

**A CONTENT ANALYSIS OF CIVIL-MILITARY ISSUES
WRITTEN BY EUROPEAN AUTHORS FOR THE JOURNAL
*ARMED FORCES & SOCIETY***

By

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Applied Research Project

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Abstract

This applied research project (ARP) describes civil-military issues written by European authors in the journal *Armed Forces & Society*. The journal *Armed Forces & Society* is an international interdisciplinary journal. Since September 11, 2001 and the Paris attacks of 2015, Europe and its militaries have been more engaged in warfare and peacekeeping missions. As a result, it is important and timely to examine the current discussion around European military studies written by scholars. A description of the content in *Armed Forces & Society* journal provides insight to this question. This study organizes civil-military issues using a classification system developed by the European Research Group on Military and Science (ERGOMAS). The organization is an international academic association that created working groups to deal with issues between the military and society. Each working group studies a particular topic. This study created categories based on these working groups to describe the content by European authors in *Armed Forces & Society* since 2011. Content analysis is performed using four topics: 1) recruitment and retention, 2) military families, 3) gender and the military, and 4) veterans and society). *Armed Forces & Society* articles published between 2011 and 2015 (N=38) were used in the analysis.

The findings reveal little discussion among European authors on the four topics. Among these four topics, the most frequently discussed were military families and recruitment and retention. Overall the topics are underdeveloped and as such, require more discussion. Recommendations are made to enhance future contributions to the *Armed Forces & Society* journal.

About the Author

Trinh Kim (Tran) Bartlett was born in Vietnam, and graduated from the University of Texas at Austin with a Bachelor of Arts in Government. Trinh is a degree-seeking graduate student in the Masters of Public Administration (MPA) program at Texas State University. In addition to her interest in public administration, Trinh also has an interest in international relations. Trinh has worked for the City of Austin since 2007; her career goal is to enjoy a fulfilling career as a leader in public administration.

Chapter I: Introduction

Introduction

Civil military relations as a formal field of study began after the Cold War. Society relied on its military to serve and protect the citizens, and the military relied on society to support their policies and objectives. Historically, the study of civil-military relations has applied to the relationship and interaction between civilian leaders and military leaders. Subsequently, civil-military relations has broadened to include coups, veterans, the racial and gender make-up of the armed forces, recruitment and retention, the reserve force, military families, etc. (Shields 2015).

Shields (2015) points out that the relationship between the two sectors influences whether failure or success will occur during a states' decision to engage in war (p. 2). As a result, it is crucial the relationship between the military and society is maintained and complementary to one another. It is vital the military receive support from society, and society to receive the same from the military, particularly now when terrorist acts, and the threat of terrorist acts, continue to occur worldwide.

Civil-military relations occur in nation-states worldwide. A better understanding of civil-military relations theories and practices should aid nation-states in maintaining those relations. It is important scholars understand the areas in which they apply, and develop their literature contributions accordingly. By doing so, scholars can gain a more comprehensive understanding of the issues that arise within civil-military relations. Understanding specific components that require further discussion and development is necessary advancement of the topic.

Setting

Armed Forces & Society (AFS) is a quarterly scholarly journal publishing articles on military institutions, civil-military relations, arms control and peacemaking, and conflict management. The journal is international in scope with a focus on historical, comparative, and interdisciplinary discourse. The editors and contributors include political scientists, sociologists, historians, psychologists, scholars, and economists, as well as specialists in military organization and strategy, arms control, and peacekeeping.



Figure 1: Picture found at *Armed Forces & Society* website

Armed Forces & Society is published by SAGE Publications and edited by Patricia M. Shields from the Department of Political Science at Texas State University. According to SAGE Publications, *Armed Forces & Society* is now ranked 12 in military studies journals on Google Scholar. In a recent interview, Patricia Shields explained the journal *Armed Forces & Society* “is designed to inform scholars and policy makers about the key important trends in civil-military relations. It examines the influence of war on society.”

The first issue of *Armed Forces & Society* was published in 1974, and since that time, scholars from all over the world seek out the journal *Armed Forces & Society* to review the latest publications on civil military relations, and the issues contained within a broadly defined field of civil military relations. When asked “Have there been recent military issues which have come to light?” Dr. Shields responded “The changing threat environment raises new issues. Threat of environmental disaster is a security issue and the blurring of military and police roles around migration.”

The journal *Armed Forces & Society* publishes articles written by authors worldwide, including Europe. When asked the differences in military issues between the United States and Europe, Dr. Shields said, “for the most part, their interests are on the same page. They (Europe) are faced with many of the issues the United States is dealing with. Many Europeans served in the Afghanistan War. They are dealing with issues such as integration of military members after deployment, and veterans’ issues. The scale of concerns is different. Europe is not a superpower and does not act as such. Europe is concerned with global security and participates in international peacekeeping operations.”

The European Research Group on Military and Society (ERGOMAS) is an organization that examines military issues not just within Europe, but worldwide. I asked Dr. Shields about her involvement with ERGOMAS, if any. Dr. Shields has attended ERGOMAS meetings and explained that many members of ERGOMAS have had their papers published in *Armed Forces & Society*. Dr. Shields added that while ERGOMAS and the Inter-University Seminar (the organization that sponsors *Armed Forces & Society*) are related, both are independent and separate from one another.

Statement of Research Purpose

European militaries are a complex group with unique sets of issues and concerns. By analyzing military issues from the perspectives of European scholars published in *Armed Forces & Society*, new research content is provided that has not previously been analyzed.

The purpose of this research is to describe *Armed Forces & Society* articles written by European authors in the last five years (2011-2015). ERGOMAS working group topics are used as the framework for the analysis.

This ARP joins a series of articles that have examined the content of *Armed Forces & Society* articles (see Table 1.1). Arjana Ollashi (2002) examined the treatment of civil-military relations in articles found within *Armed Forces & Society* about emerging democracy. Nathan Sexton (2003) studied the content of *Armed Forces & Society* articles between 1997 and 2002. In 2005, Anthony Bowman conducted an analysis of *Armed Forces & Society* manuscripts and reviewers for the journal. Christopher Brady in 2010 provided an analysis of *Armed Forces & Society* articles dealing with peacekeeping issues.

When starting the formation of my research project, I reviewed past ARPs by fellow Texas State University MPA graduate students. By doing so, I hoped to receive the guidance and inspiration I was seeking. Fortunately, I was able to receive the inspiration I needed by reviewing previous ARPs and receiving guidance from Dr. Patricia Shields. The ARPs I reviewed helped me decide on the type of project I wished to do, which ultimately was a descriptive analysis of an international issue. Aside from the ARPs highlighted in Table 1.1, Al-Rasheed (2015), Ari (2007), Hernandez (2007), and Fields (2006) also inspired this project.

Table 1:1 Texas State Applied Research Projects Which Analyzed Armed Forces & Society Articles

Brady, Christopher. 2010. A Content Analysis of Peacekeeping Issues for the Journal <i>Armed Forces and Society</i> . <i>Applied Research Projects</i> . Texas State University. https://digital.library.txstate.edu/handle/10877/3490
Bowman, Anthony. 2005. A Descriptive Study of Manuscripts and Reviewers for the <i>Armed Forces & Society</i> Journal. <i>Applied Research Projects</i> . Texas State University. https://digital.library.txstate.edu/handle/10877/3486
Sexton, Nathan. 2003. A Description of the Articles of the Past Five Years of <i>Armed Forces & Society</i> . <i>Applied Research Projects</i> . Texas State University. https://digital.library.txstate.edu/handle/10877/3744
Olldashi, Arjana. 2002. Civil-Military Relations in Emerging Democracies as Found in the Articles of <i>Armed Forces & Society</i> . <i>Applied Research Projects</i> . Texas State University. https://digital.library.txstate.edu/handle/10877/3733

An accurate description of the content in *Armed Forces & Society* journal assists the editor of the journal by systematically presenting the nature of past content. This is the first study to examine the content using the authors' country of origin as a control.

Chapter Summaries

The next chapter reviews contemporary military studies-related literature in order to explore aspects of post-Cold War European civil-military relations. Chapter III details the methodology, data collection, and the statistical approach used to answer the research question. Chapter IV provides the results of the content analysis of civil-military issues in articles written by European authors and published in *Armed Forces & Society*. Finally, chapter V presents the conclusions of the content analysis, and provides recommendations for future research within the pages of the journal *Armed Forces & Society*.

Chapter II: Literature Review

Chapter Purpose

This chapter examines contemporary military studies-related literature in order to explore aspects of post-Cold War European civil-military relations. In addition, working group titles from ERGOMAS are used to categorize key issues facing European militaries. These categories are then used to organize an analysis of the literature of key issues and form a framework to analyze the *Armed Forces & Society* articles. The review begins with a discussion of civil-military relations, and then examines the historical context. Finally, the literature of each category is discussed.

Civil society and military

This section discusses the importance of civil society and the military, specifically the relationship that exists among civil society and the military, and the military's desire to be unique in today's society. In the most simplistic term, Bland describes civil-military relations as "a relationship that exists between 'civilians' and the 'military'." (Bland, 1999, p. 21). According to Shields (2015) civil-military relations "deals with the myriad of policy and administration issues" that occur within civilian and military stratum (p.1). Despite the relationship that co-exists among the two groups, the armed forces "has a need to be different from society in order to carry out their unique responsibilities" (Forster, 2005, p. 74).

Relationships between society and military

Talerud (2010) notes that the relationship between society and the military has been pivotal as long as militaries have existed (p. 178). Civil society and the military share a relationship which "involves a complex balance of power" (Bland, 1999, p. 11) and according to Talerud (2010), civil-military relations is the relationship between the military system and civil society (p. 178). For the United States, the relationship is uneasy because of "military leaders

being ignored by administrative superiors” (Bland, 1999, p. 12). The British, however, have had a successful relationship due to the congruous relationship between its political leaders and officers (Bland, 1999, p. 12).

For the civil-military relationship to be successful in any state requires accountability, particularly because “control over the military is exercised by politicians, and control over politicians is exercised by society” (Bland, 1999, p. 20). Bland (1999) argues accountability is the key to alleviate the control of power from one group to the other. Less control from a particular entity implies that the needs of both military and civilian leaders would be more appropriately served, resulting in a more unified civil-military relationship. Talerud (2010) believes civil-military cooperation is necessary when combining security and deployment in international missions, particularly because the involvement of civilian and military players from various organizational facets is very complex (p. 177).

Military uniqueness in society

Christopher Dandeker (2001) discussed the role of military sociologists and their relationship to armed forces and society. Sociologists wanted to understand the role and effects of society on the military, and to understand the consequences of military actions on society. During this time, “military personnel felt besieged by the changes they needed to make” (p. 4) and were concerned about the policy changes produced and implemented by people who were either involved in the military, or had a poor understanding of the military.

As a result, the military wanted to be separate from society, and be different. A need exists for the military “to reinforce civil military bonds in order to legitimize their need to be different” (Dandeker, 2001, p. 9). To do this (Dandeker 2001) will require the military to exercise and assert their influence, while ensuring they are not breaking any norms or standards already in place regarding civilian control over the military (p. 9).

History of the security environment

The purpose of this section is to briefly describe the contemporary history of western military, beginning with the Cold War, and concluding with the environment post-911 (September 11, 2001). This section discusses how historical events impacted and culminated in the formation of Europe's security environment.

Cold War

During the second half of the 20th century, Shields wrote "the Cold War dominated and nuclear war loomed as a major threat" (Shields, 2011, p. 2). In 1949 the United States joined the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO), alongside Canada and ten Western European states. The underlying message that "an attack against one was an attack against all" was "geared at discouraging a Soviet march on Europe" (Stewart, 2010, p. 218).

Janowitz (as cited in Forster 2005) argued the height of the Cold War led armed forces to adapt to the demands of development in weapon technology and the changing role of the military, and the emphasis shifted from national defense to international security (p. 75). "The Cold War ensured that an external threat of terrible proportion was evident, and a global strategy of containment necessary" (Dolman, 2005, p. 8).

Post-Cold War

The end of the Cold War resulted in the reduction of Soviet troops, collapse of the Soviet Union, and Germany reunifying as a single state (Stewart, 2010, p. 413). For the United States, the end of the Cold War led to a major downsizing of the United States military structure (Stewart, 2010, p. 459). According to Shields (2011), post-Cold War began a period when "recognition militaries were taking on a new post-modern character", with Europe's armed forces reducing their reliance on the military draft, and their focus on developing a professional military force (p. 2). Szayna and Larrabee (1995) noted major disruptions within the armed

forces of these states occurred as a result of the collapse (vii) of Soviet control over Eastern Europe in 1989. Szayna and Larrabee (1995) said the states had shifted from an authoritarian structure to a representative democracy as a result of the collapse, and any immediate or serious threats to the NATO countries had dissipated when the Soviet structure had fallen apart (p. 1). However, for the United States, this led “to a lack of consensus regarding what the US military was expected to do in the new security environment” (Owens, 2011, p. 2).

Post September 11, 2011

After the September 11, 2011 terrorist attacks on United States soil, and the wars that followed in Iraq and Afghanistan, militaries worldwide restructured. Fighting terrorism became a worldwide operation. According to Shields, the “US military recognized a new view of war and way of thinking was needed; with a focus on stability operations and counterinsurgency” (Shields, 2011, p. 2). For Europe, peacekeeping and peace enforcing became key components during this time (Shields, 2011, p. 3). However, in their preparation for future military missions, three elements still remained for the United States military: transformation, modernization, and warfighting (Stewart, 2010, p. 517). In the wake of September 11, 2011, Owens (2011) believes the relationship between American society and the military has changed, with the military more visible to the public than previously (p. 129).

Europe’s current security

European scholars studying Europe’s security environment have recently noted changes in Europe’s current security. These changes include Europe’s desire for increased abilities to act autonomously in defense and security matters, consensus-building, and consultation in foreign and security policy. The changes also include the creation of European military forces and security institutions (Krotz & Maher, 2011, p. 549). According to Krotz and Maher in 2011, European security had embodied greater complexity than it had in the past. Greater cooperation

among national governments and a diverse set of actors need to be considered, which did not exist before (Krotz & Maher, 2011, p. 554). Post–Cold War era has become more institutionalized. Rather than viewing each state as a potential threat, European states have increased the magnitude of their cooperation (Krotz & Maher, 2011, p. 557).

Some European states, however, still remain divided over some of Europe’s security policies. Krotz and Maher (2011, p. 549) argue that some European countries such as France support Europe becoming more cohesive and powerful, whereas other countries such as Britain are ambivalent about it. In issues such as peacekeeping, Europe tends to “act as a single actor”, but in issues such as the use of military force, “fissures and disagreements between governments surface quickly” (Krotz & Maher, 2011, p. 549).

Armed Forces in Europe

Post-911, there has been a great deal of change within the armed forces in Europe. For one, “there has been a decline in Regime Defence and Nation Building Functions” (Foster, 2006, p. 96). Some states believe external security threats have declined, whereas in other States, the events of post-911 have only increased the sense of threat to their security (Forster, 2005, p. 96). As a result, the duties of the armed forces in Europe include roles such as expeditionary war-fighting (Forster, 2005, p. 96). Forster (2005, p. 50) explains “expeditionary forces are held by high level technical specialists, with training and retraining major features.”

Forster writes (2005) that for states who aspire to the expeditionary model, conscription has been abandoned for the following reasons: (1) conscription is expensive and time-consuming, (2) deployment of conscripts is not valuable or practical, and (3) the emphasis on a small force based on high technology and high level of spending makes conscription unnecessary (p. 50).

Pressures for European Armed Forces

Post-911, the armed forces in Europe have experienced many pressures for change, to include “women’s rights, better treatment of minorities, and issues related to sexual orientation” (Forster, 2005, p. 103). While society as a whole may be dealing with similar issues, society’s support for the military has declined. The decline has been witnessed by protests across Europe after the 2002 war in Iraq, and society’s readiness to question and examine deployment of its armed forces (Forster, 2005, p. 103). Other military issues subject to ongoing critical inquiry include “conduct and behavior of the armed forces, bullying, racism, and sexism” (Forster, 2005, p. 103).

The European military is faced with the challenge to resolve these issues, which places further burden and separation between military and society. Forster (2006) argues that the reason for the separation is because militaries in Europe are losing their ability “to determine what changes are acceptable, and the ability to act as sole arbiters for their operational effectiveness” (p. 129).

The pressures for military changes are “mediated by and interpreted by policymakers and politicians” (Forster, 2005, p. 114). The policymakers and politicians Forster speaks of work in the civilian sector, while rallying support from society for changes within the military. This, in turn, heightens society’s disfavor toward the armed forces.

Europe’s changing military role/leadership

The following section examines the trans-Atlantic relationship between the United States and Europe, and whether Europe can fill the void where the United States military has left off. There is also a short discussion of the global partnership and the reforms in Europe it is stimulating. The section concludes with why and how military roles in Europe are changing.

Relationship between US and Europe

In the last century, the United States and Europe have been allies in fighting wars, and as a result the cooperation between the two “is so engrained that it has become a given” (Cohen & Scheinmann, 2015, p. 40). The United States and Europe rely on one another to be there and participate if threats and attacks were to occur in one or the other country. The alliance since 1947, “through the North Atlantic Treaty Organization (NATO) has become the metric for whether U.S. actions have international legitimacy” (Cohen & Scheinmann, 2015, p. 40).

The multiple countries of Western Europe and the United States are connected not only by the NATO treaty, but also by the support of European and American civilians who may assume or expect this alliance will always be there to help one another out, and as a result rally around that belief. “The bond is not just an analytical decision, but it’s also an instinctual one” (Cohen & Scheinmann, 2015, p. 42). The question that currently remains to be answered is how long the relationship between the United States and Europe will last, and what will be the impact if support from either side is no longer there, or no longer necessary.

Europe’s security independence

While the relationship between the United States and the European Union has been beneficial for both sides, Europe is hopeful that they, like the United States, will become an independent security provider for its continent. One area that is working favorably for Europe is the GDP, which “tops 15 trillion, making it one of the largest economies in the world” (Cohen & Scheinmann, 2015, p. 42). Europe also has a well-developed industrial defense base, and massive industrial giants that produce advanced technological weaponry. Countries in the European Union have spent more money on defense than any other country with the exception of North America (Cohen & Scheinmann, 2015, p. 43). As a result, Europe is becoming more technologically advanced, capable, and ready to defend itself now than it ever was in the past.

The security environment in Europe has changed dramatically since the Cold War. Most states have eliminated conscription. “European militaries have transformed from a force primarily concerned with Soviet tanks to an expeditionary force” (Cohen & Scheinmann, 2015, p. 43). European militaries are also more amenable to deploying their forces, with a determined willingness to act (Cohen & Scheinmann, 2015, p. 43). This is much different from the Europe that had previously relied on the United States to do much of these demonstrations, as evident over the past decade when European states have independently taken the lead to act and deploy forces (Cohen & Scheinmann, 2015, p. 44).

Europe’s reform for global partnership

During the Prague summit in 2002, the Bush administration indicated that “the survival of NATO is dependent on the transformation of European forces” (De Wijk, 2004, p. 197). This was said because of the United States uneasiness with Europe’s lack of capable and ready to deploy armed forces. In 2003, De Wijk noted the European Union had 1.7 million women and men in the military, but could readily deploy only 10% of its military for missions abroad because most of the European countries relied on conscripts (p. 198). De Wijk believed one of the biggest challenges Europe faced was the lack of operational infrastructure to conduct operations (p. 199).

Traditionally the United States placed value on hard security (belief in wars to promote security), whereas Europe placed their value on soft security (belief in diplomatic and peaceful operations). If Europe and the United States desire global partnership, they need to have an equal partnership that balances both hard and soft power (De Wijk, 2004, p. 201).

Europe's military roles change

Armed forces are an integral structure in society because of the role they play; to protect and defend the country in which they serve. Post-911, armed forces in Europe have “taken on new roles to legitimate their institutional existence” (Edmunds, 2006, p. 1061). While a few of the new roles are modeled after traditional functions, the majority of them are newly developed or newly restructured. These new roles include expeditionary missions, internal security, policing expeditions, and an increased emphasis on nation-building (Edmunds, 2006, p. 1062).

Edmunds (2006) highlighted three features which make the current redefinition of military roles significant and new in Europe. First, the end of communism had triggered a re-evaluation of existing military roles. After the fall of the Berlin wall, military budget cuts forced European armed forces to alter their roles in order to meet the new constraints (Edmunds, 2006, p. 1062). Second, traditional roles held by armed forces had been challenged due to recent civil events; as a result this led to the “reemphasis of the nature of the armed forces and their roles during civil wars” (Edmunds, 2006, p. 1063). During civil conflicts, Edmunds (2006) noted traditional military roles could be problematic if armed forces used violence as a means to control disorder; particularly since further tensions could ensue with the regional government, occupying military forces, or specific ethnic groups. Third, the September 11, 2001 attacks have had a major impact on the role of the European armed forces. This impact has “reinforced pressures toward the development of expeditionary capabilities in reforming armed forces” (Edmunds, 2006, p. 1063). Edmunds suggests the issues the European armed forces are faced with have garnered attention because the issues link political and security issues.

The November 2015 Paris attacks which killed 130 people were committed by “killers who relied on a cunning awareness of the weaknesses at the heart of the European security services charged with stopping them” (Witte and Loveday, *The Washington Post*). *The*

Washington Post also reports poor information-sharing among intelligence agencies, an ineffective system for tracking suspects across borders, and a long and unmanageable list of extremists to monitor as factors that allowed for the deadliest attack on French soil in more than half a century. As of yet, European security experts say there are no clear plans to fix their defense structure because they lack the necessary tools.

Witte and Loveday from *The Washington Post* reports the attacks reflect the heart of Europe's security dilemma: authorities lack access to shared databases on suspected terrorists who can freely cross borders. The attackers had minimal problems going back and forth between Islamic State-controlled territory in Syria and the oppressed neighborhoods of Brussels and Paris where the attacks were planned and finalized.

The ongoing military involvement among Europe's armed forces means there will be many ways the military and society interact. Scholars will need to take heed of this and provide discussion in future articles about the involvement that needs to occur between military and society.

Introduction to conceptual framework

The conceptual framework for the applied research project is derived from current issues involving civil military relations within Europe. The European Research Group on Military and Society (ERGOMAS) website formed the basis for the conceptual framework. The next section will provide a discussion of who ERGOMAS is and what they do, working group topics formed within ERGOMAS, and the subgroups that will be used as elements in the conceptual framework.

ERGOMAS

The European Research Group on Military and Society (ERGOMAS) consists of scholars and researchers who study the relationship between society and the military. “Based originally in Europe, ERGOMAS is open to all scholars from around the world, devoted to research on military and society. ERGOMAS purposes are pursued through the activity of working groups” (ERGOMAS website).

ERGOMAS working group topics

ERGOMAS working groups are considered topics that deal with issues between the military and society. Each working group studies a particular and specific topic. The ERGOMAS website specifies 12 working group topics of current interest. The four working group topics chosen for the descriptive categories are as follows:

- Recruitment and retention
- Military families
- Gender and the military
- Veterans and society

2 Each working group topic includes a set of subtopics. The subtopics are of interest to ERGOMAS since they are to be studied, examined, and discussed within the ERGOMAS community in order to gain a deeper understanding, knowledge, and comprehension of the selected subtopics. For all of the four working group topics, ERGOMAS listed subgroup topics, with the exception of veterans and society. For veterans and society, individual judgement was used to come up with three subgroups of current issues veterans currently face in society. For the other 3 working group topics, the exploratory subgroups listed in ERGOMAS have been selectively chosen for the conceptual framework. The working group topics are used as categories, and the subgroups as elements, in the conceptual framework.

Recruitment and Retention

Before most countries went to an all-volunteer force, conscription was used to ensure adequacy of male soldiers in the military. According to the *New World Encyclopedia*, conscription “requires citizens (often males) to serve in their armed forces. In the United States, the conscription program was known colloquially as the draft.” As Eichler points out (2014), conscription linked citizens to their state, and defined the relationship that existed between the two (p. 603). Currently, “less than one-third of the countries rely on conscription” (Eichler, 2014, p. 601), because most had moved away from conscription to all-volunteer forces. However, “most countries face challenges in recruiting men and women” (Eichler, 2014, p. 601). Eichler notes that the United States is one of those countries struggling to attract qualified recruits (p. 601).

Recruiting and retaining qualified personnel in any organization, particularly the military, are difficult tasks, particularly now because the economy is strong and other opportunities exist for males/females besides the military. “Military recruitment represents one of the most difficult staffing challenges and a prime example of the multidimensionality of labor market decisions” (Apt, 2013, p. 1). In the United States, young people are selecting college over the military, and in most of the states within Europe, there is a “without me attitude towards the armed forces, which has left the armed forces finding it difficult to recruit and retain personnel” (Forster, 2005, p. 97).

Dandeker and Mason (as cited in Apt 2013) believe the effectiveness of the military is dependent on the men and women who serve; therefore, the consequences of falling short of recruitment targets is a serious one (p. 2). Rech (2014) found recruitment and retention incorporate from political and social standpoints (p. 245). For one, recruitment is a mechanism in

which persuasion is involved, and as a result a state should also be accountable for it. Two, with the establishment of the all-volunteer force, recruitment became critical, and advertising became a necessary tool to entice people into the military. Advertising, however, was not just an internal military collaboration, but involved collaboration with civilian personnel as well.

In this section, the three subgroups that are explored in recruitment and retention include how the military attracts youths to join, enlistment and retention incentives offered by the military, and advertising strategies the military utilizes to recruit new soldiers.

Attracting and keeping youth in the military

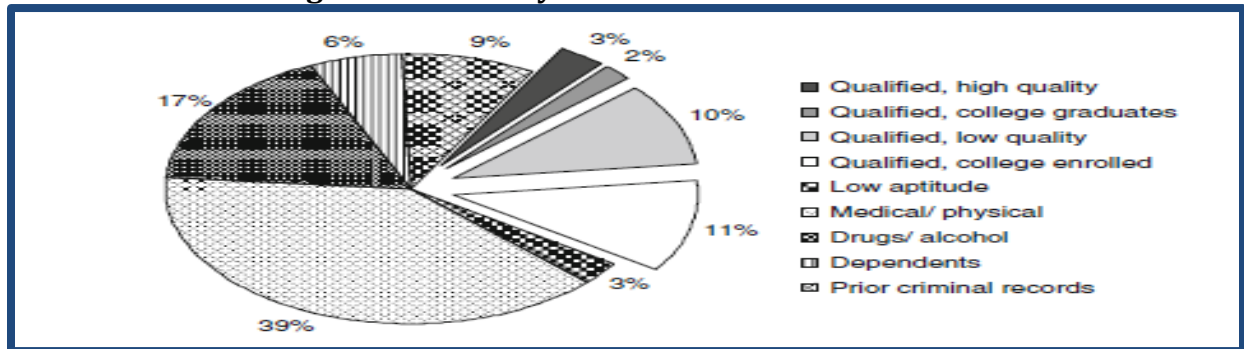
During the draft and in the beginning stages of the All-Volunteer Force, Asch et al. (1998) noted the enlisted force was seen as unskilled (p. xiii). This changed when the military began to seek out skilled and quality youths, and did so by offering educational incentives as a way of enticing young people to join the military. Asch et al. (1998) wrote about the opportunities youths had to combine military and college service and the two decisions they needed to make: (a) to join the military, and if they joined, (b) whether to attend a postsecondary educational university before, during, or after their active tour of duty (p. xiii).

Research by Boehmer et al. in 2003 suggested the difficulty of attracting qualified youths was based on identified factors. These factors include educational fulfillment, aptitude levels, obesity, medical conditions, physical performance, moral posture (i.e. criminal records), alcohol and drug abuse, and responsibility for their dependents (p. 71-72). Apt (2013) writes that in the United States, it had been estimated that 7 out of 10 youths are not eligible to serve in the military (p. 126).

According to Bicksler and Nolan (as cited in Apt 2013) the main reason why youths are not enlisting in the military is because of their failure to meet the military's minimal entry requirements, and those who do qualify for military service prefer to seek out higher education.

It has been estimated that only 15% of the total U.S. youth population belong to the available recruitment pool, with only one third of youths from that pool considered to be highly qualified (p. 126). Bicksler and Nolan (from Apt 2013, p. 126) outline the percentage of youths eligible for service from a 2006 table (see Table 2.1).

Table 2.1: Youths Eligible for Military Service



Source: Eligibility for military service: 2006 Bicksler/Nolan

In March 2015, Secretary of Defense Carter spoke to students in a Pennsylvanian high school about the value of joining the military and what their country can do for them. Carter touted the benefits of joining the military to include the GI Bill, which will pay for students to attend college.

Secretary of Defense Carter called the young generation the force of the future and said “you will be better off for having been part of this incredible mission, because nothing else will compare” (*Stars and Stripes* website 2015). Carter also touted the ability to work with cutting-edge technology, and living in places such as Hawaii. Carter’s speech to the students was in the hopes of attracting youth to join and the value that comes with serving your county. It was in part a mechanism to motivate young men and women to join the military based on various themes.

These themes included adventure, traveling to foreign locales, ability to pay for college through the GI Bill, and pride for having served their country.

In 2006, Eighmey wrote about the challenges to motivate youth to join the military, and how these challenges have become an ongoing, long-standing part of policy formation and development for military recruitment (p. 307). Eighmey wrote that these challenges are due to recruiting shortages because youth choose to pursue education and civilian job opportunities rather than join the military. Additionally, youth are concerned with international and domestic situations (p. 307). Mavor and Sackett (2003) echoed Eighmey's comments about the challenges of attracting youth to the military, and believed the biggest difficulty the military faced in their recruiting method was attracting young college bound people (p. 4).

Secretary of Defense Carter understood the importance of educational incentives, emphasizing the military's plan to pay up to \$284,000 toward the GI Bill. (*Stars and Stripes* website 2015). If money for college motivates enlistment by college-bound youth, what motivates youth who are not college-bound?

For the military to understand why youth are attracted to join the military, it first requires an understanding of what types of incentives youth of today are interested in. Once the incentives have been identified, the military should then identify the motivational factors and develop policies that tap both into incentives and into what motivates youth. As with any age group, however, motivation can change over time dependent on current factors and circumstances in one's life. "In addition to being qualified to serve, new youth recruits must also have an interest to serve" (Ross, 2010, p. 12). The military will need to recognize that as it continues its attempts in attracting youth to join.

Incentives for Enlistment and Retention

When a person enlists in the military, they are making a commitment to serve for a period of time. Incentives are offered by the military in the hopes of enticing someone to join/enlist in the military. The military attempts to offer various incentives to meet the diverse needs of people who are considering and weighing their options, one option which may include joining the military.

When the all-volunteer force was created in 1973, the “Department of Defense has relied primarily on financial incentives, including compensation and non-monetary benefits” (Carter and Kidder 2015) to recruit and retain. According to Carter and Kidder (2015) the military provides nonmonetary and monetary incentives. In addition to regular military compensation (RMC), bonuses are used in providing retention incentives for high-demand or skilled military specialists. Other incentives include special deployment pay, health care coverage for members and their families, life insurance, long-term disability care, and tuition assistance (p. 3). Carter and Kidder point out a very significant incentive is the military’s retirement system, particularly since veterans are able to receive retirement pay immediately upon leaving the military, as opposed to having to wait until a set age to begin collecting retirement pay, which is the case for many civilians (p. 4). Coughlan et al. (2013) comment that the Department of Defense (DOD) is currently looking at alternatives in the retirement system by considering providing choices in the existing retirement plan, which as of now is a universal plan (p. 28).

The all-volunteer military in the United States is extending the boundary lines of US citizenship to include ‘military migrants’ by providing incentives to foreign nationals offering them expeditious naturalization in exchange for their military service (Eichler, 2014, p. 605). In doing so, the US military has strategically provided an incentive for nationals, and in return has been able to recruit and increase the number of soldiers in the military.

Kapp (2012) examined the military recruitment process from 2009-2013, and found the process to be a success in both the recruitment numbers and the quality of recruits. The success during those years was attributed to four factors: (1) high or unstable unemployment rates; (2) substantial increases in military compensation and incentives to include an increase of base pay, increase in housing stipends, increases in hostile fire pay, increase in family separation stipends, health care coverage for non-activated reservists, and a more generous education package; (3) an improved situation in Iraq which contributed to the decline of casualties; and (4) lowered demands from Congress for recruits.

Secretary of Defense Carter outlined to a group of high school students in March 2015 the various incentives the military is coming up with to recruit and retain its military force. These incentives included “helping people pay off student debt if they join, letting older mid-career people who possess high demand skills join the military, allowing more flexibility in deciding their military job” (Harper, 2015, *Stars and Stripes* website).

While it is important the military find and enlist the best people possible, it is equally important the military retain qualified people with appropriate incentives that will entice them to stay. “Retention refers to the rate at which military personnel voluntarily choose to stay in the military after their original obligated term of service has ended” (Kapp, 2014, p. 11). Beerman (2006) notes that post–Cold War, the armed forces had experienced reductions in personnel, yet demands have increased for military forces at the same time, which has resulted in adverse effects on Army readiness (p. 1).

To retain soldiers, Joffrion and Wozny (2015) note the military has been using reenlistment bonuses as a retention tool for decades (p. 3). One such tool is the Selective Reenlistment Bonus (SRB), which provides eligible Air Force service members a large cash

bonus upon reenlistment (p. 1). The bonus is “equal to the enlistee’s monthly base pay, length of reenlistment, and a scaling factor” (Joffrion & Wozny, 2015, p. 3). The scaling factor is determined by the soldier’s length of service and career field.

Coates et al. (2011) discussed an Army retention pilot program launched in 2007 that targeted active duty Army captains. The retention program was important for organizational continuity and the future of the Army (p. 6). Results showed “76% of Army captains accepted the Incentives program during the total time the program was offered” (Coates et al. 2011, p. 15), and that the Army was able to “retain more senior captains nearing the end of their commitment” (Coates et al. 2011, p. 11). However, during the first year the pilot program was offered, the targeted goal of 70% was not met. Coates et al. (2011) believed officers who are at their initial point of decision are the ones at risk for leaving the military (p. 16). In 2007, the U.S. Army was offering cash bonuses up to \$35,000 to retain their officers; however, attractive civilian opportunities and family pressures pulled many officers away from staying in the Army (Dempsey, 2008, *The Washington Post*).

Coughlan et al. (2013) suggest the military should consider individualizing compensation packages and offering a ‘cafeteria style’ plan which would allow soldiers to (a) request and receive monetary retention incentive, and (b) select from a list of non-monetary incentives (p. 25). By doing so, it would allow soldiers the opportunity to decide and select for themselves which non-monetary incentives they would like to be added to their retention package; hence each retention package would be individualized and based on the needs of the soldier.

In the United Kingdom, military recruitment and retention is also an ongoing issue. One attempt to resolve that is through changing the definition of what a military veteran is. Previously, the definition of a veteran was one who served in a war, but the current definition of

a veteran is one who served in the armed forces for at least one day. The hope is “by providing improved services to veterans for whatever length they serve, will increase retention incentives” (Dandeker et al. 2006b, p. 169). According to Dandeker et al. (2006b) the argument is a career in the armed forces would be seen as being more attractive and more appealing to young people (p. 169).

Zellman et al. (2009) believe if the military provided better care for the needs of its active duty members and their families, the likelihood that active-duty members would separate would decrease (p. 441). This belief was in response to a military survey that revealed “one in five military families said it was likely or very likely they would leave the military because of child care” (Zellman et al. 2009, p. 447).

Advertising Strategies for Recruitment

The military needs to recruit a few good men and women, and to do so, requires advertising to get the attention of these potential recruits. Advertisement is a specific tool used to attract the attention of young men and women for military service. The common modes of advertising include mass media campaigns (television commercials and radio), recruiting materials (brochures), public selling (military recruiter speaking to a prospect), outreach events, and the Internet (service branch websites, social media). Brown (2012) says military advertising is an attempt to produce support for military service, and to build a positive image of the military to society (p. 6).

Shyles and Hocking (1990) write about the importance of mass media advertising as a means to attract recruits (p. 369). “Military planners, analysts, and observers believe advertising contribute to the success of recruitment goals” (Shyles and Hocking, 1990, p. 370). Military advertising is an “attempt to sell particular pictures of military service” (Brown, 2012, p. 7).

According to Stoker and Mehay (2011), military advertising is considered to be the most flexible recruitment weapon because it has the greatest flexibility for funding and receives whatever is left over in military funding (p. 120). Bicksler and Nolan (from Stoker and Mehay 2011) outline the allocation of the United States military recruiting budget in 2006 (see Table 2.2).

Table 2.2: Allocation of the 2006 United States Military Recruitment Budget

Resources	% of Recruiting Budget
Field recruiters	42%
Recruiting Support (Administrative, automation, and logistical support)	26%
Advertising	10%
Enlistment bonuses and Educational Incentives	4%

Source: Bicksler and Nolan 2006

The “Be All You Can Be” campaign became embedded into mainstream American culture. The Army campaign showed the glamorous and adventurous life of military soldiers in the hopes of enticing new recruits. Active-duty soldiers participating in focus groups who saw the campaign felt it was deceptive. According to Shyles and Hocking (1990), the campaigns created false expectations which in turn had a detrimental effect on active-duty soldiers’ morale, commitment to the military, and considerations affecting reenlistment (p. 379). While military advertisements are powerful tools, military advertisements in the future need to be cognizant of the “immediate and long term impact on both the targeted audience of potential recruits and unintended audience of active soldiers” (Shyles and Hocking, 1990, p. 383).

Brown (2012) notes that each branch of the service develops recruiting images driven by their own needs and culture and in doing so hope to attract the type of recruit they are looking for (p. 180). One factor that is consistent with all the armed forces is “adventure and excitement are still part of the attraction of military service in recruiting materials” (Brown, 2012, p. 182).

One way the United States Navy is advertising their brand is by attending more marketing events and outreach programs. Stoker and Mehay (2011) comment the Navy has increased the number of marketing events they have attended from 393 in 2006 to 778 in 2008. As a result, the level of Navy awareness increased during those years (p. 125). The message the Navy is portraying at these local and national events is not only that the Navy is hiring, but the Navy offers exciting benefits, career opportunities, and valuable training.

The United States military is also using the Internet as an advertising tool to attract and recruit people. This is particularly beneficial for youth who use the computer on a daily basis to seek out information or look up and find things. “Recent surveys show that a sizeable proportion of recruits have encountered military advertising or sought recruiting information online” (Yeung & Gifford, 2011, p. 534). Potential recruits can also seek information online from various informational and discussion based websites. Yeung and Gifford (2011) found potential recruits who spent more time online rated the information they received as being valuable, versus those who spent less time online (p. 541). The Internet became a “significant source of information for people who were successfully recruited into the Army.” (Yeung and Gifford, 2011, p. 544)

The United States Navy has a website which, according to Stoker and Mehay (2011), is central to the Navy’s recruitment strategy. The website discusses the recruitment process, life inside the Navy, career opportunities, educational benefits, and enlistment incentives (p. 124). In

addition, the Navy is on more social media websites than any other US military service branch. Stoker and Mehay (2011) note the Navy currently had 14 various Facebook pages, in addition to being on Myspace, YouTube, and other social media outlets (p. 124).

Potential recruits are no longer relying on mass media for information, but rather taking the initiative to seek out the information themselves and gauging if joining the military is the right decision for them. People are accessing the Internet to be informed about what it takes to be in the military and what they can expect as a member (Yeung and Gifford, 2011, p. 544).

Military Families

Because military families often undergo the stress of deployment and relocation, they typically go through more changes than the typical family. This section analyzes the effects of deployment on military families, the quality of partner relationships, and the availability of support services.

Effects of Deployment

According to the US Department of Veterans Affairs, "military deployment" is the movement of armed forces. Deployment includes any movement from a military personnel's home station to somewhere outside the continental U.S. and its territories. LTC Pincus (2001) states military deployments can vary in time, dependent on the circumstances and the reason for the deployment. While soldiers leaving for a mission face angst and anxiety, their families do as well. There are five stages that occur with deployment: pre-deployment, deployment, sustainment, re-deployment, and post-deployment. Each stage of deployment is characterized by time frames and emotional challenges by the family members (p.1). Pincus outlines the stages and the characteristics that accompany each stage (see Table 2.3).

Table 2.3: Five Stages of the Military Deployment Process

1st Stage: Pre-deployment - Begins with the deployment orders, and is characterized by denial and anticipation of loss.
2nd Stage: Deployment - The period from the departure of the soldier through the first month of deployment. Mixed emotions are present during this stage and ranges from feelings of relief to disorientation.
3rd Stage: Sustainment - From the 1 st month through the 18 th month of deployment. This stage is a time during which the establishment of support and new routines are created. Spouses adjust and report feeling more comfortable and confident with making decisions on their own.
4th Stage: Re-deployment - The month before the soldier is expected to return home. This stage is characterized by intense anticipation and mixed emotions, to include excitement and apprehension and concerns.
5th Stage: Post-deployment - Begins when the soldier returns home from deployment. This is the most important stage due to the readjustment process between spouses. The readjustment process includes expectations for one other, patience, and taking the time to get reacquainted.

Source: LTC Pincus 2001

When the deployed soldier returns home and is in the reintegration period with their partner, disorder and turmoil can typically ensue. “The reunion is emotionally charged for the soldier and their partner, and the returning service member may have trouble acclimating to changes while they were away” (Knobloch and Theiss, 2014, p. 38). Knobloch and Thesis (2014) refer to this transition time as “relational turbulence” because this time is turbulent due to uncertainty and interference from their partners in the soldiers’ everyday routine (p. 37). During this shift, both partners need to reacquaint and readjust to living with one another following military separation. Despite the stress and demands of military deployments on separated couples, a study on the effects of deployment on risk of marital dissolution determined “most military couples are at a

decreased risk of dissolving their marriage and this effect is greater the longer the deployment” (Wadsworth and Riggs, 2010, p. 42).

Dandeker and colleagues at King’s College London studied the deployment experiences of British wives before, during, and after a deployment. “While the family has become more demanding, so has the military during the Post-Cold-War period, leading to debate about military overstretch” (Dandeker et al., 2006a, p. 3). Dandeker examined the “extent to which British military personnel and their spouses encounter conflicting pressures due to increased demands of both military and the family” (Dandeker et al., 2006a, p. 3). Five main categories were used as the basis for the study: work-life tensions between army wives and the British Army, factors that moderate or aggravate work-life tensions, wives’ adaption during deployment, wives’ network of support during the deployment period, and wives’ overall satisfaction with military life.

Results from the study indicated that British wives were overall satisfied with the military life, and accepted both the positives and negatives associated with life in the military. The biggest disadvantage stated was separation from their husbands during deployments, but the wives nevertheless “became more mentally robust as deployment progressed” (Dandeker et al., 2006a, p. 13). This is a stark comparison to American wives who stated high levels of stress during their husbands’ separations as indicated in a 2003 study. (Dandeker et al., 2006a, p. 13)

Dandeker and colleagues found British wives had informal social support systems (families and friends) and did not choose or expect the armed forces to be their primary support system while their husbands were away. This could be an indication that the military’s support services, while not important and necessary for British wives, are important elements for American wives and their military families.

For children whose parent or parents are deployed in the United States Army, Booth et al. (2007) report that only half of the children and adolescents have a positive adjustment period. Children, whose mothers are not adjusting to the deployment process very well, are most at risk for adjusting to the deployment process, and find it to be difficult (p. 89). Pincus (2001) says that it is reasonable to conclude that negative changes in a child's behavior are a predictable response to the stress of having a parent who is deployed (p. 4). The National Center for PTSD reports children face many challenges because of a parent's deployment to war. Kids need to understand why their parent has to leave, where they are going, and how long they will be away. To provide reassurance, the National Center for PTSD stresses the importance of soldiers taking the time to talk to their children about their feelings, and explaining to their family what the soldier will be doing while he/she is away, and what to expect when they return home. The amount children can understand and how they cope depends on age and how mature they are.

While deployments are stressful periods that affect the soldier and family, it also affects the military as well. Hosek et al. (2006) voices the concern that extensive deployments could hurt morale, recruiting, and military retention (p.2), because of the stress and demands deployments place on the soldier and his/her family.

Quality of Partner Relationships

The military and family members make demands on a soldier because both want the individuals' time, energy, devotion, loyalty, and commitment. These traits are characteristics of what is called the greedy institution. "Due to social trends in American society and in military family patterns, there is greater conflict now than in the past between the two" (Segal, 1986, p. 9). Burrell et al. (2006) writes that the military has experienced an increase in the number of soldiers who must meet demands of their family as well as their job (p. 43). As a result of such demands, the quality of partner relationships could suffer and deteriorate as a consequence.

Booth et al. (2007) report the stress from separations coupled with work-family demands are the reasons why soldiers and their families want to leave the military, and that it is important military leaders be cognizant of these stressors (p. 124). The demands of the military, and the requirements and expectations they impose, can decrease the quality of partner relationships. Segal (1986) maintains there are four ways in which military demands could lead to a decrease in the quality of relationships for partners and/or their families. These pressures include geographic mobility, living in a foreign country, family separations, and risks of injury or death to the service member (p. 16-18). Burrell et al. (2006) conducted a study of United States military families to determine if there was a relationship between the military lifestyle demands Segal wrote about in 1986 and to partner/ family satisfaction. The results of the study suggested that of the four lifestyles demands, military separations was the most demanding for families. Burrell et al. (2006) noted it was not the number of actual separation(s) that was demanding, but the experience itself (p. 53). Burrell et al. (2006) concluded the reason separation was considered the most demanding on families may have been because the separation occurred during a bad time, or it caused the soldier to miss an important event (p. 54).

The next section takes an in-depth look at the types of support services the United States military has to offer, how effective these services and resources are, and how American military families depend on these services.

Support Services and Resources

During missions, the military relies on its soldiers and families to be resilient. Resilience is the “individual, family, organization, or communities’ ability to adapt to adverse stress effectively” (Bowles & Bates, 2010, p. 382). Militaries worldwide understand the importance of resilience, and a number have collaborated to create a program called The Technical Cooperation Program (TTCP) which allows participating countries (Australia, Canada,

New Zealand, United Kingdom, and the United States) to share their research and policies with one another. The focus of the program is psychological well-being, to include “researching, improving, and evaluating deployment mental health support, while finding ways to mitigate mental health care” (Bowles & Bates, 2010, p. 382). This joint resilience training effort demonstrates and acknowledges the importance of psychological health, and its impact and contributions for resiliency within the military. Recognizing the importance of mental health, the Department of Defense Task Force on Mental Health issued a report “addressing the psychological health of families, to include development of support and resources” (Lester et al., 2011, p. 19).

One program that was developed in response to this report is FOCUS (Families Overcoming Under Stress). The program assists children and families under stress because of a parent or spouse in a combat-related deployment mission. The program is delivered in modules, lasting from 30-90 minutes, and provides guidance to families on coping and behavioral mechanisms from trained counselors, with the primary intent to “enhance communication among family members. This is done bridging experiences of family members through their individual stories about deployment” (Lester et al., 2011, p. 22). The goal of FOCUS is to address families’ needs due to deployment, and the stress that may occur. While most families/children can adapt to their parent/spouse being deployed, some cannot adapt well. FOCUS was implemented as an additional resource and support for those who need it.

Child care is the largest family resource the military provides worldwide. The “Department of Defense supports the largest employer-sponsored system of child care in the country with 176,000 spaces for children” (Zellman et al., 2009, p. 437). Child development centers (CDC) provides up to 12 hours per day of child care, and are extremely affordable

through their subsidizations. “Each dollar spent by a parent is matched by a dollar from the Department of Defense budget” (Zellman et al, 2009, p. 438).

Military families encounter stress during all phases of a soldiers’ deployment. As a result, militaries and communities have recognized this and have mobilized to help families through the offering of support services.

Gender and the Military

Gender and the military has been a topic of discussion for quite some time, particularly as the number of females in the military continues to grow worldwide. In this section, the subgroups explored for gender and the military include sexual harassment and assaults, gender stereotypes, and gender integration

Sexual Harassment/Assaults

In the United States military, sexual harassment is defined as a “form of discrimination that involves unwelcomed sexual advances, requests for sexual favors, and other verbal or physical conduct of a sexual nature. A soldier who makes repeated unwelcome verbal comments, gestures, or physical contact of a sexual nature is engaging in sexual harassment”.

Burke 2004 (as cited in Buchanan et al. 2014) notes the US Armed Forces is male dominated, with a masculine culture that emphasizes strength, endurance, and adherence to rules (p. 692). As a result, Bastian et al. (1996) state sexual harassment is more likely to occur in this type of culture (p. 18).

Antecol and Cobb-Clark (2006) reviewed data from a Department of Defense survey in 1995 and found 70.9% of active-duty women in the U.S. military reported some form of sexual harassment within the previous 12 months (p. 56). “Job satisfaction and turnover are highest among female active-duty personnel experiencing sexual coercion” (Antecol and Cobb-Clark, 2006, p. 61). Williams et al. (1999) found organizations, such as the military, which are tolerant

of sexual harassment, contribute to the occurrence of sexual harassment (p. 303). Williams et al. (1999) also found environments which tolerated harassment had negative effects on soldiers' commitment to the military, leading to dissatisfaction with their supervisor and their work in general (p. 325). As a result, these strong negative effects could potentially carry over in key areas for military leaders: unit cohesiveness, unit readiness, and military effectiveness.

Buchanan et al. (2014) looked at data from 9,725 military women who completed the 2002 Status of the Armed Forces Surveys: Workplace and Gender Relations' survey. Buchanan et al. (2014) report the 2002 survey is the most recent survey that includes all of the relevant factors in the publically accessible data (p. 693). Fifty-nine percent of the females who responded reported experiencing sexual harassment within the past 12 months. Participants who submitted a formal complaint also rated their overall satisfaction with the outcome of their complaint, and reported whether authorities took action. Satisfaction with the outcome of their complaint was largely related to the actions taken by the investigators (p. 693). The survey showed female soldiers were more satisfied with the outcome when their complaints were validated, compared to women who were not. Buchanan et al. (2014) believed that when females felt they were being heard, taken seriously, and being kept informed of the complaint process, they evaluated the outcome of the reporting process as being more favorable (p. 694).

One step the military is taking to reduce the number of sexual harassment incidents is through training. "In 2002, 76% of women and 77% of men in the full sample reported that they had some sexual harassment training in the past year" (Buchanan et al., 2014, p. 694).

Firestone and Harris (2003) noted that from 1988 to 1995, DOD issued stronger policies on sexual harassment, required extensive training on sexual harassment prevention, and created the Defense Equal Opportunity Council (DEOC) Task Force on Discrimination and Sexual

Harassment. The DEOC Task Force was created to make recommendations for areas of improvement, and to review the complaint system (p. 57).

Furthermore, Buchanan et al. (2014) say DOD has periodically administered surveys to examine the frequency and outcomes of sexual harassment (p. 693). The DOD “is one of the only organizations that assess outcomes related to training programs, antisexual harassment policies, and reporting procedures” (Buchanan et al, 2014, p. 693).

What is even more alarming than the frequency of sexual harassment in the military is the number of sexual assaults. Sexual assault could include “noncontact sexual abuse, attempted contact, and contact abuse including penetration” (Skinner et al., 2000, p. 293). The Veterans Administration (VA) report from 1994-1995 listed “55% of the women reported they were sexually harassed while in the military, and 23% reported they were sexually assaulted” (Skinner et al., 2000, p. 291). Skinner et al. (2000) stated that women soldiers who reported sexual assault were three times more likely to experience isolation, particularly if they knew the person, and the idea of unit cohesion would no longer apply (p. 305).

Ogilvie and Tamlyn (2012) report that when the DOD began tracking the number of sexual assaults in 2006, there were 2,947 cases of rape and sexual assault among all the branches of the armed forces, with 292 of those assaults going to military trial. In 2007, there were approximately 2,200 cases of reported sexual assaults, with 181 ending in prosecution (p. 6). Ogilvie and Tamlyn (2012) note for 2008, the Pentagon report showed the sexual assault numbers increased during the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan, with a reported a 26% increase in females who reported sexual assaults. Women deployed to these countries have to live and work in an area which provides less security than non-deployed women (p. 8).

The DOD has taken several steps to address sexual assaults in the military. According to Ogilvie and Tamlyn (2012), the DOD has established a program which will prevent, respond, and resolve sexual assaults. This includes implementing an option to report assaults confidentially, appointing the Sexual Assault Prevention and Response Office (SAPRO) to serve as the point of accountability, implementing and establishing training requirements for all of its armed forces members, and finally reporting the findings back to Congress (p. 10). The military also recently established a sexual assault hotline to ensure that any service member located anywhere in the world can call the hotline (p. 13). The hotline would be beneficial for female soldiers who are deployed overseas, and may have the resources and guidance they need.

Despite the policies and procedures enacted by the military and the DOD, the military may have problems recruiting qualified females if the perception exist that sexual harassment and sexual assault perpetrators are not reprimanded and appropriately disciplined. Ogilvie and Tamlyn (2014) state females make up approximately 14% of active-duty service members in the military. This number has doubled within the past 30 years, and is expected to double again within the next decade (p. 3). With the number of female soldiers rising, it is important the military remembers if a female soldier is assaulted, “reporting an assault shouldn’t be seen as a betrayal to the military or the unit” (Skinner et al, 2000, p. 305).

Gender Stereotypes

Women in the military have been affected by the preconceived ideas and gender stereotypes of the role they play in the military. Gender stereotyping is the “belief that a set of traits and abilities is more likely to be found among one sex than the other” (Boyce and Herd, 2003, p. 366). Rudman and Phelan (2008) believe gender stereotyping is intensely powerful because it is invoked by visible biological characteristics and is based on information acquired throughout one’s life (p. 63). Herbert (1998) wrote that before the establishment of the Women’s

Army Corps, the military and society expressed concerns about women joining the military because women who joined were not nice girls (p. 2). While this particular stereotype no longer exists, there are other stereotypes.

DeGroot (2001) said one stereotype which exists is women do not make good soldiers because they are physically and emotionally weak (p. 23). This stereotype has prevailed because the military historically has been regarded as a masculine organization, which makes it very difficult for female soldiers to advance in rank because “military leaders may look for personal attributes thought to be more characteristic of men than women” (Boyce and Herd, 2003, p. 36). This can have implications for advancement of qualified female soldiers who are looked over and passed up.

Boyce and Herd (2003) believe the discrepancies of stereotypical characteristics of women may have a variety of effects on the experiences of women in the military (p. 691). One effect may be that female soldiers “approach tasks with less confidence than men” (Boldry et al., 2001, p. 691). Consequently, female soldiers who lack confidence may be perceived as not having the capabilities to become future military leaders.

Rudman and Phelan (2008) note that because gender stereotypes define traits, roles, and behaviors for both men and women, “they serve as a class of expectancies that contain both descriptive and prescriptive elements” (p. 63). Females in the military may believe gender stereotyping limits their roles and responsibilities, and leaderships positions are more difficult for women to achieve, particularly if the “emphasis is solely on agentic qualities, such as ruthlessness, competitiveness, and decisiveness” (Rudman & Phelan, 2008, p. 65).

Finally, another stereotype is that all women are nurturers and caregivers, and therefore should be nurses or social workers rather than fighting on the battlefields. DeGroot (2001) claims

these nurturing caring attributes have made females more effective peacekeepers, more so than men (p. 24).

For some nations, acceptance of women in the military has come sooner than later, while in other nations, acceptance is a slow process dependent on cultural and societal beliefs. Either way, the military is known as a “gendered institution in which cultural images of gender are invented and reproduced” (Demers, 2013, p. 494). Demers (2013) states that military training is structured to foster male warriors, while female soldiers have to determine which strategies to use to be accepted (p. 505).

Gender Integration

While women’s roles in the military have increased greatly since World War II, “historically, gender integration in the military has not been accepted by men even when women worked traditionally-oriented female roles (nurses, typists, etc.)” (Shields, 1988, p. 110). According to the Marines Corps Association and Foundation website, the goal of gender integration in the military is to provide women the opportunity to serve in combat arms specialties and, by extension, currently male-only combat arms units.

According to Segal (1995) the major factor in determining the role of women in society is dependent on the security of the society. When there are shortages of men during emergencies, most nations increase women’s roles in the military (p. 760). “This increase of reliance on women is a striking characteristic of modern military” (Shields, 1988, p. 89). Snyder (2003) states that when people are given the choice to extend women’s rights or ensure the effectiveness of the military, people will choose the latter (p. 185).

Braswell and Kushner (2012) wrote that gender identity in the military was central to the military, particularly since the military, as described by Hebert in 1998, was a ‘cult of masculinity’ (p. 533). By emphasizing masculinity in the military, a line had been drawn

between male and female, which Harrison 2003 (as cited in Braswell and Kushner 2012) said cemented how military life would be for both female and male soldiers (p. 533). Brown (2012) noted that historically, military service held strong ties to masculinity, and ultimately with transforming boys into men (p. 3). Herbert (1998) noted the concept of being a soldier had been historically central to a male identity (p. 2). A disadvantage for females, who serve in the military that could be viewed negatively by some, is that females are not as physically adept as men. In the military, “service is inherently intensely physical. Females are not physiologically equal to males” (Brownson, 2014, p. 767). However, while females may not be equal to males in that regard, Brownson (2014) believes they can be equivalent. Equivalency acknowledges without any prejudices the difference in gender both physically and socially, and focuses on the kinship of their fellow brothers and sisters while placing emphasis on the contributions and qualities each individual can bring (p. 767).

In the United Kingdom, changes in women’s role in the military began in 1949 during the formation of the Women’s Royal Army Corps (WRAC). The WRAC had made significant contributions to the armed forces (p. 31). Despite the formation, women were restricted by military rules to the jobs that were available to them. Those restrictions changed during the 1990’s when women in the British Army began to play a more active and visible role, as demonstrated during the Gulf War (Dandeker and Segal, 1996). As a result, policy changes for expanding women’s roles in the military have been fueled by increasing insistence for gender equality and by the increase in women’s presence in the labor force (p. 30). Today, Europe and the United States are recognizing the importance of females in the military for several reasons.

First, women can help with military personnel shortages, particularly in case of an emergency or attack when a large number of soldiers are needed. Second, the historical changes in women's military roles from passive to active roles have allowed gender integration to be accepted, if not encouraged, in the military and society.

According to Stachowitsch (2013), the United States showed cultural sensitivity when sending female soldiers overseas to engage and interact with Iraqi and Afghan communities. As a result, female engagement teams were introduced as part of a strategy to win over the people within those communities, and gather intelligence (p. 170). Several years into the war, the military has "culturally and organizationally adapted to the unprecedented participation of women" (Stachowitsch, 2013, p. 170).

In 1994 the DOD established a new policy for female soldiers that replaced a prior rule which had precluded females from serving in units with risks of exposure to direct combat, hostile fire, or capture. The current DOD rule now allows female soldiers to be assigned to all positions, except to units below the brigade level whose mission is to engage in direct combat on the ground (Harrell, 2007, p. 1). People who have made arguments against females in the military "are now finding their logic points toward greater integration" (DeGroot, 2001, p. 24), and "resistance of military leaders against integration almost disappeared from examined media discourses" (Stachowitsch, 2013, p. 170).

Veterans and Society

Veterans have always been honored in our society, particularly in the United States with the celebration and recognition of veterans on Veterans Day. However, veterans have many issues that plague them after they leave the military. In this section, veterans issues including suicides and suicide prevention, post-traumatic stress disorders, and transitioning from veteran status to civilian status are explored.

Suicide and Prevention

Suicides by veterans are not just military issues, but social issues as well. The high number of suicides should be a source of great alarm to our society, particularly since these soldiers/veterans sacrifice their lives in order to protect civilian lives.

“Military veterans are a large population with risk factors for suicide” (Bagley et al., 2010, p. 257). Some of these risks are related to post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD), substance abuse, traumatic brain injury, and firearm skills. Bagley et al. (2010) found in a study from 1999-2004 veterans who were depressed had reported a suicide rate around seven times higher than the risk found in the general populace (p. 257).

In 2010, the Department of Veterans Administration “released new data indicating that the rate of suicide among United States military had increased by 26% between 2005 and 2007, and of the more than 30,000 suicides in the country per year, 20% were done by military veterans” (Bruce, 2010, p. 98). The Veterans Administration (VA) “serves 5.5 million veterans annually, which is 23% of the veteran population” (Bruce, 2010, p. 98). O’Gorman (2012) reports in the *Huffington Post* that more US military personnel have lost their lives through suicide since the start of the Afghanistan war than have died during combat there.

The suicide risk for veterans appears to be greater when they returned from combat in Iraq. This could be attributed to what veterans had seen, done, or gone through. From 2005-2009,

during Operations Iraq Freedom and Operation Enduring Freedom, “the physical and psychological demands on deployed were enormous. More than 1,000 soldiers took their own lives, an average of 1 suicide every 36 hours” (Wright and Lewis, 2012, p. preface). Numerous reports revealed “the hidden wounds of war, which are the psychological and emotional injuries” (Wright and Lewis, 2012, p. 3) have affected members of the armed forces, as well as their family members. Sklar from the *Huffington Post* (2007) writes the increased rate of military suicides has led experts to refer to military suicides as a “hidden epidemic”, indicating both a serious mental health issue and a hidden mortality rate.

Braswell and Kushner (2012) believe there could be several explanations for the high rates of military suicides: frequent and longer deployments, less thorough screening of troops returning from deployment, economic and marital difficulties, and combat trauma (p. 534). Braswell and Kushner (2012) argue that social integration into the military’s fatalistic masculinity could be an essential reason for the high rates of suicide. Potentially, the value of being seen as masculine in the military could mean soldiers are internalizing their feelings from the difficulties they are plagued with, and in turn are discouraged from seeking out help they desperately need (p. 534). The concept that soldiers need to stay strong, and be masculine, while keeping their feelings bottled up, could also be applied to veterans when they leave military service; particularly if that concept has been engrained and embedded in them since joining the military.

In studies by LeardMann et al. (2013) from 2001-2008, risk factors were looked at in correlation with suicides by current and former military personnel. The findings from these studies show a correlation between mental disorders and suicides in many instances, which suggest the increase in suicides “may be a product of an increased prevalence of mental

disorders” (LeardMann et al, 2013, p. 502), which has resulted in cumulative stress from being deployed and stationed at their home base during the Iraq and Afghanistan wars (p. 502).

To assist veterans with suicide prevention, the VA has “enhanced suicide outreach for both deployment and reintegration periods for mid and military soldiers” (Bruce, 2010, p. 101). The VA has also provided resources, support links, and access to suicide hotlines on the VA’s website so that military veterans could seek out help online and find available resources. In addition, there is a website called “The Defense Suicide Prevention Office” which was established in 2011 as part of DOD’s Defense for Personnel and Readiness. The website provides suicide prevention links to each of the service branches in the military’s armed services.

In 2009, the DOD created a task force for the prevention of suicide by members of the armed forces. The task force is composed of suicide prevention and mental health experts who report and make recommendations to the DOD on suicide prevention. General Carey (2011) wrote the US Army implemented a program in response to the stress and strain placed on US Army soldiers. The Army’s Comprehensive Soldier Fitness (CSF) program is an integrated, proactive approach to developing psychological resilience in soldiers. CSF is a resiliency and prevention program which allows soldiers to be better prepared psychologically before deploying to combat (p. 1).

In February 2015, President Obama signed a \$24 million dollar bill for the prevention of suicides among military veterans. The Clay Hunt Suicide Prevention for American Veterans Act was named after a Marine Corps veteran who took his life in 2011 after serving in Iraq and Afghanistan. The bill calls for external audits of suicide prevention programs within the VA to determine which programs are successful and which ones should be eliminated.
<http://thehill.com/policy/defense/232659-obama-signs-military-suicide-prevention-bill-into-law>

The DOD and the VA should continue to make this ‘hidden epidemic’ a priority, while continuing to expand the research and suicide prevention programs currently in place, which include the enhanced suicide outreach reintegration periods; the suicide prevention task force; and the online resources, support links, and access to suicide hotlines available on the VA’s website. In addition, the military should continuously emphasize to their soldiers the importance of getting help if needed, and not to feel ashamed or embarrassed to do so. President Obama, during the presentation of the Clay Hunt Suicide Prevention for American Veterans Act, pleaded with veterans to seek help, stating it is not a sign of weakness. “If you are hurting, know this, you are not forgotten”.

<http://thehill.com/policy/defense/232659-obama-signs-military-suicide-prevention-bill-into-law>

Post-Traumatic Stress Disorder

Owens et al. (2009) report military veterans commonly report guilt and depression following combat experiences (p. 654). The military experiences veterans go through, such a combat experiences, puts them at risk for PTSD. Veterans who are depressed also report high levels of PTSD. “PTSD is a psychiatric condition in which an individual develops symptoms in response to confrontation by a traumatic stressor” (Wadsworth and Riggs, 2010, p. 48).

In a 1997 study, “75% of veterans with PTSD engaged in physical aggression within one year, compared to 17% of non-PTSD veterans” (Taft et al. 2007, p. 498). Many veterans with PTSD also use alcohol or drugs to cope with PTSD as a way to self-medicate. Taft et al. (2007) writes the use of alcohol and/or drugs by veterans helps to alleviate their stress and anxiety (p. 498).

Recent studies have linked PTSD with aggressive behavior, and reveal veterans with PTSD exhibit violent outbursts and have more hostility and less control over their anger than veterans who do not have PTSD. PTSD is also closely correlated with suicide ideations. A

recent study found that combat veterans, specifically those who served during Operation Iraqi Freedom (OIF) and Operation Enduring Freedom (OEF) and who were “diagnosed with PTSD commit suicide at a higher rate than general population” (Jakupcak et al, 2009, p. 303). Jakupcak et al (2009) said the study was consistent with previous research which showed the rate for suicides in Vietnam veterans with PTSD were doubled (p. 303).

Cesur et al. (2013) conducted a study of deployed active-duty soldiers to identify mental health effects from combat. The findings show soldiers deployed in combat zones are at the greatest risk for PTSD, depression, or suicidal thoughts when they have either killed or believed they killed someone, are hurt in combat, or witness the death of a civilian or counterpart. However, soldiers who are exposed to frequent enemy fire in a combat zone are at the greatest risk for psychological harm (p. 52). The study suggests soldiers are at the greatest risk for PTSD when deployed overseas in combat, with “many returning home with invisible wounds such as mental health injuries” (Cesur et al. 2013, p. 61). When veterans do finally return home, Elliott et al. (2011) have said that overseas deployment, particularly with exposure to combat, can further heighten interpersonal conflict with family, friends, co-workers, which can lead to violence due in part to symptoms associated with PTSD (p. 283).

In the United Kingdom, a clinical interview study was done of armed forces to “assess prevalence of mental health disorders and PTSD during the Iraq War” (Iversen et al, 2009, p. 1). Since the Iraq war began, over “100,000 UK reserve and regular soldiers have been deployed” (Iversen et al. 2009, p. 2), which placed UK soldiers at an increased risk for PTSD due to the stresses of war. Iversen et al (2009) found the study showed prevalence of PTSD symptoms remained low for active-duty soldiers, but high for soldiers in the reserves (p. 1). In previous studies that looked at the prevalence of common mental health disorders in the United States and

United Kingdom, Iversen et al. (2009) reported that alcohol abuse was a common diagnosis in both countries with 12.6% in the United States, and 18% in the UK. Depression was reported at 3.2% in the US and 3.7% in the UK (p. 1). The study theorized alcohol abuse may be higher in the United Kingdom study due to the cultural differences in drinking.

Based on the research cited, several facts have emerged. (1) Veterans with PTSD are more likely to commit suicide than non-PTSD veterans. (2) A correlation exists between PTSD and alcohol abuse. (3) PTSD is an epidemic which is both a social issue and military issue. (4) PTSD does not only affect the United States military, but affects other international militaries as well, such as the United Kingdom.

Data from the Government Accountability Office found the funding for PTSD research “increased from \$9.9 million in fiscal year 2005 to \$24.5 million in fiscal year 2009” (Lentz, 2013, p. 86). The huge increase in funding within those four years only affirms the severity and high incidence of PTSD among military veterans. Lentz (2013) notes the VA also has several research centers and programs that conduct or support PTSD research (93).

To address and treat PTSD, Hosek et al. (2006) suggests all personnel returning from Iraq and Afghanistan go through mandatory screening to look for indicators of PTSD, and because the screening is mandatory it removes any elements of stigma or self-selection (p. 8). Jakupcak et al (2009) notes the VA has not only included standard and routine screenings for indications of PTSD, but also consecutive screenings for substance abuse in veterans who have tested positive for PTSD (p. 306). Cesur et al. (2013) wrote that the United States Army has announced plans to reduce deployments in combat zones to 9 months by 2014, and increase time between deployments by three years (p. 61). While this plan at least allows soldiers an opportunity to spend more time at home, and to not be gone as long as previous deployments, Cesur et al’s

study however suggests mental health disorders “are likely driven by frequent enemy firefight rather than deployment length alone” (Cesur et al. 2013, p. 61). If that is the case, the military should also consider the development and implementation of a new set of policies that will shorten the time soldiers spend deployed overseas in combat zones, shorter than the nine month period outlined by the US Army. The shorter the time period deployed in combat zones, the less the chances for frequent enemy firefight.

Military to Civilian Transition

Those soldiers who join the military probably do so with the intent to stay for a few years and to satisfy whatever goal they have set out to do; others join with the intent to retire from the military. Whichever their intent, the transition stage from the “military life to civilian life may be difficult for the service member” (Robertson, 2013, p. 26).

One reason the transition is difficult for the departing soldier is because of the military culture to which they have been accustomed. Braswell and Kushner (2012) say military culture is characterized by a strong level of social cohesiveness, and cohesion is considered to be imperative to the effectiveness of military’s operations (p. 533). Stewart points out (as cited in Braswell and Kushner 2012) previous research has repeatedly linked a strong correlation between effective combat, soldiers’ morale, and cohesion. Military cohesion is created by social rituals into the military, with basic training being the most prominent. (p. 533). When a soldier enters the military, “the creation of social cohesion thus entails an almost total subordination of the individual to the group” (Braswell and Kushner, 2012, p. 533). For veterans, Dandeker et al. 2003 (as cited in Hatch et al. 2013) write the loss of group cohesion is difficult to handle, and impedes veterans’ successful transition into civilian life (p. 1048).

Robertson (2013) believes difficulties occur in several ways: veterans transitioning out of the military may not understand the job market, may feel a loss of identity as to where they

belong or fit in, and may be used to a certain lifestyle that was found within the military. In a study that looked at military members transitioning to a civilian career, the change in income level was “found to have a negative correlation” (Robertson, 2013, p. 32), particularly for veterans who had a longer transition toward securing employment.

Some veterans who leave the military take advantage of the GI Bill and decide to attend college. Miles (2010) notes that during the fall of 2010, over 260,000 veterans attended college using the Post-9/11 GI Bill. According to Elliott et al. (2011), the Post-9/11 GI Bill covers college tuition and expenses for honorably discharged service members who served 90 days or more since September 10, 2001. The bill also covers spouses and their children.

Though many veterans are going back to school, they still face the challenges of transitioning from military life to university life. Elliott et al. (2011) sent out questionnaires to a group of veterans in 2008, and found that those veterans who were exposed to combat and tended to have more signs of PTSD also felt more alienated on campus (p. 288). The study also found over half of the student veterans felt they did not fit in on campus, and close to one third felt they were being unfairly judged by their professors (p. 289).

King (2011, 67-68) writes about three different stages veterans go through in the transition from military life to civilian life: detaching, regrouping, and integrating (see Table 2.4).

Table 2.4: Three Stages of the Transition Process for Military Veterans

<p><u>1st Stage:</u> Detaching – The shift in identity that needs to occur for a veteran to be successful. This stage is characterized by a roller coaster of feelings and changes. Detaching requires an individual to move away from the military lifestyle.</p> <p><u>2nd Stage:</u> Regrouping – Based on interactions with people; this is the stage in which veterans learn how to function in a civilian environment and to apply the skills they acquired in the military to the civilian organization.</p> <p><u>3rd Stage:</u> Integrating – The transitional migration which occurs both internally and externally. Veterans will have achieved this stage when they have successfully been able to integrate and adapt themselves to the civilian life.</p>

Source: King 2011

In another study, 17 female Iraq veterans were examined to gain an understanding of challenges they faced during their reintegration into society, and to determine if they went through a unique transitioning stage. Demers (2013) reports there are about 16% of active duty soldiers who are female (p. 489) and as had been previously discussed, female soldiers go through a variety of stress-related experiences while serving. Those negative experiences include harassment, sexual assaults, and successful gender integration into the military. The study of the female Iraq veterans' reintegration into society showed "high level of distress due to being caught between military and civilian cultures, coping with war experiences, and feeling alienated from family/friends and attempts to find their gender and identity" (Demers, 2013, p. 489).

Van Staden et al. (2007) found that the negative experiences the United Kingdom armed forces personnel who leave the military were similar to the ones veterans from the United States face; "loss of employment and housing, loss of access to welfare and health services, institutionalization and identify" (Van Staden et al. 2007, p. 925).

In contrast to the United States, the United Kingdom developed an inclusive definition for the word veteran. Previously in the United Kingdom, the norm was to use “ex-service for those employed, and veteran for those had served in military operations” (Dandeker et al, 2006b, p. 165). This was because the general public in the United Kingdom considered a “veteran” one who actually served and was called upon in the war, whereas “ex-service” was defined for those who had not served or been called upon in war, but that has changed. Now the term veteran “includes all personnel who have served more than one day (together with their dependents)” (Dandeker et al. 2006b, p. 165). The United Kingdom made the change to ensure veterans and their families are equipped with appropriate resources when leaving the military, so that no one is excluded from being part of the veteran group. The resources available to veterans in the United Kingdom now include housing, health, and employment. Dandeker et al. (2006b) note this is an important feature of civil–military relations because the states now recognizes the sacrifices soldiers make, and is able to provide care and support for the soldiers and their families once they leave the armed forces (p. 161).

Summary of the Conceptual Framework

Table 2.5 summarizes the conceptual framework developed in this chapter. It also links the framework to the relevant literature. The descriptive categories are drawn from ERGOMAS working group titles.

Table 2.5: Conceptual Framework Table Linked to the Literature

Descriptive Categories	Literature
Recruitment and Retention	
Attracting Youth in the Military	Apt 2013; Asch et al 1998; Boehmer et al 2003; Eighmey 2006; Mavor & Sackett 2003, Ross 2010
Enlistment/Retention Incentives	Beerman 2006; Carter & Kidder 2015; Coates et al 2011, Coughlan et al 2013; Dandeker et al 2006; Eichler 2014; Joffrion & Wozny 2015; Kapp 2012; Ross 2010; Zellman et al 2009
Advertising Strategies for Recruitment	Brown 2012; Shyles & Hocking 1990; Stoker & Mehay 2011; Yeung & Gifford 2011
Military Families	
Effects of Deployment	Booth et al 2007; Dandeker et al 2006; Hosek et al 2006; Knobloch & Theiss 2014; Lipari et al 2010; Pincus 2001; Ross 2010; Wadsworth & Riggs 2010
Quality of Partner Relationships	Booth et al 2007; Burrell et al 2006; Ross 2010; Segal 1986
Support Services and Resources	Bowles & Bates 2010; Lester et al 2011; Zellman et al 2009
Gender and the Military	
Sexual Harassment/Assaults	Antecol & Cobb-Clark 2006; Buchanan et al 2014; Ogilvie & Tamlyn 2012; Skinner et al 2000; Williams et al 1999
Gender Stereotypes	Boldry et al 2001; Boyce & Herd 2003; DeGroot 2001; Herbert 1998; Rudman & Phelan 2008
Gender Integration	Braswell & Kushner 2012; Brown 2012; Brownson 2014; Dandeker & Segal 1996; Demers 2013; Harrell 2007; Herbert 1998; Segal 1995; Shields 1988; Snyder 2003; Stachowitsch 2013
Veterans and Society	
Suicide and Prevention	Bagley et al 2010; Braswell & Kushner 2012; Bruce 2010; Cesur et al 2013; LeardMann et al 2013; Wright & Lewis 2012
Post-Traumatic Stress Disorders	Cesur et al 2013; Elliott et al 2011; Hosek et al 2006; Iversen et al 2009; Jakupcak et al 2009; Lentz 2013; Owens et al 2009; Taft et al 2007; Wadsworth & Riggs 2010
Military to Civilian Transition	Braswell & Kushner 2012; Dandeker et al 2006, Demers 2013; Elliott et al 2011; Hatch et al 2013; King 2011; Robertson 2013; Van Staden et al 2007

Conclusion

This chapter developed and discussed descriptive categories for future review of articles from European authors from the journal *Armed Forces & Society*. The descriptive categories and their subsets came from ERGOMAS. The next chapter outlines the content analysis and methodology used to conduct the empirical portion of this study.

Chapter III: Methodology

Chapter Purpose

The purpose of this chapter is to describe the methodology used to measure the frequency of military issues addressed by European authors in the journal *Armed Forces & Society* since 2011. The conceptual framework was developed from ERGOMAS categories and their subsets, which will be used when examining the articles. Content analysis is used to determine the level of discussion of the working group elements using simple descriptive statistics. The ERGOMAS working group elements are examined using the frequency of discussion by European authors within the *Armed Forces & Society* journal from 2011. The methodology will aid us in answering the research question of describing these articles found within the *Armed Forces & Society* journal.

Operationalization Table

The operationalization of the conceptual framework translates the categories identified in the framework to a mode of data collection for the project (Shields & Tajalli, 2006). The Operationalization Table (3.1) was adapted from the 2010 ARP by Christopher Brady titled A Content Analysis of Peacekeeping Issues for the Journal *Armed Forces & Society*. The elements in the conceptual framework are labeled as assessment categories, and the categories in the conceptual framework are labeled as variables. The assessment categories were analyzed by identifying the frequency of discussion of the variables written by European authors and found within the journal *Armed Forces & Society*. The elements are coded as Significantly Discussed, Partially Discussed, or No Discussion, and are coded based on the level of discussion found within the articles.

Table 3.1: Operationalization of the Conceptual Framework Table: Content Assessment Coding Sheet

<p>Title: A content analysis of civil-military issues written by European authors for the journal <i>Armed Forces & Society</i></p> <p>Purpose: The purpose of this research is to describe <i>Armed Forces & Society</i> articles written by European authors from 2011</p>				
Variable	Assessment Category	Significant Discussion	Partial Discussion	No Discussion
Recruitment and Retention				
1	Attracting Youth in the Military	SD	PD	ND
2	Enlistment/Retention Incentives	SD	PD	ND
3	Advertising Strategies for Recruitment	SD	PD	ND
Military Families				
4	Effects of Deployment	SD	PD	ND
5	Quality of Partner Relationships	SD	PD	ND
6	Support Services and Resources	SD	PD	ND
Gender and the Military				
7	Sexual Harassments/Assaults	SD	PD	PD
8	Gender Stereotypes	SD	PD	PD
9	Gender Integration	SD	PD	PD
Veterans and Society				
10	Suicide and Prevention	SD	PD	PD
11	Post-Traumatic Stress Disorders	SD	PD	PD
12	Military to Civilian Transition	SD	PD	PD
Article Profile				
13	Year Published in the <i>Armed Forces & Society</i> Journal			
14	Number of Authors			
15	Nation of Institutions			

Content Analysis

This study applies content analysis to describe select civil-military issues addressed by European authors in the *Armed Forces & Society* journal. Each article written by European authors discusses a select subset of civil-military issues and was analyzed through the use of a coding sheet. The coding sheet has been designed using the conceptual framework categories described in Chapter II. The operational relationship between the descriptive categories and the content analysis is illustrated above in Table 3.1.

Babbie (2009) defines content analysis in his book *The Practice of Social Research* as the study of recorded human communications, which include books, websites, paintings, and laws (p. 333). Gabrelian writes there are several different methods to analyze texts; however the most common method is content analysis (Bowen and Bowen 1999, p. 192). Bowen and Bowen (1999, p. 68) state content analysis is a simple descriptive tool that can be used to generate indicators which point to beliefs, values, ideologies, or other cultural views.

Bowen and Bowen (1999, p. 70) write content analysis allows the researcher to reduce data by classifying words into categories, and the level of difficulty of the data is dependent on the size of the content selected by the researcher. One way to alleviate this is through the use of an accurate coding process which requires a level of subjectivity and judgment. As with any type of research, content analysis has advantages and disadvantages. Babbie provides a summary of the strengths and weaknesses associated with content analysis.

Advantages

A key advantage of content analysis is its ability to analyze recorded human communication. It is the best method to obtain the big picture of descriptive information, but also the best way to

present the big picture (Babbie 2009, p. 333). Second, content analysis is a relatively inexpensive methodology (Babbie 2009, p. 344). Third, errors can be corrected with few study-wide side effects (Babbie 2009, p. 344). If an error is made, only a segment of the study needs to be redone, rather than the entire analysis. Fourth, content analysis allows for the study of process/processes that have occurred over a long period of time (Babbie 2009, p. 344). The fifth advantage of content analysis is that it is a rather subdued method; it does not have any effects on the subjects being researched. In addition, no time is lost waiting for the subjects to respond (Babbie 2009, p.344). Finally, content analysis allows for easy online research availability that can be done at any time, rather than having to wait for a specific time to study the subject(s) (Babbie 2009, p. 344).

Content analysis is well suited for this study; an analysis of articles written by European authors for the *Armed Forces & Society* journal. The articles are easily available through the Texas State University online library website; thereby the data are freely accessible to students. In addition, the accessibility of the articles made data collection an activity compatible with a busy schedule.

Disadvantages

The disadvantage of content analysis is the limitations to explore recorded communication; the communication could be written or oral, but it has to be recorded to allow for its analysis. In this particular case, the problem did not apply since the goal was describing articles from the *Armed Forces & Society* journal. The articles are a type of recorded communication due to their publication.

Validity and reliability can also be disadvantages to content analysis. Babbie (2009) describes validity as the extent to which a measure appropriately echoes the real meaning of the

concept (p. 153). Reliability refers to whether an appropriate technique, repeatedly tested to the same item, can produce the same result every time (p. 150). To offset the disadvantages of content analysis, tests for interrater reliability were performed by two additional raters who analyzed a sample of articles from the journal *Armed Forces & Society*. The method of utilizing two additional raters to sample the articles increased the validity and reliability of my research study.

Population

The population of this study is articles written by European authors and published in the journal *Armed Forces & Society* that deal with military issue. A total of 38 articles met the criteria between the years 2011-2015 and compose the population for this study. A complete list is found in Table 3.2. The articles are presented by year published and include the author, title, volume, and issue.

Table 3.2: List of Articles Written by European Authors

Year	Author(s)/Title	Volume/ Issue
2015	Broesder, Op den Buijs, Vogelaar, & Euwema/ Can Soldiers Combine Swords and Ploughshares? The Construction of the Warrior-Peacekeeper Role Identity Survey (WPRIS)	41 (3)
2015	Bellou & Gkousgounis/Spouse and Service-related Antecedents of Officers' Commitment: The Case of the Greek Army	41 (3)
2015	McGarry, Walklate, & Mythen/A Sociological Analysis of Military Resilience: Opening Up the Debate	41 (2)
2015	Berndtsson, Dandeker, & Yden/Swedish and British Public Opinion of the Armed Forces after a Decade of War	41 (2)
2015	Bah/The Military and Politics in Guinea: An Instrumental Explanation of Political Stability	41 (1)
2015	Maringira, Gibson, & Richters/"It's in My Blood": The Military Habitus of Former Zimbabwean Soldiers in Exile in South Africa	41 (1)
2014	Droz-Vincent/Prospects for "Democratic Control of the Armed Forces"? Comparative Insights and Lessons for the Arab World in Transition	40(4)
2014	Klinger & Chatagnier/Are You Doing Your Part? Veterans' Political Attitudes and Heinlein's Conception of Citizenship.	40(4)
2014	Johansen, Laberg, & Martinussen/Military Identity as Predictor of Perceived Military Competence and Skills	40(3)
2014	Walklate, McGarry, & Mythen/Searching for Resilience: A Conceptual Excavation	40(3)
2014	Vuga/Safety Bubble versus Risk Awareness: Casualty Aversion among the Slovenian Public	40(2)
2014	Sieg/How the Transformation of Military Power Leads to Increasing Asymmetries in Warfare? From the Battle of Omdurman to the Iraq Insurgency	40(2)

2014	Peters & Wagner/Executive Privilege or Parliamentary Proviso? Exploring the Sources of Parliamentary War Powers	40(2)
2014	Soeters & Van Ouytsel/The Challenge of Diffusing Military Professionalism in Africa	40(2)
2014	Koeszegi, Zedlacher, & Hudribusch/The War against the Female Soldier? The Effects of Masculine Culture on Workplace Aggression	40(2)
2014	Ruffa/What Peacekeepers Think and Do: An Exploratory Study of French, Ghanaian, Italian, and South Korean Armies in the United Nations Interim Force in Lebanon	40(2)
2014	Lehrke/A Cohesion Model to Assess Military Arbitration of Revolutions	40(1)
2014	Moelker/The Genesis of the "Dutch Approach" to Asymmetric Conflicts: Operations in Uruzgan and the "Softly, Softly" Manner of Approaching the Taleban	40(1)
2014	Lammers/The American Occupation Regime in Comparative Perspective: The Case of Iraq	40(1)
2013	Baaz & Stern/Fearless Fighters and Submissive Wives: Negotiating Identity among Women Soldiers in the Congo (DRC)	39(4)
2013	Rokvic, Jetic, & Ivanis/Civil-Military Relations and Democratic Control over the Armed Forces in the Republic of Serbia	39(4)
2013	Petersohn/The Effectiveness of Contracted Coalitions: Private Security Contractors in Iraq	39(3)
2013	Weiss/Fighting Wars or Controlling Crowds? The Case of the Czech Military Forces and the Possible Blurring of Police and Military Functions	39(3)
2013	Furlan/Civilian Control and Military Effectiveness: Slovenian Case	39(3)
2013	Kamienski/Helping the Postmodern Ajax: Is Managing Combat Trauma through Pharmacology a Faustian Bargain?	39(3)
2013	Hedlund/Civil-Military Control over the Swedish Military Profession: An Analysis from the Perspective of Officer Rank and Officer Education	39(1)
2012	Sookermany/What Is a Skillful Soldier? An Epistemological Foundation for Understanding Military Skill Acquisition in (Post) Modernized Armed Forces	38(4)
2012	Wombacher & Felfe/United We Are Strong: An Investigation into Sense of Community among Navy Crews	38(4)
2012	Forster/The Military Covenant and British Civil-Military Relations: Letting the Genie out of the Bottle	38(2)
2011	Franke & von Boemcken/Guns for Hire: Motivations and Attitudes of Private Security Contractors	37(4)
2011	Petersson/Defense Transformation and Legitimacy in Scandinavia after the Cold War: Theoretical and Practical Implications	37(4)
2011	Mannitz/Redefining Soldierly Role Models in Germany	37(4)
2011	Sookermany/The Embodied Soldier: Towards a New Epistemological Foundation of Soldiering Skills in the (Post) Modernized Norwegian Armed Forces	37(3)
2011	Andres & Moelker/There and Back Again: How Parental Experiences Affect Children's Adjustments in the Course of Military Deployments	37(3)
2011	Dandeker, Greenberg, & Orme/The UK's Reserve Forces: Retrospect and Prospect	37(2)
2011	Weber/The French Military Reserve: Real or Abstract Force?	37(2)
2011	Danielsson & Carlstedt/The Swedish Reserve Officer: Filling Vacancies or Using Competences	37(2)
2011	Tresch/The Transformation of Switzerland's Militia Armed Forces and the Role of the Citizen in Uniform	37(2)

Statistics

This study utilizes frequency distribution to analyze the frequency of discussion within the designated categories and elements dealing with civil-military issues as defined in the conceptual framework. Frequency distributions are a type of descriptive statistic which easily corresponds to the descriptive purpose of this study.

Inter-Rater Reliability

Bowen and Bowen (1999, p. 71) state that sampling a portion of the coding sheet is important for several reasons. The sample involves selecting a small proportion of the articles and carefully going through the coding sheet, ensuring an opportunity to alleviate any ambiguity in the categories and providing the researcher with insight to revise the coding rules if necessary.

This research study reviewed and analyzed 38 articles from the journal *Armed Forces & Society*. The level of discussion of each element of the conceptual framework was analyzed. To overcome weaknesses in the reliability of the content analysis, two additional raters other than the author reviewed a sample of five articles from the journal *Armed Forces & Society*. The author tested if the findings of this study were consistent with the results of the other two raters.

The first additional researcher was Jason Alexander (rater #1). Jason is a 2009 graduate of the Masters of Public Administration Program at Texas State University. The second additional researcher (rater #2) was Paul Cook. Paul is a 1993 graduate of the Masters of Business Administration Program at Midwestern State University.

For the most part, there was consistency in the ratings across the articles. There was a variation in assessment in seven of the possible sixty coding decisions.

Table 3.3 displays the five *Armed Forces & Society* articles that had been analyzed by the author and both of the raters. Table 3.4 displays the results of the analysis of the sampled articles.

Table 3.3: Articles Analyzed by the Author and Additional Raters (N=5)

	Article
1	(2015)/Berndtsson, Dandeker, & Yden/Swedish and British Public Opinion of the Armed Forces after a Decade of War
2	(2014)/Peters & Wagner/Executive Privilege or Parliamentary Proviso? Exploring the Sources of Parliamentary War Powers
3	(2014)/Johansen, Laberg & Martinussen/Military Identity as Predictor of Perceived Military Competence and Skills
4	(2012)/Wombacher & Felfe/United We are Strong: An Investigation into Sense of Community among Navy Crews
5	(2011)/Danielsson & Carlstedt/The Swedish Reserve Officer: Filling Vacancies or using Competencies

Table 3.4: Civil-Military Discussion Results of the Author and Additional Raters (N=5)

Conceptual Framework	Berndtsson, Dandeker, & Yden (2015)	Peters & Wagner (2014)	Johansen, Laberg, & Martinussen (2014)	Wombacher & Felfe (2012)	Danielsson & Carlstedt (2011)
1. Recruitment and Retention					
1.1 Attracting Youth in the Military	A = 1, B = 1, C = 1	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 1, B = 1, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0
1.2 Enlistment/Retention Incentives	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0
1.3 Advertising Strategies for Recruitment	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 1, C = 0
2. Military Families					
2.1 Effects of Deployment	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 1, B = 1, C = 0	A = 1, B = 1, C = 0
2.2 Quality of Partner Relationships	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0
2.3 Support Services and Resources	A = 1, B = 0, C = 1	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0
3. Gender and the Military					
3.1 Sexual Harassment/Assaults	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0
3.2 Gender Stereotypes	A = 0, B = 1, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0
3.3 Gender Integration	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0
4. Veterans and Society					
4.1 Suicide and Prevention	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0
4.2 Post-Traumatic Stress Disorders	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0
4.3 Military to	A = 1, B = 1, C = 1	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 0, B = 0, C = 0	A = 1, B = 1, C = 0

Civilian Transition					
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A=Author, B= Additional Rater #1, C=Additional Rater #2
0= No Discussion, 1 = Partial Discussion, 2= Significant Discussion

Chapter IV: Results

Chapter Purpose

The results of the content analysis of articles by European authors found within the journal *Armed Forces & Society* are found in this chapter. The results chapter analyzes the content analysis of all 38 articles from *Armed Forces & Society*. Analysis of these articles is used to determine the frequency of discussion of the categories and elements dealing with civil-military issues as defined in the conceptual framework.

The results of the content analysis are organized by the conceptual framework's components and categorized by significant discussion, partial discussion, and no discussion. Table 4.1 reveals the characteristics of the articles used in the study: (1) the articles used spanned 2011-2015, (2) the authors came from 16 European countries, and (3) the average number of European authors was 1.7.

Table 4.1: Characteristics of the Articles Reviewed (N=38)

Year Articles were Published in <i>Armed Forces & Society</i>	2015 (6), 2014 (13), 2013 (7), 2012 (3), 2011 (9)
Average # of European Authors	1.7
European Nation of Institutions	Austria, Belgium, Czech Republic, France, Germany, Greece, Italy, Netherlands, New Zealand, Norway, Poland, Republic of Serbia, Slovenia, Sweden, Switzerland, United Kingdom

Recruitment and Retention

The recruitment and retention components are concerned with attracting youths to the military, providing attractive enlistment and retention incentives to new and existing military personnel, and advertising strategies for recruitment. Table 4.2 illustrates the level of discussion

of recruitment and retention by European authors within the pages of *Armed Forces & Society*.

As a whole, recruitment and retention are seldom discussed in *Armed Forces & Society* by European authors. Attracting youth to the military was the most discussed sub-component of recruitment and retention, with three articles providing significant discussion and seven articles with partial discussion. Enlistment and retention had one article that provided significant discussion, three with partial discussion, and thirty-four articles that provided no discussion. Advertising strategies had the least amount of discussion with no significant discussion in any of the articles, two articles with partial discussion, and thirty-six articles making no mention.

Further discussion of enlistment and retention incentives and advertising strategies for recruitment is recommended to European authors in the pages of the *Armed Forces & Society* journal.

Table 4.2: Recruitment and Retention (N=38)

Framework Sub Components	Articles Significantly Discussed	Articles Partially Discussed	Articles with No Discussion
Attracting Youth in the Military	3	7	28
Enlistment/Retention Incentives	1	3	34
Advertising Strategies for Recruitment	0	2	36

Military Families

Military families face many concerns while their loved one is serving in the military. These concerns include military deployments, and the effects it has on family members, the quality of their relationship with their partner, and the availability of military support services and resources provided to family members. Table 4.3 displays the level of discussion of military families by European authors in the journal *Armed Forces & Society*.

Overall, the topic of military families is under-discussed in *Armed Forces & Society*. Table 4.3 illustrates effects of deployment was the most significantly discussed sub-component with three articles significantly discussed, and six partially discussed. Support services and resources only had only one article which was significantly discussed, four with partial discussion, and thirty-three with no mention at all. Though quality of partner relationships had a little more discussion than support services and resources, its discussion was still very limited. Two articles contained significant discussion, five with partial discussion, and thirty-one with no discussion.

Further discussion of support services and resources and quality of partner relationships, is recommended to European authors in the pages of the *Armed Forces & Society* journal.

Table 4.3: Military Families (N=38)

Framework Sub Components	Articles Significantly Discussed	Articles Partially Discussed	Articles with No Discussion
Effects of Deployment	3	6	29
Quality of Partner Relationships	2	5	31
Support Services and Resources	1	4	33

Gender and the Military

Gender and the military are concerned with gender issues within the military. Concerns include sexual harassment and assaults, gender stereotypes, and gender integration. The findings of this study about military families are provided below in Table 4.4.

As a whole, gender and the military are under-discussed in *Armed Forces & Society*. While gender stereotypes and gender integration had significant discussion in two articles; gender integration was only partially discussed in three articles, and gender stereotypes partially discussed in just two articles. The final sub-category, sexual harassment, is the most under-discussed topic. One article significantly discussed the topic, one article partially discussed, and thirty-six articles made no mention of this.

Overall, the majority of articles analyzed do not contain any discussion on gender and the military. There is a need for more discussion and greater focus by European authors concerning gender and the military in the journal *Armed Forces & Society*.

Table 4.4: Gender and the Military (N=38)

Framework Sub Components	Articles Significantly Discussed	Articles Partially Discussed	Articles with No Discussion
Sexual Harassment/Assaults	1	1	36
Gender Stereotypes	2	2	34
Gender Integration	2	3	33

Veterans and Society

Veterans and society are concerned with the number of suicides by veterans, PTSD, and the transition from military to civilian life. The findings of this study on veterans and society are provided below in Table 4.5.

Military to civilian transition was the most discussed topic of all the sub-components in the four categories. Three articles significantly discussed military to civilian transition, and five articles offered partial discussion. The analysis of the topic of PTSD revealed two articles significantly discussed PTSD, and two articles partially discussed PTSD. However, the topic of suicide and prevention was the least likely to be discussed. Only one article significantly discussed suicide and prevention, and only one article provided partial discussion. The other thirty-six articles made no mention of this topic.

Further discussion of veterans and society is recommended to European authors in the pages of the *Armed Forces & Society* journal, particularly suicide and prevention, and PTSD.

Table 4.5: Veterans and Society (N=38)

Framework Sub Components	Articles Significantly Discussed	Articles Partially Discussed	Articles with No Discussion
Suicide and Prevention	1	1	36
Post-Traumatic Stress Disorders	2	2	34
Military to Civilian Transition	3	5	30

Chapter V: Conclusion

Chapter Purpose

The final chapter of this ARP presents the findings from this study and suggests possibilities for future research. Conclusions are drawn on the contributions European authors have made in the last five years to the *Armed Forces & Society* journal.

This study has analyzed articles found within the journal *Armed Forces & Society* and determined the level and amount of discussion of civil-military issues by European authors. Chapter I introduced the study and provided research purpose. The purpose of the research was to describe *Armed Forces & Society* articles written by European authors in the last five years. Chapter II provided a literature review of civil-military relations and current civil-military issues using the ERGOMAS working group topics as the framework. Chapter III contained a discussion of the methodology, content analysis and operationalization of the conceptual framework. Next, Chapter IV presented the results of the study and recommends areas for further discussion. Finally, the fifth and final chapter concludes the study by providing a summary of the findings from Chapter IV, and providing recommendations for subsequent research in the future.

Findings

According to the results from the content analysis, further discussion is recommended in most aspects of the sub-categories within the conceptual

framework. The findings of my analysis show military families received the greatest amount of discussion as a whole, while gender and the military received the least amount of discussion. However, veterans and society, and recruitment and retention, also received very little discussion overall.

Based on the analysis of the sub-categories, advertising strategies was the only sub-category that was not significantly discussed out of the group of articles; therefore more discussion is highly recommended and encouraged in this sub-category than any other. Specifically, more discussion is also recommended concerning the sub-categories of enlistment and retention incentives, support services and resources, sexual harassment and assaults, and suicide and prevention. All four of these sub-categories are significantly discussed in only one article out of the entire population. Additional under-discussed topics include quality of partner relationships, gender stereotypes, gender integration, and PTSD; these topics were only significantly discussed in two articles out of the population. More discussion is recommended concerning these three sub-categories as well. Though the remaining three sub-categories were significantly discussed in three articles out of the population, further discussion is recommended in these areas as well.

Armed Forces & Society is a well-known journal publishing articles on civil-military relations and issues, including articles published by European authors. While issues such as attracting youth to the military, effects of deployment, and military to civilian transition are considered by European authors, most of the sub-categories are under-discussed by European authors within the pages of *Armed*

Forces & Society. Table 5.1 illustrates the overall level of civil-military discussion from European authors.

Table 5.1: Overall level of Civil Military Discussion (N=38)

	Articles Significantly Discussed	Articles Partially Discussed	Articles with No Discussion
<u>Recruitment and Retention</u>			
Attracting Youth in the Military	3	7	28
Enlistment/Retention Incentives	1	3	34
Advertising Strategies for Recruitment	0	2	36
<u>Military Families</u>			
Effects of Deployment	3	6	29
Quality of Partner Relationships	2	5	31
Support Services and Resources	1	4	33
<u>Gender and the Military</u>			
Sexual Harassment/Assaults	1	1	36
Gender Stereotypes	2	2	34
Gender Integration	2	3	33
<u>Veterans and Society</u>			
Suicide and Prevention	1	1	36
Post-Traumatic Stress Disorders	2	2	34
Military to Civilian Transition	3	5	30

Weaknesses of Content Analysis

As mentioned in Chapter III, there are several weaknesses to content analysis; validity and reliability being the major weaknesses. Validity is ensured by measuring what is intended to be measured. The frequency of civil-military issues being discussed by European authors in *Armed Forces & Society* journal is what was measured. A detailed and thorough understanding of the literature review on civil-military issues helps to assure civil-military issues are accurately measured. Reliability occurs when two or more coders/raters are used to measure something that had been discussed and agreed upon by the coders. In this particular case, the two raters are work colleagues of mine who agreed to test a sample population of articles from *Armed Forces & Society* to determine the frequency of discussion of civil-military issues by European authors.

While the results from the additional raters and the author reflected minor differences, the differences were not significant. The two additional raters ensured the author's findings were valid and reliable by testing the frequency of discussion of civil-military issues by European authors from the pages of *Armed Forces & Society*.

Suggestions for Future Research

This study describes articles within *Armed Forces & Society* written by European authors on civil-military issues. The methodology that was used in this

study could also be used to analyze civil-military issues discussed by European authors in other journals comparable to *Armed Forces & Society*. Replication of this study is recommended in order to provide development of under-discussed literature by European authors in the future.

Conclusion

Civil-military issues occur and exist between society and the military. Though there is a great deal of literature on various civil-military issues by scholars and practitioners, there are areas within the literature from European authors which are under-discussed. By understanding the level and diverse contributions journals make to notable military issues such as civil-military issue, we can then understand the best methods to address specific under-discussed issues. Identifying and addressing areas that have been under-developed and under-discussed helps to resolve the need for scholars who contribute to the *Armed Forces & Society* journal, as well as other journals, areas which require further discussion.

As Shields points out (2015) “civil military is in many ways a case of politics-administration dichotomy, which has been conceptualized as an evolving organic relationship between the two spheres” (p.5). As a result of the continuous relationship between the two elements, it is both important and necessary that civil-military issues are fully discussed. Further discussion of issues currently under-discussed could eventually lead to a more cohesive and effective relationship amongst the two entities. In turn, the relationship between military and society which has, and will continue to co-exist, could result in a stronger and unified structure, and the issues provided and discussed in this study could diminish.

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