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American Women in the Military: End of Male/ Female Discrimination

**A Dissertation Submitted to the Department of English in Partial
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Civilization**

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Dedications

I dedicate this modest work to my beloved parents who offered me unconditional love. To my beloved brother Ibrahim, sisters, I hope that they are proud of me.

To all my friends, and all the family Ben messaouda

Finally, special dedication to my supervisor Dr. Bouguesmia Fatiha, and all the students of the Department.

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I'm also thankful to my parents for their support in my journey.

List of Acronyms

ADC	Air Defense Command
AMC	Air Mobility Command
AVF	All Volunteer Force
DOD	Department of Defense
GI	Government Issue, which describes members of the Armed Forces
MOSs	Military Occupation Specialties
MP	Military Police
NLSY79	The National Longitudinal Survey of Youth 1997
OEF	Operation Enduring Freedom
OIF	Operation Iraqi Freedom
PTSD	Post Traumatic Stress Disorder
SAC	Strategic Air Command
SAPR	Sexual Assault Prevention and Response
TAC	Tactical Air Command
USAF	U.S Air Force
WAC	Women's Army Corps
WASPS	Women Air Force Service Pilot
WAVES	Women Accepted for Volunteer Emergency Service
WEAP	Global Force Management Allocation Plan

Abstract

Currently there are studies that portray women warriors' experiences related to problems such as sexual assault, harassment, and other unusual experiences of their military career. Very little is known about the effect women's decision in making a career in army and going back to civil life in a male-dominating army. A better knowledge of military experiences of female warriors, health workers, and other services may provide a better conception of the problems that impress females in combat. There are restricted studies to date which have examined the psychological and emotional health impacts of military experiences by women warriors. It is still unknown whether its impact is positive, negative, or permanent. The aim of this dissertation is to show the role of women in military service and her capacities to take responsibilities in different field. It also studied how American Women found themselves as an important part in the society.

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General Introduction

General Introduction

The idea of service within the U.S. military dates back to before the nation inception. The United States is considered as a global power with global concern. Its military was formed in 1775, consisting of the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, and later the Department of Defense was included the Coast Guard, its army meant to defend the country from offense and to protect American's abroad and the freedom to use international sea, air, and space.

Defending the homeland is not limited to men only, the role of women in the army has a history of ancient time, they have served in every United States military conflict since the American Revolution for example Linda Bray who was the first American women to lead troops into battles. She served for many years in multiple wars like the Panama Invasion and the Cold War. Her career started in 1983 and ended with her retirement in 1991.

A timely and controversial subject is the changing role of women in the military. It is curious that so much interest was brought about during the time of peace, as military women are usually brought out of forgetting by the need for war labor. The present demand appears to have evolved, with the increase in the feminist movement accompanying a decline in the number of male participants. Furthermore, the emphasis on technology and deterrence reduced physical combat dependency. In conjunction with this trend, the climate has created for the development of new roles for military women.

The controversy surrounding the substitution of women for men in military jobs focuses on two basic questions:

- ✎ Does the women presence in the American military mark the end of gender discrimination?
- ✎ Are females physically and psychologically capable of combat?

Since the controversy is rooted in beliefs, once nearly universal, about women's place in the scheme of human events, a great deal of emotionalism often accompanies their discussion. For the personal psychologist, however, they involve:

- ✎ Many people saw that allowing women to serve in combat units is a positive step toward gender equality.
- ✎ Although females are physically inferior to men, but they are capable of serving in ground combat roles.

This study was an attempt to see what large did the American women succeed in keeping their traces and their signatures in American history.

This dissertation contains three main chapters; the first one is about women participation in military, history of women in armed forces, female's military service prior to Vietnam War, then arguments against women in armed forces, and females in combat research. The second chapter is devoted to presence statistical synopsis on women soldiers, it dealt with the military meaning, types and effects, and the GI Bill benefits which is one of the most pieces service-related legislation, the last one centers on the presence of women in the military, and her contribution to end gender discrimination.

Chapter One

Women Participation in Military

Chapter I: Women Participation in Military

Introduction

I.1. History of Women in Armed Forces

I.2. Female's Military Service Prior to Vietnam War

I.3. Arguments against Women in Armed Forces

I.4. Females in Combat Research

Conclusion

Introduction

Throughout history, women have played various military roles, although several historians have ignored these roles until recently, anthropology and sociology, for example, have typically given additional attention to women's military experiences. We need to grasp what women have achieved in the past to understand the military roles of women nowadays. It is necessarily to review the military experiences of women and their participation in combat to provide a context and proof for current assessments and discussions.

I.1. History of Women in Armed Forces

Since the Revolutionary War, women have served and sometimes sneak into combat disguised as men, but most of the time in the role of health care workers. The tasks of women included mainly cooking, nursing and uniform mending men. Given these minor supporting functions that women had, despite the "doors" that had been closed to them, still intended to participate in the fight. Even in the army, women could hardly do works than their traditional one.

The creation in the early 1900s of the Army and Navy Nursing Corps opened the doors for women to officially serve in the army, although they had a nursing capacity. The army had the foresight to envision women who had extended roles outside the medical field at the time the Army Nurses Corps was established. They were not only attempting to create women as nurses, but they were also typical and staff members of the Corps.

Politicians and American public as a whole met with such a rejection that the army eventually admitted defeat and gave the idea (Military Women Veterans: Yesterday-Today-Tomorrow 2006). Nevertheless, in the 1900s, the Army and Navy Nursing Corps opened

doors to women and offered new opportunities. This has brought women an increasing role in the military, and each new US war brings new challenges, new opportunities and expanded women's roles.

History shows that women have been allowed to carry out but continued limitations in militant posts, as with the limitations of the Army and Navy Nursing Corps. Over the years, mandates have been issued, rules have been applied, and laws have been passed and regulations written aimed at ensuring that women cannot serve their countries in the same way as men.

Established in 1943, the WAC offered women greater military roles but did not offer equality with men. It was not until 1948; the WSIA (Winter Soldier, Iraq and Afghanistan) gave women a permanent position in regular military operations, that certain progress on the issue of equality was being made (Information on DOD's Assignment Policy and Direct Ground Combat Definition 98). Because women who were relegated to nursing positions for many of the fighting at the beginning of the 20th century were inaccessible to the military in the 1940s, by the end of the 20th century they began seeing marked progress in military militancy roles. In the late 1960s and 1970s great progress was made when women repeatedly dressed in American annals.

They became known in 1960, when the first women became a major sergeant, and only a decade later in 1970, when she became a general brigadier. Women's progress continued to boom during the 1970s as they joined the Training Corps of Reserve Officers and finally the US Military Academy.

Their development in the 1970s ended with the dismantling of the Women's Army Corps in 1978 as part of their assimilation into the regular military (LTC Kathy).

Women's military opportunities continued to expand in the 21st century. Between eight and fifteen percent of the work force of the army is made up of women in the 21st century.

According to Benedict, there was a noticeable change in the roles that women soldiers played over time, where they mostly represented fifteen percent of the U.S. military (2009). As their male counterparts, females also faced hardship and danger in their jobs (ibid). He explained how most of over than 206.000 of females who served in the Middle East were in Iraq. According to the Department of Defense, more than 600 of these females were wounded and 104 of them were died (ibid).

Historically, females had different duties far away from the front lines like nursing, cooking, cleaning and sewing. In addition, during wars like in the American Revolution and civil war, they supported males, but they weren't allowed to fight in the front lines (Zenor 2008). Unlike that, and exactly during the World War I, women were stationed near to the front lines, but that led to the mark of a great loss of more than 400 of them (Nathan 2004).

In the World War II, men and women served together , and in some cases most of the men's positions like clerks, typists or mail sorters were held by women, and that led to free men to fight in battles instead. Many corps were formed by women like the Women Air Force Service Pilots (WASPs) , Women's Army Auxiliary Corps (later the Women's Army Corps or WAC) , and Women Accepted for Volunteer Military Services (WAVES) (Ibid).

In the Korean War, only 600 of 7000 of military nurses were sent because it was a dangerous place for women. In that time, woman enlistment was low and that refers, as scholar stated, to the policies that were put after the Second World War. Tough, during World War II female soldiers felt like they served their country, their services were not recognized that much (Nathan,2004). June Willenz (1983) , in her part concerning Executive Direction of

the American Veterans Committee (AVC) interviewed ladies veterans of World War II and summarized their absence of military visibility:

Not only wasn't there any academic research on this group, nor any government statistics available on theme, but library research using the computer shows nothing.....Not only were they forgotten: they were invisible.

In books on veterans, women are not mentioned. (p xi).

Things started to progress for those women's liberation development in the 1960s and the push to those equivalent privileges alteration in the early 1970s. However huge numbers of female warriors still neglected. Not think their privileges that were conceded to them to being veterans. Dissimilar to male soldiers, large number female soldiers were not educated something like that GI bill (Government Issue, also called The Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944) that was signed into effect in 1944. So they didn't get those instructive reductions honored to male veterans (Willenz 1983). Since they didn't accept subsidizing to go to post-secondary education large portions didn't get. Those vocations that might need been accessible required they gained the correct training and aptitudes.

Willenz addressed the fact that ultimately many of these women veterans were behind their masculine counterparts academically and financially because of the absence of schooling and career choice. With the limit of the draft over 1973, the military needed women recruits to increase the enlistment numbers for the armed services. So, 7500 ladies served towards the end of the Vietnam War (Ibid).

Ladies gained more distinction similarly as parts of the military over clinched alongside past wars, however, even now not equivalent to their male counterparts (Benedict). In 1991, during the Persian Gulf War, more than 40.000 women were deployed in Kuwait.

The largest increase was observed until that time by women's soldiers. Zenor (2008) commented: They served in combat zones, flew and maintained aircraft, drove or protected supply vehicles, and launched missiles (p.6).

Not many individuals understand how historically changed America's women soldiers were during the Iraq War. More women fought and died in Iraq since the Second World War together than in all wars (Benedict 2009).

Again 100,000 ladies have served in the Iraq operations for a significant number serving a double tour of duty in Afghanistan. Currently, U.S. Army still prohibits female soldiers from ground units. This is ironic because many female troops were subjected or engaged in fighting circumstances. Women should not be formally employed in the fighting, but may be used in a fighting aid unit subjected to fighting situations. The Department of Defense declines to permit females over immediate battles unit. This prohibition was upheld in 2006 despite the military's mindfulness that female officers would serve for battles constantly.

Women are proud to serve more and more dangerous jobs while getting closer to the enemy. Although women have won over in their efforts to integrate into the military structure, they are still short of their goal of equality. Despite unfairness and rules to prevent women from fighting, female soldiers are frequently engaged in combat. They support America and die with their male counterparts in Iraq and Afghanistan. Policies that prohibit opportunities to serve in fighting continue to hamper women.

To be fair, it is important to understand that these policies have not been affected solely in order to discriminate against women. They have been deprived of the harsh combat and the perceived compromise of readiness for fighting. Just as the history and evolution of

women in the military is a key to an understanding of women's current role in the military at present. It is critical to analyze the history and evolution of exclusion policies. To begin at the start of policy evolution, one must again go back to the Revolutionary War.

I.2. Female's Military Service prior to Vietnam War

In 1948, the armed force used ladies over backing parts similarly as an assistant drive throughout war, in any case never incorporated them as part of the regular army, and in no way included them to peacetime operations. Since this revolution, ladies brought served for the military but until the Second World War, they were largely confined to nursing.

Again 400.000 ladies served in the World War II, the large part in the newly-created Women's Armed Force Corps (WAC). WAC was not a part of the permanent Army and military leadership considered women's service temporary and envisioned them serving mainly in administrative positions (Manning 2013).

Throughout the 2nd World War, Congress directed the army to prevent and prohibit women from training in any type of tactical combat (Treadwell 1954). Many females performed administrative jobs at the headquarter for the army in Europe, however, other functioned alongside comparative positions all around the Pacific, North Africa, China, and the Middle East (ibid). A small number of WACs operated in Headquarters units in forward the steps "twelve to thirty-five miles back" of the combat troops (ibid).

WACs in theaters of war sometimes they have faced primitive steps and living conditions, but the army has not considered them to be in a real combat zone due to their position in the back areas (ibid). Although more than two hundred of military nurses died in active service during the Second World War, including sixteen enemies fire and the rest of

accidents and illnesses, the public's perception was that the army maintained female soldiers are out of danger (Manning 2013).

There was no public debate as whether these women had served in combat. In 1948, due to their successful war service and because of military labor needs to prepare for quick mobilization in the event of a new conflict, congress made women's corps a permanent branch of the Army (Morden).

The Women's Armed Services Integration Act of 1948 established the WAC to create a small "nucleus of women organized for immediate expansion in case of a national emergency" (ibid). The corps was formed as a separate and distinct organization of the army under women's management. Women received the same base-pay, health care, opportunities for retirement, and access to GI education benefits as men. Yet, unlike men soldiers who were assigned to a particular branch of the army depending on their job, all women were members of the WAC regardless of their occupation. Yet, in the same year that President Truman's 1948 Executive order 9981 prohibited discrimination in the military workplace, the separate legislation for women codified gender discrimination into law (Taylor 2013).

The army treated women differently from men in a number of ways in the immediate war period. Besides being segregated in a separate corps, when it came to joining the service, females faced more restrictions than men did. While women who had children under the age of eighteen could not enlist in the army, there was no such limitation on male service members with dependent children.

Women under twenty-one years of age required parental consent to enlist, while men were eighteen years of permission. Service women's husbands did not have the same privileges that military men's wives enjoyed as dependents automatically. Instead, the civilian

spouses of service women were denied housing, commission privileges, health care and other benefits unless their husbands were able to prove that they were unable to work because of disability or other purposes that impeded them from heading their household (Committee on Armed Services 1948).

The Integration Act also allowed women to be discharged without any stated causes, a condition that for males didn't exist. In accordance with the tradition of a male only controlled army, lawmakers organized the act of 1948 to prohibit well-qualified and skilled women from holding senior command positions which would offer them power and authority to establish battle plans and lead troops in military activities. While some lawmakers thought females were entitled to the equal rights like men, James Forrestal -the Secretary of Defense- argued that, "We still adheres to the concept that combat, combat support and direction of our operating forces are responsibilities for male officers; we do not expect them to occupy a combat support mission". (Women's Armed Services Integration Act 1948). WAC officers with their work skills were assigned by the army to higher levels of responsibility, but their tasks often were not in proportion to their rank (Committee on Armed Services 1967).

What scholars called a "brass bar" in their careers, limited women officers to the lowest five ranks, forced them to retire from the command of men at younger age (Iskra 2007). Even then, she had to relinquish her rank upon completion of her assignment, or retire. A General's rank represented clout and power, but the congressional exclusion of WAC officers from these "flag" officer grades (O-7 to O-10) meant that even the most experienced female officers would have minor influence on military policy than women service (Holm 123).

The lone WAC colonel, surrounded by more than five thousand permanent male army captains and hundreds of flag officers, held limited power (Military Personal on Active Duty by Grade in Which Serving 1967).

In 1948, WAC Director Halleren argued that a "separate but equal" list for women was beneficial. In the 1948 law, the type of work that women served significantly limited. The law prevents women from pursuing important career development pathways for men by banning women from serving on aircraft and ships engaged in military combat operations.

The army and WAC leaders argue that the fight against the establishment of the same type of limitation on their troops has not been exclusively fought on one type of platform (as was the case for the Air Force and the Navy) (Mary and John). However, women's opportunities were significantly restricted by the army. General Jeanne Holm described it as a "token" force (Holm 185). One of the consequences of this lack of women in the service was that many were left isolated in the workplace and that their chances to connect to other women were limited.

Finally, women serving in mainly traditional fields or even traditional tasks in non-traditional domains were assigned to the military. The Armed Forces, for example, assigned Jane Brister, the first Russian-language female army linguist, to mainly administrative tasks, but wanted work requiring as a military attaché at an embassy, "more intellectual [challenges] (Brister 1999). By 1965, ninety-three percent of all female employees working in clerical, administrative or health care professional services (Holm 184).

The Vietnam War as well as the growth of the Women's moving, the end of the draft and the advocacy of women for full involvement in the workplace of the army would change this situation considerably.

I.3. Arguments against Women in Armed Forces

According to Just, with highly visible news coverage of the involvement of women service members in situations like the 2003 ambushing of the 507th Ordnance Maintenance Company in Iraq, arguments against military servants resurrected with particular emphasis on how close women are to be allowed to ground combat (2006).

Having women out of harm according to Holland is one of four continuing arguments against women's fighting roles (2006). According to DeCew, these arguments are part of a broader range of social concerns about the "real role" of women in the military and combat (1995). Feminizing threats to men's military masculinity (Enloe 1993, Holland 2006) and concerns concerning sexual attacks and harassment (Ibid 1988) include further combat complaints against women (Ibid) as a result of their being physically inferior (Jeffreys 2007).

I.4. Females in Combat Research

As believed by Wellenze, women in the military have been historically ignored and sometimes even forgotten (1983). The percentage of women in the U.S. Armed Forces since the end of the male draft in 1973 and the start of the all-volunteer force the army grew from 1.6% in 1973 to 8.5% in 1980 to 12% in 1993 (Rosen, Durand and Halverson 1996). In recent time, women have joined the military more and more to the extent that 15% of the military is women. As more women are now in the military than ever and struggle is being fought through Operation Iraqi Freedom (OIF) and Operation Enduring Freedom (OEF), there has been more media coverage of women in the army.

In addition, there are numerous newspaper articles (for example, Donaldson 2005, Donnelly 2005, George 2005, and Johnson 2003, O' Beirne 2003). There are also news stories

about women at war. These journalists examined how women soldiers fought and shared their gender experience as soldiers.

However, the social contexts that shape and influence the experiences of female soldiers have not been explored in detail. Although research has been carried out on women's militaries, research with female combat veterans disregards cultural norms or gender-specific conduct patterns, which women in armies are expected to conduct they live in environment that has little room for confidentiality or downtime. The lack of investigation into the various military contexts and gender norms within such contexts is detrimental to understanding the full impact of women serving in an overwhelmingly male military.

Conclusion

Women have proudly served their country throughout all periods of the United States history. Her influence and roles should especially be commemorated in today's world because the influence of women determined the past, is creating the present, and will shape the future. Women today like yesterday, make up half of this world's population, and as Abigail Adams wrote to her husband in 1776 during the American Revolution "I desire you would remember the ladies ".

Chapter Two

Presence Statistical Synopsis on women Soldiers

Chapter II: Presence Statistical Synopsis on Women Soldiers

Introduction

II.1. What is a "Military Service"?

II.2. The U.S. Military Service Branches

II.2.1. The U.S. Army

II.2.2. The U.S. Navy

II.2.3. The U.S. Air Force

II.2.4. The U.S. Marine Corps

II.3. Government Issue Bill Benefits

II.4. The Effects of Military Service

II.4.1. Negative Effects

II.4.2. Positive Effects

Conclusion

Introduction

The U.S. is a world power with global interests. Its army is primarily designed to protect America against attack. It is intended safeguard Americans outside, allies, and the liberty to use global ocean, air, and space while maintaining the ability to participate in more than one significant tangency at a moment. America must not only be able to protect itself and its interests, but also to prevent enemies from acting in defiance of US interests, including avoiding a region's destabilization and preventing menaces to America's peace and safety.

I.1. What is a "Military Service"?

According to the Free Dictionary, military service is defined as the selected job or conscription (involuntary draft) by an individual within an army or other military organization. There are countries each citizen needs a specific level of military service. Conversely, countries with full military volunteers require their citizens' compulsory military service. However, it is always compulsory in the event of a crisis of recruitment during wartime.

The history of the various military forces in the U.S. begins even before the nation was established. In 1775, the Second Continental Congress established the Continental Army, navy, and marines in order to support the struggle against England for independence. The Continental Army would complement the various state militias to challenge the British Army on land (Millett et al). Built in the image of British Marine Forces previously served by American colonists, the Continental Marine was to serve on naval ships as a form of

amphibious infantry (Parker and William). The marine was designed as a means of blocking British navy trade and military supply (Ibid). The Confederation Congress dissolved all Continental forces in 1785, after it emerged victorious in the American Revolution, newly independent of England and scare of a permanent army (Richard).

The early events established the fundamental organizational patterns that still influence the structural design of the American defense establishment. Firstly, the warfare technology and the doctrine of that era offered very few possibilities and opportunities for tactical cooperation between land forces and forces at sea. As a consequence, separate and independent entities of the Continental Army and navy were formed. Secondly, the Continental Marines were formed as a separate force, but with close contact with the Navy, on whose ships they were serving.

The army was entirely focused on ground combat and the navy was at sea operating, with the marines able to bridge the two with an amphibious landing, or even to increase the army on ground. Shortly after 1785, the drafters of the U.S. constitution proposed in 1787 that congress give the right to provide for and maintain a navy and support armies. Two years later, the recently established U.S. legislative organization set up an Executive Department to manage military and naval forces in their first session, after the constitution had been ratified (Ibid).

The new department of war, headed by the secretary of war, was established in August 1789 and had, therefore, initially responsibility for army and naval affairs with only a small number of military officers. The following month congress passed an act to recognize and

Adapt the constitution of the United States. Establishment of military forces assembled in congress under resolutions of the U.S. (Ibid). This law formally formed the U.S. army, legitimizing the few remaining military forces of the Continental Army.

Almost five year later, under the auspices of the war Department, the navy was revived by the 1794 Navy Act, including naval forces serving on board naval boats (Ibid). After four years of the War Department, the newly reactivated Navy was run by Congress, which in April 1798 (Ibid). While previous acts for the marines on maritime ships provided, they were technically part of the navy, because of the fact that there was no formal maritime's organization (Parker). Originally organized directly as President, Marines did not form part of the army or the navy but were either "according to the nature of the service in which they shall be employed" by the President (Ibid). In June 1834, the ambiguity was corrected by "an act for the improvement of marine organization in the U.S." which clarified that the Marine Corps should belong to the navy unless the President had explicitly ordered that attached to the army (Ibid).

This period's secretary structure was built on patterns developed in the revolutionary era. With the establishment of two War Department and the navy, the division between conflict on land and on sea was further strengthened organizationally.

The navy and the Marine Corps relations have been formalized and two military services have been set up in the Marine Department. Throughout the 19th century, this pattern remained largely intact.

I.2. The U.S. Military Service Branches

The United States of America consists of four major military services: the army, the navy, the air force, and the Marine Corps. Each service has active duty, reserve, and National Guard components. Members of active duty services are troops, airmen, sailors, and mariners serving as full-time troops. Although subtle differences exist, the National Guard and reserve enable individuals to work partially while preserving a civilian career (Service Branches).

II.2.1. The U.S. Army

The United States army is the main element of the US land war. Although it deals with all kinds of activities across field, its main value is its capacity to defeat the enemy forces of land and ruin them during fighting. As with other facilities, the United States army was needed "to take risk when meeting current operational requirements while maintaining a ready force for major combat operations" (The Honorable Robert). In order to balance readiness, modernization and end strength, fiscal difficulties have made the army capable of satisfying national security demands as set out in the Defense Planning Guidance.

Army representatives have testified that Congress has "stopped the bleeding", with extra army power included in the National Defense Authorization Act (NDAA) IN 2017 and by extra financing as a reaction to an application for "Request for Additional Appropriations" in May 2017 (Congressional Quarterly). Staff Chief, General Mark Milley stated that "modernization has been sacrificed for current operations" to accomplish the tasks outlined in

The National Security Strategy and Defense Planning Guidance, and that only one third of the army's Brigade Combat Teams (BCTs) were ready (Ibid). Acting army secretary Robert M. Speer testified that despite ostensible cuts in troop deployments for Iraq and Afghanistan, the army's space of activities is as big as in the last 16 years (Ibid).

In 2017, the military's active service strength amounted to 476,000 in fiscal year (FY), down from 566,000 in 2001 (Major General Thomas A). The Obama administration planned to cut its active military strength to 450,000 until 2018 (Michelle).

Although the 2015 Bipartisan Budget Act offered for the DOD a short period of stability, the existing financing rates continue to force the military on to prioritize readiness. The compromise in this decision was a smaller army, a lower investment in modernization and a postponement of maintenance of facilities (Speer and Milley). Army representatives testified that when a "hollow army" is returned in FY 2018, with the Budget Control Act date budget caps (Ibid).

The military has around 186,000 troops in 140 countries operationally (Speer and Milley). This is quite comparable to last year's figure of 190,000, reinforcing the act that the army still has its own elevated operational temperature (Ibid), but does not likely boost the amount of U.S. troops in Afghanistan by as many as 3,900 that the administration is allegedly on the verge of permission (Gregory). Of the complete amount of the US troops deployed internationally, "the army currently provides 48% of planned forces committed to

Global operations and over 70% of forces for emerging demands from combatant's commanders", highlighting the crucial role that the army plays in the defense of the nation (Lieutenant General Joseph).

II.2.2. The U.S. Navy

In a Design for Maintaining Maritime Superiority, issued in January 2006, Chief of Naval Operations Admiral John M. Rechardson describes the U.S. Navy's mission as follows:

The United States Navy will be ready to conduct prompt and sustained combat incident to operations at sea. Our Navy will protect America from attack and preserve America's strategic influence in key regions of the world. U.S. naval forces and operations— from the sea floor to space, from deep water to the littorals, and in the information domain—will deter aggression and enable peaceful resolution of crisis on terms acceptable to the United States and our allies and partners. If deterrence fails, the Navy will conduct decisive combat operations to defeat any enemy. (Admiral John).

In March 2015, an update to Cooperative Strategy for Sea Power of the 21st century provided the foundation for understanding the key functions required to carry out the mission. During a long period following the Cold War, the navy, Marine Corps, and coast guard have enabled the US to project power across the sea, monitor sea activities; whenever and when necessary; provide security and transport of shipping services in areas of maritime concern, thus enhancing America's ability to deter, without being opposed by co-workers.

However, rivals have increased their capacity to contest US actions, and forced ocean services to re-examine their assumptions about the access of important areas.

The Navy's Strategy is based on these functional areas—power projection, ocean surveillance, safety, deterrence and access to the domain. The Navy's thinking and programmatic efforts are driven to achieve and sustain its capacity to excellence in these tasks (U.S. Department of the Navy).

As the U.S. main naval arm of the military Navy offers the continued global presence that allows the US to react rapidly to global crises. As opposed to land (or even air force) forces, the US require permission from host countries, and are bound up with a set of fixed, wider support bases. Without permission from any other country, Navy can function freely around the World and change its presence wherever necessary. As a result, U.S. military forces are often the first to react to the crisis and maintain U.S safety interests long after the war finishes officially through their regular deployments.

In addition to the capability of quickly designing fighting capacity in all regions of the globe, the peacetime forward presence of the Navy promotes tasks to secure the free flows of products and services from sea lines, to secure U.S. allies and friends, to dissuade adversaries and to respond to short-war crises. A few documents inform the Navy's day-to-day fleet requirements: the 2012 Defense Strategic Guidance (DSG) (U.S. Department of Defense), the Global Force Management Allocation Plan (GFMAP) (Adaptive Planning and Execution Overview and Policy Framework), the 2015 update to A Cooperative Strategy for 21st Century Sea power; and the Design for Maintaining Maritime Superiority.

The 2012 DSG published by the DS defines ten main tasks for the Navy and the other US military branches. Moreover, the US Navy must comply with the GFMPA criteria of presence in fiscal year 2017 which stipulate that the Combatant Commanders and the Secretary of Defense have a global force presence as required.

II.2.3. The U.S. Air Force

The U.S. Air Force (USAF) is the smallest of the four US military branches that originated from the Army Signal Corps in 1947 to become their own military service. Over the years, the mission laid by the air force has increased substantially. In the early stages, the service consisted of four significant components- the Strategic Air Command (SAC), Tactical Air Command (TAC), Air Defense Command (ADC), and Air Mobility Command (AMC). In the early 1950s, the increase in prominence started and a number of faculties came along that would assist to broaden the effect and mission of the service. Today, the Air Force focuses on five primary missions such as air and space superiority, Intelligence, surveillance, and reconnaissance (ISR), mobility and lift, global strike, command and control.

Although, all these tasks are essential, the resources for which the air force has to compete in an extremely difficult tax setting are even more stressed. Using 2012 Defense Strategic Guidelines (DSG), the Air Force aims to be a smaller but super force that retains agility, flexibility, and willingness to participate in a number of contingencies and threats (The Honorable Michael).

II.2.4. The U.S. Marine Corps

The U.S. Marine Corps (USMC) is the expeditionary military force of the nation, positively engaged and ready to deal with global crisis. Sea units on boats (soldiers of the sea) are ready to plan the America's authority in crisis regions, or at bases overseas. In a variety of distinctive misconduct from fighting protection for US embassies that are being attacked overseas to the operation of the President's helicopter fleet. Every marine is a rifleman, though it has a broad range of individual tasks, but every marine is focused on the fight. The USMC is placed to respond to the crisis and has developed its ideas to make more efficient use of its facilities to support activities in a highly disputed maritime setting like the Western Pacific arena.

In 2016, the MC carried out over 210 operations and 20 amphibious operations in addition to providing the embassy security and short period of postal strengthening, and despite the depression of the forces, 160 Theater Security Cooperation (TSC) events, and participated in 75 exercises (Lieutenant General Robert). The continued capacity of the Corps to respond to the crisis is essential, in accordance with the DSG. Thus the Marines have prioritized the "near-term readiness" at the cost of other fields, such as capabilities, modernization, readiness for the residence stations and infrastructure, considering the fiscal restrictions imposed (General Joseph). This compromise is a short-term solution for instant requirements. In the long run, investment degradation in equipment will result in lower readiness.

II.3. GI Bill Benefits

According to many historians, the World War II GI Bill changed American society in a way that no previous or subsequent social legislation has done. The author Mason (1999), and military historian have described the GI Bill as the most far-reaching of the U.S. history for veterans (p 111). The four main components of this law provided for veterans who returned from the Second World War (2nd WW) housing, medical treatment, unemployment benefits and education benefits. However, much of the social change in America in the years following 2nd WW is recognized in the field of education.

From its beginning, the GI Bill was contentious. Intellectually inferior veterans are condemned just as in previous years were racial and ethnic groups and females. Stanford University president said that Italians with 12-year-old intellectuals were genetically lower and therefore would be unsuccessful in American University (Severo and Milford 1989).

The GI Bill is connected with a considerable increase in the amount of colleges in society. In 1943, there were 58 schools in the US, which in 1947 reached 328 (Celis 1994). In a latest research by an army education officer, veteran participation in society and universities will again boost as the Montgomery GI Bill is of little importance. In July 1984, the Montgomery GI Bill was adopted. It was named after its principal sponsor, G.V. Montgomery Mississippi representative. The bill substituted the previous brief program called Veterans

Education Assistance Program (VEAP), requiring that soldier, sailor, aviator, or marine pays \$1,200 in support to the bill for the first time (Montgomery GI Bill 1997).

The present GI bill, the Montgomery GI bill, is essentially an incentive to enroll but is also a small reward. In the colonial era the colonies began a tendency to offer pre-registration incentives in procedures to induce males and females to work in military forces and regular forces. For services rendered, government has used land grants, bounties, clothing, and cash incentives. These service incentives were often paid for by proof of service, including the Native America's scalp during the American Wars (Ferling 1985).

The findings of a military financial study have been revealed by recent news magazines that recommend less focus on hiring advertisements with university financing. The general rise in economy is leading to more bucks for the universities and more cash is accessible for loans and grants as the government accumulates higher surpluses. The article shows that the Pentagon should focus more on constructing a company identity that inspires young individuals to join a good organization.

Two adverse impacts from a GI Bill (Bipartisan 1999) are suggested in the Service Members and Veterans Transition Assistance Committee. According to this committee, moral and retention, both of which have been said low in active forces and reserve forces, will enhance if a GI Bill which completely finances a 4-year education is enacted.

II.4. The Effects of Military Service

Only in recent years, studies have used causal techniques to examine the effects of military service. For instance, previous studies have shown that veterans of the 2nd WW earned more than non veterans (Martindale et al). However, when the quarter-of-born is used as a military service tool, WWII veterans gained only similar non veterans. They were mostly able, on average, to gain more than non veterans, even without their service (Angrist and Krueger). In brief, service seemed to have had a neutral impact on veterans' achievement during the 2nd WW.

Research continually demonstrates the socioeconomic achievements of white veterans serving in the Vietnam period were undermined by military service. Studies released soon after the end of the Vietnam War revealed that veterans lost ground compare to their peers due to service (Card et al). Angrist (1990) has recently revisited this question and demonstrates that white Vietnam veterans earned 15% less than non veterans until a decade after they had complete their service. He claims that military service did not replace civilian experience immediately. Just as with other results, the socioeconomic effects of the military service have changed over time.

Military service in the recent All Volunteer Force (AVF) era has also affected the life of all White Veterans, both men and women. White male veterans gained more in the military but less in subsequent civilians than their white non-veterans (Ibid). According to research based on social security earning records, relatively a few research has explored women's veterans experiences. However, studies show that women veterans from the later AVF age

Have no advantage in their service. Using the large number of cases available in the 1990 Census, two papers show that there was a socioeconomic disadvantage for at least some women veterans composed of similar non-veteran female veterans who worked during AVF gained a lower level of income than non veterans of similar age (Cooney et al).

While much of socioeconomic research compares veterans to non-veterans, some studies have found that the service life is also important (Bryant et al). Data from the NLSY97 (The National Longitudinal Survey of Youth 1997) indicates that veteran soldiers who spending more months in the military have reduced incomes than non-veteran soldiers (Ibid). This finding offers further evidence that spending time away from civilian life disturbs veterans' life.

II.4.1. Negative Effects

The effects of conflict on health may be moderated or mediated by social relations. Vietnamese veterans, who reported higher social support at home, measured by their family members' available assistance and readiness to speak to them, also reported less of PTSDs (Post Traumatic Stress Disorder) symptoms (Fontana et al). In addition to support levels, there has been a strong association with PTSD between negative attitudes about the home coming, including struggles and insulting families and veterans' own shame or anger (Johnson et al). The effects of traumatic exposure at least partly depend on the social networks to which veterans return.

The most common reasons for social support relationships in this field have not been taken into account (Ren et al). However, from health to social support, the direction of causality can be reversed. The returning veterans may have gained increased social support with fewer symptoms of PTSD.

Studies also examine the morality rate among veterans after service. The effect of service on morality among the Second World War and Korean War veterans (Bedard et al) is examined two recent papers. According to an assessment based on the 1980 and 1990 census information, because of military recruitments veterans tended to be physically healthier than non-veterans. This increased fitness masked the fact that the disability that impacted veterans' capacity to function was more frequent.

Accordingly, both WWII and Korean War veterans are more probable to die of heart and pulmonary illness after taking this favorable physical selection into account than non-veterans two to five decades after serving. The enhanced mortality levels were partly attributable to military practices that encouraged smoke recruits (Ibid). On average, military service completed during wartime led to increased later life mortality.

II.4.2. Positive Effects

In addition to identifying negative consequences, several papers indicate that fighting exposure have beneficial impacts on the life of veterans. Much of this research draws on previous work by Elder and Clipp which demonstrates that, in addition to negative consequences, veterans with combat experience also report enhanced intimacy and resilience.

The impact of fighting relies to a certain extent on the way veterans view their fighting experience. The Normative Aging Study shows that veterans of the 2nd WW and Korean War who have experienced their military experiences positively and those they have desirable impacts, such as being taught to cooperate, to appreciate peace and deal with adversity, have fewer PTSD than those symptoms (Aldwin).

Another positive, and uncontested, findings is that the education financing provided by the Readjustment Act of 1944 of the service members and his successors, commonly called the GI Bill, benefits veterans. With the exception of the decade 1955 to 1965, the governor since the end of the 2nd WW supplied veterans with some type of education finding. These findings are consistent with a view of military service as a positive turning point in the socioeconomic attainment of people from disadvantages backgrounds. They suggest that military service may have at least partly decreased social inequality.

Conclusion

The United States remains one of the most powerful international forces in the World. Its army is the strongest armies in the globe. It is the World's second largest army after the Chinese army. It has land, naval, and air bases in many countries in the World. The United States military continues to fight and win the nation's wars as the most lethal fighting force in the history.

Chapter Three

Does Female Presence in the Military End Gender Discrimination?

Chapter III: Does Female Presence in the Military End Gender Discrimination?

Introduction

III.1. The Social Views of Women Participation in Combat

III.2. Women's Physical and Psychological Qualifications

III.3. Gender and Military

III.4. Sexual Assault and Female Soldiers Experience

Conclusion

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Introduction

Each society has specific gender roles and identities that are created by the needs of a society and perpetuated by cultural norms. The distinction between gender and sex needs to be emphasized. The word gender defined as social and cultural patterns associated with women and men. Sex, on the other hand, refers to the biological identity of a binary system within society of either females or males. Gender stereotypes affect the roles men and women play in society. Women are socially constructed as "naturally" more nurturing and emotional than men. On the other part, men have tended to be more aggressive than women.

III.1. The Social Views of Women Participation in Combat

In the nineteenth century, most of American people believed that the natural place of women was at home. Wifhood and motherhood were seen as the main activities of women. The widespread belief that women were inferior to men, led society to limit women's education to learn only domestic skills, men controlled most positions of employment and power in society (The American Women of the Early Nineteenth Century).

In American society, it is essential that females engage in a military organization because it can provide the way for females to engage in a higher civic capacity. The openings of fighting employment for female soldiers are not only helping in the status of military personnel, but also helping to promote women's rights as military leaders. U.S. militants and their members enjoy a situation in which they are privileged.

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Although this study showed that women troops tend to adapt to the male and central society of the United States. The armed forces do not imply females should engage in the institutions instead of altering it, like a concern for the "ethic of care" feminists. The involvement of female soldiers has confused the stereotypical role of the larger American society as a whole. Soldiers and advocates have been challenging and that is useful to the development of all Americans traditional values of appropriate roles and jobs for women.

Although many females have shared the masculine culture of the military, many have attempted to change their stereotype through positive achievement, while others have challenged policies through the judiciary and the convention. As the U.S. military is connected to society, such developments by militant women also positively change perceptions and stereotypes affecting women's role in society s whole (Connell).

Through the process of socialization, a person is encouraged and discouraged by how to display certain sexual facts. According to this process of sexual socialization, females are taught how to act feminine and men are taught how to act masculine (Andersen 2006).

As stated by Doyle (1985), women are stereotyped as gentle, caring and loving. A female girl stereotypically plays with dolls, wears rose, and depends more on others (Ibid). Andersen was saying that women who deviate from these anticipated feminine roles in many instances are labeled as "tomboys" and unladylike. A masculine on the other hand, is strong, independent and aggressive (Ibid).

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Andersen stated that men who act more feminine than masculine are labeled as "sissies" and are also challenged by their sexuality, because each gender has strong gender expectation (2006). He explicated how the cultural roles of masculinity and femininity are separated by homophobia by preventing men from showing their so-called feminine characteristics such as care, nurturing, emotive expression and gentleness (p 34). The social requital for deviating from gender standards ranges from commentary to funny appearances to ostracism or violence.

There is always a very common misconception that sexual assault is a "women's issue". Although females are more probable than men to be victims of army sexual assaults and harassments, the actual number of men sexually assaulted is similar to female service members because men are predominant in the army (Hoyt et al).

Male service members face the same difficulties as women service representatives in reporting and seeking healthcare, and perhaps more because of the stigmatizing nature of the act. Despite that, the military officials and society at large are continually avoiding talking about male sexual attack, perhaps because the topic is too unpleasant. The military's training program in sexual assault prevention lacks enough data on masculine victims and the specific difficulties they face which affect reporting (US Government Accountability Office).

Furthermore, many of sexual assault acts of men seem to be driven by humiliation or some form of punishment, verging on cruelty (Penn). Sexual assault prevention efforts must

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Include approaches to tackle male services sexual assault. Military leaders must recognize and speak openly regarding the prevalence of male sexual assault.

III.2. Women's Physical and Psychological Qualifications

There are four components that make a gap between women and men; including the physical differences concerning the body and the emotional impact within the combat without forgetting the issue of pregnancy and menstruation which impede the women's activity during war.

According to Decew and Tuten, the military mission needs a strong patience in order to deal with the heavy tasks such as , carrying heavy personal things that the soldier is in need to it , of course with the extent path that they need to walk, those things seem difficult for women(1995, 1982). In addition, age and gender maintain physical readiness (Hackworth 1991). Many sport operations needs to be applied to gain fitness some of those steps for instance running, pushups (Field and Nagl 2001).

In contrast to the above arguments, there are counterarguments which give the women the opportunity to enter the combat via those arguments. According to the author Decew women can involve the military service with low standards (1995). Furthermore, they are capable to do any task that men do (Hackworth 1991).

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Another factor in the ongoing technological improvement of modern weapons for the claim that women are weaker sex that makes them unsuited for conflict. The previously needed brute strength of mechanical and computerized systems is reduced or eliminated in full (Tuten 1982). Hackworth reports that women can push buttons on military equipment in the same way as men (1991). Segal (1982) also gives her own insights into the physical capabilities of women as combatants by declaring that "we must be careful not to confuse a difference in average physical strength between men and women with a situation in which all men are strong enough and no women are" (p 271).

Some of them also point out that men can withstand war difficultly more mentally and have the psychological aggressiveness necessary for waging war (Howard et al). These convictions are based on dominant military archetypes of a physically and psychologically resilient warrior (Dawson et al). The idea that women's biology makes them mentally passive, non-violent, nurturing and fragile is also supported by these beliefs (Holland et al).

According to international feminist researchers and their research on women and violence, violence against male and female is defined and seen by means of sex lens (Sjoberg and Gentry 2004). They argue that Freud's psychoanalytical theory claims that men are brutal instinctively and that women are biologically non-violent. However, this outlook has been largely discrete by these authors (Ibid).

Overarching concern about women's participation in combat jobs is to reduce military readiness with regard to their physical and mental differences from men. The objection to

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The military integration of women is that pregnant women are also reducing readiness for military action. Whenever a unit is deployed, commanders have to either use shorts or find a substitute because pregnant soldiers are non-deployable (Milko 1992).

According to Just (2006) women should not be in combat, the reasoning is that soldier risk a greater chance of being captured by the enemy when they are in combat situations. This situation is physically and emotionally harmful if women in prison are unable to carry out the necessary hygiene activities or in non-practical situation.

III.3. Gender and the military

According to Decew, Women's integration with regard to gender and military has posed three issues: Firstly, women presence in the army is regarded as disruption to unit discipline (1995). Secondly, the sexual assault and harassment has transformed into a form of violence against women, and thirdly, the fear that women can be captured and raped by the enemy (Nelson 2002).

The adversaries of the women integration in the military think that the women presence in the army will reduce the unit effectiveness and cohesion (Segal and Campell 1991). Other components have raised concerns such as decreasing military readiness and the risk of becoming pregnant or catching sexual diseases (Herbert 1991). These proofs were posed during 1940's when women shifted from the Women's Auxiliary Army Corps to regular army.

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Moreover, the sexual harassment and assault remains till the present time as a relevant issue (Beck 1991). Through history (1970's-1980's), sexual harassment and assault reached such a level that it negatively affected service women's retention in the military (Enloe 1988). By this time, the all volunteer force was required to fill its ranks to meet the mandated quotas. So, the Department of Defense officially imposed instituting policy and sanctions against sexual harassment to treat women leaving in highly numbers (Ibid).

The problem of sexual harassment was admitted by an Army Panel in the 1990's and it was admitted that the army lacks institutional commitment to solve this problem (Army Investigation 1997). In 2005, a program called (SAPR) "The Sexual Assault and Prevention Response" was launched by the Department of Defense (DOD). It began to take measures to report on and reduce incidents of sexual assault across all military services. It also addresses the sexual harassment but in lesser degree.

In March 2009, the DOD office reported statistics on sexual assault in the military for 2008; accordingly, the report defines sexual assault. The term "sexual assault" is defined as intentional sexual contact characterized by use of force, physical threat or abuse of authority in case the victim doesn't consent. It includes rape as well as indecent assault or an attempt to commit these acts.

It can occurs regardless gender, age of victims, or spousal relationship. "Consent" shall not be considered to mean the failure in resistance by the victim; it doesn't mean that

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The victim gives up under force or threat in case of sleeping or unconsciousness (Office of the Secretary of Defense Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Office 2009). The DOD report states that sexual assault is the most underreported crimes by the victims in the military. This is substantiated by the Bureau of Justice ("National crime victimization survey" 1996).

A 1996 DOD survey reveals that not only women are victims of sexual assault, men too, but women experienced it at a higher percentage. The survey shows that 64% and 17% of men reported experience of sexual harassment behavior (Bastian, Lancaster and Reyst 1996).

Regardless of gender, victims of sexual harassment and assault are less likely to report the crime in the military because of "system barriers" (Nelson 2002). This can include lack of support within the chain of command and fear of persecution towards the victims after reporting the victim (Ibid). In order to overcome this problem, the DOD has taken steps to encourage the victims of sexual assault to report the crimes. It has created two avenues of reporting, restricted and unrestricted.

Unrestricted reporting opens investigation into the crime where the victim is identified while restricted reporting permits the victim to report the crime, but remains unknown. Here, there is no investigation into the accident unless the victim shifts to unrestricted reporting.

All victims report the crimes under a medical care and other related support. The formation of the DOD SAPR (Sexual Assault Prevention and Response) Program and reports

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compiling and monitoring sexual assault of military since 2005 indicates that it remains an issue till now.

According to the DOD FY08 Report on sexual Assault in military, reports about sexual assault incidents increased by 8% over the previous reporting period (Office of the Secretary of Defense Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Office , March 2009). This increased number of reports doesn't necessarily include an overall rise in sexual assault, but it includes the greater number of victims filling reports.

The March 2009 report on sexual assault in the military for 2008 reveals that there were 1,047 unrestricted reports of male service members sexually assaulting women and 657 restricted reports of sexual assault were made by women against their male counterparts. In the same year, male service members filled eight unrestricted and 83 restricted reports against women service members. In combat zones, only women filed reports of sexual assault against male service members (Ibid).

The argument that women negatively affect the military male bonding is also applicable. Women are considered outsiders to all male military unit, are likely to endure forms of slander and sexual harassment (Beck 1991). Moreover, in training, they devalue women by using feminine epithets which complicates gender integration and maintain an attitude of sexual violence against women (Nelson 2002).

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It is difficult to compare sexual assault and harassment between military and nonmilitary women (Office of the Secretary of Defense Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Office 2009). There is evidence that women in the military suffer more from sexual assault and harassment than nonmilitary counterparts. Research from surveys administered at the Minneapolis Veteran Affairs Medical Center indicates that women in the military reported the incidents greater than other government employees (Murdoch and Nichol 1995).

Regardless whether men or women are harassed, the DOD's sexual assault prevention program confesses that sexual violence against both genders breaks military bond and negatively affects military readiness (Office of the Secretary of Defense Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Office 2009).

As stated by Linville, the coverage of the military's international climate includes the 1991 Thailhook scandal where navy pilots were accused of sexually harassing 83 servicewomen at an annual convention (2000). This scandal has exposed men's attitude towards women as sexual target rather than analogue (Enloe 2000).

The allegations of sexual harassment have been investigated with some of the accused participating on the court martial hearing, although none has resulted convictions (Donnelly). Another feature of the problem is the fact that the incidents have been reported to have caused sexual harassment and abuse (Nelson 2002).

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Another example of this when Sergeant Major (CSM) Brenda Hoster accused the CSM, command Sergeant Major Gene McKinney of sexual harassment in 1988, in her complaints, she encountered dismissive and rejection environment. McKinney was ultimately acquitted of all but one charge of judicial obstruction (Ibid).

As reported by Jeffreys, The final argument of the opponents of women in the military is that the raise of likelihood of becoming victims of sexual assault when captured by the enemy (2007). Although it is rare for opposing forces to hold American women soldiers in prison, the media produce a news spectacle that focuses on the women's victimhood (Holland et al).

A modern example is the abduction of Jessica Lynch from the private first class in 2003 following an ambush for her convoy. Studies of the ambush news media and its capture raised concerns that its Iraqi captives were sexually attacked (Ibid). The capture of Lynch and its subsequent rescue was a modern justification for the exclusion from combat (Holland 2006, p 42).

To conclude, all these arguments reveal that integrating women in military reduces military combat readiness. Those who say that women are too weak physically or emotionally in combats assert that engaging female in combat will affect the military ability to fight. Others see that job acceptance meeting should be based on certain qualification of both genders better than limiting acceptance to specific sex (Decew 1995).

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Cohesion and strength of a unit and its importance in the effectiveness of a unit also raise concerns about women integration in combat as opponents consider women integration endanger the military forces and gives the enemy a tactical advantage (Tuten 1982). Some have a different claim; they argue that sharing experience between both genders reinforce the bond and morale (Segal 1982).

The strong need for strong military and well-prepared army refers to a criterion whether military is ready and fully staffed and trained. Units that fail to meet such criterion are subjected to operating at reduced readiness level and considered unable to acquire mission requirements. If service women's pregnancies make the military unable for deployment, the unit's readiness will be eroded.

However, military human resource requirements consider women essential for meeting recruitment goals. The problem of pregnant women at a given time doesn't balance the great number of non pregnant women. Moreover, the pregnant women rejoin the unit in a shorter time like those from the Gulf War (Hackworth 1991, Milko 1992). This debate about military women hasn't been fully ended. Nevertheless, women have proven themselves and it is unlikely that the congress will legislate to reverse rule against that.

The technological advance and the evolving of social principles besides dynamic battle fields may end this debate in the future.

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III.4. Sexual Assault and female soldier experiences

Since integrating women into masculine environment increases the chance of sexual harassment, it is essential to appropriately debate the female soldier's experiences with sexual harassment.

Sexual harassment definition by the Army is a form of gender discrimination which includes unwelcome sexual advancements, requests for sexual advantages and other verbal or physical sexual contacts. It has two types: quid pro quo and hostile environment harassment. The first one is a condition that is placed in return for sexual favors on a person's career or working terms. The hostile environment of sexual harassment occurs when people are subjected to an offensive, unwanted, and unsolicited comments and behaviors of sexual nature that interfere with a person's work or creates an intimidating or offensive working environment (Army Regulation 600-20).

Firestone and Harris (199) conducted a study focusing on potentially harassing a minority of women in an institution dominated by men. They were compared to 1995 surveys of sexual harassment by the DOD in 1988. The purpose of the surveys was to discover the elements of sexual harassment and other experiences related to sex in the militant active military population.

In order to evaluate the effectiveness of the patterns of sexual abuse, this study also aimed to define the context, location and circumstances of such experiences. The overall

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conclusion was that all kinds of sexual harassment towards all objectives seemed to have declined between 1988 and 1995 irrespective of sex, rank and service branch. They argued that this decline reflected military efforts to identify incidents of harassment and to implement programs of sexual harassment.

The other outcome was that sexual harassment continues to be very common across all military branches. In the previous 12 months of taking the survey, almost 12% of men and over 59% of women reported some form of harassment. The women's Veterans Association (VA) patients were further studied for sexual harassment in 2002 with a representative national sample. This independent study, analyzed by the Veterans Health Initiative, reported that 23% of women in the military were subjected to sexual assault.

In March 2010, Stars and Stripes, a U.S. military newspaper announced that incidents of military sexual assault rose 11% from 2008 to 2009. According to the DOD'S head of efforts to prevent sexual assault, the number of incidents reported is expected to continue to rise since behavior changes take 10 years and the DOD prevention program has been in place for only five years. Also, because of uncontrolled sexual harassment at military level (Schogol 2010), the number of sexual assault incidents will continue to increase. In the U.S. military, women soldiers are facing precarious situations due to the threat of sexual harassment and assault.

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Conclusion

Sexual assault within the military represents a significant threat to military readiness, as sexual assaults inflict serious health effects and performance degradation. Thus far, the military's attempts to end sexual assault appear sporadic half-hearted. What is desperately necessary to end sexual assault in the military is an extensive and sustained strategy that examines the roots of sexual assault, the military cultural factors that unintentionally contribute to sexual assault, and the discomfort of sexual assault that is often ignored (such as the prevalence of male sexual assault within the military). The military's strategy must be based on evidence-based-approaches that; change the military culture and leadership around how women are viewed and treated, employ sexual assault prevention psycho-education and skill training, make reporting incidences of sexual harassment and assault a right of the victims to maintain total control the entire process including the persecution phase, and increase the support of survivors of sexual assault, including support throughout the service members military career and post-military life.

General Conclusion

General Conclusion

Women have gradually incorporated into American Armed Forces throughout the last 60 years, and the battle front was nearer to their specialties and knowledge rather than gender. Women in Iraq and Afghanistan today serve efficiently and honorably on the front lines and serve extremely well. There are countless, complicated and interrelated variables governing employee registration and retention.

However, it is not excluded by gender that females must be admitted into fighting and combat branches based only on their training and capacity. Women would have no important impact on willingness, cohesion, moral, management and training to be fully integrated into the struggle .The society teaches young females that when they grow up, they can be everything they wish, but that a certain society contradicts itself when it says that women are not physically or psychologically capable to serve in military combat positions.

As women approach all military MOSs (Military Occupation Specialties), researchers should be honest in evaluate female's impact and performance. As they are included, public opinion has been told "Everything's good" is supported, people should have the courage to say "Enough is enough-let's females serve in war".

If researchers are not addressing those concerns, then it's soldiers, the army, and the nation that are going to be hit. They should focus more on national security than on archaic attitudes towards women. Let them fully part of the struggle.

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Appendices

Appendix 1



Brig. Gen. Laura Yeager, an aero medical evacuation pilot from Fountain Valley, who worked earlier in her career as the UH-60. She was the first female in history to be a pilot for an American helicopter. During the ceremony at the Joint Forces Training Base in Los Alamitos, she was scheduled to take over the 40th Infantry Division of California National Guard. She was the first women to lead a U.S. Army infantry Division, when she was deployed in Iraq 2011.

Appendix 2



Linda Bray was the first female to lead troops into combat. The first time women took up such a fighting position for the American army was a women captain who led to the platoon into fight in last month's American invasions of Panama. She served in multiple wars such as the Cold War. Her career started in 1983 and ended with her retirement in 1991.

Appendix 3



Laura, J. Richardson was the first female deputy commanding general of maneuver division. She was first posted in Korea as a Platoon Leader, company executive officer, brigade staff officer and company commander after flight school; her first tasks were the 17th Aviation Brigade. Then, she was the first female deputy commanding general of the U.S. Army forces command.

Appendix 4



Admiral John M. Richardson is responsible for commanding the operations of the Navy operating forces and the Navy coastal operations and for the use of the funds, and operational efficiency. He served as commander, the Naval Submarine Forces, in multiple management roles on multiple attacks and ballistic missile submarines. He was also a number of numerous employees, including the President's Naval Assistance and Naval Reactors Director.

Appendix 5



Robert M. Speer served in the United States for 28 years. He was the Commander of the 82nd Airborne Division and Commander-in-Charge of the Defense Agency Brigade. He was taped in 2004 to set up \$18.6 billion of funding in Iraq to reconstruct Iraq during the Iraq Occupation. Speer was one of the only six top Pentagon representatives in January 2007.

Appendix 6



Franklin D. Roosevelt was born on 30 January 1882, he was polio-affected. He was the 32nd President of the United States in 1933, and the only president four times elected. He took office at the depths of the Great Depression and contributed to the re-invigoration of the American population. His promise of swift, forceful action brought hope and affirmed in his opening address that the only thing we have to fear is fear itself.

Glossary

Glossary

.Post Traumatic Stress Disorder: is a debilitating condition following a traumatic case. It is also referred to as shell shock, fight exhaustion, accident neurosis or post-traumatic stress disease. It is often misunderstood and misdiagnosed (Post-Traumatic Disorder)

GI Bill: also known as The Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 was a law offering a number of advantages to returning Veterans of the 2nd WW. On June 22, 1944, President Franklin D. Roosevelt passed the 78th Congress of the U.S. and signed the legislation. The initial GI Bill expired in 1956 but still refers to programs developed to help American Army veterans (G.I. Bill).

Homophobia: covers hate or anxiety about homosexuality. It is also described as willingness to discriminate against homosexuals. It is usually classified as racism. Homophobia is fear, aversion to homosexuality or discrimination. It is occasionally used as label to intimidate and stifle legitimate discord over homosexual problems (Homophobia Law and Legal Definition).

Stereotype: The idea of stereotype was introduced into English only in the 20th century. The term derives from the Greek stereos, meaning solid. It can be defined as a general view or preconception of attributes or features which are or should be played by members of a certain social group or roles of members of a particular group (gender stereotypes and stereotyping and women's right).