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**AN INVESTIGATION OF CIVILIAN CAREER
PATHWAYS OF RETIRED MILITARY OFFICERS**

by

WILLIAM K. LLOYD

A dissertation submitted to the Graduate Faculty in Sociology
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of
Doctor of Philosophy, The City University of New York

1995

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This manuscript has been read and accepted for the Graduate Faculty in Sociology in satisfaction of the dissertation requirement for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

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Abstract

**AN INVESTIGATION OF CIVILIAN
PATHWAYS OF RETIRED MILITARY OFFICERS**

by

William K. Lloyd

Advisor: Professor Charles Winick

The professionalization of work and the logic of technology promotes tendencies toward specialization in work environments. In some respects the military epitomizes these trends. Moreover, as the notion of a work "career" engenders profound transformations such that an occupation, even if professional, is not likely to be inhabited life-long, the idea of a second career is now a reality for increasing numbers of individuals in professional occupations. The skills needed to effect satisfactory transitions become critical in work forces confronted with the likelihood of multiple careers in their work experiences. This research is an effect in that direction: to examine the medley of skills, experiences and educational experiences that enable the individual to bridge the organizational gaps and facilitate the re-entry into another work domain.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

This study describes the trend toward second careers and employment opportunities of military officers in the United States Armed Forces after retirement. It looks at the professional lives, organizational settings, and leadership characteristics of the American military as it has evolved and is evolving in the last decade of the century.

Since World War II, and the Korean and Vietnam conflict in the Cold War Era, the military services faced the complex tasks of adapting their establishment to continuous technological change. The logic of military authority and efficacy has been increasingly dependent upon officers with high educational attainments and technical, administrative, professional and managerial skills. The modern American officer closely resembles his executive counterpart in American professions and business firms. Despite this, the military profession has managed through good public relations to retain its heroic image in varying degrees. But what threatens to overshadow the warrior posture is the growth of organizational bureaucracy within the core institutions of the Services -- in the operational components of its directorates, staff structure, procurement, recruitment, force planning, engineering, intelligence and logistical planning sections. Such trends in organization affect the training, expectations and mobility dynamics of officers in their careers and also impact upon them in the

retirement phase of their careers.

While the parallels between the military manager and the corporate administrator are increasingly proximate, the civilian image of the soldier remains rooted in the past vision of the warrior. It is the technology of war and violence that continues to shape the understanding of the soldier/officer and though it may be an outdated conceptualization, it persists in civilian life and affects the post-retirement options, occupational opportunities and life styles of soldiers.

The United States military can be said to have acquired the defining characteristics of a profession. But until fairly recently, unlike law and medicine, an officer's termination of the active phase of his career often meant a radical departure from his military activities. An attorney or physician in retirement may not cease active work altogether, but may retain a consulting relationship with some professional parameters. Officers, with few exceptions, not only move out of uniform but into civilian roles significantly different from their military work. Since World War II, the milestone event marking the major evolution of the officer corps in this century, the professionalization of the officer cadres has been progressing.

A profession consists of individuals who specialize in the development and application of technical knowledge. In general, because considerable higher education and training is presumed and at the same time because professionals tend to belong to organizations that define the nature of their tasks,

such expertise cannot easily be reduced to bureaucratic duties. Professionals usually have some more autonomy in their work than others in middle and lower levels of an organization. "How much control professionals within organization enjoy over their work tasks varies according to several factors: the size and level of bureaucratization of an organization, the nature of the profession itself, and the strength of the professional association to which the individual worker belongs."¹

In the case of military officers, some contrasts with lawyers and nurses are useful in illustrating the dimensions of professionalization being discussed. Even when working in corporations rather than law firms, lawyers normally have more control over their work tasks than either nurses or military officers. The professional associations in the legal profession are very strong, and are able to define the codes of conduct which lawyers follow. Lawyers accept some administrative constraints, but their work, like that of physicians and scientists, can only be fully evaluated or supervised by their peers.

Military officers, on the other hand, are recognized as professionals -- at least career officers -- but the amount of control most have over the conditions of their work is relatively limited. Military organizations are strongly bureaucratized groups in which officers inhabit ranks and status and are

¹ Eliot Freidson (1986) Professional Power: A Study of the Institutionalization of Formal Knowledge. Chicago: University of Chicago Press.

subordinate to supervisors as well as to political officials.

However, the professional power of lawyers, nurses and military officers located in organizations derives from their role as gatekeepers. In their roles as certificated experts in the generation and application of specialized knowledge, they control access to desired goods -- that is, they decide collectively on qualifications and standards for entry and advancement within their respective organizations. For example, lawyers make up the local boards that certify lawyers to practice; engineers control the licenses needed for construction projects; professors determine grades and who shall get degrees and diplomas. Similarly, officers decide who gets commissioned, promoted and assigned to various units within a vast and complex organizational grid. And as with other professionals, officers develop a sense of group identity, perhaps stronger than other organizations because of the nature and scope of their work. The bonding effects of war and the comparative insularity of military life combine to induce an emotional undertow that may be described as a "we feeling," a consciousness of kind, that may indeed transcend social origins, class, race and gender differences among military personnel to a greater extent than in other institutional settings. Admittedly a controversial point, nonetheless the impact of external realities on the structure of military organizations and the sensibilities they breed, coupled with the general mission and purpose of the military, function to promote

solidarity. This is not to underplay the ways in which social problems afflicting society at large -- racism, sexism, class discrimination, and so on -- insulate themselves into the internal structures of the military services; certainly there is abundant evidence of such problems in the armed forces.² Even though the military services are somewhat unique as organizational entities, they have evolved in response to the dynamic forces of modern war and military technology. The latter has profoundly affected the military division of labor: the technical character of modern warfare requires highly skilled and highly motivated soldiers, and this has meant the growth of skill specialization in the ranks and of tendencies toward professionalization. Consequently, and somewhat paradoxically, the complex machinery of modern warfare which has blurred the lines between military and non-military organization has produced a military establishment that has increasingly come to display the characteristics typical of any large-scale organization. Its institutional mission -- war and violence in the name of national security -- creates a special organizational context that influences its operations and

² In the recent "Tailhooks" scandal involving numerous officers in a sexual harassment case, the Chief of Naval Operations was forced to resign, bringing his career to an ignominious end. It would be difficult to find a major business firm in which sexual harassment is both a prevalent and persistent problem that compelled its Chief Executive Officer to resign or retire. The Navy is steeped in traditions that give it an elitist image and values. It appears resistant to change, but even with its stodgy folkways and reactionary instincts, it is flexible enough to respond to pressures for change. Can as much be said of comparable organizations in the civilian sector?

processes, but like all large-scale organizations it displays fundamental uniformities characteristic of all social organizations.³ This aspect of the military, the evolution of its organizational structures that accommodate stocks of specialized skill and knowledge -- its increasing bureaucratization -- informs the research questions of this study.

As noted above, the parallels between military and civilian society appear to be an outgrowth of several trends, the most prominent of which is the concentration of technical specialists in the military. Related hypotheses are the point of departure for an analysis of these structural equivalents between civilian and military society. The post-retirement adjustments of military officers in terms of civilian employment opportunities, their correlative match with positions in the military regarding organizational location, job definition, skilled tasks, performance, and the levels of satisfaction or dissatisfaction the retiree experiences in the non-military organizational setting constitute the main thrusts of the research.

To examine these issues, empirical research among officer retirees was required. Beyond reliance on historical and documentary sources, the careers and backgrounds of 1,259 officers in all of the services in ranks ranging from major, lieutenant colonel, colonel (and their naval and marine

³ Max Weber provided the early landmark studies on the processes of bureaucratic organizations. More recently, Peter Blau and James Thompson have expanded the analyses of large-scale organizational behavior.

equivalents) were studied. The data were collected by means of a questionnaire administered in cooperation with the Retired Officers Association (R.O.A.).

The trend toward a second career for military officers has developed rapidly since World War II. The opportunities for such careers in the civilian sector are a function of the bureaucratic parallels between military organizations and civilian sector firms.

The survey instrument generated information on retired officers' active duty experiences and service records, their educational backgrounds, their service and retirement occupational specialties, and their reactions to, and evaluations of, their civilian work lives in terms of personal satisfaction and achievement measures. The instrument was pre-tested on small groups of reserve officers and revised. It was then disseminated to the membership of the Retired Officers Association, an umbrella group that includes retirees from all service branches.

The cooperation of the R.O.A. was crucial in the data collection phase of the study because post-retirement tends to disperse officers and assimilate them into civilian society. Professional organization such as the R.O.A. operate in the opposite direction. R.O.A. is a private organization and therefore not directly subject to formal military control. In effect, however, it is a semi-official organization designed to present the broad perspectives of the retired officers and

meet their needs by giving public voice to their beliefs and values. It has representative and advocacy orientations.

The hypotheses of the study and its ancillary research questions are informed by the Weberian research paradigm that has influenced the sociological analysis of complex organizations for almost a century. At the same time, our survey agenda sought to elicit information on the consequences and impact of organizational forms and settings on their participants. The questions sought responses to the practical utility of military experience as an asset in the civilian occupational sector; the viability of education in both military and civilian milieux; how military training and skills match with civilian job requirements; and what, if any, additional knowledge and skills had to be learned to facilitate the transition to civilian life.

The professionalization of work and the logic of technology promotes tendencies toward specialization in work environments. In some respects the military epitomizes these trends. Moreover, as the notion of a work "career" engenders profound transformations such that an occupation, even if professional, is not likely to be inhabited life-long, the idea of a second career is now a reality for increasing numbers of individuals in professional occupations. The skills needed to effect satisfactory transitions become critical in work forces confronted with the likelihood of multiple careers in their work experience. This research is an effort in that direction: to

examine the medley of skills, experiences and educational experiences that enable the individual to bridge the organizational gaps and facilitate the reentry into another work domain.

The need for deliberate programs to provide for status-maintaining employment of men who complete military careers with many years of work-life still before them reflects (1) the changing social base of recruitment, (2) changes in the social and economic structure of areas from which current retirees were originally recruited, (3) the elaboration of technical specialization within the military, and (4) the unprofitability of warfare. These points have been discussed by Biderman (1966).

Those leaving the service, for instance, cannot, as in the past, return to their farms, manors, or towns to initiate or resume careers resting heavily on ascriptive status and simple managerial and technical skills. The unprofitability of modern warfare -- for the state in general, and for the military class in particular -- has been another fundamental development complicating the problem of military retirement. Modern times are distinctive in that the immediate spoils of war are less prominent among the objectives for which wars are fought. Even when economic goals are among the motives for war, costs tend to outweigh gains because of the nature of modern weaponry. In earlier history, obsolete military men (among the victors, at any rate) could be rewarded with lands or administrative

positions in conquered dominions. Where cash pensions were paid, the costs to the public treasury could be reconciled against the gains to it from plunder or the revenues of the imperial dominions gained. Contemporary warfare affords only a few parallels, although this presumably would not have been the case had the vanquished states of World War II been the victors. The closest current parallels are where a revolutionary military becomes the state apparatus and military men assume positions in (or as) the civil bureaucracy.

After two world wars, military occupation of the vanquished nations, as well as the postwar military operations arising from the war-caused disruptions of the political status quo in various regions of the world, provided some degree of time-elasticity for deferring the career problems of military careerists. The military occupations of defeated nations, the foreign aid programs, overseas base systems, and trust territory administration, for a time provided a counterpart to the imperium of earlier epochs. The sustained active-duty strength of military forces through the postwar era, however, has contributed to swelling the retirement problem of the present day. The dissolution of empires has made for particularly acute retirement and second-career problems in Britain, France, and the Low Countries. The present trend toward American disinvolvement from overseas bases and client states can have analogous consequences.

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

This study investigates the outcomes and consequences of former service as an active military officer and its pertinence to civilian experiences among a diverse group of military retirees. These advantages, some sociologists have argued, can be explained by the "bridging hypothesis". In general, the bridging argument holds that duty in the Armed Forces provides "an environment in which the individual may acquire new skills and abilities which, after military service could help in his civilian career".⁴ While this link seems generally plausible, particulars of the argument need to be empirically described or stipulated. In this study we empirically operationalize the question in the form of hypotheses, testing time with a sociological research instrument. In the years prior to World War II, commissioned military service was typically a lifetime occupation. Retirement or the termination of military obligation at a relatively advanced age followed lengthy service with little likelihood of the retiree seeking civilian employment. The service manning levels during the years between wars were not high and comparatively few officers were placed on the retired lists. As the nation mobilized for and then engaged in World War II, the manpower of the Armed Forces was vastly expanded by citizen-soldiers.

⁴ Browning, Harvey L., Sally G. Lopreato, and Dudley Poston, Jr., 1973. "Income and Veterans' Status: Variations among Mexican Americans, Blacks, and Anglos." American Sociological Review, 38 (February), pp 22-24.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this study is to determine and/or confirm basic relationships regarding the transfer and utility of educational attainments, skills and experience of retired military officers who have become employed in second civilian occupations on a full-time or part-time basis. More specifically, the study will concentrate on the experience of officers retiring between July 1, 1978 and June 30, 1991 with between twenty and thirty years of active service in the grades conventional for the retirement of career officers. Within the twelve-year span indicated, special attention will be given to variations in experience between those retiring in the first and second six-year periods.

The study will add to the body of knowledge developed thus far by specifically addressing portability of education, administrative skills and experiences attained in military context to civilian occupations among officer retirees as it may have been affected by the changed and changing conditions of recent years. The significantly larger number of military retirees now -- fully fourfold more than in 1960 -- and the more distressed economic situation since the beginning of this decade, call for re-examination of the findings of past studies. To the extent that formal educational attainment, training in specific skills and experimental application comprise some major segment of the overall educational process, this project should add to the knowledge of educational theory and practice

as it applies to this particular category of adults.

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

As will be set forth in more detail in the succeeding section, a number of studies were conducted between 1958 and 1965 when military personnel who had served in World War II first became eligible for retirement. As the retiree rolls grew and the investment in pension dollars increased accordingly, studies both inside and outside the government evaluated the transition of retired military persons to civilian life with the primary emphasis on the probable case of military retired pay in the years ahead. For the most part, the proliferation of such studies diminished in the late sixties and little information about this issue has been generated for more than a decade. Consequently, while previous studies ascertained the basic relationships of education and subsequent job success as they applied to retired military officers employed in civilian occupations, this project attempts to bring those findings forward in time to 1991.

The significance of this undertaking lies in the changing economic conditions of the period, their impact on the white collar labor market and the compounding effect of greatly increased numbers of military officer retirees. The updated findings may be of practical use to officers on active duty nearing retirement as well as to officers who have already left the Service. The information may also be of use to planners in education and training institutions and facilities as well

as both educational and vocational counselors. Its purpose will have been met if the frontier of knowledge in education, as it applies to this one distinct group of adults, will have been advanced.

REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The study of military retirees in recent years has been focused almost entirely on the burgeoning costs of their military pensions and related benefits including medical care, discount purchases of food, clothing, and housewares. Little concern has been paid to the increasing number of military retirees as a viable manpower resource in the working population. Similarly, scant attention has been given to the sociological impact of retirement on the retirees themselves. The Kaplan Committee (1954) developed the first complete actuarial evaluation of the military retirement system which was subsequently updated under Congressional and Department of Defense in 1958.⁵ Primarily a statement of the probable future cost of the retirement system, the actuarial procedures developed for and confirmed by that study, have continued to serve as an effective format for later investigations.

The University of Michigan study committee that submitted a report in 1961 to the Senate Committee on Armed Services included an extensive survey of retiring and retired officers

⁵ U.S. Congress Senate Committee on Armed Services, A Study of the Military Retired Pay System and Certain Related Subjects, (Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, 1961), p.13.

of all Services.⁶ While the concentration was again on retirement costs, the committee ascertained a variety of statistical and demographic data having to do with the experiences of retired officers in civilian occupations.

When the war ended, the authorized peacetime force requirements were raised to much higher levels than those of the prewar establishment. In the officer grades, competition for retention in the Service was keen and many who in earlier times would have returned to civilian pursuits, were retained on active duty. Thus maintenance of a relatively large standing military force between wars, inevitably expanded the base for eventual retirement.

Another of the lessons of World War II, one that might be seen to conflict with the need for a larger peacetime force, was the need for a more physically and mentally vigorous officer corps, a younger officer corps, to be on a standby basis in the event of military emergency. Therefore, along with the approval of higher force levels, legislative and administrative action was evolved which provided for increased turnover of junior officers and, for officers in mid-career, new avenues of voluntary and mandatory retirement. These and other steps had the effect of lowering the average age of active duty officers and reducing the number of older officers who could remain in military service. These actions had a threefold effect by setting the stage for an expansion in the

⁶ Ibid., 1:6

number of retired officers, most of whom would return to civilian life at a comparatively early age and by dictating the need for gainful employment.

Starting in 1959, some twenty years after the beginning of the expansion for World War II, large numbers of military personnel completed twenty or more years of active service and either elected or were required to leave the Armed Forces and enter civilian life.

The number of military retirees has continued to burgeon since that time and there are now more than 1,100,000 persons drawing retired pay, approximately 345,000 of whom are commissioned officers.⁷ The retired officer group represents a growing manpower resource of well-educated and experienced personnel, most of whom must locate civilian employment upon retirement. Nondisabled retired officers typically enter the labor market between forty and fifty-five years of age and after twenty to thirty years of military service (and, more specifically, at the lower extremes of these ranges). Approximately one-third of these retired officers hold advanced degrees and most have widely diverse patterns of experience and levels of specialization in terms of seeking out qualifying for and performing civilian employment.

As the increased number of retirees was first anticipated

⁷ U.S. Department of Defense Review ,OASD (M&RA), information provided by the Actuarial Consultant, Mr. K.B. Desai, from Table 2035 dated December 12, 1990 and, entitled "Military Personnel Receiving Retired or Retainer Pay as of 30 June 1990".

and then materialized, military retirement emerged as a subject of serious study. Understandably, most of the government funded research projects focused primarily on the rapid escalating cost of retirement pensions and only secondarily on the sociological ramifications of large numbers of retirees entering the job market each year. In the last ten years, however, the research intensity of the subject has waned and little research has been sponsored. What has been done appears to have concentrated primarily on the further analysis and extension of data collected during the years of peak interest.

The time lapse since the earlier data collection has been accompanied by a significantly changed economy as military and industrial enterprises previously directed to the Vietnam war effort have shifted to other endeavors.

The question may then be raised as to whether or not the data collected and conclusions drawn a decade or more ago are still valid for several categories of officer personnel most vitally concerned with the transition from commissioned military officers service to civilian occupations. What can or should officers still on active duty do to improve the likelihood of their making a successful transition to a civilian career? Are there steps that might be taken by officers already retired to improve their employment situation? Is there information which should be known to educational and/or postretirement military officers? Can the knowledge and experience gained from the transition of military officers to

civilian careers serve to assist non-military persons with successful midlife career changes? To what degree are managerial skills acquired during military service flexible and applicable to civilian occupations? It is to this significant problem -- the absence of current information regarding the transition of military officers to civilian careers -- that this study is directed.

The Michigan study found, for example, that slightly over half of the retired officers had made an easy transition to civilian life while at least some difficulty had been experienced by about a third. On the order of ten to fifteen percent of personnel studied had been confronted by serious problems in gaining employment or otherwise adjusting to life as civilians. The study also found that education is an important indicator of the retired officer's ability to succeed in civilian employment and the higher the education, the greater the officer's earning capacity. The study concluded that most retired officers require their pension in order to maintain the economic position they attained on active duty.

As the Michigan study has been the starting point and a milestone for most subsequent studies bearing on military requirement, it is appropriate to summarize some of its findings which relate to the project at hand:

1. Because of the changing nature of military service, skills learned on active duty are becoming more readily transferrable to the civilian labor market.

2. Younger officers seem to make the transition to civilian life more easily than those with more years of service.
3. Those with skills widely used in civilian life have the most difficulty in finding satisfactory employment.
4. The tendency for military personnel to concentrate in a small number of labor markets (e.g., California, Texas, Florida, and Virginia) is associated with employment difficulties.
5. At the time of the Michigan study, rank was negatively related to employment but positively related to employment income. (Higher ranking officers were less likely to be employed; but when employed, they tended to have higher earnings from their civilian occupations than lower ranking officers.)

A study of medical care for retired military personnel was conducted by the Department of Defense (DOD) in 1964.⁸ Approximately half of those surveyed reported that their military background contributed "a great deal" to qualifying them for civilian employment and these data were more extensively reviewed and assessed in a 1966 study by the Bureau of Social Science Research (BSSR).⁹ Conducted by sociologists Albert

⁸ U.S. Department of Defense, Medical Care for Retired Military Personnel and Their Dependents. A Report to the Secretary of Defense by the Defense Study Group on Health Care for Retired Personnel and their Dependents, 1 June 1964.

⁹ Laure M. Sharp and Albert D. Biderman, The Employment of Retired Military Personnel (Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Social Science Research, 1966), pp. 224-33.

Biderman and Laure Sharp, the findings were derived from a separate BSSR survey instrument directed to military retirees as well as the 1964 DOD medical care study data.

The Sharp and Biderman study, not unlike the Michigan study, found that "educational achievement rather than specific military skill is the most important factor in the occupational adjustment of former military men". This study also determined that while most retirees did not perceive the need for any extensive retraining, prospective employers more frequently regarded the retired applicant as needing training. Other findings of concern to this project follow:

1. Retirees with military-oriented skills were less able to obtain satisfactory jobs.
2. Age was not a particular barrier, but rather operated selectively with education level and occupational specialty when it was perceived as an obstacle to employment.
3. A need was identified for retirees to be provided improved job counseling, placement assistance, and some retraining in specific occupations.

A doctoral thesis by Richardson (1967) reported on the transferability of military skills in the context of the "Convergence" hypothesis which suggests that military occupations have become more closely correlated with civilian occupa-

tions over the years.¹⁰

Rather than retirees with twenty or more years of active service, Richardson's study addressed the experiences of ex-servicemen, both officers and enlisted personnel, returning to civilian life after three to eight years in the Air Force. The majority of subjects possessed strong technical competencies at the time of leaving the Service and experienced little difficulty in obtaining suitable civilian employment, largely on the basis of these same skills. Richardson also found the need for improved counseling and guidance for separatees, particularly for those few who had not acquired a transferable technical skill. Three additional findings are of concern to the present study:

1. A latent but significant skill evolving from service as an officer on active duty is managerial and administrative proficiency.
2. Formal education interacts selectively with skills and occupations in the transferability process and frequently is the primary determinant in the qualification of ex-servicemen for civilian employment.
3. The factors which relate to success in the military are not unlike those which relate to success in civilian employment.

Increased difficulty in locating a position was reported,

¹⁰ Robert B. Richardson, "An Examination of the Transferability of Certain Military Skills and Experience to Civilian Occupations" (Ph.D. dissertation, Cornell University, 1967), pp. 67-72.

however, by officers who had longer careers in the Service. Most respondents went to large, nongovernment concerns and ninety percent considered themselves successful in civilian life.

Albert Biderman has been the most widely published researcher on the transition of retired military personnel to civilian pursuits and his articles and other writings appeared at frequent intervals between 1954 and 1973. Many of these writings built on the findings of his 1966 BSSR project as they related with other studies conducted during this period and previously cited. In a 1973 project, however, Biderman attempted to determine if retirees were encountering increasing difficulty in obtaining and holding second-career employment.¹¹ This trend had been indicated by previous studies and the tendency for geographic concentration in particular locales gave further support to the hypothesis. The economic downturn of the early seventies, however, was not specifically taken into consideration. While methodological limitations inhibited conclusive findings, the data suggested that "something less than unrestrained optimism was in order regarding the retirees-employment outlook." This position was based largely on the winding down of the war in Vietnam and the reduced emphasis on the defense and aerospace-oriented sectors of the economy.

¹¹ Albert D. Biderman, Recent Second-Career Patterns of Military Retirees (Washington, D.C.: Bureau of Social Science Research, 1973), pp. 2-4.

DEFINITIONS AND CONCEPTS

So that this project may be meaningful to those unfamiliar with military terminology, it is necessary that its critical terms and concepts be defined. At the outset, it must be understood that the Armed Forces are comprised of four Services: the Army, Navy, Air Force and Marine Corps. Service members, as differentiated from civilian employees, are categorized as commissioned officers, warrant officers and enlisted personnel.¹²

¹² Crocker, Lawrence. The Army Officer's Guide. Stackpole Publications (Harrisburg, PA.,) 1985. pp. 27.

TABLE I
PAY GRADE AND RANK STRUCTURE OF COMMISSIONED
OFFICERS OF THE ARMED FORCES

RANK

<u>Tier</u>	<u>Pay Grade</u>	<u>Army, Air Force and Marine Corps</u>	<u>Navy</u>
I	10	General	Admiral
	09	Lieutenant General	Vice Admiral
	08	Major General	Rear Admiral (Upper Half)
	07	Brigadier General	Rear Admiral (Lower Half)
<hr/>			
II	06	Colonel	Captain
	05	Lieutenant Colonel	Commander
	04	Major	Lieutenant Commander
<hr/>			
III	03	Captain	Lieutenant
	02	First Lieutenant	Lieutenant Junior Grade
	01	Second Lieutenant	Ensign
<hr/>			

SOCIOLOGICAL PERSPECTIVES ON OCCUPATIONS

The professions occupy a position of great importance on the American scene.¹³ In a society such as ours, characterized by minute division of labor based upon technical specialization, many important features of social organizations are dependent upon professional functions. Professional activity is coming to play a predominant role in the life patterns of increasing numbers of individuals of both sexes, occupying much of their waking moments, providing life goals, determining behavior, and shaping personality. It is no wonder, therefore, that the phenomenon of professionalism has become an object of observation by sociologists.¹⁴

The sociological approach to professionalism is one that views a profession as an organized group which is constantly interacting with the society that forms its matrix, which performs its social functions through a network of formal and informal relationships, and which creates its own subculture requiring adjustments to it as a prerequisite for career success.¹⁵

Within the professional category of its occupational

¹³ Talcott Parsons, "The Professions and Social Structure," Social Forces, 17 (May, 1957), 457-467.

¹⁴ Theodore Caplow. The Sociology of Work (Minneapolis: University of Minnesota Press, 1974)

¹⁵ Oswald Hall, "The Stages of a Medical Career," The American Journal of Sociology, 53 (March 1948), 327-336; "Types of Medical Careers," The American Journal of Sociology, 55 (November, 1949), 243-253; "Sociological Research in the Field of Medicine: Progress and Prospects." American Sociological Review, 16 (October, 1951) 639-644.

classification, the United States Census Bureau includes, among others, the following: accountant, architect, artist, attorney, clergyman, college professor, dentist, engineer, journalist, judge, librarian, natural scientist, optometrist, pharmacist, physician, social scientist, social worker, surgeon, and teacher.¹⁶ What common attributes do these professional occupations possess which distinguish them from the nonprofessional ones? After a careful canvass of the sociological literature on occupations, this author has been able to distill five elements, upon which there appears to be consensus among the students of the subject, as constituting the distinguishing attributes of a profession. Succinctly put, all professions seem to possess: (1) systematic theory, (2) authority, (3) community sanction, (4) ethical codes, and (5) a culture.

The true difference between a professional and a nonprofessional occupation is not a qualitative but a quantitative one. Strictly speaking, these attributes are not the exclusive monopoly of the professions; nonprofessional occupations also possess them, but to a lesser degree. As is true of most social phenomena, the phenomenon of professionalism cannot be structured in terms of clearcut classes. Rather, occupations are thought of in society as distributing themselves along a

¹⁶ U.S. Bureau of the Census, 1980 Census of Population: Classified Index of Occupations and Industries (Washington, D.C.: U.S. Government Printing Office 1980).

continuum.¹⁷ At one end of this continuum are bunched the well-recognized and undisputed professions (e.g., physician, attorney, professor, scientist); at the opposite end are bunched the least skilled and least attractive occupations (e.g., watchman, truckloader, farm laborer, scrubwoman, bus boy). The remaining occupations, less skilled and less prestigious than the former, but more so than the latter, are distributed between these two poles. The occupations bunched at the professional pole of the continuum possess to a maximum degree the attributes about to be described to a decreasing degree. Thus, in the less developed professions, social work among them, these attributes appear in moderate degree. When we reach the mid-region of the continuum, among the clerical, sales and crafts occupations, they occur in still lesser degree; while at the unskilled end of the continuum the occupations possess these attributes so minimally that they are virtually nonexistent.

It is often contended that the chief difference between a professional and a nonprofessional occupation lies in the element of superior skill. The performance of a professional service presumably includes a series of unusually complicated operations, mastery of which requires lengthy training. The

¹⁷ The occupational classification employed by the U.S. Census Bureau is precisely such a continuum. The categories of this classification are: (a) professionals and semi-professionals technical workers; (b) proprietors and managers, both farm and nonfarm, and officials; (c) clerical, sales, and kindred workers; (d) craftsmen, skilled workers, and foremen; (e) operatives and semiskilled workers; and (f) laborers, unskilled, service, and domestic workers. (U.S. Bureau of the Census, op.cit.).

models referred to in this connection are the performances of a surgeon, a concert pianist, or a research physicist. However, some nonprofessional occupations actually involve a higher order of skill than many professional ones. For example, tool-and-die making, diamond-cutting, monument-engraving, or cabinet-making involve more intricate operations than school-teaching, nursing, or social work. Therefore, to focus on the element of skill per se in describing the professions is to miss the kernel of their uniqueness.

The crucial distinction is this: the skills that characterize a profession flow from and are supported by a fund of knowledge that has been organized into an internally consistent system, called a body of theory. A profession's underlying body of theory is a system of abstract propositions that describe in general terms the classes of phenomena comprising the profession's focus of interest. Theory serves as a base in terms of which the professional rationalizes his operations in concrete situations. Acquisition of the professional skill requires a prior or simultaneous mastery of the theory underlying that skill. Preparation for a profession, therefore, involves considerable preoccupation with systematic theory, a feature virtually absent in the training of the nonprofessional. And so treatises are written on legal theory, musical theory, social work theory, the theory of drama, and so on; but no books appear on the theory of punch-pressing or pipefitting or bricklaying.

Because understanding of theory is so important to professional skill, preparation for a profession must be an intellectual as well as a practical experience. On-the-job training through apprenticeship, which suffices for a nonprofessional occupation, becomes inadequate for a profession. Orientation in theory can be achieved best through formal education in an academic setting. Hence the appearance of the professional school, more often than not university affiliated, wherein the milieu is a contrast to that of the trade school. Theoretical knowledge is more difficult to master than operational procedures; it is easier to learn to repair an automobile than to learn the principles of the internal combustion engine. There are, of course, a number of free-lance professional pursuits (e.g., acting, painting, writing, composing, and the like) wherein academic preparation is not mandatory. Nevertheless, even in these fields, various "schools" and "institutes" are appearing, although they may not be run along traditional academic lines. We can generalize that as an occupation moves towards professional status, apprenticeship training yields to formalized education, because the function of theory as a groundwork for practice acquires increasing importance.

The importance of theory precipitates a form of activity normally not encountered in a nonprofessional occupation. To generate valid theory that will provide a solid base for professional techniques requires the application of the scientific method to the service-related problems of the profession.

Continued employment of the scientific method is nurtured by and in turn reinforces the element of rationality.¹⁸ As an orientation, rationality is the antithesis of traditionalism.

The spirit of rationality in a profession encourages a critical, as opposed to a reverential, attitude toward the theoretical system. It implies a perpetual readiness to discard any portion of that system, no matter how time-honored it may be, with a formulation demonstrated to be more valid. The spirit of rationality generates group self-criticism and theoretical controversy. Professional members convene regularly in their associations to learn and to evaluate innovations in theory. This produces an intellectually stimulating milieu that is in marked contrast to the milieu of a nonprofessional occupation.

In the evolution of every profession there emerges the researcher-theoretician whose role is that of scientific investigation and theoretical systematization. In technological professions, a division of labor thereby evolves, that between the theory-oriented and the practice-oriented person. Witness the physician who prefers to attach himself to a medical research center rather than to enter private practice. This division may also yield to cleavages with repercussions upon intra-professional relationships. However, if properly integrated, the division of labor produces an accelerated

¹⁸ Parsons, Talcott "The Professions and Social Structure" Social Forces May 1959. pp. 445-447.

expansion of the body of theory and a sprouting of theoretical branches around which specialties nucleate. The net effect of such developments is to lengthen the preparation deemed desirable for entry into the profession. This accounts for the rise of graduate professional training on top of a basic college education.

As a matter of fact, the conventional career pattern in all Services envisions that the successful officer will normally attain the 05 level by the time twenty years of commissioned service (the normal threshold for nondisability retirement) is completed. Nevertheless, many officers do have prior enlisted service and it would be unrealistic to exclude the substantial number of officers retiring at the 04 level from evaluation within the context of this study. At the other extreme, officers who are promoted to general or flag rank, 07 and higher, have attained such a relatively high level of success and are so infrequent in number as to preclude their proper inclusion in the population being surveyed.

For some, the term retirement brings to mind such conditions as advanced age, physical enfeeblement, reduced mental acuity, the absence of gainful employment, increasing dependency, disengagement, and proximity to death. One study described retirement as "a life sentence to social death" on the basis that to be deprived of work is to lose the opportunity for

meaningful living.¹⁹ Military retirement, however, need imply none of these near terminal conditions.

On the contrary, a military retiree may be, and typically is at the time of retirement, a mentally and physically vigorous individual as young as the late thirties, typically in the early forties, and seldom older than the mid-fifties. Military retirement is therefore more properly likened to a mid-life career change than to a cessation of gainful employment. For this reason, it is essential to establish that military retirement implies only a statutory designation of status which, with exceptions, follows twenty or more years of active service.

The comparatively few exceptions to the foregoing definition may be attributed to service-connected physical disabilities to career personnel such as, but not limited to, wartime wounds and injuries and to "age-sixty" retirement which may be earned by "citizen--soldiers" with combinations of active and reserve service meeting prescribed criteria. The average age of officers retiring during the year ending June 30, 1991 was 46.2 years and this includes those retiring with thirty and more years active service.²⁰ The average age of officers retiring in pay grade 04 (Army, Air Force and Marine Corps majors

¹⁹ Alan Sheldon, Peter J. M. McEwan and Carol P. Ryser, Retirement Patterns and Predictions (Rockville, MD: National Institute of Mental Health, 1975), pp. 224-33.

²⁰ U.S. Department of Defense, OSAD (M&RA), Information provided by the Actuarial Consultant, Mr. K. B. Desai, from Table dated January 14, 1992 and entitled "Average Age at Retirement from Active Duty by Pay Grade, February 1992".

and Navy Lieutenant Commanders) was 42.9 years because the majority of these officers retired shortly after completing the minimum twenty years of service needed to qualify for retirement.

It should also be noted that retirement for twenty or more years of service presently includes a lifetime pension of 2.5 percent of the base rate being earned at the time of retirement multiplied by the number of years of completed active service all subject to periodic upward adjustment based on the Cost-of-Living index. Consequently, the forty-two year old-old lieutenant colonel or commander (O5) retiring with twenty years service in the summer of 1991 drew an initial monthly pension of \$1,500. Clearly, the assurance of a continuing monthly pension or retired pay (the latter term is energetically preferred by most retirees) affects the retirees' choice of employment options and must be incorporated in the over-all concept of military retirement.

It should be further delineated that retirement after twenty years of service for other than physical disability may be voluntary or mandatory. Voluntary retirement is at the discretion of the individual but subject to service approval. Approval may be temporarily withheld during periods of military emergency to prevent the loss of a critical skill or for other reasons, such as pending judicial action, which may require retention of the officer on active duty. Mandatory retirement provides for the separation of officers based on total length

of service, age, or for other reasons established by law. Reserve officers on extended active duty are normally retired voluntarily after twenty years of service while Regular officers may continue in service to thirty years, subject to selection for promotions to higher pay grades within prescribed numbers of years. Regular officers, sometimes referred to as permanent or career officers, are differentiated from Reserve officers in that the former have been granted a form of tenure through one of several selection procedures. In addition to being classified Regular or Reserve, officers may hold either commissions or warrants. The latter term includes noncommissioned officers (the several grades of sergeant and petty officer) and warrant officers. Only commissioned officers (lieutenants and ensigns at the entry level to generals and admirals at the senior level) are addressed by this study while specific consideration is given to the more typical retirement pay grades of commissioned officers.

The expressions second careers and civilian occupations are conventional terms for the gainful employment of officers after they enter into a retired status. It is to be emphasized, however, that both concepts, for purposes of this study, envision full-time employment (over thirty hours weekly) for regular wages and part-time work for pay (more than ten hours weekly). Volunteer work and other activities outside the scope of this definition are specifically excluded from the parameters of this study even though they do represent viable, legit-

imate and fully supportable choices of retirement activity for some officers.

The concept of transfer in this study refers to the application or utilization of educational attainments, skills and experience acquired during or before military service to occupations in the civilian sector.

More recent construction of transfer as a concept, particularly with regard to the transfer or transferability of learning, does not apply here. Transfer as used in this study is to be considered in its most elemental, dictionary sense: to convey, remove or bring over from one place, person, or condition to another.

Educational attainments may be considered as the outcome of specific teaching-learning activities which include so-called formal education as well as training activities of the widest possible scope. Specific bodies of knowledge, skills and behaviors are contemplated by this definition and it may be manifest by credentials and/or performance criteria. The term skill will be used in the study to denote a proficiency in the performance of a specified task or tasks. To the extent that experiential amplification of learning may be identified, it will be considered as an extension of an educational attainment or skill. (To be a manager, for example, involves experiential development in extension of a base of knowledge and skills.)

CHAPTER II

RESEARCH APPROACH

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

The basic vehicle of this study is a questionnaire which has been designed to elicit the data necessary to test hypotheses which evolved from the research questions set forth in the preceding chapter and from personal experience with army officers. For purposes of economy, the questionnaire also includes data for use in the expansion of the project for follow-on research.

As this study is exploratory in nature and purposes, the variables have been designated primarily for purposes of identification and, except for the dependent variable (transition index), it does not connote any experimental manipulation. The independent variables include such characteristics as age, sex, educational level, rank, length of military service, and other demographic data. Furthermore, they will include responses, many of which may or may not have had a bearing on the efficacy of their transition from military service to full-time and part-time civilian employment.

As has been previously noted, there are approximately 345,000 retired military officers. Some of these, although their numbers are not precisely known, are aged, enfeebled or have elected not to undertake retirement occupations. Since

there was no feasible way to limit the mailing of questionnaires to only those who would fall into the category of retirees being examined by this study, it was necessary to plan for a mailing which was substantially larger than the desired sample. A questionnaire was devised, current addresses were arranged through The Retired Officers Association, and a small subsample was selected to test the questionnaire. Once defined, the instrument served as the principal data collection device for the study.

VII METHODOLOGY

This section summarizes the methodology followed in acquiring the information pertinent to this study.

The Population

On June 10, 1991 (the latest date for which statistics are now available), the Department of Defense had 1,096,084 military retirees on its rolls. The Air Force had the greatest number (384,169), followed by the Army (369,765), the Navy (285,799), and the Marine Corps (56,451). Overall, commissioned officers make up 27.5 percent of the retired force and warrant officers account for another 4 percent, for a total of 31.5 percent or 345,000. Enlisted retirees comprise the balance.²¹

²¹ Ibid. Table 2035 dated December 12, 1991 and entitled "Military Personnel Receiving Retired or Retainer Pay as of 30 June, 1991.

TABLE 5

RETIRED POPULATION BY GRADE AND SERVICE

<u>Service</u>	<u>Grade</u>		
	06 (N = 58,650)	05 (N = 111,735)	04 (N = 75,056)
U.S. Army (N = 99,033)	25,738 (43.9%)	47,109 (42.2%)	26,186 (34.9%)
U.S. Air Force (N = 87,601)	17,591 (30.0%)	44,013 (39.4%)	25,997 (34.6%)
U.S. Navy (N = 50,588)	13,233 (22.5%)	17,459 (15.6%)	19,896 (26.5%)
U.S. Marine Corps (N = 8,219)	2,088 (3.6%)	3,154 (2.8%)	2,977 (4.0%)

This group, however, includes officers who retired many years ago and who have long departed the work force. Therefore, the study focuses on the 164,452 officers of all ranks who retired during the twelve-year period between July 1, 1978 and June 30, 1991. As the 164,452 figure includes personnel now deceased as well as officer retirees in grades below 04 and 06, and in the absence of reliable data as to specific numbers, it is estimated that there are now living approximately 125,000 officers in grades 04, 05, and 06 who retired within the twelve-year span cited. As this study will deal exclusively with the retired officers in this category who are gainfully employed on a full or part-time basis, the number of subjects in the population of concern to this study is actually a smaller sample of the total population. All of this is to say that the study focuses on only a small percent of the presently retired officer population which is employed on a full or part-time basis, which has attained the conventional retirement rank for at least twenty years of active service (04, 05, or 06) and has been retired during the twelve-year period ending on June 30, 1991. As the study examines the transition of retired officers to full-time or part-time employment, it is clear that it cannot apply to the many who do not fall into this category.

This means, unfortunately, that approximately one-half of the retirees embraced by this study may not have been accessible through R.O.A. Furthermore, the fact that the membership

of R.O.A comprises many individuals outside the target population of this study, served to adversely impact the cost and complexity of the mailings.

Within clearly specified limits, the leadership of The Retired Officers Association expressed an interest in the willingness to assist in this research project. With the assurance that the access provided to the R.O.A mailing list would not be improperly used, provisions were made for the generation of pressure-sensitive labels for the mailing of the questionnaire. While there are disadvantages in using the R.O.A. mailing list, a most favorable feature is the ability to obtain a list limited to members in grades 04, 05, or 06 and then distributed throughout the country on the same basis as their zip codes listing.

Unfortunately, however, R.O.A. was unable to generate a mailing list which would discriminate beyond rank and zip code. That is to say, there was no way to reduce the target mailing to only those who would properly be the subject of this study. While restricting the mailing to grades 04, 05 and 06 served as a screening device, there was no way to eliminate the substantial portion of R.O.A. membership which is over age sixty-two and certainly no way to eliminate those employed less than half-time and a variety of other categories of members who would be excluded from the study.

It is evident from the foregoing that a Department of Defense mailing list would have represented a more effective

means of accessing the officer retirees covered by this study. Nevertheless, use of the R.O.A. address list permitted access to sufficient numbers of retirees to permit the generation of a useful and meaningful sample. R.O.A. officials estimate that a maximum of about seventy percent of all retired Navy officers are on their membership rolls, about fifty-five percent for the Army, fifty-three percent of the Marine officers and a low of fifty-one percent for the Air Force.²² One further impairment in the representativeness of R.O.A. membership is that it is probably slightly "older" than the retired list as most officers join R.O.A. some time after they have retired rather than simultaneously with or before retirement. Nevertheless, and considering the overall size of the population and the sample selected, the access to only those retired officers who have elected to affiliate with the organization should not be considered a major deficiency in terms of the creditability of the study. Indeed, use of the mailing list represents the only feasible and broadbased exposure to the retired officer population that can be obtained by any private research activity.

(A) HYPOTHESIS

Hypothesis I - Former military officers tend to make successful transitions to civilian careers.

Hypothesis II - Former military officers' experience

²² Retired Officer Association, "Membership Survey", The Retired Officer Magazine. October 1990, pp. 18-19.

correlates significantly with current successful civilian employment.

a. The military experiences of former officers enable them to have successful civilian careers.

b. Former officers' military educational attainment, acquired military skill, and the experience of twenty or more years on active duty are key elements in acquiring and performing a successful civilian occupation.

Hypothesis III - Officers' military training constitutes a significant advantage in obtaining successful civilian employment as current research suggest.

Hypothesis IV - Duty in the armed forces provides an environment in which the individual may acquire new skills and abilities which are relevant to civilian careers.

(B) CONTRIBUTION TO KNOWLEDGE

Research suggests that military service as a former Military Officer can enhance subsequent civilian labor market participation. One explanation underlying the positive relationship between military service and civilian labor market success advanced in military sociology literature is the bridging hypothesis. The hypothesis identifies geographic mobility, personal independence, education and training, and experience with bureaucratic structures as being potentially important in providing army officers with good civilian jobs. Through research, questionnaires, and data analysis, we examine

the relevance of this hypothesis with recent military retirees.

While some retired officers are unemployed only because they are unable to find suitable employment, others may be unemployed for a variety of reasons, not the least of which may be their preference not to be employed and to live on their retirement and other incomes.

Several offices within the Department of Defense and the Department of the Army were approached informally in August, 1993 by the investigator with a view toward obtaining access to a representative sample of retired military officers within the several limitations of this study. The informal approach led to a formal application which was formally denied by the Department of Defense under the provisions of Public Law '93-579, Privacy Act of 1974, on the basis that it would be an invasion of privacy to release the home addresses of former members of the Armed Forces without their individual consent. While this prohibition created an obstacle to the study, it was by no means disabling and it proved possible to obtain a small sample of the target population by using other means of access.

The Retired Officers Association is headquartered in Washington, D.C., and has a current membership of approximately 245,000 persons. While its membership includes a substantial number of individuals who are not retired officers in the sense set forth in this study, it is, nevertheless, the position of R.O.A. based on a number of studies, that approximately one-half of all military officer retirees are dues-paying members

of the Association.

The Survey Instrument

A fifty-four item question survey instrument, (see appendix) was devised to elicit the information desired to assess the transition from commissioned military service to civilian occupations. The specific questions were designed not only to support this research project but to produce data for follow-up studies as well. The questions were both objective and subjective, and, while distributed throughout the questionnaire in such a manner as to minimize patterned responses, fall into the following categories:

1. Demographic and base data
2. Activities while in military service
3. Education and training
4. Preparation for retirement
5. Getting the job
6. Performing the job
7. Evaluating the transition

Inasmuch as it was expected that the questionnaire would be completed by many retired officers outside the target population, some twelve demographic questions at the beginning of the questionnaire were used primarily to provide a means to screen the questionnaires and reject those which were not relevant to the study. The more subjective questions which followed were generated primarily to develop responses to the

research questions and are, in many cases, parallel to questions which were asked in the several studies of ten or more years ago.

It should be noted that the survey instrument does not include any validated subtests. For example, the transition index relies upon stated self-perceptions of satisfaction and success in the retirement occupation rather than the use of validated tests for success and satisfaction.

DATA COLLECTION AND ANALYSIS

We utilized the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) and the Discriminate Analysis Program which is designed to weight and linearly combine the discriminating variables in some fashion so that groups are forced to be as statistically distinct as possible.²³ It was expected that the program would produce useful results and give rise to the potential for further research into the predictability of an effective transition to civilian career.

Transition Index

The questions raised by the study occasioned the need for an index to measure the efficiency or quality of the transition from active service to civilian occupations. To serve this need, a transition index has been developed which provides a

²³ Norman Nie, C. H. Hull, J. G. Jenkins, K. Steinbrenner and D. H. Bent, Statistical Package for the Social Science (New York: McGraw-Hill Book Company, 1986) pp. 437-67.

gross approximation of this measure based on the self-perceptions of retirement success and satisfaction on the part of the subject, combined with their stated incomes from their retirement occupation. By an equal weighing of self-perceptions of retirement success, retirement satisfaction and stated retirement earnings on a group basis, values may be assigned so that a transition index can be calculated on an individual basis. The subjects may now be ranked according to each individual's transition index and then grouped. The highest transition index will be called Hi-Y; the middle third, Mid-Y; the lowest third will be called Low-Y. The middle third or Mid-Y merely provides a buffer between Hi-Y and Lo-Y subjects. The values for the transition index were calculated separately for the group as a whole and then for each of the two cohorts. While most of those falling into a particular transition index category in the group overall will fall into that same transition index category within their respective cohorts, there are some exceptions because of the differences between the cohorts. The separate calculation for the group as a whole and its subgroup cohorts thereby provides for more accurate comparison between the group and each of the cohorts.

It should be emphasized that the transition index is intended to provide only a rough sort in the self-perceived assessment of satisfaction and success on the part of these retired officers. The use of the earnings figure as only one element in the measure of the efficacy of the transition

recognizes the variations in individual frames of reference and standards of judgement that may be applied to the transition. Certainly there are those retired officers who currently receive a comparatively low income who perceive their transition to have been most effective while, conversely, there are those with comparatively high incomes who perceive shortcomings in their transition to a civilian occupation. By mathematically forced equal weighing of all three factors as indicated, a more balanced and realistic sort can be performed.

The transition index is the primary research tool of this study and the terms Hi-Y and Lo-Y will be repeatedly applied in assessment of various aspects of the transition from military service to civilian occupations. On a most fundamental basis, Hi-Y may be considered synonymous with good, desirable, favorable and effective. The term Lo-Y implies a transition approaching the converse of these conditions. Various forms of the words 'successful' and 'satisfying' have been avoided as they imply only a part, respectively one-third, of the Hi-Y, Lo-Y constituency.

In further support and explanation of this concept, Table 1A reflects the impact of perceived success in the retirement occupation as one of the three components of the transition index. At the Mid-Y level of 83.7 there is a significant difference at the .01 level.

TABLE 1A
 PERCEIVED "SUCCESS" IN RETIREMENT OCCUPATION

Overall Level of Success in Retirement Occupation (Compared with "Contemporary Military Retirees")	<u>Group (N=1259)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=463)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=410)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=326)</u>
Exceptional	20.2	50.8	4.6	.0
High Average	49.5	48.6	83.7*	14.2
Average	25.5	.6	11.7	69.9
Low Average	4.5	.0	.0	14.8
Unsuccessful	.3	.0	.0	1.0

*Significant at the .01 level

Some 99.4 percent of the respondents in the Hi-Y category reported exceptional or high-average success in their retirement. In the Lo-Y category, some 85.7 percent reported lesser successful transitions. The minor variations are caused by the impact of the weights of the other two components of the transition index, i.e., satisfaction and earnings from their retirement occupation. Even though 14.2 percent of those in the Lo-Y category reported high-average success in their retirement occupation, the weight of their responses in terms of perceived satisfaction and annual earnings from their retirement occupation moved them into the Lo-Y category.

Similarly, Table 2A indicates 99.1 percent of the Hi-Y group reported that they were highly satisfied or high-average in terms of satisfaction in their retirement occupation. At the Hi-Y level of 70.8, there is a significant difference at the .01 level.

TABLE 2A
PERCEIVED "SATISFACTION" IN RETIREMENT OCCUPATION
(Percentages)

<u>Overall Level of Satisfaction in Retirement Occupation</u>	<u>Group (N=1259)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=463)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=410)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=386)</u>
Highly Satisfied	32.7	70.8*	19.5	1.0
High Average	34.7	28.3	54.6	21.2
Average	23.0	.9	23.7	49.0
Low Average	7.3	.0	1.7	22.0
Dissatisfied	2.2	.0	.5	6.5

* Significant at the .01 level

While 22.2 percent of the Lo-Y group also reported that they were highly satisfied or high-average, their more negative responses in terms of perceived success and current earnings from their retirement occupation combined to place them in the Lo-Y category.

While Table 3A reflects all the components of current annual income, only the income from current employment has been calculated into the transition index. Consequently, the average (mean) annual income from current employment of the 463 subjects designated Hi-Y is \$27,138. while the average annual income from current employment of the 386 subjects designated as Lo-Y is \$13,263. At the Hi-Y level of \$27,138 there is a significant difference at the .01 level.

TABLE 3A

CURRENT ANNUAL INCOME

<u>Source</u>	<u>Total Group (N=1259)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=463)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=410)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=386)</u>
Current Employment	\$20,657.	\$27,138*	\$18,542.	\$13,263.
Retired Pay	24,979.	24,831.	24,610.	25,549.
Other	4,111.	4,290.	4,124.	3,744.
Total	\$49,747.	\$56,259	\$47,276.	\$42,556.

*Significant at the .01 level

By combining the two subjective perceptions, i.e., satisfaction and success, with the objective figure of current annual earnings from the retirement occupation, a measure has been devised by which other questionnaire responses may be assessed. Recognizing that the transition index is less than finite, the Mid-Y separation between the Hi-Y and Lo-Y group adds further legitimacy to the transition index as a measure of the efficacy of the transition.

ANNUAL INCOME

The current annual income figures reported reveal that retired officers are clearly a favored segment of American society in terms of their earnings from all sources. The group as a whole averaged total earnings of \$49,747 of which \$20,657 was from current employment, \$24,949 was from military retired pay, and \$4,111 came from other sources that include their spouses. The average starting salary for a teacher with a B.A. degree directly out of college, working in a local Long Island school district is approximately \$34,000. For a person with the responsibilities of a field grade officer, a \$21,000 salary for full time work must be disconcerting. Even though the figure of approximately \$21,000 from current employment in retirement seems modest, it can reflect payment for part time rather than full time work. For many employers, retirees are alternative employees because the financial obligation employers could ordinary incur (medical benefits, pension

payments, etc.) are precluded by the protection and benefits ex-military personnel receive. Moreover, many retirees may actually seek earnings level that together their pensions match or slightly exceed what could be their pay scales had they remained active. Finally, their willingness to work for less enables many to work in occupations compatible with the types of activities and duties they assumed in their professional soldier roles. Together the constellation of salary, time and task considerations in the post-active period shape the profiles of retirees in terms of income and occupational responsibilities. Hi-Y retirees earned more than twice as much from their retirement occupations as did Lo-Y retirees. While the average member of Cohort A has higher employment earnings than his counterpart in Cohort B, the latter earned enough in retired pay to more than offset the employment earnings differential. Therefore, the average current annual income of Cohort A retirees of \$48,258 was slightly lower than the \$49,841 reported by the members of Cohort B. As a point of information, 85 of the 1259 useful responses (6.75 percent) reported total annual incomes of \$70,000 or more. Some 28 respondents (2.22 percent) reported current annual earnings from their retired occupations of \$60,000 or more.

Having decided to retire, members face a 40-60% reduction in income. This occurs at the time when many families are faced with college costs. Resettlement and housing costs related to the family's move to a permanent home are a further

complication. Partly for this reason, between two-thirds and three quarters of all retirees work after leaving the service.²⁴

Recent retirees are experiencing greater difficulty than earlier retirees in finding what they regard as appropriate second career employment.²⁵ Cutbacks in defense procurement are certainly contributors; a second is the work force reductions in the American economy and the resulting glut of job-seeking middle managers. The implications for new military retirees are threefold: First, the time needed to obtain employment has increased beyond the average 2.5 months experienced in the 1980s. Second, recent retirees are increasingly likely to accept employment in less attractive positions--but hope this will lead to desirable employment later on. Finally, military retirees are using the one clear advantage they enjoy over their civilian counterparts: the financial security provided by military retirement pay. Anticipating that they can, over time, make up the initial income shortfall, recent retirees have become more willing to accept lower salaries than comparably qualified civilian job-seekers.

Data compiled by R.O.A. indicate the types of employment recent retirees are obtaining. Table 4A lists the occupational and industry classification of over 700 recent retirees who

²⁴ Source: Monthly Reports, Positions, and Industries Employed, March 1993. The Retired Officers Association. pp. 15-17

²⁵ Ibid.

obtained employment through the Association's Job Placement Service. Although different job and industry classification schemes used in previous retiree surveys make direct comparison difficult, a smaller percentage of recent retirees are finding defense-related and federal civil service positions than in the past. With those important exceptions, however, the employment patterns of recent retirees appear essentially similar to those of past retirees.²⁶

Although dated in terms of income levels, studies by Danzon (1980) and Cooper (1981) still offer useful perspectives on so-called "second career" earnings of military retirees. The major findings of these studies are that:

1. Military retirees pass through a transition period of about five years after leaving the service. During that period, their income is typically below--by 20% or more--that of comparably educated civilians.
2. The post-transition income of military retirees from second career employment is from 10% to 20% below that of comparably educated civilians. But half and perhaps more of this shortfall is explained by voluntary decisions, i.e., military retirees work fewer hours, elect to live in areas with lower wages, or accept employment in lower income activities.

²⁶ Department of Defense, "Military Retiree Survey Report, May 1977," 16. The Professional Soldier: A Social and Political Portrait (Glencoe, IL: The Free Press, 1960), pp. 374-382, Albert D. Biderman.

TABLE 4A**Employment--Recent Retirees**

Occupational Classification	Percent	Industry Classification	Percent
Managers & Officials	37.8%	Non-Classifiable	30.8%
Miscellaneous Professions	18.0	Services	29.8
Administrative Specialists	16.2	Public Administrative	8.8
Education	9.9	Financial Services	7.8
Engineers & Architects	8.6	Manufacturing	7.1
Computer-Related	5.2	Retail Trade	4.1
Other	4.4	Other	11.6

Source: Monthly Reports, Positions and Industries Employed. March 1993.
The Retired Officers Association.

Results of the Mailings

While there were 2,328 responses to the 3,260 questionnaires, for a response rate of 71.4 percent, only 1,259 of the returned questionnaires were suitable for use in this study. (Table 5A). The primary reasons that returned questionnaires were not usable include the following with regard to the respondent:

1. Did not retire during the twelve-year period ending June 30, 1991.
2. Not working or working less than 10 hours weekly.
3. Less than twenty years of active military service.
4. Over age sixty-two (Social Security eligibility age)
5. Below pay grade 04 or above pay grade 06.

This high response rate may perhaps be attributed to the pride and commitment of the military respondents in their careers. It is of interest to note that eighty or approximately 2.5 percent of the 3,260 questionnaires were sent to retired female officers. This is only an approximation based on a perusal of first names on the lists of addressees. While there was a return rate of approximately fifty percent from retired female officers, there were only seven useful responses which could be included in the total useful response of 1,259. In almost every case, the responses from women were unusable because of their not being employed or being employed less than ten hours weekly.

TABLE 5A
QUESTIONNAIRE RESPONSE

<u>Responses</u>	<u>Questionnaires</u> <u>(3,260 Mailed)</u>
Usable	1259 (38.6%)
Not Usable	1069 (32.8%)
Not Returned	932 (28.6%)

Women play a critical role in the work force, and in particular, women in their 50's. As indicated in a New York Times article of November 28, 1994 entitled "Women In Their 50s Follow Paths Into Workplace" by Louis Uchitelle, these women were members of the last generation to come of age before the women's movement took hold in the 1960's. Marrying early and in huge numbers, they had expected not to work. But their lives were played out much differently.

Women now in their 50's have moved into the work force in large numbers in the last decade and a half. Today the college educated among them are as likely to hold jobs as any group of younger women.

The women's movement made work a widely accepted alternative to a life centered on the home. But in many cases, the move into the workplace was not the low-pressure choice that these women would have preferred. While financial pressures

have always pushed some women into the labor force, many college educated women now in their 50's took jobs for economic reasons largely new to their generation -- after divorce left them without enough income, or because a husband could no longer support the family alone.

Whatever the reasons, holding jobs has been strikingly beneficial for many women now in their 50's. Betty Friedan, author of The Feminine Mystique, the 1963 book that helped begin the women's movement, agrees. "It used to be that a woman's mental health, having peaked in her 20's, declined drastically after age 40," she said. "But today the mental health of women in their 50's is as good as, or better than, that of women in their 20's and 30's."

About 80 percent of the nearly three million American women aged 50 to 60 who graduated from college are in the work force today, according to estimates based on new data collected by the Labor Department which has just begun to break down employment regularly by age and education. Nearly three-quarters hold full-time jobs. Both figures roughly match those of any group of younger college educated women.

Employment among all women in their 50's, educated or not has also risen steeply in the last decade to 8.1 million women or 65 percent of this age group; up from 54 percent in 1984. College educated women accounted for most of the gain, Labor Department officials assert.

Although the noncontributory and nonfunded features of the

retirement system have thus far survived, there is a continual movement in the direction of defining the benefits more on the order of the "pension" than the "pay" model (Sharp and Biderman, 1966).

One casualty of this trend has been the principle of "recomputation," that is, recomputing retired pay to reflect any changes in active duty pay, as opposed to the alternative principle of readjusting retired pay to reflect changes in the cost of living.

This issue has been debated heatedly in Congress for a number of years. In 1958, compromise legislation created a situation in which persons retired after the 1958 military pay bill received retired pay based on the new higher rate for active duty personnel, while those retired earlier were granted a cost-of-living increase. The principle of recomputation has been most prominent legislative cause of retired officers ever since. The complaints of their organization representatives regarding the inequities of the abandonment of recomputation of retired pay continue with undiminished vigor, even though Congress has explicitly rejected their appeal in each change that has been made in military pay during the 1960s. Communiqués on the running battle over recomputation appear regularly in the Retired Officer Association's magazine, Retired Officer.

With each successive military pay increase, greater disparities are created between the retired pay of those who retired at a given rank and period of service in earlier years

and the pay of more recently retired personnel, since military pay has been going up considerably more rapidly than the Bureau of Labor Statistics consumer price index to which retired pay is tied. The increases have been especially great at the higher ranks. From a military point of view, there is a peculiar offensiveness to the system of rates based on rise in the cost-of-living in that seniors (those of a given rank who retired earlier) receive less pay than their juniors (those who achieved the same or even a lower rank later and retired later). The retirement pay of a brigadier general who retired with thirty years of service in 1958, for instance, would be computed on basic pay of \$780.00 per month, whereas the pay of a colonel retiring with thirty years of service on 1968 would be computed on basic pay of \$895.00. The differences can be substantial--as much as twenty-five percent.

Recomputation has been a strong rallying cry for the military retired. Its abandonment as the basis of calculating retired pay has been regarded as not merely creating an anomaly but as "a breach of contract with the men who led our forces in two great wars."

Despite the large number of studies that have been conducted, however, it is not possible to give satisfactory answer to the question most often asked about the retired serviceman. "How well off is he compared to his situation in the service?" The reason for this is not a paucity of apparently reliable information on second-career earnings, but rather the inability

of the retirees themselves or anybody else to assign a definite value to their preretirement, active-duty earnings. There is, first of all, the extremely difficult problem of attaching specific monetary values to various fringe benefits and government-provided services which active-duty military personnel receive, and the further complication that some retirees continue to receive some of these services. Beyond this, the relative economic well-being of the retiree in civilian life involves the broader problem of the need of retirees to adopt different patterns and styles of life which present different needs for monetary outlays than is the case during active duty. For example, when one is able to plan ahead on the basis of taking one's place of residence for granted, expenses are likely to be less. On the other hand, living totally in the civilian community may require greater cash outlays to achieve various satisfactions of life than living within the military society.

On the average, it appears that retirees' postretirement income, including retired pay, is at least roughly equal to the total emoluments of active duty. But this means that many experience a decline in their style of living while others end up better off. If very substantial numbers experience severe economic hardship after retirement, even though they are a minority of all retired personnel, news of this would have serious adverse effects on the ability of the armed forces to recruit and retain career servicemen. Apart from the rhetoric

about "doing the right thing by our fighting men," there is this pragmatic consideration to the level of retirement benefits and the successful placement of retirees in second careers.

CHAPTER III

FINDINGS

This chapter reports the findings for the sample group as a whole, relating the independent variables represented by the survey questions to the dependent variable represented by the transition index. Also presented in this chapter, in sequence with the findings for the group, are the findings for the two component subgroups by retirement date. Cohort A includes those officers who retired between July 1, 1979, and June 30, 1985 and Cohort B consists of those officers who retired between July 1, 1985 and June 30, 1991. Throughout the chapter, both explanatory and conjectural observations are included in an effort to provide greater meaning to the finds.

Demographics and Base Data

Table 1 shows the application of the transition index to the two retirement date group or cohorts.

TABLE 1**RETIREMENT DATE VS. TRANSITION INDEX
(Percentages)**

<u>Retirement Date</u>	<u>Group (N=1259)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=463)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=410)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=386)</u>
7/1/79 - 6/30/85 (Cohort A. N=633)	50.3	56.6	52.7	40.2
7/1/85 - 6/30/91 (Cohort B. N=626)	49.7	43.4	47.3	59.8

It should be noted that the numbers of Hi-Y responses (463) and Lo-Y responses (386) are consistent throughout the presentation of group data and are a reflection only of the mathematical application of the transition index. That is to say, the sizes of the Hi-Y, Mid-Y and Lo-Y groups are not at all related, in this case to the retirement date, but reflect only the mathematical distribution generated by application of the transition index.

The data in Table 1 indicate that the group as a whole is fairly evenly divided between the two cohorts with 50.3 percent in Cohort A and 49.7 percent in Cohort B. Similarly, the Hi-Y category is comprised of a significantly higher percentage of Cohort A retirees than of Cohort B. Similarly, Lo-Y is comprised of a significantly higher percentage of Cohort B retirees. It may then be speculated that a Hi-Y transition index is more likely to be associated with a longer period since retirement, a longer period of time in civilian employment and, thus a greater opportunity for promotion, adjustment and progress generally in the civilian occupation. There is also the possibility, among others, that Cohort A members retired at a preferable time in that there were fewer retirees available for civilian occupations and therefore less competition for positions. This finding also goes to the basic premise of the division of the retired population into the two cohorts in that the economic conditions during the span of Cohort A were clearly more conducive to employment than were the economic

conditions which characterized the span of years embraced by Cohort B.

Table 2 depicts the highest grade held on active duty for at least six months which, under normal circumstances, is also the retirement grade. Overall, 05's are the predominant group in the retired commissioned officer corps, constituting 37 percent of the total. When only 04's, 05's, and 06's are considered, the 05 group represents 45 percent of that total and the same percentage obtained in the study. Approximately

TABLE 2
HIGHEST GRADE HELD ON ACTIVE DUTY
(Percentages)

<u>Highest Grade (Rank)</u>	<u>Group</u> <u>(N=1259)</u>	<u>Hi-Y</u> <u>(N=463)</u>	<u>Mid-Y</u> <u>(N=420)</u>	<u>Lo-Y</u> <u>(N=386)</u>
06 (Colonel, Captain)	29.8	34.8	25.4	28.5
05 (Lt. Colonel, Commander)	45.5	45.6	47.1**	43.8
04 (Major, Lt. Commander)	24.7	19.7	27.6	27.7

**Significant at the .05 level

the same percentage of the group falls into the Hi-Y and Lo-Y categories, respectively. However, it is clear from table 2 that the 06 group is represented in the Hi-Y category by a larger percentage than is represented by the 05s, who in turn

are more apt to have a favorable transition than are 04s.

Table 3 and 4 show that the same factors to a different degree hold true for the earlier and later cohorts. The most visible difference would appear to be that the efficacy of the transition for grade 06 is even more pronounced for the Cohort B group than Cohort A group. The conclusion, however, must be tempered by the fact that there are considerably more 06s in Cohort B than in Cohort A. By the same token, it is apparent that the Cohort B 04s have made a less favorable transition than their Cohort A counterparts. Again, it should be recalled that there are relatively more 04s in Cohort A than Cohort B. Nevertheless, it appears that the transition to civilian employment favors higher rank.

TABLE 3

**HIGHEST GRADE HELD ON ACTIVE DUTY, COHORT A
(Percentages)**

<u>Highest Grade (Rank)</u>	<u>Cohort A (N=633)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=235)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=160)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=238)</u>
06 (Colonel, Captain)	23.2	29.8	22.5	17.2
05 (Lt. Colonel, Commander)	45.8	43.8	48.8	45.8
04 (Major, Lt. Commander)	31.4	26.4	28.8	37.0

TABLE 4
HIGHEST GRADE HELD ON ACTIVE DUTY, COHORT B
(Percentages)

<u>Highest Grade (Rank)</u>	<u>Cohort B (N=626)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=214)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=191)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=221)</u>
06 (Colonel, Captain)	36.4	42.1	30.4	36.2
05 (Lt. Colonel, Commander)	45.2	45.8	46.1	43.9
04 (Major, Lt. Commander)	18.4	12.1	23.6	19.9

The length of service is interrelated with other variables as set forth in Table 5. Table 5 and 6 show that Cohort A and B generally follow the group with the Hi-Y group in Cohort A showing a slight preference for lesser years of active service while the Hi-Y group of Cohort B has shown a slight preference for longer service. These findings are not considered significant, however, because of the narrow distribution of 06's.

TABLE 5
YEARS OF ACTIVE MILITARY SERVICE, COHORT A
(Percentages)

<u>Year of Active Military Service</u>	<u>Cohort A (N=633)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=235)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=160)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=238)</u>
25 - 30	67.2	65.1	67.5	69.3
20 - 24	32.7	34.9	32.5	30.7

TABLE 6
YEARS OF ACTIVE MILITARY SERVICE, COHORT B
(Percentages)

<u>Years of Active Military Service</u>	<u>Cohort B (N=626)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=214)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=191)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=221)</u>
25 - 30	45.2	47.2	46.1	42.5
20 - 24	54.8	52.8	53.9	57.5

TABLE 7

**AGE AT RETIREMENT, CURRENT AGE AND YEARS SINCE
RETIREMENT (DIFFERENTIAL), COHORT B
(Years)**

<u>Age</u>	<u>Cohort B (N = 626)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N = 214)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N = 191)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N = 221)</u>
Currently	51.9	51.9	51.6	52.1
At Retirement	47.4	47.3	47.3	47.6
(Differential)	4.5	4.6	4.3	4.5

Table 8 reflects the long held findings that higher educational level is positively related to a more favorable transition to civilian occupation.

TABLE 8

**CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LEVEL
(Percentages)**

<u>Current Educational Level</u>	<u>Group (N=1259)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=463)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=410)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=386)</u>
Doctorate or Post Doctoral	6.1	11.4	3.9	2.1
Master's or Higher	39.1	48.6	37.6	29.3
Bachelor's or Higher	67.9	72.4	67.8	62.7
High School Completion or Higher	99.8	100.0**	100.0**	99.5
less than High School	.2	.0	.0	.5

**Significant at the .05 level

Fully two-thirds of all officers in the sample are college graduates and nearly forty percent hold graduate degrees. In this regard, it should be pointed out that the holders of doctoral degrees include physicians and attorneys and that these professionals would appear from their responses to comprise the major share of those holding terminal degrees. Certainly, retired officers are a well educated group in comparison with the general adult population. Officers in Cohort B reflect a slightly higher overall education level than in the earlier Cohort A group, with the exception of doctorates, which is consistent with the continuing efforts of the Armed Forces to upgrade the educational levels of their members.

TABLE 9
CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LEVEL, COHORT A
(Percentages)

<u>Current Educational Level</u>	<u>Cohort A (N = 633)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=235)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=160)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=238)</u>
Doctorate or Post Doctoral	6.8	14.0	3.1	2.1
Masters or Higher	38.5	48.5	40.6	17.3
Bachelors or Higher	64.0	69.4	68.1	55.9
High School Completion or Higher	99.7	100.0	100.0	99.2
Less than High School	.3	.0	.0	.8

TABLE 10
CURRENT EDUCATIONAL LEVEL, COHORT B
(Percentages)

<u>Current Educational Level</u>	<u>Cohort B (N = 626)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=214)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=191)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=221)</u>
Doctorate or Post Doctoral	5.4	9.8	4.2	2.3
Master's or Higher	39.6	48.1	39.8	31.2
Bachelor's or Higher	71.9	75.7	71.2	68.8
High School Completion or Higher	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Less than High School Completion	.0	.0	.0	.0

TABLE 11
SERVICE (ARMED FORCE)
(Percentages)

<u>Service</u>	<u>Group</u> (N=1259)	<u>Hi-Y</u> (N=463)	<u>Mid-Y</u> (N=410)	<u>Lo-Y</u> (N=386)
U.S. Army	41.4	45.8**	40.2	37.3
U.S. Air Force	35.0	30.0	37.3	38.6
U.S. Navy	19.9	20.3	18.3	21.0
U.S. Marine Corps.	3.5	3.9	3.4	3.1
No Response	.2	.0	.7	.0

**Significant at the .05 level

Table 11 ranks the Services by their size in the sample and in the retired population. Although it is apparent from Table 11 that the Army is represented in the Hi-Y column in excess of its percentages in the sample, while the reverse is true for the Air Force, the previously reported questions in the sample must be recalled here. The Army's sample has a significant excess of 06s, while the Air Force sample has a significant deficiency in 06's. As 06s are more predominantly Hi-Y's, one might be wrongly persuaded by Table 11 that service in the Army is more likely to lead to success in civilian life than is service in the Air Force. The fact is that service as an 06 is more likely to lead to success in retirement than is service as an 04 and the rank effect indicated seems to have

greater influence over the level of transition than does service affiliation. Tables 12 and 13 are consistent in their presentation of this same information and additionally reflect the higher rank of Cohort B.

TABLE 12
SERVICE (ARMED FORCE), COHORT A
(Percentages)

<u>Service</u>	<u>Cohort A</u> <u>(N = 633)</u>	<u>Hi-Y</u> <u>(N=235)</u>	<u>Mid-Y</u> <u>(N=160)</u>	<u>Lo-Y</u> <u>(N=238)</u>
U.S. Army	39.6	43.0	40.0	36.1
U.S. Air Force	37.3	31.1	37.5	43.3
U.S. Navy	19.3	23.0	16.9	17.2
U.S. Marine Corps.	3.5	3.0	5.0	2.0
No Response	.3	.0	.6	.6

TABLE 13
SERVICE (ARMED FORCE) COHORT B
(Percentages)

<u>Service</u>	<u>Cohort B</u> <u>(N = 626)</u>	<u>Hi-Y</u> <u>(N=214)</u>	<u>Mid-Y</u> <u>(N=191)</u>	<u>Lo-Y</u> <u>(N=221)</u>
U.S. Army	43.1	49.5	36.6	42.2
U.S. Air Force	32.7	29.4	33.5	35.3
U.S. Navy	20.4	17.3	25.1	19.5
U.S. Marine Corps.	3.5	3.7	4.2	2.7
No Response	.2	.0	.5	.0

Table 14 depicts the source of commission and its relationship to the transition to civilian employment

TABLE 14

**SOURCE OF COMMISSION
(Percentages)**

<u>Source of Commission</u>	<u>Group (N=1259)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=463)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=410)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=386)</u>
Academy	11.0	11.2	10.5	11.1
Direct	15.2	17.5	18.0	9.3
ROTC	16.1	18.1	14.1	15.8
OCS/OTS	26.1	26.6	24.6	26.9
Other	31.6	26.6	32.7	36.5*
No Response	.1	.0	.0	.3

*Significant at the .01 level

The data in Table 14 must be approached cautiously because of the high number of 'other' responses and because of the variations in terminology in and among the Services. Furthermore, there is the possibility of multiple commissions and/or multiple sources of commissions. Probably the Academy information represents the most reliable data. In view of the widely held belief that an academy provides probably the best preparation for a career as a military officer, it might be expected that retirees with an academy background would be found disproportionately in the Hi-Y column. Yet this is not

significant at this level.

TABLE 15
SOURCE OF COMMISSION, COHORT B
(Percentages)

<u>Source of Commission</u>	<u>Cohort B (N = 191)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=214)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=191)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=221)</u>
Academy	10.7	10.3	12.6	9.5
Direct	13.7	20.6	14.1	6.8
ROTC	20.0	20.6	17.8	21.3
OCS/OTS	23.6	23.4	19.9	27.1
Other	31.8	25.2	35.6	34.8
No Response	.2	.0	.0	.5

Table 16 reflects the Regular and Reserve status for the sample group as a whole. This question did not appear along the left margin of the survey instrument and even though it was highlighted in the accompanying instruction sheet for the primary and secondary mailings, there was a relatively high "no response" rate, the highest for any question in the survey. While one may ascertain from the results that the respondents were more likely to be Regular officers than Reservists, the

precise ratio of Regulars to Reserves is questionable because of the number of respondents who did not answer this question.

TABLE 16

**REGULAR OR RESERVE STATUS
(Percentages)**

<u>Regular/Reserve</u>	<u>Group (N=1259)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=463)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=410)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=386)</u>
Regular	60.4	62.6*	57.8	60.4
Reserve	21.6	17.5	25.6	22.3
No Response	18.0	19.9	16.6	17.4

*Significant at the .01 level

TABLE 17

**REGULAR OR RESERVE STATUS, COHORTS A
(Percentages)**

<u>Regular/Reserve</u>	<u>Group (N = 633)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=235)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=160)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=238)</u>
Regular	55.9	63.4	62.5	44.1
Reserve	25.8	19.1	20.6	35.8
No Response	18.3	17.4	16.9	20.2

Table 17 indicates a high number of Lo-Y Reservists and lower number of Lo-Y. Regulars compared to the group or to cohort B (Table 18), it is questionable whether or not any significance should be drawn from this because of the high no response rate.

TABLE 18

**REGULAR OR RESERVE STATUS, COHORT B
(Percentages)**

<u>Regular/Reserve</u>	<u>Cohort B (N = 626)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=214)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=191)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=221)</u>
Regular	64.9	60.3	66.5	67.9
Response	17.4	16.8	18.8	16.7
No Response	17.7	22.9	14.7	15.4

Table 19 shows that fewer than four percent of the sample suffer from major physical disabilities and, it should be recalled, all the respondents are employed on a full-time basis.

TABLE 19

**STATED PHYSICAL DISABILITY
(Percentages)**

<u>Stated Physical Disability</u>	<u>Group (N = 1259)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=463)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=410)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=386)</u>
None	75.5	77.8	77.3	70.7
Minor	20.9	17.9	19.5	25.9
Major	3.1	3.9	2.0	3.4
100%	.2	.0	.7	.0
No Response	.3	.4	.5	.0

Although there are minor variations in the presence or extent of physical disabilities as reported by the group, it appears that full-time employees minimize their physical disabilities. Perhaps the Lo-Y retirees may attribute some aspects of their less favorable transition to minor disabilities. This occurs among lower percentage of Lo-Y retirees reporting "none" in comparison with those reporting some degree of physical disability.

Activities While in Military Service

Table 20 depicts the major activity of respondents during their final years in the military service as related to the transition index. The listing of activities is ranked by the percentage frequency indicated by the group as a whole. Within the group, some activities are associated more with Hi-Y transition while others are more associated with a Lo-Y transition. The activities which appear more likely to have Hi-Y association are as follows:

1. Professions
2. Research and development, systems
3. Engineering
4. Personnel, Finance, Public relations

The activities having greater association with a Lo-Y transition are as follows:

1. Aviation
2. Combat or Combat readiness
3. Supply, transportation

The balance of the activities of the final ten years in the Service do not reflect a significant association with either Hi-Y or Lo-Y transition. While tables 21 and 22 reflect some difference in degree for Cohorts A and B, the direction is essentially the same where the percentages are large enough to reflect significance. In summary, it does appear that the primary activities in the final ten years of service do in some cases relate to a more or less favorable transition to civilian occupation.

TABLE 20**MAJOR ACTIVITY DURING LAST TEN YEARS IN THE SERVICE
(Percentages)**

<u>Major Activity During Last Ten Years in the Service</u>	<u>Group (N = 1259)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=463)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=410)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=386)</u>
Combat or Combat Readiness	18.5	16.8	15.9	23.3
Aviation	18.3	14.3	19.5*	22.0
Personnel, Finance Public Relations	12.9	15.8	11.0	11.4
Supply, Transportation	8.6	6.0	9.8	10.9
Professions	8.2	11.7	8.0	4.1
Engineering	7.8	9.3	6.1	6.0
Research and Development Systems	6.2	7.6	6.1	4.7
Combination, Signal Electronics	4.9	4.8	5.1	4.9
Ordnance, Maintenance and Repairs	3.4	3.2	3.4	3.6
Information Services, Data Processing	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.8
Other	9.0	8.2	11.0	7.8
No Response	.6	.6	1.0	.0

*Significant at the .01 level

TABLE 21

**MAJOR ACTIVITY DURING LAST TEN YEARS
IN THE SERVICE, COHORT A
(Percentages)**

<u>Major Activity During Last Ten years in the Service</u>	<u>Cohort A (N = 633)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=235)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=160)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=238)</u>
Combat or Combat Readiness	18.2	17.9	15.6	20.2
Aviation	17.5	14.0	16.2	21.8
Personnel, Finance, Public Relations	13.0	15.7	11.9	10.9
Supply, Transportation	9.8	5.5	9.4	14.3
Professions	8.0	11.5	10.0	3.4
Engineering	8.8	8.9	10.6	7.6
Research and Development Systems	5.4	7.2	6.9	2.5
Communications, Signal Electronics	5.7	6.0	3.8	6.7
Ordnance, Maintenance and Repairs	3.6	3.4	3.8	3.8
Information Services, Data Processing	1.3	.4	1.9	1.7
Other	8.1	8.9	8.7	6.7
No Response	.6	.4	1.3	.4

TABLE 22
MAJOR ACTIVITY DURING LAST TEN YEARS
IN THE SERVICE, COHORT B
(Percentages)

<u>Major Activity During Last Ten Years in the Service</u>	<u>Cohort B (N = 626)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=214)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=191)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=221)</u>
Combat or Combat Readiness	18.8	13.1	18.3	24.9
Aviation	19.2	13.1	19.4	24.9
Personnel, Finance, Public Relations	12.8	15.4	12.0	10.9
Supply, Transportation	7.3	5.6	9.9	6.8
Professions	8.3	12.6	6.8	5.4
Engineering	6.7	10.7	4.2	5.0
Research and Development Systems	7.0	9.3	5.8	5.9
Communications, Signal Electronics	4.2	4.2	5.2	3.2
Ordnance, Maintenance and Repair	3.2	2.8	4.7	2.3
Information Services, Data Processing	2.1	4.2	1.6	.5
Other	9.9	7.9	11.5	10.4
No Response	.5	.9	.5	.0

Table 23 sets forth the respondents' estimates as to the percentage of their military service in which their abilities were most effectively used. It is heartening to note that some 78.6 percent of the group report that their abilities were effectively used during 60 percent or more of their military service. A somewhat higher percentage of Hi-Y retirees than Lo-Y retirees report that their abilities were most effectively used during 80 percent or more of their military service. Tables 24 and 25 indicate that essentially the same information holds true for both of the cohorts. While there appears to be only little significance to this finding, the matter of most effective use of abilities is discussed later in connection with that same question asked in terms of civilian employment in retirement.

TABLE 23

**EFFECTIVE USE OF ABILITIES DURING MILITARY SERVICE
(Percentages)**

<u>"During What Percentage Of Your Military Service Were Your Abilities Most Effectively Used?"</u>	<u>Group (N=1259)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=463)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=410)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=386)</u>
80 - 100%	40.7	46.0**	36.6	38.9
60 - 80%	37.9	33.0	38.8	42.7
40 - 60%	15.7	14.9	17.8	14.2
20 - 40%	3.9	5.2	4.6	1.6
0 - 20%	.9	.9	.5	1.3
No Response	.9	.0	1.7	1.3

**Significant at the .05 level

TABLE 24

**EFFECTIVE USE OF ABILITIES DURING
MILITARY SERVICE, COHORT A
(Percentages)**

<u>During What Percentage Of Your Military Service Were Your abilities Most Effectively Used?</u>	<u>Cohort A (N = 633)</u>	<u>Hi-Y. (N=235)</u>	<u>Mid-Y. (N=160)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=238)</u>
80 - 100%	39.0	46.0	32.5	36.6
60 - 80%	38.9	31.9	41.9	43.7
40 - 60%	16.9	17.0	21.9	13.4
20 - 40%	3.9	3.8	3.1	4.6
0 - 20%	.8	1.3	.6	.4
No Response	.5	.0	.0	1.3

TABLE 25

**EFFECTIVE USE OF ABILITIES DURING
MILITARY SERVICE, COHORT B
(Percentages)**

<u>"During What Percentage of Your Military service Were Your Abilities Most Effectively Used?"</u>	<u>Cohort B (N = 626)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=214)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=191)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=221)</u>
80 - 100%	42.5	47.2	36.6	43.0
60 - 80%	36.9	33.2	38.2	39.4
40 - 60%	14.4	12.1	18.3	13.1
20 - 40%	3.8	6.5	4.2	.9
0 - 20%	1.0	.5	.5	1.8
No Response	1.4	.5	2.1	1.8

Table 26 sets forth the activities which the respondents

reported liking best about their military duties. Each respondent had, in effect, four votes to cast for ten activities. Table 33 lists the selections in rank order. With few exceptions, Hi-Y and Lo-Y retirees voted consistently with the group as a whole.

TABLE 26

**ACTIVITIES LIKED BEST ABOUT MILITARY DUTIES
(Percentages)**

<u>Activities Liked Best About Military Duties (4 Choices)</u>	<u>Group (N = 1259)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=463)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=410)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=386)</u>
Responsibility	82.8	84.9**	81.0	82.1
Decision Making	63.3	63.7	62.0	64.2
Travel	49.8	52.3	48.3	48.4
Income and benefits	43.1	38.9	43.2	48.2
Mental activity	36.6	35.0	38.3	36.8
Discipline	29.2	28.3	30.0	29.5
Teaching/Learning	26.4	28.9	24.1	25.6
Technical	23.2	24.0	25.1	20.2
Physical activity	17.2	18.6	14.9	17.9
Freedom of action	15.2	15.6	16.1	13.7
No Response	13.3	9.9	17.1	13.2

**Significant at the .05 level

Table 27 indicates that about the same percentage of Hi-Y

and Lo-Y retirees report that they were highly satisfied or high-Average in perceived satisfaction in the Service. Similar relationships hold true for Cohorts A and B as presented in tables 28 and 29, respectively. It is significant, however, that while 80.9 percent of the group reported that they were highly satisfied or high-average in their perceived satisfaction in the Service, only 3.7 percent reported low-average satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

TABLE 27

**PERCEIVED "SATISFACTION" IN THE SERVICE
(Percentages)**

<u>Perceived Service "Satisfaction"</u>	<u>Group (N =1259)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=463)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=410)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=386)</u>
Highly Satisfied	43.1	53.8**	35.6	38.3
High Average	37.8	29.6	52.9	42.2
Average	15.3	13.0	17.1	16.1
Low average	2.6	2.6	3.4	1.8
Dissatisfied	1.1	1.1	1.0	1.3
No Response	.1	.0	.0	.3

**Significant at the .05 level

TABLE 28
PERCEIVED "SATISFACTION" IN
THE SERVICE, COHORT A
(Percentages)

<u>Perceived Service "Satisfaction"</u>	<u>Cohort A (N = 633)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=235)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=160)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=238)</u>
Highly Satisfied	37.1	48.1	31.2	30.3
High Average	41.1	32.3	46.9	45.8
average	18.0	15.3	19.4	19.7
Low average	2.7	3.4	1.9	2.5
Dissatisfied	1.1	.9	.6	1.7
No response	.0	.0	.0	.0

TABLE 29
PERCEIVED "SATISFACTION" IN
THE SERVICE, COHORT B
(Percentages)

<u>Perceived Service "Satisfaction"</u>	<u>Cohort B (N = 626)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=214)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=191)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=221)</u>
Highly satisfied	49.2	59.3	43.5	44.3
High Average	34.5	28.0	35.6	39.8
Average	12.5	9.3	15.2	13.1
Low Average	2.6	1.9	5.2	.9
Dissatisfied	1.1	1.4	.5	1.4
No Response	.2	.0	.0	.5

Again, both cohorts followed the group in this respect. The interesting comparison with this group of tables, however, lies with reports of perceived satisfaction in the retirement occupation as well as was set forth. While 80.9 percent report that they were highly satisfied or high-average in perceived satisfaction in the Service, the considerable lower figure of 67.4 percent reported that they were highly satisfied in their retirement occupation.

Education and Training

Table 30 presents the formal educational level attained prior to entry into military service.

TABLE 30
**FORMAL EDUCATIONAL LEVEL PRIOR
TO MILITARY SERVICE
(Percentages)**

<u>Educational Level Prior to Military Service</u>	<u>Group (N = 1259)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=463)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=410)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=386)</u>
Doctorate or Post Doctoral	2.4	4.5	1.5	.8
Master's or Higher	5.6	8.9	3.7	3.6
Bachelor's or Higher	29.9	32.4	29.3	27.5
High School Completion or Higher	94.48	96.3	93.2	97.8
Less than High School Completion	5.6	3.7	6.8	7.2

*Significant at the .01 level

The intent of including this question was to facilitate a comparison with any improvement in the educational level attained during and/or subsequent to military service. However, the question may not have been optimally formulated and the responses were inconsistent and are not deemed fully usable. However, by interpretation and interpolation, the edited results as depicted in Tables 31, 32, and 33 give at least a general approximation of the educational level at the time of entry into military service.

TABLE 31
FORMAL EDUCATION LEVEL PRIOR TO
MILITARY SERVICE, COHORT A
(Percentages)

<u>Educational Level Prior to Military service</u>	<u>Cohort A (N = 633)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=235)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=160)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=238)</u>
Doctorate or Post Doctoral	2.2	4.3	1.9	.4
Master's or Higher	5.2	7.7	5.6	2.5
Bachelor's or Higher	26.5	29.4	27.5	23.1
High School Completion or Higher	94.3	96.6	93.8	92.4
Less than High School	5.7	3.4	6.2	7.6

Some respondents had multiple entries into military service and were thereby unable to effectively respond to the question. Some academy graduates reported their four years of academy education as having occurred prior to entry into the

Service while others considered it as having occurred after entry into military service--these particular responses were edited to reflect the four years of college after entry into military. In any event, approximately one-third or less of the officers were college graduates when they entered the military service while Table 11 shows that fully two-thirds of the officers have college degrees in their retirement occupations. While only 5.6 percent entered the Service with Master's Degrees or higher, 39.1 percent hold such degrees in retirement. Clearly, the sample officers have markedly elevated their level of formal education during or following their twenty or more years of military service. Table 30 and 31 indicate for the group and its cohorts that the Hi-Y retirees entered the Service with somewhat higher levels of education than the Lo-Y retirees, particularly in terms of graduate level degrees. Further, the Cohort B officers entered the Service with somewhat more education than Cohort A officers. Since Cohort A officers were more likely to enter the Service during World War II while Cohort B officers were more likely to have entered the Service after World War II, the increased entry level education on the part of Cohort B officers is understandable.

TABLE 32

**FORMAL EDUCATION AS SUPPORTIVE OF
RETIREMENT OCCUPATION
(Percentages)**

<u>"To What Extent Has Your Formal Education Been Directly Supportive of Your Retirement Occupation?"</u>	<u>Group (N=1259)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=463)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=410)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=386)</u>
Very Much	31.5	44.1**	30.2	17.9
A Good Deal	21.7	17.9	27.3	20.2
Some	23.1	20.3	22.0	29.0
Very Little	23.1	17.3	20.5	32.9
No Response	.2	.4	.0	.0

**Significant at the .05 level

Table 32 reports the group's response with respect to the extent to which their formal education was supportive of their retirement occupation. While the group as a whole was somewhat ambivalent in its responses, it is significant at the .05 level that 44.1 percent of the Hi-Y retirees reported that their formal education was very much supportive of their retirement occupation while only 17.9 percent of the Lo-Y retirees so reported. Tables 33 and 34 indicate essentially the same responses for Cohort A and Cohort B but it is worth noting that Cohort B retirees are somewhat less enthusiastic in reporting the extent to which their formal education was directly supportive of their retirement occupation.

TABLE 33

**FORMAL EDUCATION AS SUPPORTIVE OF RETIREMENT
OCCUPATION, COHORT A
(Percentages)**

<u>"To What Extent Has Your Formal Education Been Directly Supportive of Your Retirement Occupation?"</u>	<u>Cohort A (N = 633)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=235)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=160)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=238)</u>
Very Much	33.5	46.0	34.4	20.6
A Good deal	23.9	17.4	30.0	26.1
Some	21.0	20.0	18.8	23.5
Very Little	21.3	15.7	16.9	29.8
No response	.3	.9	.0	.0

TABLE 34

**FORMAL EDUCATION AS SUPPORTIVE OF RETIREMENT
OCCUPATION, COHORT B
(Percentages)**

<u>"To What Extent Has Your Formal Education Been Directly Supportive of Your Retirement Occupation?"</u>	<u>Cohort B (N = 626)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=214)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=191)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=221)</u>
Very Much	29.6	39.7	34.0	15.8
A Good Deal	19.5	18.7	20.9	19.0
Some	26.0	20.6	26.7	30.8
Very Little	24.9	21.0	18.3	34.4
No Response	.0	.0	.0	.0

Table 35 sets forth the group's perception as to the extent to which military courses taken in the Service were directly supportive of their retirement occupation. While the

Hi-Y retirees found a higher order of support than Lo-Y retirees, respondents generally have not found their military courses to have been strongly supportive of their retirement occupations. Hi-Y retirees may be more willing to attribute credit to the military courses while the Lo-Y retirees may be attributing an absence of support to their less favorable retirement occupation. Nevertheless, the Hi-Y positive response of 40.2 percent is significantly higher than the Lo-Y response of 23.6 percent. Additionally, the Lo-Y 40.9 percent response that the military courses were of no support is significant when compared with the Hi-Y response of no support by 23.1 percent. Tables 36 and 37 indicate that the two cohorts closely followed the pattern exemplified by the group without significant differences.

TABLE 35

**MILITARY COURSES AS SUPPORTIVE
OF RETIREMENT OCCUPATION
(Percentages)**

<u>"To What Extent Have The Military Courses You took In the Service Been Directly Supportive of Your Retirement Occupation?"</u>	<u>Group (N=1259)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=463)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=410)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=386)</u>
Very Much	11.0	14.9	11.5	6.0
A Good Deal	23.7	25.3	27.8	17.6
Little	36.9	36.5**	28.8	35.2
None	28.2	23.1	22.0	40.9
No Response	.2	.2	.0	.3

**Significant at the .05 level

TABLE 36

**MILITARY COURSES AS SUPPORTIVE OF RETIREMENT
OCCUPATION, COHORT A
(Percentages)**

"To What Extent Have The Military Courses You Took In the Service Been Directly Supportive of Your Retirement Occupation?"	Cohort A (N=633)	Hi-Y (N=235)	Mid-Y (N=160)	Lo-Y (N=238)
Very Much	11.8	17.0	12.5	6.3
A Good Deal	24.5	25.1	30.6	19.7
Little	37.0	35.3	38.1	37.8
None	26.5	22.6	18.8	35.7
No Response	.2	.0	.0	.4

TABLE 37

**MILITARY COURSES AS SUPPORTIVE OF RETIREMENT
OCCUPATION, COHORT B
(Percentages)**

"To What Extent Have The Military Courses You Took In the Service Been Directly Supportive of Your Retirement Occupation?"	Cohort B (N=626)	Hi-Y (N=214)	Mid-Y (N=191)	Lo-Y (N=221)
Very Much	10.2	14.0	10.5	6.3
A Good Deal	23.0	23.8	26.2	19.5
Little	36.7	37.4	37.7	35.3
None	29.9	24.3	25.7	38.9
No Response	.2	.5	.0	.0

Table 38 indicates whether or not the group respondents took any courses or training before retirement for the primary

purpose of preparing for their retirement occupations.

TABLE 38

**PREPARATION FOR RETIREMENT BY COURSES
PRIOR TO RETIREMENT
(Percentages)**

<u>"Did You Take Any Courses of Training Before Retirement For the Primary Purpose of Preparing for Your Retirement Occupation?"</u>	<u>Group (N=1259)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=463)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=410)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=386)</u>
Yes	16.7	19.4	15.1	15.0
No	83.3	80.6	84.9	85.0

The respondents preponderantly reported that they had not taken such courses although a greater percentage of Hi-Y retirees had availed themselves of such an opportunity. The data in Tables 39 and 40 show the overall finding is true for both of the cohorts. However, 20.4 percent of the Cohort A Hi-Y retirees took such courses while 12.6 percent of the Lo-Y retirees did so. This compares with the Cohort B finding that slightly more Lo-Y retirees (18.1 percent) took such courses than the Cohort B Hi-Y retirees (17.8 percent). In summary, few officers took any courses or training before retirement for the primary purpose of preparing for a retirement occupation and of those who did, there was only a slightly higher overall participation by Hi-Y retirees than Lo-Y retirees.

TABLE 39

**PREPARATION FOR RETIREMENT BY COURSES
PRIOR TO RETIREMENT, COHORT A
(Percentages)**

<u>"Did You Take Any Courses, Training Before Retirement For the Primary Purpose of Preparing For Your Retirement Occupation?"</u>	<u>Cohort A (N = 633)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=235)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=160)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=238)</u>
Yes	15.8	20.4	13.8	12.6
No	84.2	79.6	86.3	87.4

TABLE 40

**PREPARATION FOR RETIREMENT BY COURSES
PRIOR TO RETIREMENT, COHORT B
(Percentages)**

<u>'Did You Take Any Courses or Training Before Retirement for the Primary Purpose of Preparing For Your Retirement Occupation?"</u>	<u>Cohort B (N = 626)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=214)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=191)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=221)</u>
Yes	17.6	17.8	16.8	18.1
No	82.4	82.2	83.2	81.9

Table 41 applies only to the 16.7 percent of the retirees in Table 51 who took courses or training before retirement for the purpose of preparing for their retirement occupation. Of this sample group of 210 officers, 61.4 percent took courses aggregating over thirteen weeks on a full-time basis. Tables 42 and 43 indicate that a slightly higher percentage of Cohort A officers and Cohort B officers took courses aggregating thirteen weeks or more but that in the case of both cohorts and the group, a higher percentage of Hi-Y officers took the longer courses as compared with the Lo-Y officers taking the over thirteen week courses.

TABLE 41

**DURATION OF COURSES TAKEN PRIOR TO RETIREMENT
(Percentages)**

<u>Aggregation of Preretirement Training on a Full-Time Equivalent Basis</u>	<u>Group (N=210)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=90)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=62)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=58)</u>
Over 13 weeks	61.4	64.4	62.9	55.2
7 - 13 weeks	17.6	15.6	17.7	20.7
2 - 6 weeks	13.8	14.4	12.9	13.8
Under 2 weeks	7.1	5.6	6.5	10.3

TABLE 42

**DURATION OF COURSES TAKEN PRIOR
TO RETIREMENT, COHORT A
(Percentages)**

<u>Aggregation of Preretirement Training on a Full-time Equivalent Basis</u>	<u>Cohort A (N=100)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=48)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=22)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=30)</u>
Over 13 weeks	65.0	68.8	54.5	66.7
7 - 13 weeks	20.0	16.7	22.7	23.7
2 - 6 weeks	9.0	10.4	13.6	3.3
Under 2 weeks	6.0	4.2	9.1	6.7

TABLE 43

**DURATION OF COURSES TAKEN PRIOR
TO RETIREMENT, COHORT B
(Percentages)**

<u>Aggregation of Preretirement Training on a Full-Time Equivalent Basis</u>	<u>Cohort B (N=110)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=38)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=32)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=40)</u>
Over 13 weeks	58.2	60.5	56.3	57.5
7 - 13 weeks	15.5	15.8	12.5	17.5
2 - 6 weeks	18.2	15.8	21.9	17.5
Under 2 weeks	8.2	7.9	9.4	7.5

Table 42 again applies to the retirees who took pre-retirement courses or training and reports their perception of the extent to which training was directly supportive of their

retirement occupation.

TABLE 44

**EXTENT TO WHICH PRERETIREMENT TRAINING WAS
SUPPORTIVE OF RETIREMENT OCCUPATION
(Percentages)**

<u>Extent to which Preretirement Training has been "directly supportive of your retirement Occupation</u>	<u>Group (N=210)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=90)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=62)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=58)</u>
Very Much	44.8	60.0**	41.9	24.1
A Good Deal	26.2	18.9	37.1	25.9
Little	18.8	15.6	11.3	29.3
None	11.0	5.6	9.7	20.7

**significant at the .05 level

Of the group of 210, 44.8 percent found the courses to be "very much" supportive and Tables 45 and 46 indicate that approximately the same relationship holds true for each of the cohort groups. Significantly, nearly 80 percent of the Hi-Y group reported "very much" or "a good deal" while only 50 percent of the Lo-Y group did so. The Cohort A and Cohort B findings follow suit generally but there is an indication that a somewhat higher percentage of Hi-Y retirees in Cohort B and a somewhat lower percentage of Lo-Y retirees in that cohort

reported positively as to the benefits of the pre-retirement training. This would seem to follow the pattern that Cohort B is somewhat more represented in the Lo-Y group generally and they are perhaps more willing to downgrade any efforts which may not have been supportive of a more favorable retirement situation.

TABLE 45

**EXTENT TO WHICH PRERETIREMENT TRAINING WAS SUPPORTIVE
OF RETIREMENT OCCUPATION, COHORT A
(Percentages)**

<u>Extent to which Preretirement Training has been "directly Supportive of your Retirement Occupation"</u>	<u>Cohort A (N = 100)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=48)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=22)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=30)</u>
Very Much	45.0	52.1	50.0	30.0
A Good Deal	30.0	25.0	31.8	36.7
Little	17.0	16.7	18.2	16.7
None	8.0	6.3	.0	16.7

TABLE 46

**EXTENT TO WHICH PRERETIREMENT TRAINING WAS SUPPORTIVE
OF RETIREMENT OCCUPATION, COHORT B
(Percentages)**

<u>Extent to which Preretirement Training has been "directly Supportive of your retirement Occupation</u>	<u>Cohort B (N = 110)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=38)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=32)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=40)</u>
Very Much	44.5	65.8	43.8	25.0
A Good Deal	22.7	15.8	25.0	27.5
Little	19.1	13.2	12.5	30.0
None	13.6	5.3	18.8	17.5

Table 47 sets forth the group's responses to the question "Have you taken any courses or training since retirement for the primary purpose of preparing for your retirement occupation?"

TABLE 47

**PREPARATION FOR RETIREMENT BY
COURSES SINCE RETIREMENT
(Percentages)**

<u>"Have you taken any courses or training since retirement for the Primary Purpose of Preparing for your Retirement Occupation?"</u>	<u>Group (N = 1259)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=463)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=410)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=386)</u>
Yes	45.4	40.2	46.6	50.3
No	54.6	59.8	53.4	49.7

While nearly half the group has seen fit to take such postretirement courses, it is noteworthy that more Lo-Ys than Hi-Ys elected to do so. In the case of the Lo-Y retirees, it is probable that they elected to do so in response to a perceived need to obtain higher levels of satisfaction and/or to improve their retirement income level while the Hi-Y retirees perceived a less pressing need. Tables 48 and 49 indicate that the two sub-groups followed the pattern of the group as a whole with the possible exception that a higher percentage of the Hi-Y retirees in Cohort A, the group that has been retired for a longer period, have undertaken courses or training than have the Hi-Y retirees of Cohort B.

Of perhaps even greater significance is that post-retirement courses or training appear to be substantially more popular (45.4 percent of the group participating) than pre-retirement courses or training (16.7 percent of the group participating -- Table 48). It can be reasonably speculated that preretirement courses may only have been generalized in their direction while postretirement courses and training, frequently taken concurrently with the retirement occupation, would be directed with much greater specificity to the needs of the individual to better qualify for or perform his retirement occupation.

TABLE 48

**PREPARATION FOR RETIREMENT BY COURSES
SINCE RETIREMENT, COHORT A
(Percentages)**

<u>"Have you taken any courses or training since retirement for the Primary Purpose of preparing for your Retirement Occupation?"</u>	<u>Cohort A (N =633)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=235)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=160)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=238)</u>
Yes	46.6	42.6	43.8	52.5
No	53.4	57.4	56.3	47.5

TABLE 49

**PREPARATION FOR RETIREMENT BY COURSES
SINCE RETIREMENT, COHORT B
(Percentages)**

<u>"Have you taken any courses or training since retirement for the Primary Purpose of Preparing for your Retirement Occupation?"</u>	<u>Cohort B (N = 626)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=214)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=191)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=221)</u>
Yes	44.1	36.4	45.0	50.7
No	55.9	63.9	55.0	49.3

Table 50 applies only to that 45.4 percent of the group that undertook postretirement courses or training.

TABLE 50

**DURATION OF POSTRETIREMENT COURSES
(Percentages)**

<u>Duration of Postretirement Courses or training as if on a full-Time Basis</u>	<u>Group (N=571)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=186)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=191)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=194)</u>
Over 13 weeks	57.8	60.8	57.1	55.7
7 - 13 weeks	16.1	13.4	18.8	16.0
2 - 6 weeks	18.4	16.7	18.3	20.1
Under 2 weeks	7.2	8.6	4.7	8.2
No Response	.5	.5	1.0	.0

As was the case in the pre-retirement courses or training (Table 41), the majority of those undertaking post-retirement training did so for more than thirteen weeks on a full-time equivalent basis. The percentages of Hi-Y and Lo-Y retirees who took post-retirement courses did not differ significantly.

TABLE 51**RESPONDENTS' ETHNIC HERITAGE**

	<u>Group (N=1259)</u>	<u>Hi-Y (N=462)</u>	<u>Mid-Y (N=463)</u>	<u>Lo-Y (N=386)</u>
American Indian or Alaskan Native	.2	.2	.0	.3
Black (not Hispanic)	35.0	30.1	32.0	40.9
Asian or Pacific Indian	2.0	2.9	1.4	1.7
Hispanic	20.7	25.3	27.8	17.6
Whites (not Hispanic)	41.8	41.5*	38.8	39.5

Table 51 reports the group's ethnic heritage as a whole. The ethnic heritages of military officers are classified in the following rank order by percentages: White 41.8, Black (not Hispanic) 35.0, Hispanic 20.7, Asian or Pacific Indian 2.0, followed by American Indian or Alaskan Native 2.

There are significantly more Whites than Blacks or Hispanics in the Hi-Y or most successful retiree group. The minority officers were able to achieve commissioned status and serve for years in responsible roles because the military is a meritocracy. Indeed, a recent Chief of Staff, General Colin Powell, is Black, was the child of immigrant parents, and attended public schools and a municipal college in New York City. In the civilian world, merit would appear to be less important in the achievement of success. Extensive interviews and case studies would be needed before the circumstances of and reasons for the lesser success of Blacks and Hispanics could be fully understood.

While some careers build on a person's existing qualities, the military requires resocialization. Training programs are designed to strip away the self images and perspective that are the results of previous socialization, a process known as desocialization and to give the men and women in the military a new outlook and self-image. Resocialization occurs gradually over a period of time and is experienced differently from profession to profession and from individual to individual. Albert Cohen refers to several stages of resocialization. During the initial stage the military recruits are made to feel different. The veteran officers treat the rookies as novices who must prove themselves. The next stage involves a discrediting process. Military inductees are given haircuts, uniforms, and numbers (on dog tags), and otherwise stripped of their civilian identities. Discrediting serves the dual purpose of breaking down the premature image that recruits have of themselves as ready and competent professionals, and of destroying preconceptions about the career so that resocialization can take place.

Typically, a period of conflict and confusion follows. Most neophytes do not realize that others are experiencing the same conflicts and uncertainty. The combined efforts of feeling different, discredited, and confused lead to despair. The novices are unable to maintain their own sense of self under the onslaught of conflicting norms and values. During these stages the recruits (American Indian, White, Black,

Hispanic, and others) develop a special unified bond. The more recruits immerse themselves in the behaviors of what they hope to become (soldiers), the more sense the new attitudes and values develop. Resocialization occurs in this stage. Recruits begin to disassociate themselves from the general public. A period of self affirmation follows, the recruits internalize the world view of a military career, and accepts its norms and values as their own. Ex-recruits now reevaluate past experiences in the new terms, with some amusement about how naive they were at the outset. The recruit is now a "soldier" and not a Black, White, Hispanic, or Indian soldier.

In mid-1992, there were 1,683,000 military retirees. Retired enlistees outnumbered retired officers by slightly more than two to one. Almost four of five retirees had regular as opposed to reserve appointments. Finally, just over one in seven retirees qualifies under Veteran's Administration rules for disability status. There are the 183,000 annuitants, surviving spouses of deceased retirees.²⁷

The racial and gender makeup of the retired population is quite different from the active and reserve components. Almost all (98 percent) retirees are male--in contrast to the current 89%--11% male-female division in the services. The retiree population also has a lower percentage of minority members, almost all of whom are former enlistees.²⁸ These differences

²⁷ Military Retiree Survey Report," 1992, 22, 25-40, R. Roland.

²⁸ Ibid

are the result of accession pattern before 1970. Then, few women entered the service and most minority members were enlistees. The greater numbers of women and minority officers commissioned after 1970 are only now becoming eligible for retirement.

Despite expectations that the end of the military draft and the advent of an all-volunteer force in the United States would not affect the racial composition of America's military forces, minority recruitment to the U.S. Army increased rapidly in 1973, after the end of military conscription.²⁹ In an early article on the racial composition of the all-volunteer army, Janowitz and Moskos warned of the consequences of a "long-term trend toward increasing concentration of the black minority in the military system." Minority representation increased in the army during the 1970s, and recent research has suggested that as the racial and ethnic composition of the American labor force changes as we enter the twenty-first century, the army may have even larger concentrations of minority personnel.

The expectation that the composition of the force will reflect demographic changes is based upon an assumption that the military tends to be similar to the population from which it is drawn, or that personnel accession policies are designed to produce a military force representative of its host society, or, from a more critical perspective, that the military over-

²⁹ Armed Forces and Society, Vol. 20, No. 4, Summer 1994, pp. 619-632.

represents economically disadvantaged strata of society. From this perspective, minorities are expected not only to be overrepresented in the military through processes of economic conscription, but also to be even more overrepresented in the combat arms, where they would sustain a disproportionate share of combat casualties and fatalities should the nation go to war.

SUMMARY

This chapter discussed the generation and use of a transition index as a tool for the measurement of the effectiveness by which retired military officers have transitioned to civilian occupations on a full-time basis. This index is based on the subjective perceptions of the individual as to his comparative success and satisfaction in his retirement occupation in combination with his reported dollar earnings from his retirement occupation, compared to others in the sample.

By using a statistically significant sample of the population and following accepted techniques for such an evaluation, a basis was developed for the aggregation and then comparison of an extended variety of factors to determine their relative presence or absence among the data reported by the respondents. A further innovation was the division of the twelve year retirement span of the respondents into two cohorts of six years each. This permitted a simultaneous assessment of the possible differing experiences of the cohort groups as well as the group as a whole. The use of the transition index and the cohorts has thus given a new dimension to the study which was not included in earlier studies examining essentially the same areas of concern.

An analysis of certain interrelated base data variables is reported. These findings reveal that positive contributions to a more favorable transition to civilian employment include

the following:

1. Years of formal education (more rather than less)
2. Rank (higher rather than lower)
3. Length of retirement (more years rather than fewer)
4. Age at retirement (younger rather than older)

The findings also show that the Hi-Y category indicating the more favorable transition to civilian occupations, is comprised of a significantly higher percentage of Cohort A retirees than Cohort B retirees. However, years of active service and branch of Service appear to have little or no significance with respect to the transition to civilian occupations. Similarly, source of commission, regular or reserve status, and physical disability status all fail to produce important relationships with respect to the transition.

Turning to the activities of retirees while still in military service, more favorable transition indexes were associated with the following activities:

1. Professions
2. Research and development, systems
3. Engineering
4. Personnel, finance, public relations

Preretirement activities associated with a lower transition index value include:

1. Aviation
2. Combat or combat readiness
3. Supply, transportation

While some of the remaining questions regarding activities in military service produced interesting information, little of significance was developed with regard to the transition to civilian occupations by the group or its cohorts.

With regard to education and training, the findings suggest that the retired military officer has achieved a high level of formal education and that the amount of formal education is closely and positively related to the effectiveness of the transition to civilian occupations. It is also evident that retired officers have availed themselves of opportunities both in and out of the Service to pursue their formal education and those who have had the most effective transition have reported their formal education as having been directly supportive of their retirement occupation. Respondents generally did not find their military courses to have been strongly supportive of their occupations. Comparatively few respondents reported taking courses prior to retirement for the primary purpose of preparing for their retirement occupation. Nearly half of those who did take such courses found them "very much" supportive of their retirement occupation. Nearly half the retirees have taken courses oriented toward their occupations since retirement and most found them productive.

Approximately three quarters of all the respondents entered into some planning and preparation for their retirement with a somewhat higher incidence among the Hi-Y retirees as compared to the Lo-Y retirees. While just under half of all

the officers had a firm grip on a retirement position before the time of their retirement, the number of Hi-Y retirees having their position before retirement is about double the number of Lo-Y retirees. Very few officers received job counseling and if they had it to do over again nearly two thirds of Lo-Y retirees indicate that they should have obtained more job counseling.

The officers evaluated as having had a more effective transition understandably report lesser difficulty in obtaining jobs, lesser limitations imposed by their respective retirement locations, shorter periods of unemployment, and few positions since retirement. More than 40 percent of the retired officers report some relationship between their hobbies or special interests and their retired occupations with a somewhat larger percentage evident among the Hi-Y retirees.

Listed in rank order, the following represent the factors designated by the group as the most important in obtaining their retirement positions.

1. Administrative and managerial ability
2. Ability to communicate
3. Basic qualities (e.g., hard working, common sense, integrity, etc.)
4. Academic credential
5. Specific skill competency
6. Overall military experience
7. Knowledge from formal education

8. Knowing "right people"

With regard to the designation of factors important to performing in their respective retired occupations, respondents set forth the following in rank order of importance:

1. Basic qualities (e.g., hard working, common sense, integrity, etc.)
2. Administrative and managerial ability
3. Ability to communicate
4. A specific skill competency
5. Knowledge from formal education
6. Overall military experience
7. Academic credential
8. Knowing "right people"

While there were some differences between the activities reported by Hi-Y and Lo-Y retirees, the following, in rank order, represent the group's description of their current activities:

1. Professional
2. Manager, official or proprietor: salaried
3. Sales
4. Technical
5. Manager, official or proprietor: self-employed
6. Clerical, crafts, skills or services
7. Other

Although there are variations between the Hi-Y and Lo-Y retirees, the following, in rank order were reported by the

group in describing the nature of their retirement occupations:

1. Professions
2. Personnel, finance, public relations
3. Engineering
4. Research and development, systems
5. Information services, data processing
6. Supply, transportation
7. Communications, signal electricians
8. Aviation
9. Ordnance, maintenance, and repair
10. Combat and combat readiness
11. Other

Hi-Y retirees are a good deal more apt to consider themselves employed in the area or field of their greatest capability. Somewhat more Hi-Y retirees than Lo-Y retirees were of the opinion that their skills acquired in the Service are directly supportive of their retirement occupations. While more than two thirds of the group reported that their most accomplished skill areas are of considerable or extensive use to their retirement positions, more than twice as many Hi-Y retirees as Lo-Y retirees so reported. With regard to the effective use of abilities in their retirement occupations, nearly 80 percent of the Hi-Y retirees said that their abilities were used 60 percent or better while less than 20 percent of the Lo-Y retirees reported a similar use of their abilities.

In their evaluation of the transition from military duties

to a civilian occupation, the group as a whole reported a fairly easy transition: the Hi-Y retirees reported more favorably than the Lo-Y retirees. A favored activity while still in the military service, responsibility continued to rank high among the activities liked best in the retirement occupation. With respect to responsibility in retirement versus that in the service, the Hi-Y retirees report that their civilian occupations are considerably more responsible than those held by the Lo-Y retirees.

The vast majority of working retirees consider themselves to be in career fields in their civilian occupations. Approximately three-quarters of the respondents contemplate the possibility of second pensions to supplement their military retired pay, Social Security benefits and other income sources. The latter finding did not address vesting requirements or the probability of actually receiving a second pension: the question as framed only inquired as to the potential of a second pension from the retirement occupation.

Most retirees are satisfied in their civilian occupations, Hi-Y retirees more so than Lo-Y retirees, but there is an indication of greater perceived satisfaction in the Service than in retired employment. Most retirees are successful in their civilian occupations, Hi-Y retirees more so than Lo-Y retirees, but there is an indication of greater perceived success in the respective civilian occupations than in the Service.

And lastly, only half of all sample members considered their civilian positions to be commensurate with their education, skills and experience. Cohort A feels a bit more positive in this respect than Cohort B while the Hi-Y's of both cohorts are much more positive than the Lo-Y retirees.

A career of military service can include a great variety of occupational experiences. Some career patterns can actually add up to quite useful credentials for remunerative and rewarding civilian employment. Other career lines are presumably of scant value in qualifying one for a civilian job. The most distinctively military specialties--the combat roles esteemed by the soldier--would be those expected to involve the greatest sacrifices. From this standpoint, an equitable military retirement system would compensate individuals in differential proportion to the degree to which their particular service careers affect their second-career earning potential.

The actual degree to which retirees use their military-acquired skills in their civilian jobs is difficult to assess, given the necessarily broad job categories, military and civilian, to which complex job description have to be reduced. Judging from job titles alone, close relationships between military and second-career occupational specialties apparently occur only in a minority of the cases surveyed by Sharp and Biderman (1966). Such relationships obtain more often for enlisted men than for officers, since the former more often have a narrow specialty which they pursued consistently in

their active duty career. But, even among enlisted men, close correspondence between military specialty and civilian job is far from universal. Even in the military specialties, where transfer appears most likely (such as medical and dental specialties; electronic, electrical, and mechanical repairmen; and craftsmen), judgements on the basis of broad job categories indicate that no more than one-third to one-half moved into directly comparable civilian jobs (Sharp and Biderman 1966).

There are, however, a minority of retirees with specialized technical training in such sought-after skills as engineering or electronics. It is these people who usually find civilian placement the easiest. This is not true for all specialties. However, relationships between specialty and job-placement are not so automatic and clear-cut as one might expect.

Among officers--considering only those military specialty groups represented by sizable numbers in the Sharp and Biderman study--those who had been in budgeting and in research had exceptionally high employment rates (over 85 percent employed full-time within six months), while those with ordnance and signal specialties worked full-time (Sharp and Biderman, 1966).

IMPORTANCE OF FORMAL EDUCATION

Educational attainment is consistently found to be the single most important correlate of all measures of second-career success--ease of job finding, earnings, skill-utiliza-

tion, and satisfaction. One consequence of this is that those officers who were able to make the grade in the service on the basis of demonstrated abilities, rather than formal education, are frequently unable to match their military status in civilian jobs.

MILITARY SPECIALTIES AND EARNINGS

Data from the Hubbell Committee's survey on 43,000 of its respondents who had been fully employed during the entire year reaffirmed previous observations that second-career earnings were strongly correlated with education, age, and rank. To examine the importance of military specialties while holding these factors constant, it was determined how large a percentage each retiree's earnings deviated from the average for all other retirees who had approximately the same education, age, and rank as the given respondent. The means of these income deviation scores for general classes of military specialties, generally revealed differences of rather modest proportions. Among officers, only those in medicine stand out, with nurses earning on the average of about twenty-five percent less than other retirees of equivalent age, education, and rank, while other professional medical officers earn about thirty-five percent more than their peers. Those whose principal military specialty was more "military"--that is, tactical operations, general or executive officers--averaged slightly greater incomes than other retirees of equivalent education, age, and

rank. Administrative and supply officers deviated quite markedly in the negative direction. Engineers had a pronounced favorable earnings position in second careers and other nonmedical scientific, technical, or professional specialists also did well.

It is among enlisted men that the combat specialist is greatly disadvantaged in a second career. Infantrymen are at the bottom of the heap in second-career earnings. At the top are technicians and craftsmen of various kinds, particularly those in electronics specialties. The exceptions are medical technicians. Their earnings average appreciably under those of their education, rank, and age peers. Enlisted men whose primary jobs were administrative or service also have poor earnings. With the three variables controlled, however, the differences between the various classes of specialists are not as marked as in raw comparisons. Infantry specialists, for example, average about ten percent less in earnings than other retirees with whom they are matched in education, age, and rank.

MILITARY SKILL UTILIZATION

The Sharp and Biderman study reached the conclusion that highly specific skills of retired military men are not the dominant element in their successful transition to a civilian career (Sharp and Biderman, 1966). In analyzing the considerations that entered into employers' and job counselors' evalua-

tions of retirees' job qualifications, it was concluded that various civilian, common-denominator criteria, such as education, articulation, personality characteristics, and status (for which rank achieved was an indicator), were given uppermost consideration. In both hiring and assigning men, the study found employers usually did not attempt specific matching of jobs and specific military acquired skills.

Although the career soldier (as well as the veteran) generally attaches high value to his experience in the service, many retirees feel that their skills were not utilized in their civilian jobs to the extent that they had been in the military.

Among officers, only those in the professional specialties and those who had specialized in communications, electronics, and research and development reported more skill utilization in their civilian job than in the military. Even among enlisted technicians, mechanics, and craftsmen, who most often found their military specialties helped them get jobs, many say their civilian employers made less, rather than more use of their skills than had the military.

These feelings that their skills are not being utilized do not involve a reassessment on contact with the civilian work world. For the most part, both before and after retirement, Biderman and Sharp's respondents put a high rating on their work qualifications when asked to compare themselves with civilians doing identical jobs. In fact, the proportion of those who consider themselves better qualified than civilians

most often increased after experience in civilian jobs (Biderman and Sharp, 1968). Those who were most successful in the military tend to be most successful in second careers. Studies of the second career jobs held by retired military personnel show very high correlations between civilian income and job satisfaction on the one hand and success in the military career. This is the case if success is measured by service in the more highly regarded military specialties, rank achieved, or subjective satisfaction with one's military career (Biderman and Sharp, 1968).

DISCUSSION

The research questions deal with the significance of formal educational attainment, acquired military skill, and the experience of twenty or more years on active military service in getting, holding and effectively performing civilian work. The findings of this study verify those of earlier studies in that the level of formal educational attainment was found to be closely and positively related to getting, holding, and effectively performing a civilian occupation.

As perceived by a majority of officer retirees, however, military schooling contributes little to occupational success. The relatively few officers who took courses of study while in the Service which were directed toward their civilian retirement occupations did not perceive that such courses were particularly helpful. The minority of officer retirees who

took course work which was directed toward their retirement occupations subsequent to their retirement generally found such courses to be helpful. These courses were more directed toward the acquisition of specific skills which were expected to enhance civilian employment than were the courses taken while still in the Service. Military skills other than the more general skills, such as managerial expertise, were not widely perceived as contributing significantly to success in civilian occupations. The experience of twenty or more years of commissioned military service was perceived to be supportive of civilian occupations on a general rather than specific basis. While a few officers have been able to find civilian employment which built directly on their military experience, a large majority have undertaken civilian pursuits with little corollary to their military service.

We examined whether variables such as age at retirement, age current, years since retirement, length of service, rank, branch of service, regular or reserve status, years of formal education, and source of commission relate to the transition of civilian employment. We found that, age at retirement, current age, years since retirement, rank and years of formal education, all have a positive relationship with the transition to civilian employment. Length of service, branch of service, regular or reserve status and source of commission did not relate significantly to the transition to civilian employment for the sample group.

We also examined if pre-retirement activities such as a vocational interest, additional schooling, counseling and level of retirement preparations relate to the transition to civilian employment. The responses indicate the pre-retirement vocational interests and the level of pre-retirement preparations do relate positively to the transition to civilian employment. Formal education taken prior to retirement relates positively to the transition to civilian employment while other schooling taken prior to retirement has a less significant effect. Counseling, or more accurately, the absence of counseling, is not perceived as having a significant effect on the transition.

We also compared pre-retirement and post-retirement activities in terms of duties performed, responsibility levels, self-perceptions of success and satisfaction and the utilization of individual abilities. In the broader sense, there are some general relationships between pre- and post retirement activities in terms of duties performed. Retired officers perceive a substantially lower level of responsibility associated with their retirement occupations than they did with their military duties. However, those officers that have most effectively transitioned to civilian occupations continue to have significant responsibility associated with their retirement occupations.

As a group, retired officers perceived themselves as slightly more "successful" in their civilian occupations than they were in the Service. In terms of "satisfaction", a slight

preference was expressed for satisfaction in the Service in comparison with the retirement occupations. There were broad variations in terms of individual and cohort patterns. There is also a slight indication that the group's abilities were more effectively used in the military service than they are in their respective retirement occupations.

How do the two six-year cohorts' experiences differ with regard to getting, holding, and effectively performing civilian occupations? By way of comparison between Cohorts A and B, the former, on the average, have been somewhat more successful in entering and effectively performing civilian occupations. The significant differentiating issue between the cohorts is the length of time retired. It would appear that time is required after the military retiree leaves the Service before he or she achieves an income and a level of satisfaction and success that he perceives to be satisfactory.

There are variations in the cohort experience for virtually every question posed in the basic survey. These variations range from insignificant to substantial.

Considering the generally favorable economic climate existing during the retirement period of the earlier cohort and the less favorable economic climate during the retirement period of the later cohort, are there differences with regard to their comparative transition to civilian employment? It has been demonstrated that a higher percentage of the members of the earlier cohort have attained a more favorable transition

than is the case for the later cohort. While the members of Cohort B are more apt to have attained a higher level of formal education, achieved higher rank and are younger than the members of Cohort A, they have failed to report the levels of satisfaction, success and current earnings which were reported on the average, by the members of Cohort A. The difference seems to be related to the length of time retired. It is possible that the differing economic conditions of the two periods may underlie the fact that the length of time retired is such a critical determinant.

What conclusions may be drawn based on the transition experience of the sample group? Officers on active duty may aid their retirement transition by the following:

1. Attain the highest possible level of formal education
2. Have a job in hand before leaving the service
3. Be aware that, on balance, the levels of satisfaction and success realized during military service are among the best predictors of the levels of success and satisfaction which will be found in civilian employment.
4. Consider that younger officers tend to make the transition to civilian occupations more effectively than those with more years of service.
5. Be aware that approximately one-half of the officers who retire find it more difficult to find a suitable retirement position than they expected.

We sought findings and/or recommendations which might

assist retired officers in achieving an improved situation with regard to their retirement occupations. The following findings are applicable to this group:

1. Retired officers who have the opportunity to improve their level of formal education may find this conducive to an improved retirement position.

2. Courses taken in retirement in preparation for a specific retirement skill or occupation have proved helpful for some retirees.

3. Recently retired officers should be aware that other retired officers have found that their situation improves after five or six years in retirement. It clearly requires time and effort to become fully established in a new career.

A number of our findings and/or recommendations can be of use to educational and/or vocational counselors in their relationships with pre- and/or post retirement military officers.

Are there findings and/or recommendations which might assist persons other than military retirees to effect more successful mid-life career changes? While no specific relationships have been drawn between military officer retirees and civilian executives who may undergo mid-life career changes, the generalized experience of retired military officers may be relevant. Such findings as the desirability of increased formal education and the recognition that time may be required after the change is made before full fruition can be achieved,

may be of concern to the non-military career changer. Certainly many similarities can be drawn between the career experiences of military officers and executives, particularly those who have been intimately involved in the career development typical of civilian activities associated with military activity, such as defense industry. The same holds true for civilian executives, such as leaving one manufacturer of chemicals to join another manufacturer of chemicals. On the other hand, military or civilian career changers may move to careers which are totally different from their original activity. The point is that military and civilian career changes may in many cases have parallel and relatable experiences and for that reason, with appropriate qualifications, the findings set forth in this study for military officers may have a significant relationship with the experiences of civilian executives who elect to change careers under similar circumstances.

The sociologist's interest in man's work and occupation and second careers is of long standing. In much of the writing of sociology one finds both implicit and explicit reference to work, occupations, and professions. Empirical research in occupations, however, is of more recent origin; it has developed largely since the late 1940's in the United States. In recent years the amount of empirical inquiry into the nature and condition of occupations has been vast, and the body of information is more than sufficient for it to be distinguished as one of the important areas of sociological inquiry.

Division of labor is a central notion in occupational sociology. Important writings which stated the notion date from the early period of sociology in Europe; Emile Durkheim's The Division of Labor in Society. (1893), is a signal example of this contribution. The working conditions of people in several occupations constituted part of the empirical inquiry of Frederick LePlay. Max Weber contributed to the understanding of occupations in his emphasis on political, scientific, and professional work. The salaried employee and the manual worker were studied in Germany. These writings and others illustrate the questions concerning occupational man from an early time in European sociology.

The American sociological experience in the study of occupations is viable, colorful, and important. In the United States, occupational sociology reached high importance, indeed fashion, in the early years (1920 to 1930) at the University of Chicago. First, there were the studies of the low status occupations. These included hoboes, prostitutes, jackrollers, and taxi dance hall girls. Soon they were supplemented by studies of schoolteachers, salesladies, and waitresses. The study of occupations spread to other universities, professionals--academic men, physicians, ministers, and others.

Frenkel-Brunswick (1963) notes that career change or second career may be part of the upheaval associated with mid-life transition. Further, Thomas (1975) suggests that those who change careers in mid-life may be a particularly relevant

focus of study for the understanding of adult development.

Murphy (1976) reviewed the literature in regard to mid-life transition, and conclude that:

The studies reviewed indicate that mid-life is a time of major change or even crisis in self-concept. It follows, therefore....that at mid-life one's career may no longer be an accurate expression of that change self-concept and that a change or adjustment may have to be made. The mid-life career developmental stage is characterized, then, by the theme of a reevaluation of one's self-concept leading to a readjustment....in one's career.

In his research, Thomas found that some, but not all, subjects changed their life structure prior to changing careers or going into their second career. In other cases, career change or second careers occurred without change in life structure, and still other subjects remained in the same jobs but altered their life structure. Thomas later remarks: "It could well be that the mid-life career changer is only the tip of an iceberg of job discontent and alienation among middle-aged managers and professionals.

In a later study, Thomas (1979) investigated the motivation behind mid-life career change. Subjects were 73 men between 35 and 54 years of age, who voluntarily changed from managerial, professional, and professional technical careers. Data collection involved semi-structured personal interviews and several attitude and personality measures. Thomas found no support for the theory that career change is due to dissatisfaction with the general social and economic system. Neither did his findings suggest that obsolescence of skills necessitated career change, nor that decreased financial responsibili-

ty facilitated the changes. Instead, he reports that the data indicate:

That psychological and sociological changes that occur at mid-life trigger career redirection.... The two most frequent [reasons for career change] given were to find more meaningful work, indicated by 79 percent of the respondents, and to bring about a better fit between values and work, a reason given by 69 percent.... Thus it would seem that a strong case can be made that these men were acting on their earlier "dream" as a major factor responsible for mid-career change.

Thomas also feels that several social factors currently facilitate career change. These include greater tolerance for those who differ from the norm, greater affluence, and rapid changes in the work environment. These changes reduce the pressure for a person to remain in one career his entire working life, and make it easier for him to shift careers in accord with mid-life personality changes.

Vaitenas and Weiner (2977) also studied factors in voluntary mid-career change. Their subjects were 65 men below age 50 who came for counseling in the process of contemplating career change. They also used 85 controls, and both groups were divided into younger (35 and below) and older groups. Approaching career change from a different perspectives than did Thomas (1979), they conclude that:

Adult career change seems to be associated with factors such as incompatibility of interests with occupation, lack of consistency and differentiation in interest structure, emotional problems, and fear of failure. All these factors, except lack of differentiation, characterized both young and middle-aged changers. The lack of age differences raises the possibility that these factors may long antedate middle life, possibly predisposing individuals to a severe career crisis that may occur at any age.

These researchers acknowledge that some of their scales (e.g., Social Service and Intraception) may not be appropriate measures of the concepts intended to be tested, and that the fact that the career changers had sought career counseling may have biased that sample. It should also be noted that the subjects were tested while in the preliminary stage of career change. It seems likely that some of the measures (for instance, congruity of interests with present occupation, emotional problems, and differentiation of career interest) would be temporarily altered during such a phase. Repeat measures after career change was accomplished and stabilized would have been enlightening. The age division of groups also seems questionable, in view of Murphy's (1977) findings that 37-38 was the age of least emotional stress, and other evidence that 40 is the approximate age of onset of the transition period.

Wilensky (1961) discusses the variable of orderliness of career pattern in relation to social participation. Only about 30% of the middle mass of workers in the United States were found to experience orderly careers. He states that coherence and integration of primary and secondary roles exist when the job-related behaviors become associated with behavior expected in other aspects of the worker's life. "From the viewpoint of the person such roles reduce conflict and choice and make for an easy falling in line".

He found that men with orderly careers are exposed to a

greater variety of people, and have a more orderly, coherent pattern of social participation, and concludes that "a chaotic experience in the economic order fosters a retreat from both work and the larger communal life". Since military careers seem to fit the definition of orderly careers, with coherent and integrated roles, the change from that milieu to a second career that may be markedly less orderly and coherent may exert a strong impact on the person.

Age norms are another factor which may affect the mid-life career changer. As Atchley (1975) comments, "being out of phase [with one's age peers in respect to career] can heighten the prospect for crisis... People who begin careers in their 40s often miss the group support among age peers that their younger colleagues may find".

Neugarten, Moore and Lowe (1965) investigated age norms as part of the extensive Kansas City Studies of Adult Life and found that major life events are widely expected to occur at certain set times.

For the great variety of behaviors, there is a span of years within which the occurrence of a given behavior is regarded as appropriate. When the behavior occurs outside that span of years, it is regarded as inappropriate and is negatively sanctioned.

While subjects generally attributed more flexibility and "liberal-mindedness" regarding age norms to themselves than to other people, the study found that as people age, they hold more strongly to age norms. They also "become increasingly aware of age discrimination in adult behavior and of the system

of social sanctions that operate with regard to age appropriateness". One might anticipate that military retirees would experience such negative sanctions in their attempts to establish and adapt to second careers.

CONCLUSIONS

Military officer retirees continue to make effective transitions to full-time and part-time civilian employment, relying on their educational attainment, skills and experience to bridge the gap and provide the bases for their successful performance.

Officers who were satisfied and successful in the Service tend to be satisfied and successful in civilian occupations. Performance criteria in the Service appear not be unrelated to the performance criteria of civilian occupations.

Retired officers starting civilian careers typically require a period of several years in which to become established.

Younger officers tend to make the transition to civilian occupations more effectively than those with more years of service.

The higher retired pay of the more recent retirees more than offsets their lower earnings from their civilian occupations.

Officers were typically somewhat more satisfied and held significantly more responsible positions on active duty than

they do in civilian life. However, retirees tend to evaluate themselves as somewhat more successful in their civilian occupations than they were in the Service.

Before retirement, officers may improve their likelihood of success, satisfaction and suitable earnings in their retired occupation by:

- a. Increasing their level of formal education
- b. Taking courses or training specifically oriented to the needs of their anticipated retirement occupations.
- c. Having a job in hand before leaving the military service.
- d. Acquiring skills and experience in the Service which are supportive of favored civilian counterpart occupations.
- e. Placing retirement location emphasis on the availability of suitable employment over other considerations
- f. Giving consideration to following avocational or other special interests if they have the potential of suitable employment.
- g. Emphasizing administrative, managerial and communications skills and training in preference to military oriented skills and training.
- h. Emphasizing professional and salaried managerial qualifications and opportunities in preference to

non-professional, clerical, technical, or sales opportunities or self-employment.

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- d. Acquiring skills and experience in the Service which are supportive of favored civilian counterpart occupations.
- e. Placing retirement location emphasis on the availability of suitable employment over other considerations.
- f. Giving consideration to following a vocational or

other special interests if they have the potential of suitable employment.

- g. Emphasizing administrative, managerial and communications skills and training in preference to military oriented skills and training.
- h. Emphasizing professional and salaried managerial qualifications and opportunities in preference to non-professional, clerical, technical, or sales opportunities or self-employment.

After retirement, officers may improve their likelihood of success, satisfaction and suitable earnings in their retired occupations by:

- a. Increasing their level of formal education
- b. Taking courses or training specifically oriented to the needs of their retirement occupation.
- c. Placing emphasis on any of the factors listed in the above, that may continue to be reasonable options or courses of action subsequent to retirement.

Basic military skills, other than administrative and managerial, are not perceived as contributing significantly to success in civilian occupations. Nevertheless, the broad experience of military service was deemed to be constructive to civilian occupational performance.

Pre-retirement hobbies and/or special interests have in some cases proven beneficial to officers in their retired occupations.

Officers do not place great faith in counseling, do not particularly desire or seek counseling and only those who have made lesser effective transitions to civilian occupations report the need of greater emphasis on counseling.

Officers whose military duties have civilian counterparts, such as the professions, research and development and engineering, are more likely to effect a favorable transition to civilian occupations than are those officers who were primarily involved in the service with specifically military oriented activities such as aviation, combat readiness or combat support.

Pre-retirement planning and preparations for retirement tend to be supportive of a more favorable transition to civilian occupations.

The hypotheses in the study proposed a link among several variables including educational attainments (in and out of the military), the acquisition of administrative skills and managerial experience in the military experience of individuals, or instrumental in effecting a satisfactory transition into a second, civilian career. It was found that general administrative skills and managerial experience, coupled with education in specific professional occupations, greatly enhanced the transition from the military to the civilian sector. Those officers possessing these credentials and cumulative experiences expressed greater ease in the transition and more personal satisfaction in civilian careers. Those who retire earlier

seem to make a better adjustment to civilian worklife although higher ranking officers -- those in 04, 05 and 06 grades -- serve longer and acquire the managerial experience that aids their passage from the military to the civilian sector.

Higher rank entails tasks that are characteristically bureaucratic. Thus, higher ranking retirees move to employment based on administrative managerial, bureaucratic representative skills, more lower ranking officers and other retiring early enter civilian occupations that tend to be based on specific technical skills. Although technical background assists retirees in obtaining employment, higher ranking retirees function in a civilian careers as administrators and managers. Apparently, the assumption is that the final stages of the military career afforded excellent experience in handling personnel.

Retirees are most frequently absorbed by industrial corporations, followed by finance, banking, investment, communications, transportation, trade associations and educational institutions. (The movement into private sector employment may partly result from the Dual Compensation Act, which allows retired officers their retirement allowances if they are not employed by a government agency). This concentration of personnel is not surprising in view of the military services' dependency upon technology. Aside from consideration of hiring competent employees, it is useful for business firms that do business directly or indirectly with the military to hire

experienced officers to handle complex procurement and supply contracts.

If, however, there is a single pattern in the post-retirement occupation and activities of former officers, it is one of diversity.

IMPLICATIONS FOR PUBLIC POLICY

Of more than 345,000 retired military officers, a sizable but unknown number, perhaps one-third, are full-time employees in the civilian work force. As has been brought out, these retired officers are both well educated and skilled and represent a significant segment of the civilian work force worthy. Retired military officers may be well paid in their civilian employment and therefore could be of concern to those who would vie for the same positions. In time of war or preparation for war, many of these retirees could be recalled to active service, thereby leaving a void to be filled in civilian business and industry. Clearly, their impact on the civilian economy reaches far beyond their numbers in view of the stature that many have attained with respect to their civilian occupations, with respect to the tax dollars that are required for their retirement pensions, and in terms of the number of dependents, merchants and others who rely on the retired officers.

At the same time, however, it must be recognized that the mission of the armed forces is to maintain both a well trained nucleus and a force in being to prevent, deter or engage in

combat, as the case may be. It is not the purpose of the armed forces to train its long term personnel for a more effective assumption of civilian employment. To the contrary, undue emphasis on the preparation of officers for civilian occupations would be counter-productive to the development of officers for the continuing mission of the armed forces. While many officers have acquired skills and training which are transferable to civilian occupations, this is clearly a by-product of the maintenance of competency in the armed forces. As a matter of fact, this study reveals that comparatively few officers are the recipients of any direct preparation for their entrance into civilian occupations and those who received even counseling failed to find it supportive. And yet, as long as it is necessary to maintain a substantial standing military force, it will continue to be necessary to transition large numbers of personnel to civilian occupations in order to maintain a youthful and physically vigorous officer corps. Furthermore, any time there may be war or quasi war situations requiring major increases in the armed forces, as has been the case every few years during this century, the condition will be compounded.

Something of a parallel may be drawn in terms of the young officer who enters the Service for only a two or four year period. Many thousands of these young officers and many more thousands of enlisted personnel return to civilian life each year and the armed forces and other civilian agencies do assume

some concern in their transition. However, many of these persons have developed skills which they take to the civilian employment market at the entry level or at least at a level significantly less advanced than that of the officer who has completed twenty or more years on active service. Therefore, in many cases, the short term returnee to civilian life represents a manpower resource who has been trained at Government expense and is therefore a welcome and cost-effective addition to the civilian work force.

However, since the retiring officer has gained the skills and experience of twenty or more years of active service, he will normally seek to enter the civilian employment pool at a similarly advanced level. While the armed forces and other government agencies assume some obligation for the return to civilian life of short term service personnel, only infrequent, sporadic and short-lived programs have been generated to ease the transition of the retiree. Nor does this study affirmatively support a recommendation that the Department of Defense or the Department of Labor take on any particular concern for the transition of retired officers. It would seem advisable, however, that continuing studies track the activities of retired officers entering the work force so that any need for a more positive impact on their transition in the future could be anticipated and effectively implemented on a timely basis. Defense and Labor planners at both the federal and state levels would be well advised to periodically become apprised of the

general status and condition of the transition of retired officers to civilian occupations for these reasons.

The reception of retired military officers by civilian employers has been diverse. Some employers have studiously avoided military retirees while others have sought them out, often because the retiree is expected to be available at a relatively low salary level because of his retirement pay. The situation has become somewhat comparable to the airline industries in their procurement of pilots following completion of military service as a means of effecting major reductions in training costs.

In any event, most military officers seeking civilian positions find them, albeit in some cases at levels significantly below the level at which the officer thinks he should properly be employed. The salary level to be paid the officer becomes a matter of concern because it is well known that he is receiving pay which, for fifty-year-old Army colonels or Navy captains with thirty or more years of service, may presently exceed \$25,000 annually. Many employers reportedly attempt to hold down the civilian salary because of the retirement pay offset. Consequently, the officer not only has the disadvantages inherent to a career change but may also suffer a reduced civilian income. At the same time, however, the retired officer has some flexibility in his attainment of civilian employment by virtue of his retired pay. Certainly one of the considerations in retired compensation planning and

the basic justification for partial retired pay at a relatively early age, is the offset which the retired pay provides the retiree for the penalty of his previous twenty or more years outside the civilian job market.

Because retired officers who desire to do so become gainfully and satisfactorily employed in the large majority of cases, it does not appear necessary that any particular action be taken at a level within business or industry to influence this transition. Medium or larger size corporations, by way of knowledge gained from studies such as this, may choose to avail themselves of certain categories of officer retirees as being particularly suitable to their needs. In this respect, it could at some future time become useful for the Departments of Labor and Defense to make known the findings of studies such as this to middle size and larger civilian concerns which might have use or need for the talents represented by these various categories of officer retirees.

It is not a conclusion of this study that the Departments of Defense or Labor should train or advise retiring military officers with regard to their transition to civilian employment. Neither is it a recommendation of this study that the Departments of Defense or Labor assume the burden of seeking out civilian occupations for officer retirees. To the contrary, it is suggested at least inferentially by this study that the free enterprise system has been effective, in the main, for retired officers making the transition to civilian

employment and that the transition should continue to be given free rein. In this regard, it should be noted that organizations such as the Retired Officers Association serve a useful purpose by continuing to highlight the transition to civilian occupations in their periodicals and other publications. Local chapters of the Retired Officers Association and similar association as well as the Retirement Services Officer on military installations also extend advice and counsel to officers after their retirement.

In sum, it would seem that the primary implications for public policy include the following:

1. Maintain an awareness of the relative numbers and status of officer retirees in the civilian employment pool.
2. Maintain current data on the experience of officer retirees on an ongoing basis in order to anticipate any need for intervention in a timely fashion.

RECOMMENDATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

This study has been based on the experience of a comparatively large sample of retired officers. It has blended these experiences together and has primarily addressed measures of central tendency. It has essentially disregarded individual patterns even though some such individual patterns like those discussed below, may be at substantial variance to the averages.

1. The officer who perceives himself to have been extremely satisfied and successful in the Service but extremely unsatisfied and unsuccessful in his civilian occupation (or vice versa).

2. The officer whose perceptions of satisfaction and success differ markedly. That is, the officer who may perceive himself to be very successful in his civilian employment but who may at the same time describe himself as being extremely dissatisfied. These relationships can also be reversed, in and out of the Service.

3. The officer who appears to possess all the requisites for a favorable transition to civilian employment (e.g., high level of formal education), yet perceives himself to be both unsuccessful and dissatisfied in his civilian occupation and has relatively low earnings level.

The foregoing represent only a few of the numerous examples of individual patterns which may be inconsistent with the averages. For example, there were those who reported that they

were unsuccessful and dissatisfied in their civilian occupations and yet reported earnings of \$50,000 a year and more. Perhaps more understandable is the case of the individual reporting that he is exceptionally satisfied and exceptionally successful with earnings of under \$6,000 annually for full-time employment.

By dividing the respondents into two cohorts, there was the underlying presumption that the relative transition of officers to civilian employment might in some way be related to the economic conditions of the times in which they retired. However, with the data generated, the only generalization that can be safely made is that the transition to civilian employment does not become fully effective until the officer has been retired for some period of time approaching six years. While there may be some underlying implications that the members of Cohort B have made less favorable transitions than the members of Cohort A because of the adverse economic condition at the time of retirement this remains a worthy subject for more detailed study. Interwoven with that issue is the effect of the increasing numbers of retired officers in the civilian work force. That is to say, it is possible been that there was some number of jobs to which officer retirees tended to gravitate and that after these jobs were once filled, the opportunities for further retirees may have been decreased accordingly.

One of the more exciting areas for future research would be in application of our findings in a prospective study of

officers still on active duty.

One seeming inconsistency with the prospect of predictability is the sizable number of cases where individuals appeared to possess most or all the requisites for a favorable transition but yet failed to attain such a favorable transition. Detailed case studies might clarify such anomalies.

It is clear, despite some number of cases to the contrary, that such factors as high level of formal education, having a civilian position in hand prior to retirement, being of higher rank and relatively younger age (see Table 11)--are all supportive of a more effective transition to civilian employment. A useful service might well be provided officers on active duty if their likelihood of an effective transition to civilian employment could be predicted, particularly if this prediction were coupled with advice and counsel as to what the officers should do in order to significantly improve their achieving a more favorable transition.

While the differing attitudes of civilian employers have been implied, the subject would be worthy of further study using new data to ascertain the opinions and attitudes of employers as encountered by officer retirees. Does the fact that one is a retired military officer, of itself, represent a bar or obstacle to civilian employment? Does the age of the retired officer, of itself work to his disadvantage in applying for employment? Does the civilian employer attribute such characteristics as the "military mind" to the retired officer

job applicant? Does the employer apply other stereotyped characteristics as are sometimes associated with the military to the retired officer applicant? Such a study might well determine employer biases which could be treated by way of a variety of offsetting techniques.

In sum, there are a variety of exploratory approaches which can yet be taken with the data at hand and which may be even more fruitful than the work already accomplished. Further, there is the opportunity for longitudinal study using new respondents in Cohorts C, D and so on, and then extending their experience from that reported by Cohorts A and B of this study.

APPENDIX A

TRANSMITTAL LETTER TO STUDY SUBJECTS

Dear TROA Member:

The Retired Officers Association is pleased to offer its support of a nation wide study of retired military officers. The enclosed questionnaire has been designed to elicit information about the experiences of retired officers in their transition to civilian occupations. By obtaining and processing the responses of a limited number of TROA members, the study will hopefully arrive at findings and recommendations which will be of practical use to retired officers, as well as those officers still on active duty who are approaching retirement.

Although this questionnaire will require both thought and time, I hope that an appreciation of its value will guarantee a high percentage of responses so as to produce a true picture of the second career experiences of retired officers. Please be assured that everyone will remain anonymous in this report.

Please participate.

Sincerely,

William K. Lloyd
Major, USAR

Enc.: Questionnaire
Return envelope

APPENDIX B

RETIRED OFFICER QUESTIONNAIRE

VIII What has been your experience in using your pre retirement skills education and training in your retirement activities? Have you continued to use much of what you learned a whole during or before active service? Have you had to learn a whole new bag of tricks? Or are you at some point in between -- using both your military experience and added know-how? If you had it to do over again, would you prepare for retirement - and your second career - any differently?

Your completion of this questionnaire will permit the development of information, which should be of assistance to other retired officers as well as officers still in the Service. Officers on active duty want to know what retirement may hold in store for them and what they should be doing to prepare for it. Also, it may assist fellow retired officers to make adjustments which would enhance their retirement situation as well.

Your help will be appreciated. Please carefully complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it in the envelope provided. No signature is required. If you would like to clarify any of your responses, please do so on a separate sheet of paper and send it along with the questionnaire. Do not alter the questionnaire by adding blocks or checking between blocks -- the computer will have no choice but to ignore your entry. Select the best response of those provided even if it is not exactly suitable in your case. If the choices are too far removed from your situation, do not make any response and proceed to the next question.

1. When did you retire?

A. Between 1 July 79 and 30 June 85	B. Between 1 July 85 and 30 June 91
C. Between 2 July 74 and 1 January 91	D. After 30 June 91

2. Check highest grade held on active duty for at least six (6) months:

A. 01, 02 or 03	B. Maj. LCDR (04)
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- C. LTC. CDR-(05) D. COL. CAPT (06)
E. FLAG RANK (07) or higher)
3. Full years of active duty (not necessarily years for pay purposes):
A. Under 20 B. 20-24 C.25-30
D. Over 30
4. Do you have a physical disability which limits your ability to hold gainful employment?
A. 100% Disabled B. Major Limitations
C. Minor Limitations D. No Limitations
5. Indicate extent of present paid employment in terms of weekly hours worked:
A.0-10 Hrs. B.11-20 Hrs. C.21-30 Hrs.
D.Over 30 Hrs.
6. Sex: A. Male B. Female
7. Regular/Reserve: A.Regular B. Reserve
8. Are your employment opportunities limited because of the retirement location you have selected?
A. Very Much B. Quite a Bit
C. Very little D. Not at all
9. Age at Retirement: 10. Age now:
11. Branch of Service from which retired:
A. Army B. Navy C. USMC
D. USAF
12. What was your source of commission? (First, if more than once):
A. Academy B. ROTC C. OCS
D. Direct E. Other
13. Did you have a retirement occupation in hand before re-

retirement?

- A. NO B.Leads only C.Almost
D. Yes

14. Do you consider yourself in a second career field now?

- A. ...Yes B. No

15. Does your present occupation have the potential of a second retirement pension?

- A. Yes B. No

16. Do/was it more difficult to get a suitable retirement job that you accept?

- A. ... Much more B. More
C. Less D. Much less

17. Compare your general level of responsibility now with your responsibility in the Service:

- A. ... Much more resp. now B. ... A little more resp. now
C. ... A little less resp. now D. ... Much less resp. now

18. Does your retirement employment relate to any hobby, special interest or avocation you participated in before retirement?

- A. Entirely B. Quite a bit
C. A little D. Not at all

19. What was the extent of your retirement planning and preparations:

- A.Virtually none B. A little
C.Quite a bit D. A great deal

20. Indicate the highest level of formal education completed under the headings indicated: (Do not place more than one X in any column.)

<u>Yrs. of</u> <u>Schooling</u>	<u>Before entering</u> <u>Service</u>	<u>During</u> <u>Service</u>	<u>Since</u> <u>Retirement</u>
------------------------------------	--	---------------------------------	-----------------------------------

H/
Sch. 9.....
10.....
11.....
12.....

Col. 13.....
14.....
15.....
16.....

College Graduate

17.....
Masters.....
18.....
19.....
Grad. & Prof. 20.....
Doctorate.....
Post Doctorate.. ..

21. To what extent has your formal education been directly supportive of your retirement occupation?

- A. Very much B. A good deal
- C. Some D. Very little

22. To what extent have the military courses you took in the Service

- A.Very much B.A good deal
- C.Little D.None

23. To what extent have the skills you acquired in the Service been directly related to your retirement occupation?

- A.Very Much B.A good deal

C.Little D.None

24. A. Did you take any courses or training before retirement for the primary purpose of preparing for your retirement occupation?

Yes.....(Answer 25 B & C) No.... (Go to Q. 26)

- B. If "yes", indicate the aggregate duration of the courses or training as if on a full-time basis:

A.Over 13 weeks B.7-13 weeks

C.2-6 weeks D.Under 2 weeks

25. A. Have you taken any courses or training since retirement for the primary purpose of preparing for your retirement occupation?

Yes.....(Answer 26. B & C) No.....(Go to Q. 27)

- B. If "yes", indicate the aggregate duration of the courses or training as if on a full-time basis:

A....Over 13 weeks B....7-13 weeks

C....2-6 weeks D....Under 2 weeks

- C. Indicate the extent to which these courses or training taken after retirement have been directly supportive of your retirement occupation:

A.....Very much B.....A good deal

C.....Little D.....None

26. Check the one box in the left column which most nearly represents your major activities during your last ten years in the Service. Then check one box in the right column which most nearly categorizes your retirement occupation.

	<u>Service</u>		<u>Retirement</u>
A. Engineering	A.
B. Profession (law, medicine clergy, education	B.
C. Supply, transportation	C.
D. Personnel, finance, public relations	D.
E. Communications, signal electronics	E.

- | | | | |
|---|-------|----|-------|
| F. Aviation | | F. | |
| G. Ordnance, maintenance and repair | | G. | |
| H. Information services, data processing | | H. | |
| I. Research and development, systems | | I. | |
| J. Combat or combat readiness activities having no civilian counterpart | | J. | |
| K. Other | | K. | |

27. Check the box which nearly describes your activities now

- | | | |
|--|----|-------|
| A. Professional | A. | |
| B. Technical | B. | |
| C. Sales | C. | |
| D. Manager, official or proprietor: <u>salari</u> ed | D. | |
| E. Manager, official or proprietor: self-employed | E. | |
| G. Other | G. | |

28. Indicate your overall level of "success" in the Service (compare with your peers):

- | | |
|---------------------|---------------------|
| A.Unsuccessful | B.Low Average |
| C.Average | D.High Average |
| E.Exceptional | |

29. Indicate your overall level of "satisfaction" in the Service:

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------|
| A.Dissatisfied | B.Low Average |
| C.Average | D.High Average |
| E.Highly Satisfied | |

30. Indicate your overall level of "satisfaction" in your retirement occupation:

- | | |
|-------------------------|---------------------|
| A.Dissatisfied | B.Low Average |
| C.Average | D.High Average |
| E.Highly Satisfied | |

31. Indicate your overall level of "success" in your retire-

ment occupation (compare with your contemporary military retirees):

- A.Unsuccessful B.Low Average C.Average
 D.High Average E.Exceptional
32. Which response best describes "adjustment" from military duties to the duties of your civilian occupation? ("not your overall adjustment from military to civilian life").
- A.Extremely difficult B. Somewhat difficult
 C.Fairly easy D. Very easy
33. Are you employed in the area or field of your greatest capability?
- A.Definitely so B.Probably so
 C.Probably not D.Definitely not
34. Did you receive a significant level of job counseling?
- A. Before retirement? A.Yes B.No
 B. After retirement? A.Yes B.No
35. If you had it to do over again, would you seek more job counseling?
- A.Much more B.Somewhat more C.No
36. During what percentage of your military service were your abilities most effectively used?
- A.0-20% B.20-40% C.40-60%
 D.60-80% E.80-100%
37. To what extent are your abilities used in your retirement occupation?
- A.0-20% B.20-40% C.40-60%
 D.60-80% E.80-100%
38. Indicate the importance of your most accomplished skill areas to your present position:
- A.Little or no use B.Some use

C.Considerable use D.Extensive use

39. Indicate which of the following activities you like/like best about your military duties and your current position. (Only 8 checks altogether, please, choose 4 under military and only 4 under civilian.)

		<u>Military</u>	<u>Civilian</u>
a.	Physical activity	a.
b.	Mental activity	b.
c.	Discipline	c.
d.	Freedom of action	d.
e.	Teaching/learning	e.
f.	Technical aspects	f.
g.	Travel	g.
h.	Decision making	h.
i.	Responsibility	i.
j.	Income and benefits	j.

40. Which of the following were the most important in getting into and then successfully performing -- your current occupation? (only 6 checks altogether, please, choose 3 under getting and only 3 under performing.)

		Getting Job	Performing Job
a.	Knowledge gained from formal education	a.
b.	Credential established by formal education (such as having a particular degree)	b.
c.	Having a specific skill competency	c.
d.	Overall military experience	d.
e.	Administrative and managerial ability	e.
f.	Ability to communicate	f.
g.	Basic qualities (i.e. Hard working, commonsense, integrity, etc.,)	g.
h.	Knowing the right people	h.

41. How many full or part-time positions have you had since retirement?
 Write in number
42. How long have you held your present position?
 Write in number of months
43. How many months have you been involuntarily unemployed since your retirement?
 Write in number of months
44. Indicate your current annual income before taxes:
 From pension \$..... From current employment \$.....
 From other sources (include spouse) \$.....
45. Do you consider your present position to be commensurate with education, skills and experience?
 A. Far below B. Somewhat below
 B. About right D. Above
46. Did you have any difficulty in acquiring a suitable civilian occupation after retirement?
 A. very much B. a good deal
 C. some D. very little
47. How satisfied are you with the civilian job you ascertained.
 A. satisfied B. very satisfied
 C. somewhat satisfied D. not at all
48. What skills that you acquired in the military were important for your initial civilian job?
 Please comment:.....

49. a. Looking back at your military career would you have preferred a different military career pathway i.e. administrative training (adjutant General Corp. to combat arms training Infantry Corp.)?
 A. Yes B. No

Please comment:.....
.....
.....

49. b. To what extent has your civilian career been:

- A. Not satisfy B. Somewhat satisfying
- C. Satisfying D. Very satisfying

Please comment:
.....
.....

50. Please make any specific comments regarding your military experience and/or civilian experience.

.....
.....
.....

51. What is your current age?

- A. Between 37 - 45 B. Between 46 - 50
- C. Between 51 - 55 D. Between 56 - 65
- E. Over 66

52. What is your current marital status?

- A. Single B. Married C. Divorced
- D. Widowed

53. Which of the following best describe your native heritage?

- A. American Indian or Alaskan Native
- B. Black (not Hispanic origin)
- C. Asian or Pacific Islander
- D. Hispanic

- E. White (not Hispanic)
54. Which of the following best describes your parents occupation?
- A. Managerial B. Sales
- C. Office worker D. Manufacturer
- E. Agricultural F. Law
- G. Transportation H. Education
- I. Medical J. Creative and Performing Arts
- K. Business L. Communications
- M. Engineering

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