FROM CIVILIAN LIFE _____
- 11 POSSIBILITY OF ADVANCEMENT _____
- 12 STRUCTURED ENVIRONMENT _____
- 13 OTHER (specify) _____
- 14 OTHER (specify) _____

Q-13 What three things do you dislike most about the Militia? Circle the three numbers and then rank order your choices from 1 (most important) to 3 (least important) by filling the blanks to the right of your choices.

- 1 LACK OF FUNDS, EQUIPMENT AND PERSONNEL _____
- 2 QUALITY OF RECRUITS _____
- 3 MALE ATTITUDES TOWARD WOMEN _____
- 4 INEFFEICIENCY AND LACK OF PLANNING _____
- 5 RSS ATTITUDES _____
- 6 QUOTAS ON NUMBER OF FEMALES _____
- 7 WOMEN LIMITED TO NON-COMBAT ROLES _____
- 8 POOR LEADERSHIP _____
- 9 LIMITED OPPORTUNITY FOR ADVANCEMENT _____
- 10 AMOUNT OF PAPERWORK REQUIRED _____
- 11 OTHER (specify) _____
- 12 OTHER (specify) _____

Q-14 Which of the following best describes your orientation towards the Militia? (circle number)

- 1 A CAREER THAT BUILDS ON KNOWLEDGE AND EXPERIENCE
- 2 A JOB THAT WILL HELP PUT ME THROUGH SCHOOL
- 3 A JOB THAT I ENJOY
- 4 A SOCIAL ORGANIZATION THAT GETS ME OUT INTO THE COMMUNITY
- 5 A HOBBY THAT I ENJOY SPENDING TIME DOING

Q-15 Do you plan on joining the Regular Force?

- 1 NO
- 2 YES
- 3 A POSSIBILITY
- 4 DON'T KNOW

Q-16 Have you been in the Regular Force?

- 1 NO
- 2 YES

Q-17 How much longer do you plan to stay in the Militia?

- 1 ONE TO TWO YEARS
- 2 THREE TO FIVE YEARS
- 3 SIX TO TEN YEARS
- 4 UNTIL I RETIRE
- 5 OTHER (specify) _____

Q-18 Which of the following best describes your goal in the Militia? (circle number)

- 1 TO BECOME CO
- 2 TO BECOME DCO
- 3 TO BECOME A MAJ
- 4 TO BECOME A CAPT
- 5 TO BECOME A LT
- 6 TO STAY AT MY PRESENT RANK
- 7 OTHER (specify) _____

4

This next set of questions asks you to give your opinion on a variety of issues dealing with women in the military. Using the five point scale below, fill in the blank to the right of the statement to indicate your opinion.

1 -----	2 -----	3 -----	4 -----	5 -----
STRONGLY AGREE	AGREE	UNCERTAIN	DISAGREE	STRONGLY DISAGREE
Q-19	Women should not be permitted to serve in combat roles.			_____
Q-20	Lesbians should be permitted to enlist in the Forces.			_____
Q-21	Women should be employed as aircrew at flight training schools.			_____
Q-22	Women should not be eligible for assignment to isolated postings (for example, Alert).			_____
Q-23	I consider myself to be a "feminist".			_____
Q-24	If a draft was to become compulsory, young women should be required to participate as well as young men.			_____
Q-25	Women should not be employed for sea duty aboard support ships.			_____
Q-26	Women are as likely as men to have the personality necessary to perform effectively as "leaders".			_____
Q-27	Women should not be enrolled in the Armed Forces as infantry foot soldiers.			_____
Q-28	Pregnant service women in non-combat roles should be able to remain in the service during and after pregnancy.			_____
Q-29	Women should not be permitted commanding officer roles in the Medical and Service Battalion units of the Militia.			_____
Q-30	Women currently represent 8.5% of the effective strength of the Regular Force. Should there be more women in the Forces?			_____
Q-31	Should women be permitted to serve in combat roles			
	a) only if they can pass a physical fitness and strength test designed specifically for women?			_____
	b) only if they can pass the standard of physical fitness and strength required of men in combat?			_____
	c) only if they are single?			_____
	d) only if they are childless?			_____
	e) only if they serve in all female combat units?			_____

5

In this section you are asked to describe your own character. Please indicate, using the 7 point scale below, how well each of the following characteristics describes you. When you have decided which number applies write it in the blank next to the characteristic.

1 -----		2 -----		3 -----		4 -----		5 -----		6 -----		7 -----	
NEVER OR ALMOST NEVER TRUE	MOSTLY NEVER TRUE	SOMETIMES TRUE	TRUE HALF THE TIME	FREQUENTLY TRUE	MOSTLY TRUE	ALWAYS OR ALMOST ALWAYS TRUE							
1. Self-reliant		_____						31. Makes decisions easily					_____
2. Yielding		_____						32. Compassionate					_____
3. Helpful		_____						33. Sincere					_____
4. Defends own beliefs		_____						34. Self-sufficient					_____
5. Cheerful		_____						35. Eager to soothe hurt feelings					_____
6. Moody		_____						36. Conceited					_____
7. Independent		_____						37. Dominant					_____
8. Shy		_____						38. Soft spoken					_____
9. Conscientious		_____						39. Likeable					_____
10. Athletic		_____						40. Masculine					_____
11. Affectionate		_____						41. Warm					_____
12. Theatrical		_____						42. Solemn					_____
13. Assertive		_____						43. Willing to take a stand					_____
14. Flatterable		_____						44. Tender					_____
15. Happy		_____						45. Friendly					_____
16. Strong personality		_____						46. Aggressive					_____
17. Loyal		_____						47. Gullible					_____
18. Unpredictable		_____						48. Inefficient					_____
19. Forceful		_____						49. Acts like a leader					_____
20. Feminine		_____						50. Childlike					_____
21. Reliable		_____						51. Adaptable					_____
22. Analytical		_____						52. Individualistic					_____
23. Sympathetic		_____						53. Does not use harsh language					_____
24. Jealous		_____						54. Unsystematic					_____
25. Has leadership abilities		_____						55. Competitive					_____
26. Sensitive to the needs of others		_____						56. Loves children					_____
27. Truthful		_____						57. Tactful					_____
28. Willing to take risks		_____						58. Ambitious					_____
29. Understanding		_____						59. Gentle					_____
30. Secretive		_____						60. Conventional					_____

6

Finally, we would like to ask a few questions about yourself for statistical purposes.

- Q-32 Your present marital status. (circle appropriate number/s)
- 1 NEVER MARRIED
 - 2 MARRIED
 - 3 DIVORCED
 - 4 WIDOWED
 - 5 ENGAGED
 - 6 COMMON-LAW
- Q-33 List the number of children you have and their age.
- 1 NONE
 - 2 FIRST CHILD (age) _____
 - 3 SECOND CHILD (age) _____
 - 4 THIRD CHILD (age) _____
 - 5 FORTH CHILD (age) _____
- Q-34 If married, please describe husband's occupation. (if retired, describe usual occupation before retirement.)
- TITLE: _____
- KIND OF WORK HE DOES: _____
- KIND OF COMPANY OR BUSINESS: _____
- Q-35 Are you presently: (circle number)
- 1 EMPLOYED (civilian)
 - 2 UNEMPLOYED
 - 3 RETIRED
 - 4 FULL-TIME HOMEMAKER
 - 5 FULL-TIME STUDENT
 - 6 OTHER (specify) _____
- Q-36 If employed (full-time or part-time) please describe your occupation (if retired, describe the usual occupation before retirement).
- TITLE: _____
- KIND OF WORK YOU DO: _____
- KIND OF COMPANY OR BUSINESS: _____
- Q-37 How many brothers and sisters do you have? (If none write "0" and skip question 38.)
- 1 BROTHERS (number) _____
 - 2 SISTERS (number) _____
- Q-38 What is your birth position?
- 1 OLDEST
 - 2 SECOND OLDEST
 - 3 THIRD OLDEST
 - 4 FORTH OLDEST
 - 5 OTHER (specify) _____

7

- Q-39 Your present age: _____ (years)
- Q-40 Indicate all formal levels of education you have presently completed.
(Circle the appropriate numbers and fill in the number of years of study and the subject area.)
- | | | | |
|---|--------------------------|---------------|-----------------|
| 1 | COMPLETED HIGH SCHOOL | | |
| 2 | SOME COLLEGE (technical) | (years) _____ | (subject) _____ |
| 3 | COMPLETED COLLEGE | (years) _____ | (subject) _____ |
| 4 | SOME UNIVERSITY | (years) _____ | (subject) _____ |
| 5 | COMPLETED UNIVERSITY | (years) _____ | (subject) _____ |
| 6 | SOME GRADUATE WORK | (years) _____ | (subject) _____ |
| 7 | A GRADUATE DEGREE | (years) _____ | (subject) _____ |
- Q-41 What is your religious preference? (circle number)
- | | |
|---|---|
| 1 | PROTESTANT (specify denomination) _____ |
| 2 | JEWISH |
| 3 | CATHOLIC |
| 4 | OTHER (specify) _____ |
| 5 | NONE |
- Q-42 Generally speaking, about how religious would you say you are?
- | | |
|---|----------------------|
| 1 | VERY RELIGIOUS |
| 2 | QUITE RELIGIOUS |
| 3 | SOMEWHAT RELIGIOUS |
| 4 | NOT AT ALL RELIGIOUS |
- Q-43 How often do you attend religious services?
- | | |
|---|---------------------|
| 1 | WEEKLY |
| 2 | 1 - 2 TIMES A MONTH |
| 3 | A FEW TIMES A YEAR |
| 4 | NEVER |
- Q-44 If there was a federal election tomorrow, which party would you support?
- | | |
|---|--------------------------|
| 1 | PROGRESSIVE CONSERVATIVE |
| 2 | NDP |
| 3 | LIBERAL |
| 4 | SOCIAL CREDIT |
| 5 | OTHER (specify) _____ |
| 6 | NONE |
- Q-45 How would you describe your usual stand on political issues using this scale from very conservative to very liberal? (circle number)
- | | |
|---|-------------------------------|
| 1 | VERY CONSERVATIVE (far right) |
| 2 | CONSERVATIVE (right) |
| 3 | MIDDLE-OF-THE-ROAD |
| 4 | LIBERAL (left) |
| 5 | VERY LIBERAL (far left) |
| 6 | OTHER (specify) _____ |

Thank you very much for your time and effort.

VITA

Surname: ROTHERMEL Given Names: Katherine Frances

Place of Birth: CALGARY, ALTA. Date of Birth: September 3, 1960

Educational Institutions Attended, with Dates of Entering and Leaving:

UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA, ALBERTA 1978 to 1982

UNIVERSITY OF VICTORIA, VICTORIA 1984 to 1986

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FEMALE OFFICERS IN THE CANADIAN MILITIA: ATTITUDES TOWARD SERVICE AND COMBAT

Author


Katherine Frances Rothermel
