IS MILITARY SERVICE GOOD FOR AN EDUCATED WOMAN? WOMEN VETERANS' CIVILIAN LABOR FORCE OUTCOMES

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ABSTRACT

The scope of this research deals with the notion that military service yields higher levels of earnings for individuals who successfully transition into the civilian labor force. Through the Human Capital Theory (HCT) lens, this study assessed the relationship between military connection and civilian labor force economic outcomes for women. The results of this study inform policy makers, military recruiters, civilian employers, and college administrators, with insights into how to support military connected women's transition into the civilian workforce.

This study hypothesized that military service along with the attainment of at least a bachelor's degree would serve as a bridge to higher pay for women after transitioning into the civilian labor force. Drawing on data from the 2017 National Survey of College Graduates (NSCG), the focus of this quantitative study was to investigate how a college education affects civilian earnings. This study compared labor market outcomes between military connected women and non- military connected individuals who have earned at least a bachelor's degree to determine if military service yields an earnings premium.

This analysis determined that in general military connected women do not experience an earnings premium over military connected men and non- military connected individuals when combining military service and education after transitioning into the civilian labor force. Furthermore, this study revealed military does not act as a bridge to higher civilian labor force earnings for women.

This suggests that a bridging environment from military service does not exist for women. Overall this study found that an individual's military connection does not hinder their ability to successfully transition into the civilian labor force. However, it does suggest that military service does not act as a mechanism to move military connected job candidates to the front of the line.

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my beloved grandmother Margaret Pearl Young, for the vision and dream she had for my life. I would not be where I am today if it had not been for her belief in me and the many prayers, she spoke over me. I dedicate my dissertation work to my wonderful family. A special feeling of gratitude to my loving parents, Mary and David Morris for their undying love and encouragement. To my best friend and loving husband Matthew Henderson who has been my biggest cheerleader, encourager, and supporter throughout the doctoral process, I owe a great sense of gratitude. To my beautiful daughters Alexandria and Jessica Thomas, I say thank you for believing in me and supporting me by displaying a level of maturity well beyond your years throughout this journey. I dedicate this work to my dearest cousin Sarah K. Willis for the support and love extended to me throughout my life. I dedicate this work to my dear friend Sophia Payne for the incessant prayers, listening ears, and giving me two solid shoulders to cry on when I needed them most. I also, dedicate this work to my treasured friend Arthur Toler for the versatile vocabulary and vast knowledge of "all things". Without the frequent check-in telephone calls filled with much needed comedic energy, I would never have gotten released from my frequent bouts of writer's block. Most importantly, I dedicate this work my Lord and Savior Jesus Christ for His favor, grace, and mercy for a lifetime.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In 2013 the laws restricting women from taking part in combat missions were reversed. This reversal has led to the rise in women's enlistment into U.S. military service. According to the Department of Veterans Affairs, 2.3 million women have served in the U. S. Military between 1976 and 2018 (National Center for Veterans Analysis and Statistics, 2019). Women have participated in the U.S. Armed Forces since the American Revolution. Currently, they make up roughly 20 percent of new recruits, 14.5 percent of active duty military personnel and 18 percent of the 850,000 reserve personnel. Nearly 280,000 women have served Post 9/11 in Afghanistan and Iraq. While the population of males serving in the military is expected to decline drastically by 2025, the number of women serving is expected to grow dramatically.

This growth supports the idea that the percentage of female veterans will continue to rise even further over the next 30 years (National Center for Veterans Analysis and Statistics, 2019). This level of participation by women in the U.S. Military means that the proportion of veterans transitioning into the labor force will keep pace with the growth. Indeed, while research predicts the male veteran population will decline between 2013 and 2043, the percentage of female veterans is projected to grow (Patten & Parker, 2011). Despite these positive projections in women's military participation, more can be known about the complex relationship between their military service and their civilian labor market outcomes.

The Post-9/11 Veterans' Educational Assistance Act of 2008 (Post-9/11 GI Bill) was enacted on June 30, 2008 (Dortch, 2018). Since 2009, the year the bill went into

effect, American colleges and universities have experienced substantial growth in the enrollment of active-duty service members and veterans (Dortch, 2018). According to the Department of Veterans Affairs, more than 750,000 veterans had used their earned education benefits to enroll in postsecondary education between 2009 and 2010 (U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs, 2010). By 2017, the number of Americans who have earned a college degree hit 61 million, with more than 48 million of these having been employed full-time (U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs, 2017). Nearly, 3.7 million of those college graduates had served on active duty in the U.S. Armed Forces in the past, with more than 250,000 serving presently (U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs, 2019). Until now, little was known about the relationship between a women's military experience, educational attainment, and her civilian labor-market outcomes. Drawing on data from the 2017 National Survey of College Graduates (NSCG), a survey sponsored by the National Center for Science and Engineering Statistics within the National Center for Science and Engineering Statistics within the National Science Foundation, the focus of this study was to investigate how a college education affects civilian earnings. This study compared labor market outcomes between military connected women and non-military connected individuals who have earned a bachelor's degree, to determine if military connected women receive an earnings premium over non-military connected individuals.

The scope of this research dealt with the notion that military service yields higher levels of earnings for individuals who successfully transition into the civilian labor force and throughout their career (Padavic & Prokos, 2017). According to Browning, Lopreato, and Poston (1973), the military provides an environment where an individual can acquire

new skills and abilities that could benefit the person in their civilian career. This study addressed whether these benefits could be realized by military connected women as compared to non- military connected individuals. This study used the 2017 National Survey of College Graduates' data to determine the differences in civilian earnings between military connected women's post-military career and non- military connected individuals.

Historically, military service has been viewed as a "bridge" to greater opportunity for those who serve (Browning et al. 1973). Military service provides service men and women the opportunity for upward mobility, particularly for those from relatively disadvantaged communities. Previous research suggests that military service provides women a" bridge" that gives members of this disadvantaged group skills, knowledge, experience, and credentials that enhance opportunities for mobility in the civilian labor force (Cohen, Segal, & Warner 2015). Moreover, veterans' educational benefits provide an additional layer of mobility for women by offering them the opportunity to attend college nearly free of charge. Beyond this, researcher's further point out that military service provides women with exposure to career advancements, education, skills and training while at the same time exposing them to a formal organizational structure (Cohen, Segal, & Warner 2015).

Recent studies suggest that women veterans face many tough barriers when they join the civilian workforce. (Renn, et al, 2013; Segal, et al, 1983; Zeigler, et al, 2008). Depending on the nature of a woman's military work experience, she faces various barriers (e.g., skills alignment, flexible work schedules, and low wages) when trying to

find work that would allow an equitable skill transfer from the military that leads to her receiving fair compensation. (Kleykamp, 2009)

According to the Department of Veterans Affairs (2019) 21.4 million veterans hold civilian jobs and 2.2 million of those jobs are held by women. There is a growing number of American families who rely on women's wages to make ends meet. According to the Institute for Women's Policy Research (IWPR), "2017, female full-time, year-round workers made only 80.5 cents for every dollar earned by men, a gender wage gap of 20 percent" (IWPR, 2017, pg.1). This finding leads to a stronger need to not only understand but to also close the gender pay gap for women especially for the growing number of women veterans. Because women and men earn equal pay while serving in the military, it is even more important for the women who have served in the military to receive pay equal to that of their male counterparts after they transition into the civilian workforce. This is especially true because women earn less than men in almost every civilian occupation (IWPR, 2017, pg.1).

Significance of the Study

To provide information for policy makers, military recruiters, civilian employers, and college administrators, with respect to military connected women's outcomes, it is important to examine how the bridging hypothesis supports a woman's transition into the civilian labor force. This study estimated the effects of military connected women's earnings from the civilian labor force. The factors under investigation are military connected individuals' civilian earnings and post military civilian earnings outcomes. At a time when women are increasingly becoming solely dependent on their own earnings to

support their families, while simultaneously the growth in women's military enlistment is rising, such research is much needed. This study questioned, if military service is the bridge to higher wages for women who combined military service with higher education attainment to transition into the civilian labor force?

Education benefits draw women to military service

A strategy U.S. military official have used to preserve the quality of enlisted personnel in the All-Volunteer Forces (AVF) has been to recruit increasing numbers of women while at the same time increasing the numbers of military jobs available to them. (Cohen, Warner, & Segal, 2015) As the military continues to grow its female population it has placed a considerable amount of attention on exploring the overall benefits made available to women. In its consideration military officials have placed women's education at the forefront of the discussion. A host of researchers (Cooney & Falk, 2003; Prokos & Padavic, 2000; Segal & Segal, 2003) believe the military serves as a "bridging environment" generalized to women. In turn, the U.S. military serves as an avenue to provide women with opportunities to train in non-traditional environments and for occupations that are male dominated in the civilian labor force. Certainly, if more women are enlisting in the military to take advantage of these opportunities, they will likely seek additional education and training once they leave the military. Research has long shown that education is one of the most significant factors that leads to higher levels of income (Card, 2001). Thus, this study analyzed in tandem the effects of military service on educational attainment to explain the effects on civilian labor force outcomes for women.

Rising Cost of College

The cost of higher education in America continues to rise. The cost of a college degree in this country has risen by more than 500% since 1980. In comparison, medical costs have only risen by about 280% since 1980 while the consumer price index has only risen by 120% (Jamrisko, 2013). The undertone here is higher education is about five times more expensive today than it was 35 years ago. Given the rising cost of college the GI Bill is extremely important; in that it provides veterans the opportunity to get the money they need to cover all or most of the costs of college (see Appendix B).

History of the GI Bill

The original GI Bill then known as the World War Adjusted Act of 1924 was enacted in May 1924, as a "time-delayed" cash bonus made available to veterans based on time served (VA.gov). However, veterans were unable to gain access to the benefit until some twenty years later in 1944 when The Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 was passed. That legislation is more commonly known as the "GI Bill of Rights".

According to the Department of Veterans Affairs, Harry W. Colmery, former national commander of the American Legion and former Republican National Chairman, drafted the first version of the GI Bill in January 1944" (VA.gov). His version of the GI Bill of Rights was more lucrative for veterans in that it included loans for farms or businesses as well as unemployment compensation for those veterans who were unable to find work. Roughly $4 billion in GI Bill benefits were paid to more than nine million veterans between 1944 and 1949. (VA.gov)

During the Korean War era, legislation extended GI Bill benefits to every service member of the military. The Bill was renamed The Readjustment Benefits Act of 1966. (VA.gov) Then in 1984, Mississippi Congressman Gillespie V. "Sonny" Montgomery revamped the Bill again, renaming it "The Montgomery GI Bill". This version of the bill would become an opt-in program offered to new recruits in basic training. It required interested recruits to pay a sum of $100 a month for one year, with the government contributing a larger portion toward the account of every recruit who enrolled in the program. The parties who signed up for the program were required to serve a minimum time in service to be eligible for the benefits. The time commitment varied based on when the new service member had joined. An honorable discharge and a high school diploma or GED were required under this version of the Bill (VA.gov).

The GI Bill was further expanded in 2008, when the new Post 9/11 GI Bill gave veterans with active duty service on, or after, Sept. 11, 2001, greater educational benefits that covered additional educational expenses, such as, a housing allowance, $1000 a year textbook allowance as well as the ability to transfer unused educational benefits to spouses or children. (VA.gov) The Post 9/11 GI Bill also allowed veterans who had exhausted all of the funds allotted to them under the original Montgomery GI Bill to apply for benefits under the Post 9/11 Bill for a limited amount of time. Many veterans were able to switch GI Bill programs and use the Post 9/11 benefits instead.

Currently, veterans are eligible for the Forever GI Bill; this Bill was enacted in August 2017. The Forever GI Bill has been extended to all Purple Heart recipients regardless of time served it adds more benefits for spouses and dependents and eliminates

the 15-year time limit for using the benefit. It also has an added layer of protections for GI Bill users who experience trouble with schools that close before the student can finish a degree (VA.gov). The new GI Bill does have a time-in-service requirement however, it has more relaxed guidelines for veterans who have served shorter periods of time (see Appendix B). There is also improved benefits availability for reservists providing them with more relaxed time-in-service limits (VA.gov).

Definitions of Key Terms

All Volunteer Force (AVF) – A military force composed solely of volunteers, without resorting to a military draft.

Bridging Hypothesis – member of disadvantaged segments of the labor force gain skills, knowledge, experience, and credentials that enhance their opportunities for mobility; by exposing these individuals to the disciplined, bureaucratic military environment, military service is expected to provide social and cultural training aiding disadvantaged individuals in successfully working in mainstream (majority) culture.

Civilian Labor Force - the sum of civilian employees who are at least 16 years of age or older, and are not in prison, a mental hospital, a nursing home or a member of the military.

Earnings Premium - Describes how much more an individual can expect to earn in a career than someone without a qualifying credentials or skills (i.e. college degree). (i.e. higher levels of education correspond with higher levels of employment and higher wages.

First Generation College - a person whose parent(s)/legal guardian(s) have not completed a bachelor's degree.

Military Veteran - Any person who served for any length of time in any military service branch (Army, Navy, Air Force, Marines, Coast Guard as well as personnel operating under the War Department, Navy Department or Department of Defense.

Military Connected (MC) - Any person who served for any length of time in any military service branch (Army, Navy, Air Force, Marines, Coast Guard as well as personnel operating under the War Department, Navy Department or Department of Defense.

Military Occupational Specialty (MOS) - A U.S. military occupation code, a nine-character code used to identify a specific job.

Non-Military Connected (NC) - Any person who has never served for any length of time in any military service branch (Army, Navy, Air Force, Marines, Coast Guard as well as have never been employed as personnel operating under the War Department, Navy Department or Department of Defense.

Post 9/11 GI Bill - A U.S. Act that provides benefits to military veterans who have taken part in active duty service after Sept. 10, 2001. An applicant must have served for at least 90 days and still be on active duty or have been honorably discharged or discharged for a disability related to serving.

Post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD)- is a mental health condition that's triggered by a terrifying event — either experiencing it or witnessing it. Symptoms may include flashbacks, nightmares and severe anxiety, as well as uncontrollable thoughts about the event.

Structural Functionalism Theory (SCT)- is a theory that views society as a complex system that works to promote harmony and permanence.

The Department of Defense (DoD)- is responsible for supplying the military manpower necessary to prevent war and protect the security of the country. The major military arms

are the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, and Air Force, consisting of about 1.7 million active-duty women and men.

The Transition Assistance Program (TAP)- delivers information, tools and training specifically to assist military connected women, men and their families to get ready to successfully transition from the military to civilian life. Providing them with information, resources, and tools to support transition activities beginning one year prior to separation, or two years prior to retiring.

Traumatic Brain Injury (TBI)- is a wound that occurs under sudden trauma or head injury creating a disruption the functioning of the brain.

Uniformed Services Employment and Reemployment Rights Act (USERRA) - is a federal statute that protects military connected individuals' civilian labor force rights. It mandates that civilian employers put military connected individuals back into the position they held after returning from active-duty service. It also protects military connected women and men from discrimination in the workplace based on their military affiliation.

Veterans Administration (VA) –A U.S. government organization that provides assistance to people who have served in the armed forces.

Veterans Preference - gives eligible veterans preference in employment over many other applicants. Open to only veterans who were discharged or released from active duty in the armed forces under honorable conditions.

Wage Gap - A statistical indicator used as an index of the status of earnings for underappreciated groups. (i.e. women and racial and ethnic minorities)

War-Era – a period of time when there is active military force engaged in armed conflict.

Woman Veteran - Any person whose gender designation is female, served for any length of time in any military service branch (Army, Navy, Air Force, Marines, Coast Guard as well as personnel operating under the War Department, Navy Department or Department of Defense.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

Prior research on the effects of military service on income has tended to exclude women veterans from study. Research is emerging regarding issues faced by women veterans with regard to disabilities and mental health (Mani, 1997). However, little has been conducted regarding employment differences between women veterans and non-veterans.

In 1944, Congress passed the Veterans' Preference Act to help ease a veteran's transition into the civilian labor force (Fredland & Little, 1979; Kasarda & Villemez, 1976; Martindale & Poston, 1979). The Veterans Preference Act grants preference to veterans who were honorably discharged from U.S. Military service (Mani, 1997). The purpose of the act was to help minimize the disadvantages (e.g., race discrimination, lack of secondary education, and lack of civilian work experience) that could result from military service that a veteran could face transitioning into civilian employment. It also served as a means to eliminate discrimination against veterans because of their service in the military. Then, in 1994, Congress revised the Veterans Preference Act of 1944 and created the Uniformed Services Employment and Reemployment Rights Act of 1994 careers. The new version of the Act encourages non-career military service members to pursue education and training oriented toward civilian job attainment.

War-Era of Service

The value of military service to civilian employment has been heavily studied over the past few decades. Most early studies of veterans' career transitions cover male veterans of World War II and the Korean War (Fredland & Little, 1979; Kasarda &

Villemez, 1976; Martindale & Poston, 1979). These studies show that male veterans in general do in fact receive higher earnings than non-veterans in the civilian labor market. These studies further show that the earnings premium that exists for male veterans of World War II and the Korean War over non-veterans is present regardless of the veterans' race. Later studies specifically studies of the Vietnam War –era, show similar results; it is clear that Vietnam War- era veterans enjoyed a similar earnings premium to that of the World War II and Korean War veterans (Berger & Hirsch, 1983). However, racial minority Vietnam War-era veterans received an even greater earnings benefits, when compared to White veterans (Martindale & Poston, 1979).

Studies of veteran's earnings after the end of the compulsory draft in 1973 began to focus on the effect that military service has on the all-volunteer armed forces (AVF). Specific focus was included on protected group veterans, i.e., women and minority group members (Kogut, Short, & Wall, 2010). A study conducted by Bryant, Samaranayake, and Wilhite, (1993) found that the AVF military's impact on civilian earnings differed based on a veteran's race and education. The researchers used t-tests to determine the level of significance among the variables that impact training and tenure in specific military services on civilian wages. The study results show that non-whites with a high school diploma received an earning premium based on their military connection while college educated veterans suffered a great earnings penalty.

Studies of female veterans' earnings premiums tend to be somewhat mixed with various studies finding an earnings advantage for female veterans (Mehay & Hirsch, 1996; Padavic & Prokos 2016), while others show an earnings advantage to older female veterans and a penalty to younger female veterans (Prokos & Padavic, 2000; Cooney,

Falk, Segal & Segal, 2003). Cooney, Falk, Segal, and Segal's research on the effects of military service on veteran's income reveals that military service is more beneficial to minority (black and Hispanic) veterans than it is to white veterans. Their study focused on women veterans of AVF- era, the first period since World War II in which a large percentage of women enlisted in the military. Prior to this study most of the studies on the economic behavior of veterans had only included men in their samples.

Earlier studies of the economic consequences of military service for veterans primarily focused on the return of Vietnam veterans to civilian life (Butler, Poston, & Segal, 1984). Such research refers to the significant earnings advantage for veterans of World War II (Martindale & Poston, 1983) to support the presence of an earnings premium for veterans. Many of the studies found that military service has a positive effect on veterans' post-military earnings. Specifically, World War II (WWII) black and Mexican American male veterans saw a distinct earnings advantage over white WWII male veterans in the rate at which they were able to convert their military training into dollars of earnings in the civilian labor market. For example, Browning, Lopreato, and Poston (1973) found that black and Mexican American veterans do receive a wage premium in the civilian labor force. However, their analysis was conducted in 1979 and only included five southwestern states.

Impacts on Racial and Ethnic Groups

The general explanation offered by researchers is that the military serves as an equalizer for minorities and women. Martindale and Poston (1979) found that black and Mexican American veterans are better able to convert their compositional characteristics into earnings than black and Mexican American nonveterans. They also found that

veterans have a higher adjusted earnings advantage over non-veterans. These results provide general support for the hypothesis that military service positively influences civilian earnings for black and Mexican American men. Martindale and Poston 1979 study is lacking relevancy in that it only addresses a single aspect of military service that could negatively impact minority veterans. The timeframe in which the authors focus is the post- World War II era. Therefore, the findings of positive earnings effects is only applicable to the sample investigated: Black, and Mexican American, and white male workers who served in the WWII era. Due to the amount of racial and gender diversity in the armed force study of a specific time period, selective groups, and single gender does not provide an accurate picture of the population under review. Berger and Hirsch (1983) found veteran status to be more beneficial for non-whites but illustrated that they could not provide a detailed analysis on the veteran's population they studied based on race due to sample size restrictions in the Current Population Survey data.

A study conducted by Tangen, (2015) analyzed military service to determine if it yields veterans higher civilian earnings. Tangen explored several samples from the Current Population Survey (CPS) to compare the earnings of female veterans to non-veterans, and male veterans to non-veterans. Tangen's study included 502 women veterans, 5,255 male veterans, 48,491 women non-veterans, and 43,885 male non-veterans using data from the August 2005, August 2007, August 2009, July 2010, August 2011, August 2012, and August 2013 monthly editions of the CPS. He found that between 2005 and 2013, both men and women veterans experienced a wage premium. These results suggest that military service does act as a bridge to higher earnings in the civilian labor force. The empirical evidence shows that veterans, in general earned about

$980 per week in July 2009 and $1025 in August 2010. These results reflect the earnings premium that veterans in general receive over non-veterans in the civilian labor market.

Postsecondary Education and the Post- 9/11 GI Bill

Liang Zhang used data from the American Community Survey (ACS) 2005–2015 to study the effects the Post-9/11 GI Bill had on veterans' postsecondary education enrollment. He selected the ACS data because it is a public dataset that contacts over 3.5 million US households to participate in the survey. The samples used by Zhang were representative of the U. S. population. The data used in this study represented about 0.4% of the U.S. population. Zhang argued that because the US veteran's population represents a small proportion in the overall US population, larger samples are typically preferred (Zhang, 2018).

Zhang's goal was to see if the Post- 9/11 GI Bill had improved college enrollment for veterans. This quantitative study used ordinary least squares regression to assess the effects on enrollment. He had three main findings: First, that the New GI Bill did increase the overall number of college enrollment by about three percentage points (Zhang, 2018). Second, that the Post- 9/11 GI Bill has had a positive impact on college enrollment among veterans ranging from 20 to 60 years old. Last, there was a positive effect on enrollments across veterans of all levels of existing educational attainment, having the greatest effect on master's degrees recipients. Zhang's study does not address civilian labor outcomes or transition from military to civilian labor force. The current study addressed just that point.

Student Veteran's College Experience

Researcher's Young Kim and James Cole (2013) conducted a mixed methods study using data from the 2012 National Survey of Student Engagement (NSSE), an annual survey of students enrolled in four-year universities, to assess how student veterans/service members perceive their integration on campus. They used a sample of 2,505 student veterans/service members who were enrolled full-time at 132 institutions. To understand the characteristics of campus integration among student veterans/service members and their nonveteran/ civilian counterparts of the same age, Kim and Cole used survey responses from student veterans age 25 and over and compared those results with those of nonveteran/ civilian students in the same age range (Kim & Cole, 2013).

They found that student veterans/service members are more likely to be first-generation students. Student veterans are often older than their nonveteran/civilian student counterparts. Kim and Cole revealed that the average age of student veterans/service members enrolled in four-year universities is 33, compared with nonveteran/civilian students, whose average age is 22 (Kim & Cole, 2013). Because student veterans are older, they tend to be married with children and have more constraints on their time due to their family obligations outside of school. They also found that student veterans/service members place a large part of their academic focus on activities that they find essential for academic progress than on college - life activities (e.g., joining student organizations, sports teams, and clubs). They tend to commit less of their time to relaxing and socializing than their nonveteran/ civilian counterparts. A key finding was that student veterans/service members are less likely to participate in

experiential learning opportunities, like internships or practicums, study abroad, or community service (Kim & Cole, 2013).

Military Skills Transferability

MacLean (2017) also addressed the impact military service has on civilian income outcomes post-military. He compared the earnings of veterans to non-veterans to see if an employee's veteran status would serve as a marker to increase his/her salary. Using data derived from a sample drawn from the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth 1979 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2011) MacLean found that veterans earned less than non-veterans with similar combined military and civilian work experience, regardless of profession. These findings show that employers do not value time in the military as much as time in the civilian job market. MacLean's findings clearly show the bias employers have for civilian work experience over military service, MacLean's analysis lacked a focus on the perceptions by employers of military service as it relates to race and gender. MacLean's study did not delve into the impact a college degree would have on the veteran's salary outcomes in the civilian workforce. The current study serves to fill in the gaps in the literature around the impact that race and gender have on females with military service and a college degree and its impact on civilian job/salary outcomes.

A study conducted by Magnum and Ball (1989) observed the transferability of military skills obtained by (AVF)-era veterans to the civilian labor market. They assessed the impact military skills had on civilian earnings. The findings were that nearly 50 percent of the women veterans in the study were able to transfer their military-provided training to the civilian labor market. In addition, 45 percent of the men in the study were

able to transfer their training to their employment. These results show that veterans are able to successful transfer their military skills/training into the civilian labor market.

Ghosh and Fouad (2016) examined the ability of career transition elements (e.g., confidence, independence, support, control, and readiness) to predict a student veterans' career adaptability (e.g., control, concern, confidence, and curiosity) and occupational engagement. They wanted to determine what factors predicted a successful career transition for veterans. Their study examined the variables of career transitions, occupational engagement, and career adaptability. They focused on selecting upper-classmen and graduate students as participants as they were closer to graduation and the transition to career. Participants were recruited through the university's military service student's listserv. The researchers used multiple regression to analyze the overall career transition readiness (from the concern, control, curiosity, and confidence aspects of career adaptability) of the sample of students they selected for the study. They found that career adaptabilities and occupational engagement among the sample positively reflected their readiness for the transition into the civilian workforce. The researchers were able to discover that career adaptabilities and occupational engagement led to the readiness aspect of career transitions for veterans. Student veterans who were able to manage the idea of the occupational transition from military to college and willingly engaged in specific occupational engagement tasks, were able to successfully accomplish the tasks needed to achieve the military transition to career planning activities. Although Ghosh and Fouad, were able to show evidence to support factors that predicts a student veterans' successful career transition from college, they did not provide any information about

veterans' skills transfer from military to the civilian workforce. This study specifically addressed this topic.

Veterans Research

The prior research into the post-military economic outcomes of veterans has focused on the outcomes for male veterans. The focus on male outcomes is due to the small numbers of women military enlistments prior to the inception of the All-Volunteer Force (AVF) in 1973. According to a study by Mehay and Hirsch, (1996) veterans earn more than non-veterans in the civilian labor market, even after controlling for social and demographic variables. The study examined males and females separately, since gender is highly linked with veteran status. They focus specific attention on the earnings differential between employed veterans and nonveterans between the ages of 25 and 64 using data from the American Community Survey. They used a human capital lens to evaluate the earnings premium that accounts for transition into the civilian labor market. The study's population of focus was White male veterans and nonveterans, White female veterans and non-veterans, Black male veterans and nonveterans, black female veterans and nonveterans. The Mehay and Hirsch, study found that a variety of unmeasured individual factors affect civilian income specifically, occupational skills and cumulative labor market experience. However, the results for non-Hispanic whites showed contrary effects. The authors found that this group of veterans experienced a significant value-added effect in post-service earnings. The study revealed that non-Hispanic white veterans do typically receive an earnings premium in the civilian workforce. These contradictory findings serve as my motivation to uncover the realities for women who have served our country.

While military service is not a substitute for college, Kogut, Short and Wall (2010) estimated that it can be to some extent a complement, as it tends to drive up wages for veterans about 10 percent over nonveterans. They further found that women veterans in particular see about a 12 percent earnings premium as a result of their military service. Prior research on civilian earnings for veterans has covered both the volunteer era and periods when draft/conscription was used to grow military forces. Many of these studies analyzed veterans who served during conscription periods, using data contained in two labor market surveys, the Census of Population (CPS), and the National Longitudinal Survey of Young Men (see Andrasani, Gilroy, & Phillips, 1992; Bryant & Wilhite, 1990; Bryant, Samaranayake, & Wilhite, 1993). Kogut, Short, and Wall, (2010) used data from the Current Population Survey (CPS), conducted by the Census Bureau and Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS). This survey is a monthly sample of approximately 60,000 households which is nationally representative of the civilian, non-institutionalized population age 16 and older in the United States. This data source provides the most up-to- date data on veterans' job outcomes based on gender and earnings.

The Bridging Environment

Padavic and Prokos, (2017) studied the impact a woman's veteran status had on her civilian labor market earnings. By means of survey data from the American Community Survey from 2008 to 2010, they explored how a woman's veteran status along with her occupation and race/ethnicity influenced her earnings. Padavic and Prokos's findings validate the ''bridging hypothesis,'' confirming that women veterans were "overrepresented in higher paying occupations and underrepresented in the lowest paying ones." (pg. 371). Additionally, women veterans of disadvantaged race/ethnic

groups were found to receive higher earnings than white veterans or non-minorities. The study was limited by its lack of specific descriptions of civilian occupational categories against military categories especially as they related to women's earnings. They make reference to professional and managerial occupations but do not provide guideline for specific categories as they relate to the Military Occupational Specialty (MOS) descriptions. This makes it difficult to make the claim that military training is responsible for civilian labor force outcomes via an earnings premium.

A study by Janice Laurence (1989) sought to discover if the training and discipline of military service provided underprivileged and low aptitude youth improvements in the "skills and attitudes" necessary to overcome the disadvantages they face in competing for civilian jobs. Laurence used a sample from the 1966 military recruitment initiative titled "Project 100,000" and compared it to a group containing low aptitude individuals who never served in the military drawn from the 1966 and 1979 National Longitudinal Surveys. The key variables used in the comparison were employment, economic, education, and family status. Laurence then applied weights to control for the demographic differences between the veterans and nonveterans. These items were analyzed to determine if military service provided an advantage to veterans that could not be realized by their nonveteran low-aptitude counterparts.

For context, "Project 100,000" was an initiative of Secretary of Defense Robert S. McNamara. The program was implemented in response to the War on Poverty plan devised in 1966 by President Lyndon B. Johnson. Johnson's goal was to increase the military's manpower, a demand brought on by the Vietnam War. Project 100,000 led to more than 320,000 low-aptitude recruits enlisting in the military between 1966 and 1971.

For additional context the military admitted individuals who scored between the 10th and 30th percentiles on the Armed Forces Qualification Test (AFQT).

Laurence found that veterans did not have an advantage over their nonveteran peers. She found that, in fact, those who had never served were doing better off than their peers who had served, in terms of employment status, educational achievement, and income. Laurence discovered that veterans were more likely to be unemployed than nonveterans. She also found significant income differences between the groups with salary differences ranging from $5,000 to $7,000, in favor of nonveterans. Finally, Laurence found that nonveterans were more likely than veterans to be married, with veterans experiencing higher rates of divorce than nonveterans. Laurence's study does not support the idea that the military provides a "bridging environment" to low aptitude and disadvantaged youth as they compete for civilian labor. The current study analyzed employment, economic, education, and family status and size, like Laurence's study. However, this study analyzed women veteran's civilian labor market outcomes. Nevertheless, Laurence's study does not specifically address the issue from a woman veteran's point of view as the current study does. It also does not address the issue from an educated woman veteran's perspective, as the current study does.

Literature Summary

In summary, research on the effects of military service on income has excluded women veterans from study. Little research has been conducted regarding employment differences between women veterans and non-veterans. In 1944, Congress passed the Veterans' Preference Act to help ease a veteran's transition into the civilian labor force (Fredland & Little, 1979; Kasarda & Villemez, 1976; Martindale & Poston, 1979). The Veterans Preference Act grants preference to veterans who were honorably discharged from U.S. Military service (Mani, 1997). The purpose of the act was to help minimize the disadvantages (e.g., race discrimination, lack of secondary education, and lack of civilian work experience) that could result from military service that a veteran could face transitioning into civilian employment. However, little research exists to reflect how this employment preference impact women veterans. Research shows that there exists an earnings premium for male veterans of World War II and the Korean War over non-veterans regardless of the veterans' race (Martindale & Poston, 1979). Conversely, little research exists that compares women veterans' earning to women non-veterans'. This study considered that very thing. Researchers suggest that military service serves as an equalizer for minorities and women (Martindale & Poston, 1979). They also found that veterans have a higher adjusted earnings advantage over non-veterans. However, Martindale and Poston's research does not consider the impact military services has on minority women veterans.

Zhang's research sought to see if the Post- 9/11 GI Bill improved college enrollment for veterans. Zhang, however did find that the New GI Bill increased the overall number of college enrollment by about three percentage points (Zhang, 2018).

Additionally, Zhang found that the Post- 9/11 GI Bill has had a positive impact on college enrollment among veterans ranging from 20 to 60 years old. Surprisingly, Zhang's study did not address civilian labor outcomes or transition from military to civilian labor force.

MacLean found that veterans earned less than non-veterans with similar combined military and civilian work experience, regardless of profession. These findings show that employers do not value time in the military as much as time in the civilian job market. MacLean's findings clearly show the bias employers have for civilian work experience over military service. MacLean's analysis lacked a focus on the perceptions by employers of military service as it relates to race and gender. The research on post-military economic outcomes of veterans has focused on the outcomes for male veterans. The focus on male outcomes is due to the small numbers of women military enlistments prior to the inception of the All-Volunteer Force (AVF) in 1973. Padavic and Prokos's findings validate the ''bridging hypothesis,'' confirming that women veterans were "overrepresented in higher paying occupations and underrepresented in the lowest paying ones." (pg. 371). Additionally, women veterans of disadvantaged race/ethnic groups were found to receive higher earnings than white veterans or non-minorities. Conversely, the Laurence study found that veterans did not have an advantage over their nonveteran peers. Her study, however, did not address women veterans' specifically. This study addressed the post-military economic outcomes for women veterans with a specific focus on how those who possess at least a bachelor's degree fair in the civilian labor force.

Theoretical Framework

Understanding the determinants of an individual's earnings is complex, as they can be considered from a social structural perspective or from an individual perspective. As exemplified by isms (racism, sexism, and ageism) Structural Functionalism would be used to address it from the more macro perspective as exemplified by particular personal attributes and achievements. This research was based on the Human Capital Theory with later research on structural functionalism.

Structural Functionalism is a theory that views society as a complex system that works to promote harmony and permanence. This theory encourages one to view society on a macro-level, which takes a general view of society to make sense of things. Functionalism is the work of Emile Durkheim and was popularized by British philosopher Herbert Spencer. Spencer wanted to simplify the theory by establishing it as a way to interpret society as a structure with interrelated parts (Kingsbury & Scanzoni, 2009). In short, functionalism addresses society as a whole in terms of its functional elements; specifically, norms, customs, traditions and institutions. Society is in essence viewed as a system of "organs" that work together in an effort to allow the body to function as a whole.

According to Kleykamp (2009) "Military, service increases human capital endowments among those who serve" (pg. 281). Moreover, veterans increase their human capital through their military training and the skills they acquire while serving. Such skills acquisition can be directly transferable to the civilian workforce. Military

service tends to aid a veteran's educational attainment which leads to an increase in employment probabilities and earnings. Typically, civilian employers rely on the human capital attributes military veterans gain while enlisted to make hiring decisions. According to Kleykamp (2009), the human capital attributes civilian employers use to interpret the value of a veteran applicant are: occupational education, skills, experience, stable work histories, communication skills, motivation, dependability, and the ability to work in a team. To a civilian employer this set of human capital attributes serves as pre-qualifiers for making a successful hiring decision. According to Padavic and Prokos (2017) "The metaphor of a bridge suggests that the military provides training and experience that boost human capital and help veterans, especially those from disadvantaged backgrounds, move into better occupations in the civilian labor market than they otherwise would have had" (pg. 369). The preponderance of research surrounding the "bridging hypothesis" focuses on its impact on male veterans while far less is known about its impact on women veterans' outcomes (Baldwin, 1996; Bound, & Turner, 2002; Kleykamp, 2009).

Within the Human Capital Theory falls "the bridging environment hypothesis" which suggests that military service functions as a way for individuals from low income backgrounds and under-represented groups to acquire the attributes and attitudes that enable them to incorporate in mainstream society and to further their income attainment (Kleykamp, 2009). The "bridging environment hypothesis" includes a diverse group of veterans, racial and ethnic minorities and whites from low income backgrounds. The thought behind the bridging environment is that by exposing these individuals to the

disciplined military environment, it provides them the social and cultural training they need to make an equitable transfer to the civilian workforce.

The bridging environment hypothesis was first theorized by Browning, Lopreato, and Poston, (1973). From their perspective the military serves as an environment where those individuals deficient in "human capital" or the ability to convert human capital to improve income, could devote a few years of their lives to military service in exchange for education, occupational training and skills development that could in turn be used to successfully transition to a civilian career. This study assessed the income by entering race, gender, and military connection, to control for individual effects, separately and in the whole. Military connection, race/ethnicity controlling for age, occupation type, and educational attainment.

CHAPTER 3

METHODS

Quantitative analysis is a type of analysis that examines the relationship between independent and dependent variables within a sample (Babbie, 2014). Employing secondary analysis means the researcher wants to examine a research question or hypothesis through the analysis of an established data set that contains questions relating to the variables in the study. According to Babbie, secondary analysis is a form of research in which the data are collected and processed by one researcher and are reanalyzed by another researcher. The goal of secondary analysis is to establish an association between the variables.

It is important to understand that quantitative analysis concentrates on gathering numerical data and takes a broad observation of groups of people to explain a particular phenomenon (Hopkins, 2002). The overarching aim of a quantitative research study is to analyze the data collected by the researchers to generalize concepts, predict future results, or investigate contributing relationships (Babbie, 2010). To determine if military connection helps military connected women gain an earnings premium for their military service data was drawn from a sample of respondents of the National Survey of College Graduates (NSCG) to test the hypotheses outlined above. Specific attention was dedicated to understanding civilian labor market outcomes for women veterans who have earned at least a bachelor's degree.

Data

This study used data collected from a nationally representative sample of U.S. citizens, The National Survey of College Graduates (NSCG). The NSCG is sponsored by the National Center for Science and Engineering Statistics within the National Center for Science and Engineering Statistics within the National Science Foundation. The data in this study was pulled from the 2017 NSCG survey cycle. The data were collected via a repeated cross-sectional survey that biennially collects information on employment, education, and demographic characteristics of the U.S. college-educated population. NSCG collects data utilizing a rotating panel sample design. NSCG collects data from survey participants during four survey cycles over a six-year period. In the 2017 survey cycle approximately 124,000 college-educated U.S. citizens completed the survey. Two thousand seventeen marks the first year in which, the NSCG collected information on participant's military status. The NSCG used a trimodal data collection approach: Web survey, mail survey, and computer-assisted telephone interview. The data collection effort lasted about six months. Data were collected from February 2017 and continued through August 2017.

For theoretical context, this study's theoretical framework is that of Human Capital Theory (HCT). Human capital is defined as, productive wealth embodied in labor, skills, level of expertise, and experience possessed by an individual or population, viewed in terms of their value or cost to an organization or country. (Sen, et.al, 2012) Furthermore, it refers to the level of expertise, innate ability or acquired skills a person can contribute to his or her own economic productivity. The line of causality here is: a person acquires a high level of expertise and skills (human capital); through education

and training this level of expertise and skills in turn increases their productivity which results in higher wages for the individual. (Sen, et al., 2012). It follows that military service provides individuals the education, training, and skills that lead to higher levels of human capital necessary to improve an individual's chances of receiving higher wages in the civilian labor force. The assumption is that the skills acquired in the military serve as a proxy for the quality of training desired by civilian employers. In addition, the number of years on the job is a straightforward variable under the HCT as it serves as the proxy for on-the-job training (Sen, et al., 2012).

Several studies found that such factors as human capital, demographic measures, and employer characteristics are key determinants of salary. For instance, Renna and Weinstein (2019) found that veterans earn higher salaries when they have earned at least a bachelor's degree. Additionally, Goldberg and Warner (1987) found that veterans who enter the civilian labor force with highly technical military training can trade such human capital for higher wages. Last, MacLean (2017) found that in general the number of years spent in the military is highly correlated with higher civilian salaries. These studies serve as the basis for the selection of factors included in the regression model for this study.

Through the lens of Human Capital Theory (HCT), this study looked at the relationship between military connection and civilian labor force economic outcomes for women. The general hypothesis was that military service along with the attainment of at least a bachelor's degree serves as a bridge to higher pay for women in the civilian labor force. The statistical analysis employed in this study used human capital measures such as education, years of employment, skills and training, the demographic measures,

gender, race/ethnicity, and age, and geographic (employer region) measures to predict salary. These measures encompassed the full set of factors that are likely to affect salary. Moreover, these controls served to properly assessed whether women, as compared to men with similar characteristics, received equal or greater economic returns in the civilian labor force. Thus, the model in this study allowed for the assessment of the bridging environment hypothesis for military connected women.

Hypotheses

1. Military connection results in greater earnings for a woman in the civilian labor market than a non-military connected. This is due to the "bridging environment" that military service provides women who serve.

2. The earnings advantage predicted for military connected women in Hypothesis 1 will be stronger for women of color than for white women.

Variables

The dependent variable under study in this project was civilian labor market earnings. To measure civilian labor market earnings, this study relied on data provided from the National Survey of College Graduates (NSCG), a nationally representative sample of U.S. citizens. The independent variables for this study were the variables found to be significant predictors for salary:

- The respondent's age as of 2017
- The respondent was white or Asian
- The number of years the respondent was in the military
- The respondent has an undergraduate student loan balance
- The respondent was the first in their family to attend college

- The respondent earned an advanced degree beyond a bachelor's (Master's, Doctorate, or Professional)
- The respondent works for a non-profit organization
- The number of employees in the company or institution where the respondent is employed
- The respondent was employed in the technology sector
- The number of years the respondent has worked for their employer as of 2017
- The respondent's employer is in California, Oregon, or Washington

Variable Selection Rationale

This study followed the pattern of previous research in selecting variables for the regression models. According to Oi and Idson (1999), the wage gap that exist between men and women is in part due to the size of an organization. They found, that there exists a "size-wage premium" for men that varies across industries. Largely due to demand for a higher quality labor force by U.S. firms. Many of these firms use factors like education and job tenure to determine who is the most qualified for open positions (Idson, Oi, 1999). The variables selected in this study, the number of employees in the company or institution where the respondent is employed, the respondent earned an advanced degree beyond a bachelor's (Master's, Doctorate, or Professional), and the number of years the respondent has worked for their employer as of 2017, were included in the regression models based on the Idson and Oi notion that firm size, education, and job tenure are contributing factors to the wage gap.

Ban, Hansen, and Huggins (2003) found that government employees hold values that are similar to employees who work for non-profit organizations . Additionally, they found that government employees are less concerned with high starting salaries than individuals who work in for-profit firms. They also found that women were more prone to select "caring" occupations like, teaching, nursing, and social work; occupations that typically fall into the non-profit sector (Ban, Hansen, and Huggins, 2003). That is why this study included the variable, the respondent works for a non-profit organization in the regression models.

There exists extensive research exploring the outcomes of military service and its impact on subsequent socioeconomic attainment. Much of the research draws attention to human capital factors that impact income and earnings. However, earlier research on the topic focused on age and race to predict the economic benefits of those who serve in the military (Blau, & Duncan, 1967; Sobek, 1996). "The Basic Model" used by Blau and Duncan (1967) included, the respondent's educational attainment, age, educational attainment of the respondent's parents among its variables (Blau & Duncan,1967). The current study used the variables the respondent's age as of 2017 and the respondent was the first in their family to attend college, based on the model used by Blau and Duncan (1967). Blau and Duncan's research suggests that including such variables into a regression model is useful in predicting salary outcomes. This study used the variable, the respondent was White or Asian and the respondent's age as of 2017 to predict civilian salary outcomes for the sample. More recently research has found that education attainment, and length of military service impact post- military career outcomes and income, largely due to the increased competition for highly selective civilian jobs (Teachman, 2007). It is for that reason that this study included the number of years the respondent was in the military as a variable in the regression models.

Data Analysis

Data screening and preliminary analysis was conducted with IBM SPSS. Because the NSCG dataset was so large, data were screened to examine for any potential outliers in the sample. This study employed Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression analysis to predict relationships among the variables. The purpose of the study was to investigate the differences in civilian earnings between military connected women and non-military connected women. The goal was to determine if the military connected women who have earned at least a bachelor's degree gained an earnings premium in the civilian labor force over non- military connected individuals. The expectation was that findings from the OLS regression analyses would provide evidence that military services served as a bridging environment for women who could combine their military experience with educational attainment to gain higher civilian earnings than non-military connected counterparts. The National Survey of College Graduates dataset was sufficient to support these analyses.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

This study employed the use of descriptive and inferential statistics to analyze economic outcomes for military connected women by means of demographic characteristics examined from the National Survey of College Graduates (NSCG). This research asked the following question: does military service yield higher levels of earnings for individuals who successfully transition into the civilian labor force? This question was based on the assumption that individuals who earn at least a bachelor's degree are able to realize an earnings premium awarded to them by civilian employers who view their military connection and education as an asset to the organization. This hypothesis viewed the military as an environment where an individual acquires technical skills and abilities that could benefit the civilian organization. The specific focus of this research was whether these benefits can be realized by military connected women in general.

A sample of 83,672 United States citizens who have earned at least a bachelor's degree as of February 2017 responded to the National Survey of College Graduates (NSCG) conducted by United States Census Bureau for the National Science Foundation during the week of February 1, 2017. This study analyzed six specific characteristics-gender, race/ethnicity, birth region, marital status, children living at home, military connection (veteran status) to gain a full picture of the sample (see Table 4.1). In addition to these an analysis of the samples' educational attainment, income and geographic region was also conducted (see Tables 4.2, 4.3,& 4.5)

Descriptive Statistics

This study's nationally representative sample consisted of 83,672 individuals who had earned at least a bachelor's degree. The sample was divided into two groups: (a) those individuals who served in the United States Armed Forces (Military Connected (MC)) (n=5,762) either through reserves, active duty, or retired veteran and (b) those who have never served in the Armed Forces (non- military connected) (n= 77,910). All of the descriptive data were presented as comparisons of the two groups. Some data on the general demographic characteristics of the two samples are presented in Table 4.1

Table 4.1 General Demographics for the sample

Military Connected (N = 5,762)			**Non-Military Connected (N = 77,910)**	
	Frequency	**Percent of Sample**	**Frequency**	**Percent of Sample**
Gender:				
Male	5,024	6	40,446	48.3
Female	738	.9	37,464	44.8
Race:				
Native American	47	.8	321	.4
Pacific Islander	23	.4	272	.3
Asian	235	4.1	14,105	18.1
Black	645	11.2	5.504	7.1
White	4,306	74.8	50,115	64.4
Hispanic	503	8.7	7,557	9.7
Age Group:				
20 or Younger	0	0	1	0
21 – 29	199	.2	11535	13.8
30 – 39	730	.9	23296	27.8
40 - 49	815	1	13687	16.4
50 – 64	1769	2.1	20827	24.9
65 or Older	2249	2.7	8564	10.2
Marital Status:				
Married				
Married-Like Relationship	4,505	78.2	53,200	68.3
Widowed	168	2.9	3,941	5.1
Separated	110	1.9	1,056	1.4
Divorced	50	.9	609	.8
Never Married	459	8.0	4,685	6.0
	470	8.2	14,419	18.5
Children Living at Home				
Yes	3,749	65.1	34,130	43.8
No	2.013	34.9	43,780	56.2

There are several aspects of the data in Table 4.1 that are worth noting:

- While most of the total sample was male (54.3%), the preponderance of males in the military connected sample was much great than in the non-military connected sample (87.2% versus 51.9%).
- There was also some difference in the racial make-up of the two samples. As shown in Table 4.1, there was a higher percentage of whites in the military connected sample as compared to the non-veteran sample (64.4% in non-military connected; 74.8% in military connected).
- A somewhat higher percentage of the military connected were married (78.2% versus 68.3%) although there was a smaller percentage with children living at home (34.9% versus 43.8%).

As shown in Table 4.1, the demographic make-up of the sample was quite diverse, with nearly 40% of the sample considered non-white. Forty-five percent of the sample were women. The mean age of the sample was 45 years old. Close to 70% of the sample were married and 38% of the sample had children living in the home. More than half (47,529) of the sample had no children living at home. Additionally, if a participant did have children a large portion of them (10,113) only had one child. Thirty-seven thousand five hundred and five individuals had a spouse who worked full-time outside of the home and 7,391 had a spouse who worked part-time outside of the home.

This sample was well-educated with everyone in the sample holding at least a bachelor's degree. Nearly than half (41,792) of the sample had earned an advanced degree. Of the military- connected portion of the sample 2,744 held at least one advanced

degree beyond the BA degree. Additionally, more than a third (34,915) of the sample attended community college at some point along their higher education journey, 5,762 (14.30%) of which are military connected. Many of the respondents in the sample attended community college with women outnumbering men by 10% in community college attendance.

The sample was quite racial/ethnically diverse with Asian participants in the sample consisting of 14,393 (17.2%) individuals 237 were military connected (see table 4.1). The Black sample in this study consists of 6,336 (7.6%) individuals 667 of which are military connected. The American Indian sample in this study consists of 507 individuals, 51 of which are military connected. The Whites made up the largest racial group at 62.7% of the sample (52,452) 4,139 of which were military connected.

Pacific Islander's made up the smallest portion of the sample with only 354 (.4%) individuals who participated in the study, 27 of which were military connected. The Hispanic sample in this study consisted of 6,912 (8.3%) individuals 427 of which were military connected. The gender makeup of the sample was close to even with women at (45.7%) or 38,202, 738 of which are military connected and men at (54.3%) or 45,470, 5,024 of which were military connected.

Many of the survey participants were born in the United States. About 25% of the sample was born outside of the United States. However, the largest portion (22.6%) of the sample born in the United States was born in the Midwest, followed by 21.3% of the sample having been born on the West Coast. Northeastern United States (18.4%) and the South (12.6%) round out the rest of the study's sample. The data shows that the largest

portion of Military connected individuals were born in the West and Mid-west. The largest portion of the sample was born outside of the U.S.

Fifty-seven thousand seven hundred and five individuals in the sample are married or living in a marriage-like situation, about 4,500 of those individuals are military connected. Thirty- six thousand one hundred forty-three (36,143) of the sample had children living in the home, of that number 2,013 were military connected.

A large portion of the sample had a spouse who worked outside of the home either full or part time. Thirty-seven thousand five hundred and five (37,505) of the survey respondents had a spouse who worked full-time outside of the home and 1,767 were military connected. In addition, 7,391 of the sample had a spouse who worked part-time outside of the home and 650 were military connected. A little over 3,900 of the military connected individuals in the sample worked in civilian jobs. The largest portion of the military connected individuals worked in highly technical careers (see Appendix A).

This study utilized the Census Bureau's income range classification to carefully analyze the sample's income range (see Table 4.4). Results from the income range analysis found that more than half of the sample was middle-class additionally, more than 17% of the sample was considered Top wage earners with an annual salary at or above $200,000. This is opposed to more than 21% of the sample considered low income or below poverty, earning less than $45,000 a year. The sample of the military connected men and women's income outcomes were of most importance in this study. Surprisingly there was a large portion of the military connected sample at the top of the earnings chart

with 1,676 individuals considered Top Wage Earners (see table 4.6). The mean salary for the sample was $73,933.

This study's sample is pretty well off with more than 43% of the samples on the upper end of the income categories. (see Table 4.6) Men represent 29% and women represent 14% of the higher income categories for this sample. Many of the top earners in the sample (17%) held executive level positions in 2017. Thirteen percent of the top earners in the sample had a military connection.

The geographic breakdown of the top earners is very diverse. The largest portion of the higher income respondents (36%) live in the South (Florida, Texas, Georgia, the Carolina's and Virginia), followed by the Mountain West region (California, Nevada, New Mexico) at (25%), Next, is the New England Atlantic (Connecticut New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania) region with 23.3% of the higher income respondents. The region with the fewest higher income respondent is the Midwest (Illinois, Indiana, Kansas) with (16%) of the higher income respondents. (see Table 4.5)

Due to the scope of this research it was necessary to move beyond basic frequency analysis into crosstabulation analysis to analyze the relationship between relevant variables for the sample. Crosstabulation analysis served a crucial role in identifying the underlying relationships within this study's results. This study's sample consists of 83,672 respondents. Men represented 54 percent of the sample (n=40,446) and women represented 46 percent of the sample (n= 37,464). The military connected portion of the sample represented approximately seven percent of the sample (n= 5,762); not

surprisingly, men military connected (n=5,024) outnumbered the women military connected (n=738) by 85 percent (see Table 4.1).

While this study's subgroup was racially diverse, military connected individuals were more likely to be a white male. Less than 30 percent of the military connected individuals in the sample were non-white males. White men make up the largest portion of the sample at 50,115; Asian men make up the second largest group at 14,105, followed by Hispanic men at 7,557. Black, Pacific Islanders, and Native American men represent the smallest portion of the sample representing 7.1, .4 and .3 percent of the sample. The median age of the sample was 44 years old. The sample's age range was between 20-75 years old. The largest age group in the sample was between 30-39 years old with about 28 percent of the sample falling into this age range. This was followed closely by age range 50-64 making up about 25 percent of the sample. The youngest age in the sample was 20 years old only one person fell into the lowest age range category (see Table 4.1).

This study's cross-tabulation results show that military connected were more likely than their non- military connected counterparts to be married with more than 75 percent of the military connected being married compared to their non-military connected counterparts at 65 percent being married. Furthermore, about 20 percent of the non- military connected sample had never been married compared to only 8 percent of military connected. The results further show that military connected individuals were more likely than their non- military connected counterparts to have children. Sixty-Five percent of the military connected respondents had children compared to 44 percent of their non-military connected counterparts (see Table 4.1).

This study's crosstabulation shows that military connected individuals were more likely than their non- military connected counterparts to work in jobs that require highly technical skills. The largest portion of the sample works in the Engineering sector with more than 10 percent of the sample working in Engineering jobs. This is followed closely by IT jobs with more than eight percent of the sample working in an IT job. This is followed by IT and Health Profession with more than seven percent of the sample working in a healthcare job. Engineering serves as the largest job type for military connected individuals followed, surprisingly, by the financial services industry with over seven percent of the military connected individuals working in the financial sector. Food Services careers have the lowest number of individuals with less than half a percent of the sample working in the Food Services Industry (see Table 4.2). The chi square (X^2) statistic was calculated to investigate whether the distributions of the variables differed from one another X^2 (130, N = 83672) = 2063.063, p = .000, Cramer's V = .157, since the p-value (.000) is less than the significance level (0.05), the null hypothesis can be rejected. As a result, it stands that there is a relationship between job category and military connection.

Table 4.2 Frequencies of Occupation and Educational Attainment for the sample

Degree Type	N	Percent	Military Connection	Percent
Bachelor's Degree (only)	41880	50.1	3018	52.4
Master's Degree	31666	37.8	2159	6.8
Professional Degree	3358	4.0	311	5.4
Doctorate Degree	6768	8.1	274	4.8
Job Type	**N**	**Percent**	**Military Connection**	**Percent**
IT Jobs	7032	8.4	324	4.5
College Professors	5715	6.8	255	4.3
STEM Careers	4507	5.4	157	3.4
Engineering Careers	8676	10.4	529	5.9
Social Sciences	2638	3.2	135	4.9
Teachers	4415	5.3	191	4.1
Social Services Careers	2330	2.8	111	4.6
Technician and Technologist Careers	986	1.2	98	9.7
Financial Services	5684	6.8	415	7
Law Enforcement	2350	2.8	226	9.1
Clerical Careers	2322	2.8	128	5.2
Trades and Technical Careers	1477	1.8	226	14.8
Sales Careers	3259	3.9	160	4.7
Food Services Careers	292	.3	7	2.2
Middle Managers	3740	4.5	308	7.9
Top Level Manager	5021	6.0	357	6.9
Health Professions	6232	7.4	301	4.7

The crosstabulation analysis results shows that military connected individuals were more likely than their non- military connected counterparts to be born on the Western part of the United States and go on to reside in the South post-military. Most of the military connected portion of the sample was born in the Midwest and Mountain West 26 and 27 percent respectively. While 25 percent of the non-military connected portion of the sample was born outside of the United States. A large majority of the non- military connected portion of the sample currently lives in Northeast Mid- Atlantic region (34.9 percent). Followed closely by MtnWest (26.8 percent) (See Table 4.3). The chi square (X^2) statistic was calculated to investigate whether the distributions of the variables differed from one another. X^2 (4, N = 83672) = 479.376, p = .000, Cramer's V = .076. Thus, indicating that there is a relationship between geographic location and military connection.

Table 4.3 Birth and Current Residential Region for the sample

Region of birth	**N**	**Percent**	**Military Connection**	**Percent**
Northeast and Mid-Atl	15357	18	988	20
Midwest	18892	23	1272	26
South	10579	13	907	19
MtnWest	17849	21	1283	27
International	20995	25	392	8
Region currently residing	**N**	**Percent**	**Military Connection**	**Percent**
NE Mid-Atl	29221	34.9	1399	1.7
Midwest	13525	16.2	1040	1.2
South	18403	22	1820	2.2
MtnWest	22455	26.8	1494	1.8
International	68	.1	9	.1

Income Results

The statistics below were generated from data from The National Survey of College Graduates (NSCG) The data were pulled from the 2017 NSCG survey cycle. Overall, the total population of the U.S. was 325.3 million in 2017 with approximately 38.1 million of who live in poverty. Consequently, the overall poverty rate in 2017 was 11.8%.

This study focused on the extent that military service provides an earnings premium for women who served, thus reducing the gender wage gap that presently exists in the United States. To answer the question crosstabulation analysis was conducted to compare men and women's salaries in 2017. Use of inferential statistics supports making generalization and predictions about a population based on a sample of data taken from the population in question by running statistical tests to make those inferences and predictions. The results of the crosstabulation are as follows.

In 2016 the median earnings of men and women who worked full-time, year-round were $51,640 and $41,554, respectively (US Census Bureau). This study found the female-to-male earnings ratio to be 0.787 in 2017. The median salary of men and women who worked full-time year-round in 2017 was $78,731.50 and $50,000 respectively.

According to the U.S. Census, the 2017 official poverty rate was 12.3% (US Census Bureau). Some 39.7 million Americans lived in poverty in 2017 and more than half or 56% were women (US Census Bureau). This study's findings do not necessarily align with the Census findings due to the fact that this study's sample is at least college educated. Researchers argue that individuals with a bachelor's degree have been able to

maintain higher levels of employment and a higher probability of career attainment, than those who do not have a college education. People who start but do not finish college do not experience those same favorable outcomes (Vuolo, Mortimer, & Staff, 2016). Moreover, previous research shows that there is a strong economic advantage to having a college degree, with college graduates earning an average 24% more than high school graduates (Pew Research Center, 2014).

Military connected individuals also seem to be more likely to fall into the middle-income ranges. Surprisingly, close to 10 percent of the non- military connected sample fall into the higher income categories. Furthermore, about 37 percent of the sample fell into the below or near poverty income range. Additionally. on the opposite end of the income range is four percent of the non- military connected sample who fell in the Top Earners range. This result shows that men were more likely than women to fall into the middle-class income range with more men (55 percent) than women (45 percent) in the middle-class income range. Surprising 17.8 percent of the overall sample which included military connected and non- military connected were considered the top wage earners with an annual salary at or above $200,000 (see table 4.5). Conversely, more than 21 percent of the sample were considered low income or below poverty, earning less than $45,000 a year. The chi square (X^2) statistic was calculated to investigate whether the distributions of the variables differed from one another. X^2 (5, N = 83672) = 663, p = .000 Cramer's V = .103, since the p-value (0.0000) is less than the significance level (0.05), the null hypothesis cannot be accepted.

Thus, it stands that there is a relationship between the income range variable and military connection. For context, the variable used to calculate income levels was transformed to reflect the U.S. Census Bureau's income level scale (see Table 4.4).

Table 4.4 U.S. Census Bureau Income scale

Household Income Range	Class
Less than $20,000	Below or near poverty level
$20,001 - $44,999	Low income
$45,000 - $139,999	Middle class
$140,000 - $149,999	Upper middle class
$150,000 - $199,999	High income
$200,000+	Top wage earners

Table 4.5 Income Range by region for the sample

Income Range	Region of residence	N	Percent	Military Connection	Percent
NE MidAtl	Below or Near Poverty	6,691	21	560	2.0
	Low	3,099	10.6	92	.3
	Middle	16,323	55.9	607	2.1
	Upper Middle	522	1.8	34	.1
	High	1,451	5.0	56	.2
	Top Earners	1,135	3.9	50	.2
South	Below or Near Poverty	4,370	23.7	571	3.1
	Low	2,195	11.9	141	.8
	Middle	9,962	4.8	885	4.8
	Upper Middle	364	2.0	43	.2
	High	941	5.1	110	.6
	Top Earners	571	3.1	70	.4
Midwest	Below or Near Poverty	3,232	23.9	414	3.1
	Low	1,683	12.4	88	.7
	Middle	7,429	54.9	445	3.3
	Upper Middle	213	1.6	16	.1
	High	555	4.1	46	.3
	Top Earners	413	3.1	31	.2
Mtn West	Below or Near Poverty	5,496	24.5	606	2.7
	Low	2,323	10.3	114	4.9
	Middle	11,574	51.5	646	2.9
	Upper Middle	531	2.4	11	.7
	High	1,624	7.2	69	.3
	Top Earners	907	4.0	48	.2
International	Below or Near Poverty	16	23.5	2	2.9
	Low	9	13.2	1	1.5
	Middle	32	47.1	5	7.4
	Upper Middle	1	1.5	0	0
	High	6	8.8	1	1.5
	Top Earners	4	5.9	0	0

This study used Toutkoushian, May-Trifiletti, and Clayton's definition of first generation (first gen) to attend college. Toutkoushian, May-Trifiletti, and Clayton (2019) defined first gen as a person whose parent(s)/legal guardian(s) have not earned a bachelor's degree. To further define the term, it means an individual is the first person in their family to attend a four-year college or university to attain a bachelor's degree (Toutkoushian, May-Trifiletti, & Clayton, 2019). According to previous research the United States population of "first gen" individuals ranges between 22 and 77 percent, since this term is often classified in varying ways based on the institution making the classification. This study's findings do align with previous research. The number of individuals who fit into this study's definition of "first gen" is 64,516 which equated to 77% of the sample. Additionally, 36% of the respondent's fathers and 41% of their mothers did not attend college (see Table 4.8). Of the military connected women and men in the sample 38.5 % were the first in their family to attend college.

This study's cross-tabulation results show that educational attainment was a priority for this sample. More than half of the sample (n= 41,792) had earned an advanced degree. In line with their non-military counterparts more than half (n=2,744) of the military connected sample had an advanced degree (Masters, Doctorate, Professional). Furthermore, about 12 percent of the sample has earned a Doctorate or professional degree (see Table 4.2).

Table 4.6 shows that military connected individuals were less likely than their non- military connected counterparts to take out student loans to fund their college education at the undergraduate and graduate levels. Surprisingly, only 10 percent of military connected individuals and 15 percent of non-military connected individuals took

out student loans to pay for college. However, this result seems to show that only 13 military connected individuals have more than $100,000 in student loans borrowed as opposed to 233 non-military connected individuals (see Table 4.6). The chi square (X^2) statistic was calculated to investigate whether the distributions of the variables differed from one another, X^2 (5, N = 83672) = 144.3, p = .000. Thus, it stands that there is a relationship between undergraduate loan amount and military connection. Additionally, close to 10 percent of the entire sample did not took out student loans to pay for graduate school, while only 16 military connected individuals took out student loans to pay for graduate school (see Table 4.7). The chi square (X^2) statistic was calculated to investigate whether the distributions of the variables differed from one another. X^2 (5, N = 83672) = 106.5, p = .000 Cramer's V = .24. Thus, it is concluded that there is a relationship between graduate loan and military connection. These results support the notion that military connected individuals make proper use of their lucrative GI Bill Education Benefits (see Appendix A).

Table 4.6 Undergraduate Student Loan Amount Borrowed for the sample

Undergraduate Loan Amount Borrowed		No Military Connection	Military Connection	Total
$0	N	64317	5111	69428
	Percent	76.90	6.10	83.00
$5000-25000	N	9170	446	9616
	Percent	11.00	0.50	11.50
$25001-50000	N	2232	103	2335
	Percent	2.70	0.10	2.80
$50001-75000	N	1400	66	1466
	Percent	1.70	0.10	1.80
$75001-100000	N	558	23	581
	Percent	0.70	0.00	0.70
$100001- above	N	233	13	246
	Percent	0.30	0.00	0.30
TOTAL	N	77910	5762	83672
	Percent	93.10	6.90	100.00

Table 4.7 Graduate Student Loan Amount Borrowed for the sample

Graduate Loan Amount Borrowed		Non-Military Connection	Military Connection	Total Percent
$0	N	69502	5383	74885
	Percent	83.10	6.40	89.50
$5000-25000	N	4118	189	4307
	Percent	4.90	0.20	5.10
$25001-50000	N	1494	66	1560
	Percent	1.80	0.10	1.90
$50001-75000	N	1196	38	1234
	Percent	1.40	0.00	1.50
$75001-100000	N	1359	70	1429
	Percent	1.60	0.10	1.70
$100001- above	N	241	16	257
	Percent	0.30	0.00	0.30
TOTAL	Percent of Sample	93.10	6.90	100.00

Table 4.8 Parent's Educational Attainment

Parent's Gender	Degree Type	N	Percent
Mother	Less than High School Completed	10120	12.1
	High School Diploma	23422	28.0
	Some College	18196	21.7
	Bachelor's Degree	18725	22.4
	Master's Degree	9593	11.5
	Professional Degree	1415	1.7
	Doctorate Degree	1288	1.5
Father	Less than High School Completed	9895	11.8
	High School Diploma	18750	22.4
	Some College	15104	18.1
	Bachelor's Degree	19542	23.4
	Master's Degree	10533	12.6
	Professional Degree	4474	5.3
	Doctorate Degree	3958	4.7

Changes Made to the Data File

The NSCG survey does not specifically ask whether the respondent has children. In order to find out whether a respondent had children, the questions that asked the number of children a respondent had in each category were combined. The combination was used to determine how many respondents had children; thus, a dichotomous variable was formed.

The race/ethnicity variable was disaggregated into a dichotomous variable to distinguish the subcategories. The White and Asian respondents were combined, because the characteristics of these two subgroups were so similar. The Black and Hispanic respondents were combined, as these groups make up the second largest portion of the sample. The Native American, Native Hawaiian, and Pacific Islander respondents were eliminated from the race/ethnicity variable as these groups made up a small percentage of the sample.

To determine the number of years a respondent had been in the military, the veteran date variables were transformed into interval variables and then added together to find the total time a respondent spent in the military. The military years variables was then transformed into several interval variables to reflect five timeframes of military service making the time spent in the military amenable to use in a regression model.

These variables were converted into numerical dichotomous variables. The number of years on the job variable was converted into an interval variable to see if the number of years a respondent had been on a job affects their salary. The job type variable was transformed into a 5-category numeric variable. Then the five components were broken into five separate job type variables to see if the type of job a respondent had

influenced salary. The region the respondent worked in was converted into six separate dichotomous variables based on the region the employer is located in.

The community college attendance variable was a nominal variable that was converted into a dichotomous variable to make it appropriate for regression analysis.

The original salary variable was recoded to reflect the six income categories defined by the Census Bureau (see Table 4.3). It was later recoded to reflect a three-category variable to reflect three distinct income categories low, middle, and higher income respectively for use in the gender wage gap discussion in chapter 5 of this study.

This study made use of Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression to uncover the effects of independent variables on a dependent variable. Regression analysis was used because it is the most effective statistical method to use to examine the relationship between variables that impact income. Regression analysis was employed to create predictive models that analyzed the relationship between dependent and independent variables. This technique was used to find causal effect relationships between the variables.

Ordinary Least Squares (OLS)

This study employed the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) method to analyze the data. OLS was selected because of its ability to reflect the unbiased effects of veteran status on civilian labor market economic outcomes for women. OLS was originally developed by Adrien- Marie Legendre and later extended by Carl Friedrich Gauss. Legendre's goal with OLS was to create a model to fit astronomical orbits (Freedman, 2009, p.30). Legendre recommends selecting the values of the independent variables (i.e., a and b) to minimize the sum of the squared prediction errors (Freedman, 2009). The OLS statistical method estimates the relationship between one or more independent variables and a dependent variable (National Research Council, 2011). The standard OLS regression produces statistically unbiased estimates of the relationships among variables (regression coefficients) (O'Dwyer & Parker, 2014). The concept of OLS estimation is to find the values of a and b to determine if a relationship exists by minimizing the sum of the squares in the difference between the observed and predicted values of the dependent variable configured as a straight line (National Research Council, 2011).

The Regression Model

This study employed a regression model in the form of the model used by Barbezat and Hughes, (2005) to understand the relationships for salary determinants. Barbezat and Hughes (2005) utilized a single-equation model to predict gaps in salaries of men and women. For proper context, multiple regression analysis attempts to predict values for a variable (the dependent variable) by combining the values of multiple variables (the independent variables). The model is then expressed in the form of a regression equation. Hence, a multiple regression equation has several independent variables and a single dependent variable. The coefficients that yield from the equation are then interpreted to show the effects of change in the corresponding variables. For this study, a regression model was used to predict salaries (annual salary before deductions) in the sample. Eight independent variables were used they are the respondent's age as of 2017,the respondent was white or Asian, the number of years the respondent was in the military, the amount of their undergraduate student loan owed, a disaggregated variable was created to determine if the respondent was the first in their family to attend college, the respondent earned an advanced degree beyond a bachelor's, the respondent worked for a non-profit organization, the number of employees in the company or institution where the respondent is employed, the respondent was employed in the technology sector, the number of years the respondent has worked for their employer as of 2017,the respondent's employer is in California, Oregon, or Washington.

The Regression Variables

The determinants for salary can be stated in the following general forms: Salary equals the following predictor variables: The dependent variable (x) used in this analysis is based on the respondents self-reported basic annual salary, prior to deductions at the time the survey was administered. The salary measure of the basic annual salary ranges from $0 to $1,027,653. This measure was an ordinal variable with a scale that ranges from $0 for unemployed respondents to $1,027,653. Intended for analytic convenience, the original salary variable was recoded into a six-category scale variable for use in crosstabulation analysis to evaluate the income of the sample.

The independent variables (y) used in the model are grouped into the following categories: demographics, human capital, and employer characteristics. Given the emphasis on Human Capital Theory, education, number of years on the job and the respondent's profession (technology job) which together equates to the level of skills a respondent has were included as measures in the model. Specific attention was given to the variables" the respondent was the first in their family to attend college, and the respondent earned an advanced degree beyond a bachelor's (Master's, Doctorate, or Professional)". These HCT variables were dichotomous and interval variables used to determine if these measures had a greater effect on salary for women than men. Several variables were included to account for the respondent's employer's unique characteristic These variables included: location of the employer (region, domestic or international), the size of the employer (number of employees), type of organization (non-profit, government, etc.)

Empirical Results

In the following regression models the respondent's salary was the dependent variable. The first regression includes gender as an independent variable. The sample was then divided by gender and the regressions were then again estimated with the gender variable being excluded.

In model one, an R Square of .214 means that 21 percent of the variation in the dependent variable, salary, is explained by the independent variables taken together. The F statistic (1894.793) was significant at the .001 level. All of the independent variables were statistically significant as shown by the ρ values. Nine of the variables raised a respondent's salary and three lowered it. The variables that raised salary were, age for every one year older a person was, their salary increased by $613. All other things equal, being White or Asian added $5,561.13. Further, perhaps as an incentive to focus on one's salary, for every one dollar more in an outstanding undergraduate student loan, an individual's salary is $.06 more. Earning an advanced degree had a significant effect in that it added $10,166 over what would have been the case if the respondent had only a bachelor's degree.

Model one's results also reflect the fact that working for an employer that is based in California, Oregon, or Washington will increase an individual's salary by $6,088. In addition, an individual working in the technology sector would experience an increase in salary by $9,165. Furthermore, being a man increases an individual's annual salary by over $18,000. This result reflects that there still exists a gender wage gap between men and women with all other things being equal.

In model one, there are three variables that have a negative impact on salary outcomes. The number of years the respondent was in the military, the respondent was the first in their family to attend college, the respondent works for a non-profit organization (β -.159). All other things equal, being the first to graduate with a bachelor's degree lowered the salary by $7,960. Unfortunately, and not unexpectedly being employed in a non-profit organization lowered a respondent's salary by $28,934. Lastly and most importantly given the focus of this research, being in the military lowered the respondent's salary in that for every one more year of military service salary was lowered by $293. One possible explanation might be military service delays entry into the civilian sector with the respondent then entering as an "older" worker (see Table 4.9).

Table 4.9 Coefficients for the entire sample

Model 1	Regression Coefficients	β	t-value	p-value
The respondent's age as of 2017	614.53	.102	29.450	.000
The respondent was White or Asian	5561.13	.026	8.260	.000
The number of years the respondent was in the military	-7637.64	-.021	-6.509	.000
The respondent has an undergraduate student loan balance	.04	.026	8.274	.000
The respondent was the first in their family to attend college	-7945.57	-.046	-14.389	.000
The respondent earned an advanced degree beyond a bachelor's (Master's, Doctorate, or Professional)	10142.73	.085	26|484	.000
The respondent is a male	18708.48	.108	33.525	.000
The respondent works for a non-profit organization	-28910.79	-.159	-45.569	.000
The number of employees in the company or institution where the respondent is employed	.66	.096	28.117	.000
The respondent was employed in the technology sector	9168.20	.030	9.480	.000
The number of years the respondent has worked for their employer as of 2017	11.75	.406	110.176	.000
The respondent's employer is in California, Oregon, or Washington	6093.64	.029	9.268	.000
(Constant)	35164.57		28.772	.000

Model 2

The last two models were formed to predict salary for women and men separately. Model two resulted in an R Square of .221 which means that 22 percent of the variation in the dependent variable, salary, is explained by the independent variables taken together. The F statistic (984.423 women) was significant at the .001 level. The regression model is a good fit of the data. In summation the model statically significantly predicted salary. All but one of the independent variables were statistically significant as shown by the ρ values (see Table 4.10).

Model two represents the regression results for women with men excluded, ten variables proved to be significant for women at the .001 level or better. The variables that were significant in predicting a woman's salary were The respondent's age as of 2017, the respondent was white or Asian, the number of years the respondent was in the military, the respondent has an undergraduate student loan balance, the respondent was the first in their family to attend college, the respondent earned an advanced degree beyond a bachelor's degree, the respondent works for a non-profit organization, the number of employees in the company or institution where the respondent is employed, the respondent was employed in the technology sector, the number of years the respondent has worked for their employer as of 2017, the respondent's employer is in California, Oregon, or Washington (see Table 4.11).

In model two, the results show that military service has no relationship with woman's salary (P=. 0570 >.05). The other factors selected in the model do have a relationship with salary. The respondent was white or Asian, the respondent has an undergraduate student loan balance, the respondent's employer is in California, Oregon,

or Washington, these were associated with an increase in salary (β.033). Being a woman and the respondent was the first in their family to attend college has a negative effect on salary (β -.040). Further, perhaps as an incentive to focus on one's salary, for every one dollar more in an outstanding undergraduate student loan, an individual's salary is $.2 more. Additionally, for every one employee that works in their company the respondent can add $.71 to their salary (see Table 4.11).

All other things being equal being white or Asian added about $4000 a year to a woman's salary. Additionally, being employed by an employer that is based in California, Oregon, or Washington increases a woman's salary by approximately $5,400 per year. All other things being equal for every one-year increase in age a woman's salary increases by $308. Furthermore, a woman who has earned an advanced degree beyond her bachelor's degree experiences an increase in her salary of over $9200 per year. This result indicates that a woman does receive an advantage in salary for her educational attainment efforts. This supports the HCT notion that higher education efforts serve as a bridge to higher earnings. Moreover, working in the technology sector adds over $19,000 to a woman's annual salary (see table 4.5).

All other things equal, being first in the family to attend college decreases a woman's salary by $5,450 a year. Unfortunately, military service has no effect on a woman's salary. In addition, working for a non-profit organization does hurt a woman's salary. A woman who works for a non-profit organization could experience a decrease of about $18,000 in annual salary.

Table 4.10 Coefficients for the sample of women

Model 2	Regression Coefficients	β	t-value	p-value
The respondent's age as of 2017	308.20	.063	12.957	.000
The respondent was white or Asian	4061.75	.025	5.527	.000
The number of years the respondent was in the military	63.04	.003	.568	.570
The respondent has an undergraduate student loan balance	.02	.022	4.868	.000
The respondent was the first in their family to attend college	-5449.83	-.040	-8.575	.000
The respondent earned an advanced degree beyond a bachelor's (Master's, Doctorate, or Professional)	9275.01	.096	20.377	.000
The respondent works for a non-profit organization	-18060.01	-.132	-25.139	.000
The number of employees in the company or institution where the respondent is employed	.71	.130	25.756	.000
The respondent was employed in the technology sector	19191.01	.061	13.207	.000
The number of years the respondent has worked for their employer as of 2017	8.91	.417	75.321	.000
The respondent's employer is in California, Oregon, or Washington	5457.87	.033	7.039	.000
(Constant)	40383.89		29.344	.000

Model 3

The final model was formed to predict salary for men excluding women. Model three resulted in an R Square of .190 All of the independent variables were statistically significant.

Model three revealed that eleven variables proved to be significant at the .001 level or better. The significant predictors are: the respondent's age as of 2017, the respondent was White or Asian, the number of years the respondent was in the military, the respondent has an undergraduate student loan balance, the respondent was the first in their family to attend college, the respondent earned an advanced degree beyond a bachelor's, the respondent was employed in the technology sector, the number of employees in the company or institution where the respondent is employed, the number of years the respondent has worked for their employer as of 2017.

Working in the technology sector adds over $5080 to a man's annual salary. A man's age has a positive impact on his annual salary. For every year in age a man will see his salary increase by $914. Being White or Asian increases a man's annual salary by $7,492. A man who has earned an advanced degree beyond a bachelor's degree will see a salary, increase of a little over $11,000. Additionally, being employed by an employer that is based in California, Oregon, or Washington increases a man's salary by approximately $6,761 per year. Further, perhaps as an incentive to focus on one's salary, for every one dollar more in an outstanding undergraduate student loan, an individual's salary is $.2 more. Additionally, for every one employee working within the company the respondent can add $.54 to their salary (see Table 4.11).

The number of years in the military has a negative effect on a man's salary (β -.021). All other things being equal, for every year in the military a man's salary will decrease by $301. For men military connection served as a predictor for salary, however, for each year of military service a man serves his salary decreases by $301. All other things being equal, being first in the family to attend college decreases a man's salary by more than $10,000. However, a man who works for a non-profit organization can expect to see a decrease in salary of over $36,900 (see Table 4.11).

Table 4.11 Coefficients for the sample of men

Model 3	Regression Coefficients	β	t-value	p-value
The respondent's age as of 2017	914.06	.136	27.699	.000
The respondent was white or Asian	7492.96	.029	6.791	.000
The number of years the respondent was in the military	-301.24	-.021	-4.831	.000
The respondent has an undergraduate student loan balance	.054	.032	7.427	.000
The respondent was the first in their family to attend college	-10186.80	-.052	-11.835	.000
The respondent earned an advanced degree beyond a bachelor's (Master's, Doctorate, or Professional)	11103.04	.084	19.092	.000
The respondent works for a non-profit organization	-36929.71	-.169	-36.627	.000
The number of employees in the company or institution where the respondent is employed	.61	.079	17.022	.000
The respondent was employed in the technology sector	5085.67	.017	3.911	.000
The number of years the respondent has worked for their employer as of 2017	14.50	.420	83.692	.000
The respondent's employer is in California, Oregon, or Washington	6761.80	.029	6.736	.000
(Constant)	43714.14		22.691	.000

Comparing Men and Women

The results of Model two and three represent the differences for men and women in the sample separately. The sample was divided by gender and the regressions were then again estimated with the gender variable being excluded. The predictors include eleven variables that were thought to predict salary. When compared military connection outcomes differed for women and men based on gender alone. For men military connection served as a predictor for salary however, for each year of military service a man serves his salary decreases by $301. For women military service has no relationship with salary. Additionally, working in the technology sector adds over $5080 to a man's annual salary while women can add over $19,000 to their annual salary if they work in that sector. A man's age has a positive impact on his annual salary. For every year increase in age a man will see his salary increase by $914 as opposed to women who only see $308 added to their salary for every year increase in age (see Table 4.12). Being White or Asian increases a man's annual salary by $7,492 and women only experienced an additional $4000 increase in salary. A man who has earned an advanced degree beyond a bachelor's degree will see a salary increase of a little over $11,000 while women only had an increase of $9200 in salary for an advanced degree. Additionally, being employed by an employer that is based in California, Oregon, or Washington increases a man's salary by approximately $6,761 per year and women by $5,400 per year.

Nevertheless, a man who works for a non-profit organization can expect to see a decrease in salary of over $36,900 a woman will experience a decrease of about half the amount of men at about $18,000. All other things equal, being first in the family to attend college decreases a woman's salary by $5,450 a year and for men that decrease is around $10,000 (see Table 4.12).

Table 4.12 Men and Women Coefficients Comparison

Variable	Effect on Men's Salary	Effect on Women's Salary
The respondent's age as of 2017	+ $914	+ $308
The respondent was white or Asian	+ $7,492	+ $4,061
The number of years the respondent was in the military	- $301	No effect
The respondent has an undergraduate student loan balance	+ $.054	+ $.021
The respondent was the first in their family to attend college	- $10,186	- $5,449
The respondent earned an advanced degree beyond a bachelor's (Master's, Doctorate, or Professional)	+ $11,103	+ $9,275
The respondent works for a non-profit organization	- $36,929	- $18,060
The number of employees in the company or institution where the respondent is employed	+ $.61	+ $.71
The respondent was employed in the technology sector	+ $5,085	+ $19,191
The number of years the respondent has worked for their employer as of 2017	+ $14.50	+ $9
The respondent's employer is in California, Oregon, or Washington	+ $6,761	+ $5,457

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

This study dealt with the idea that military service yields higher levels of earnings for individuals who successfully transition into the civilian labor force and throughout their career (Padavic & Prokos, 2017). This research addressed whether the benefits from military service could be achieved by military connected women as compared to non-military connected individuals. This study examined data from the 2017 National Survey of College Graduates' to ascertain the differences in civilian earnings between military connected women's post-military career and non- military connected individuals. This study's findings indicate that women often face discrimination when they transition into the civilian labor force. The U.S government has enacted several policies, laws, and practices, to help remove the discrimination women face hence, increasing the changes of economic equality for women. This study addressed the notion that military service yields higher levels of earnings for individuals who successfully transition into the civilian labor force and throughout their career. Moreover, this study addressed whether these benefits could be realized by military connected women as compared to men and non-military connected women. The 2017 National Survey of College Graduates' data were used to determine the differences in civilian earnings between women veterans' post military career and nonveteran women. This study found that when compared civilian labor force earning outcomes differed for men and women based on several factors that are outlined in the following paragraphs.

The opportunity cost of serving in the military in terms of foregone civilian labor force training and experience does negatively affect civilian earnings for men and has no

relationship with earnings for women. For men military connection served as a predictor for salary however, for each year of military service a man serves his salary is decreased by $301. For women military connection had no connection to salary. According to previous research, (Renna & Weinstein,2018), discrimination and an employer perceived skills mismatch are key factors that contribute to this finding.

This study found that being white or Asian has a significant effect when comparing women and men; with all other things being equal, there is a clear difference of $3431 per year in salary with men earning $7493 and women earning $4062. Previous research addresses the issue of discrimination veterans face when they transition into the civilian labor force. Specifically, Lindsay Barnes (2014) found that discriminatory employment practices based on misperceptions of veterans has contributed to the high level of inequality they face when transitioning into the civilian labor force. General misperceptions, associated stereotypes, and readjustment concerns contribute to the discrimination that those who have served face when seeking employment in the civilian labor force. To combat the issue of discrimination veterans, face the Uniformed Services Employment and Redeployment Rights Act (USERRA) was enacted in 1994 by President Bill Clinton. USERRA is federal law, it serves as protection for veterans against employment discrimination. Its enactment serves to reduce the disadvantages faced by veterans transitioning into the civilian labor force (Barnes, 2014). The goal of the Act is to ensure that those who serve in the United States military will be able to retain their civilian employment and benefits (see Appendix C). It also seeks to ensure an employment environment free from discrimination due to military service.

There presently exists a cultural disparity between the military and the civilian labor force. This disparity is due to the lack of military service among the current generation of employers. Military service is often assumed to be non-productive to civilian organizations, with a large portion of civilian employers unable to translate military skills into civilian occupations. Previous research shows that civilian employers have expressed concerns that military members are unable to assimilate into the civilian labor force successfully (Barnes, 2014). This is due to the assumption that the structured environment of military and the years of service in the military have caused them to be out of touch with reality.

Another misconception many civilian employers have is there is an increased amount of military-related injuries that could negatively impact a veteran's cognitive functions making it harder for them to assimilate into the civilian labor force. Of specific concern are post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and traumatic brain injury (TBI). PTSD and TBI create a stigma that combat veterans are emotionally unstable and could potentially create a hostile work environment. Civilian employers often fear uncontrollable behavior from veterans will create an unpredictable workplace.

To improve veterans' transition from military to civilian employers the United States government enacted the Hiring Heroes Act of 2011. The act mandates that all members of the military transitioning into the civilian labor force participate in the Transition Assistance Program (TAP) under the Department of Labor. TAP works to assist transitioning veterans by translating the occupational skills acquired in service into civilian occupations. Additionally, in 2006 a change was made to title 5 of the United States Code, Section 2108 (5 USC 2108) to give hiring preference to veterans in federal

and state employment. The Work Opportunity Tax Credit (WOTC) which provides for up to $4,800 for each qualified veteran provides employers a tax credit for hiring veterans. Moreover, civilian employers that hire veterans also receive tax credit of $9,600 for hiring a veteran who is disabled due to a service-connected injury (Little, 2011). As a note, only veterans who were honorably discharged or released from active duty in the armed forces are eligible for veterans' preference.

According to the U.S. Census Bureau, a little over one third of American working adults have a four-year college degree while ninety percent of American over the age of 25 have a high school diploma. Additionally, 9.3 percent of adults over the age of 25 have a master's degree and nearly two percent of Americans have a doctoral degree or professional degree. Previous research supports this study's finding that a college degree combined with military has no effect on salary for males or females. According to previous research (Berger & Hirsch, 1983) the primary recipients of a salary premium were highly skilled veterans with a high school education. Civilian employers award higher wages to veterans who possess higher levels of traits important to success in the civilian labor force.

This study found that being a woman who is the first in her family to graduate from college has a negative effect on salary. (β -.040 = P <.05). All other things being equal, being first in the family to attend college decreases an individual's salary by $5,450. Although, the entire sample in this study possessed at least a bachelor's degree and more than one-half (see Table 4.10) of the sample possessed an advance degree beyond their four-year degree, education did not provide veterans an earnings premium for women. This could be due to several factors that affect salary. One such factor could be

geographic location of employment. Wages are generally higher in more populated areas of the country. Geographic locations (Massachusetts and Maryland) with higher levels of educational attainment typically have higher wage earners. Previous research supports this result.

Kasarda, Villemez, and Wayne (1976) found that as larger segments of a population attain higher levels of education, the relative impact of attainment declines. For example, if 25% of applicants have only completed a high school diploma then earning a bachelor's degree serves as a competitive advantage, However, when 50% of the candidate pool earning a bachelor's degree, a bachelor's degree attainment becomes a necessity to compete on the same level. Since a large portion of veterans choose to live in geographic locations with smaller populations that possess a lower levels of education attainment, their choice to forego a college education does not necessarily negatively impact their earning power.

Additionally, this study's finding being employed in California, Oregon, or Washington advantages men as compared to women (+$1,304). This supports the notion that geographic location does impact an individual's salary. According to the Census Bureau, the state of California has the largest military connected population (1.56 million) in the United States, followed closely by Texas (1.46 million), and Florida (1.44 million). This study's data reflect slightly different geographic location data than the Census Bureau's military connected population numbers. In this study with the sample of military connected geographic regions the largest portion (n= 1128) of the sample of military connected work for employers in the Southern part of the United States signaling Florida, followed by the West (n=982) California and last the Southwest (n=672) Texas.

Overall women do not experience an earning premium over men when combining military service and education when transitioning into the civilian labor force (β men -.021 = P <.05, women P = .570 = P <.05). It is assumed that there exists a misconception related to gender roles when civilian employers consider hiring military connected women with civilian employers seeing the military as a man's world. Previous research (Dunivin, 1994) supports the suspicion; that civilian employers view the military as a unique culture that promotes masculine identities, attitudes and behaviors (Dunivin, 1994). In addition, military service acts as an unwelcomed attribute to civilian employers who view those who participate in military service less productive or lacking the skills that would directly apply to the civilian labor force (Renna &Weinstein, 2018). Furthermore, military connected individuals are often paid less due to the civilian employer's lack of appreciation of their talents (Renna & Weinstein, 2018). Several researchers (Kleykamp, 2009; Kleykamp & Maclean, 2014) have demonstrated that civilian labor force employers are likely to discriminate against veterans. Civilian employers tend to perceive that military connected individuals lack the skills necessary to succeed in civilian occupations. Furthermore, this study revealed that the military does not act as a bridge to higher civilian labor force earnings for women. This suggests that a bridging environment from military service does not exist for women.

While the various branches of the military have made tremendous progress toward gender equality, with women gradually transitioning into more male-dominated military occupations than in the past, there remains a strong gender bias among civilian employers toward women who have served. This study found that when the respondent was employed in the technology sector, all other things being equal, for every year

increase in the experience men's salary will increase by $$5086, while women saw no impact on salary.

Although roughly half of the civilian labor force is made up of women, they only comprise about 15 percent of the military (Department of Defense). Furthermore, a somewhat greater percentage of women than men serve as commissioned officers (17% vs. 15%, respectively) in the military (Parker & Patten, 2011). Even though women and men experience similar patterns of advancement in the military, they experience differences in the roles they move into. Most notably, women veterans are much less likely than men to serve in a combat-related occupation. According to Patten and Parker, active-duty women are heavily concentrated in administrative and medical roles. Women in the military make up thirty percent of the administrative personnel as compared with men who make up 12 percent of those roles. Additionally, men make up only sex percent of medical roles, while women hold 15 percent of these jobs. The occupational roles in electrical and infantry areas are overwhelmingly dominated by men. Twenty-two percent of men versus twelve percent of women hold jobs in the electrical field (Parker & Patten, 2011). Civilian employers prefer to hire veterans who have served in highly technical military occupational specialties that have civilian equivalents, such as electrical and information technology fields. Consequently, these are fields that women are much less prone to work in while in the military.

Interesting Findings

This sample contains 83,672 respondents 38,202 (45.7%) women and 45,470 (54.3%) men. The median age of the sample is 45 years old. Twenty-three percent of the sample live below or near poverty women make up 13 percent of that number while men make up 10 percent. Thirty-four percent of the sample are middle class. Women make up 15 percent of that number and men make up 19 percent. This study's sample is pretty well off with 43 percent of the sample in the upper-class income category. (see Table 4.4) Men represent 29 percent and women represent 14 percent of the upper-class income category for this sample. Many of the top earners in the sample (17%) held executive level positions in 2017. Thirteen percent of the top earners in the sample had a military connection. This finding supports the notion that leadership skills from military service have a strong connection to the leadership skills necessary to lead an organization.

One potential explanation for this finding is that military connected women and men have mastered the skills needed to make decisions under intense circumstances in the course of combat. Previous research (Benmelech & Frydman, 2015) found that, military connected individuals provide servicemen and women leadership skills that have been shown to affect their decision-making when they become executives in the civilian labor force. The military does a great job of preparing service men and women for leadership by giving them access to progressive training programs that combine education with on-the-job training. Furthermore, military service provided individuals hands-on leadership experience that is difficult to learn otherwise. Military service as a result helps them make better decisions in pressure or crisis situations. Additionally, military service yields individuals who have a strong commitment to ethics, duty, and

self-sacrifice. Previous research also found that corporate executives who have a military connection are 70 percent less likely to be involved in fraudulent activities when compared to executives who do not have a military connection (Price, 2011). According to the US Army's official vision statement, "the army develops smart, thoughtful, and innovative leaders of character who are comfortable with complexity and capable of operating from the tactical to the strategic level" (US Army, 2020, p.2). The notion that service in the military is linked to a value system that promotes integrity and ethical behavior illustrates the military's propensity to screen candidates based on physical and mental fitness.

According to Benmelech and Frydman (2015), fifty-nine percent of corporate executives in 1980, had a military connection compared to only 6.2% in 2013, though CEOs with military backgrounds have begun to disappear from corporate executive ranks. Based on this study's finding of 13% of respondents are top earners, emergent leadership programs like Wal-Mart and General Electric's military leadership programs, developed to recruit former military officers for leadership roles to address the leadership talent shortage are working (O'Keefe, 2010).

Summary of Findings

Three regression models were created to predict salary outcomes for the sample. The first model included gender as an independent variable. The second and third models were created by dividing the sample by gender. The models were run separately for men and then for women. This was done to predict salary outcomes for men and women separately. The factors that raised a respondent's salary were, age for every one year older a person was, their salary increased by $613. Earning an advanced degree added $10,166 over what would have been the case if the respondent had only a bachelor's degree.

When comparing men to women this study found that being White or Asian increases a man's annual salary by $7,492 and women only experienced an additional $4000 increase in salary. Additionally, it found that a man who has earned an advanced degree beyond a bachelor's degree will see a salary increase of a little over $11,000 while women only had an increase of $9200 in salary for an advanced degree. Furthermore, being employed by an employer that is based in California, Oregon, or Washington increases a man's salary by approximately $6,761 per year and women by $5,400 per year.

Nevertheless, a man who works for a non-profit organization can expect to see a decrease in salary of over $36,900 a woman will experience a decrease of about half the amount of men at about $18,000. All other things equal, being first in the family to attend college decreases a woman's salary by $5,450 a year and for men that decrease is around $10,000 (see Table 4.12).

Conclusions

This study used descriptive and inferential statistics to analyze salary outcomes for military connected women by means of demographic characteristics examined from the National Survey of College Graduates (NSCG). This study questioned, if military service is the bridge to higher wages for women who combine military service with higher education attainment to transition into the civilian labor force? This question is based on the assumption that individuals who earn at least a bachelor's degree are able to realize an earning premium awarded to them by civilian employers who view their military connection and education as an asset to the organization. Overall women do not experience an earnings premium over men when combining military service and education after transitioning into the civilian labor force (β men -.021 = $p < .05$, women $p = .570 = p < .05$). Furthermore, this study revealed military does not act as a bridge to higher civilian labor force earnings for women. Suggesting that a bridging environment from military service does not exist for women.

This study concluded that there exists a misconception related to gender roles when civilian employers consider hiring military connected women, it was hypothesized that military connection results in greater earnings for a woman in the civilian labor market than a non-military connected and women of color. This is due to the "bridging environment" that military service provides women who serve. This hypothesis views the military as an environment where an individual acquires technical skills and abilities that could benefit the civilian organization. The specific focus of this research is whether these benefits can be realized by military connected women. The results of the multiple regression suggest this hypothesis was not true. For women military connection has no

connection to salary. Overall, women do not experience an earnings premium over men and non- military connected women when combining military service and education after transitioning into the civilian labor force (β men -.021 = p <.05, women p = .570 = p <.05). Furthermore, this study revealed military does not act as a bridge to higher civilian labor force earnings for women. This suggests that a bridging environment from military service does not exist for women. In addition, military service does predict for men's salary although negatively; for each year of military service a man serves his salary is decreased by $301. This finding suggests that military connection does not serve as a bridge to higher civilian earnings for men.

The study also hypothesized that the earnings advantage predicted for women veterans in the aforementioned hypothesis would be stronger for women of color than for white women. When comparing women and men based on the respondent being white or Asian, with all other things being equal, there is a clear difference of $3431 per year in salary with men earning more. Race did impact salary however, for women being a woman of color did not improve civilian earnings. Woman who were white or Asian earned $4062 more than women of color, signaling that military service combined with education attainment does not yield higher earnings for women of color.

Theoretical Connection Results

Through the Human Capital Theory (HCT) lens, this study assessed the relationship between military connection and civilian labor force economic outcomes for women. The general hypothesis was that military service along with the attainment of at least a bachelor's degree would serve as a bridge to higher pay for women after transitioning into the civilian labor force. However, women in general did not experience an earning premium over men or non- military connected women when combining military service and education when transitioning into the civilian labor force. Consequently, the human capital gained from educational attainment does not act as a bridge to higher civilian labor force earnings for women who add their military service into the equation.

Human Capital Theorists say human capital is the attainment of knowledge and skills by means of education, for the expansion of productivity and output (Akinyemi & Abiddin, 2013). Previous research (Berger & Hirsch, 1983) supports this study's finding that a college degree combined with military service has no effect on salary for military connected women. Existing research suggests that, the primary recipients of an earnings premium for military service are those who are highly skilled and possess only a high school diploma. For additional context this study found that being a woman who is the first in her family to graduate from college has a negative effect on salary. Hence, being a woman who is first in the family to attend college decreases an individual's salary by $5,450. This finding does align with previous research.

Overall, this study found that an individual's military connection does not hinder their ability to successfully transition into the civilian labor force. However, it does suggest that military service does not act as a mechanism to move military connected job candidates to the front of the line.

Implications for Policy and Practice

Policy

Military Connected women bring to the civilian workforce their extensive training, leadership skills, and a high-level of commitment and focus. College career counselors can serve military connected women well if they would become familiar with military culture, along with the military branch specific skills that provide veterans equitable skills transfer that would assist them in their career transition. In doing so, career counselors would have a strong consciousness of the various military experiences that a female veteran would bring to a civilian career. Career counselors would in turn be able to assist female veterans in translating those valuable skills into practical real-world applications that serve to facilitate a smooth transition to a civilian career (see Appendix D & E).

According to the Department of Veterans Affairs, the federal and state governments along with many private industry employers give veterans a hiring preference (VA.gov). The federal government, in particular, adds five points to the score used in hiring decisions for those who have served on active duty for more than 180 consecutive days and ten points for those who have a military-connected disability (VA.gov). Many of the organizations that do business with the federal government via government contracts are required to give military connected applicant's preference in hiring decisions. On the contrary, employers are required to use caution when giving veteran preference as they cannot violate any anti-discrimination laws to the detriment of a protected group (VA.gov). This study addressed whether the veteran's preference was realized by military connected women.

The results of this study led to several recommendations for policy regarding military connected women's transition to the civilian labor force. The first recommendation for policy is to combat discrimination against military connected job candidates. The federal government should move to impose harsher punishments on firms that do not honor the regulations (USERRA) that support veteran's preference (see Appendix C). The second recommendation for policy is for the VA to provide civilian employers educational information around mental disorders (PTSD) that military connected individuals are perceived to have, to dispel the myth that military connected employees are not fit for the civilian labor force. The third recommendation for policy is for the Department of Defense (DoD) to facilitate recruitment events on the military base to give military connected candidates full access to private-sector employers in an environment that is more comfortable for the candidate. The last recommendation for policy is the DoD should encourage individuals interested in transitioning into the civilian labor force to begin the transition process early which includes engaging with potential civilian employers and take advantage of the many resources available.

Practice

The results of this study led to several recommendations for practice regarding military connected women's transition to the civilian labor force. The first recommendation for practice is that civilian employers should take advantage of federal resources (USERRA, TAP) that allow firms to connect with and train veterans earlier in the transition process (see Appendix C). The second recommendation for practice is for civilian employers to partner with the DoD to facilitate a pay structure that would level the pay rate system for men and women similar to the military rank and pay system. (see Appendix D). This change would help reduce the wage gap that this study found exists between men and women.

Future Research

From the foundation laid by this study, future research should evaluate the effectiveness of veterans' employment transition programs and veterans' preference in civilian employers' hiring practices. By law, disabled veterans and those who served on active duty in the Armed Forces are generally entitled to preference over nonveterans in hiring practices and workforce retention. There is little research determining how successful government programs are at safeguarding military connected individuals. Besides reviewing economic outcomes, future research should address the specific challenges military connected women face transitioning to the civilian workforce, by identifying gaps that exist in veteran preference programs offered by civilian employers. Studying this issue would contribute substantially to the literature on veterans' preference effectiveness for military connected women. In addition, it would contribute to improving the quality of employment transitions for military connected women as a whole.

Future research should evaluate the hiring practices of civilian managers to help improve their understanding of Military Occupational Specialty (MOS) alignment to job openings with the proper military occupations. This is in an effort to reduce the amount of discrimination qualified military connected women face when transitioning into the civilian labor force. Military connected individuals enter the civilian labor force with a high level of skills and expertise, understanding military terminology and occupational codes will help civilian employers properly match an individual's skills to open positions (see appendix D & E).

Study Limitations

This study was not concerned with collegiate experiences of military-connected males or females. At its core this study addressed demographic and human capital factors that contribute to economic outcomes. At a general level it focused on such factors as occupational industry and employer size as well as individual characteristics such as overall degree attainment, age of the respondent, and familial characteristics.

In addition, this study was limited by a lack of data for individuals who only earned a high school diploma. Despite the role of the military as a potential bridge to attainment of greater civilian labor force earning outcomes, this study placed limited research attention on understanding the circumstances in which military- connected individuals with only a high school diploma and thereby gaining access to higher paying civilian jobs.

Furthermore, the use of personal interviews of military-connected individuals could have provided a narrative account of their individual experiences transitioning from military into the civilian labor force. A mixed methods approach to this study would have provided that information. However, during the preliminary stages of this study a number of military connected individuals who were contacted for this study expressed an unwillingness to share their personal stories. Despite these limitations, this study contributes to the current body of literature on transitions into the civilian labor force for military connected men and women.

Moreover, this study builds upon the current literature which did not address the issues and needs of military connected women who have earned at least a bachelor's degree. This study also sheds light on the unique challenges faced by this under-served group given the lack of literature on civilian labor force transitions for military connected women.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A SAMPLE OCCUPATIONS LIST

Table 4.2 lists the occupation numbers for the entire sample. The following provides a more detailed description of the various occupations held by the NSCG 2017 respondents:

- **IT Jobs:** Computer & Information scientists, research, network architect, support specialists, system analysts, and Database administrators
- **College Professors:** Postsecondary Teachers
- **STEM Careers:** Mathematical scientists, Chemists, Atmospheric and space scientists, Oceanographers, Biological scientists
- **Engineering Careers:** Marine engineers and naval architects, Materials and metallurgical engineers, engineering technologists and technicians, Petroleum engineers, nuclear engineers
- **Social Sciences:** Economists, Political scientists, Psychologists, Sociologists, Librarians, archivists, curators
- **Teachers:** Secondary Teachers (Pre-K- 12th grade)
- **Social Services Careers:** Social Workers, Counselors (educational, vocational, mental health, and substance abuse) Clergy and other religious workers
- **Technician and Technologist Careers:** Technologists and technicians in the mathematical sciences, Surveyors, cartographers, photogrammetrists, Technologists and technicians in the physical sciences
- **Financial Services:** Insurance, securities, real estate and business services, Sales-Commodities except retail (industrial/med/dental machine, equipment, supplies)

- **Law Enforcement:** Protective services (e.g., fire fighters, police, guards, wardens, park rangers), Lawyers, Judges,
- **Clerical Careers:** Accounting clerks and bookkeepers, Secretaries, receptionists, typists, record clerks, telephone operators
- **Trades and Technical Careers:** Construction and extraction occupations, Farmers, Foresters and Fishermen, Precision/production occupations (metal/woodwork, butchers, baker, assembler, tailor)
- **Sales Careers:** marketing and sales occupations, Sales- retail
- **Food Services Careers:** Food preparation and service (cooks, waitresses, bartenders)
- **Middle Managers:** Computer and Information Systems Managers, Engineering Managers, Medical and Health Services Managers
- **Top Level Manager:** Executives, Administrators (CEO/COO/CFO, president, district or general manager, provost) Education Administrators (e.g. registrar, dean, principal)
- **Health Professions:** Medical scientists, Health technologists and technicians, RNs, pharmacists, dieticians, therapists, physician assistant, nurse practitioners, Diagnosing/treating practitioners (dentist, optometrist, physicians, psychiatrist, podiatrist, surgeon, veterinarian)

APPENDIX B EXPLANATION OF MILITARY EDUCATION BENEFITS

The Post- 9/11 GI Bill is an education benefit program for individuals who served on active duty after September 10, 2001.

Am I Eligible?

You may be eligible if you served at least 90 aggregate days on active duty* after September 10, 2001, or were honorably discharged from active duty for a service-connected disability after serving 30 continuous days following September 10, 2001.

Note: *Children of a member of the Armed Forces who died in the line of duty on or after September 11, 2001, may be eligible for Post-9/11 GI Bill benefits under the Marine Gunnery John David Fry Scholarship Program.*

What will I receive?

You may receive a percentage of the following payments (see chart).

- A Tuition and Fee payment that is paid to your school on your behalf
- A Monthly Housing Allowance (MHA)** that is equal to:
  - the basic allowance for housing (BAH) payable for the zip code of your school to a military E-5 with dependents for students pursuing resident training
  - one-half the BAH national average for students training solely by distance learning
  - the national average BAH for students pursuing training at foreign schools

*includes active service as a National Guard member under title 32 U.S.C. for the purpose of organizing, administering, recruiting, instructing, or training and active service under section 502(f) of title 32 for the purpose of responding to a national emergency.
**The MHA is not payable to individuals on active duty or those enrolled at half time or less.

- A Books and Supplies Stipend of up to $1000 per year

Individuals serving an aggregate period of active duty after September 10, 2001, of:	Percentage of Maximum Benefit Payable
At least 36 months	100%
At least 30 continuous days and discharged due to service-connected disability	100%
At least 30 months < 36 months	90%
At least 24 months < 30 months	80%
At least 18 months < 24 months	70%
At least 12 months < 18 months	60%
At least 6 months < 12 months	50%
At least 90 days < 6 months	40%

How many months of assistance can I receive and how long am I eligible?

Generally, you may receive up to 36 months of entitlement under the Post-9/11 GI Bill. You will be eligible for benefits for 15 years from your last period of active duty of at least 90 consecutive days.

What kind of training can I take?

You can use the Post-9/11 GI Bill at colleges, universities, trade schools, and for on-the-job training, apprenticeships, and flight schools. To see what programs are currently approved for VA benefits, go to our website, http://www.benefits.va.gov/gibill/.

You can use the Post-9/11 GI Bill for tutorial assistance, licensing (attorney license, cosmetology license, etc.) and certification tests (SAT, LSAT, etc.)

Note: *If the program you are interested in isn't on our website, contact your State Approving Agency (list available on http://www.benefits.va.gov/gibill/) to see if it can be approved.*

Can I transfer my entitlement to my dependents?

You must be a member of the uniformed services to transfer your unused benefits to your spouse or dependent(s). Generally, you must agree to serve four more years when transferring benefits.

What is the Yellow Ribbon Program?

The Post-9/11 GI Bill can cover all in-state tuition and fees at public degree granting schools, but may not cover all private degree granting schools and out-of-state tuition. The Yellow Ribbon Program provides additional support in those situations.

Institutions voluntarily enter into an agreement with VA to fund uncovered charges. VA matches each dollar of unmet charges the institution agrees to contribute, up to the total cost of the tuition and fees.

Retrieved from:
https://www.benefits.va.gov/gibill/docs/pamphlets/ch33_pamphlet.pdf

APPENDIX C SAMPLE USERRA POLICY

A USERRA Policy for a state in the U.S. State.The state's name has been redacted.

State of
Department of Human Resources

MILITARY LEAVE POLICY & PROCEDURE	
Policy #: To be assigned.	**Authority: Uniformed Services Employment and Reemployment Rights Act of 1994 (USERRA); 29 *C.* Chapter 5105; M.R. 5.5.1.1, 5.5.1.6, 5.6**
Effective Date: November 20, 2019	**Supersedes: N/A**
Application: Executive Branch Agencies	**Signature:**

1. POLICY PURPOSE STATEMENT

This policy sets forth the State of (State) policy and procedures to comply with the Uniformed Services Employment and Reemployment Rights Act (USERRA) to address the employment and reemployment rights of employees who serve in the military and prohibit employer discrimination based on military service or obligation.

2. SCOPE

This policy applies to all Executive Branch Agency employees[1] who perform active military service under the provisions of any national military service or training act, or who voluntarily serve in the Armed Forces of the United States in time of war, or in such types of service as regulation may prescribe.

3. DEFINITIONS AND ACRONYMS

- **Application for Employee Salary Continuation** – a form an eligible employee must file to request continuation of his/her State base salary less any military compensation when called to active military service for any operational mission to augment active forces.
- **Application for Military Leave** – a verbal or written statement for reemployment provided to the Agency Human Resources office after periods of State of service of more than 180 calendar days.
- **Appropriate Officer** – a commissioned, warrant or non-commissioned officer.

[1] USERRA rights are not diminished because an employee holds a temporary, part-time, probationary or seasonal employment position. However, an employer is not required to reemploy an employee if the employment he or she left to serve in the uniformed services was for a brief, non-recurrent period, and there is no reasonable expectation that the employment would have continued indefinitely or for a significant period. (20 C.F.R. § 1002.41)

- **Employee Salary Continuation** – a benefit provided to eligible State employees called to active military service for any operational mission to augment active forces as ordered may be eligible for continuation of their State base salary less any military compensation received.

- **Escalator Principle** – the starting point in determining the proper reemployment position. The reemployment position is the one the service member would have attained if his or her continuous employment had not been interrupted due to uniformed service. It encompasses what his or her seniority, status and pay rate would be had there been no absence for military service.

- **Line of Duty** – does not include training or education periods. Training and educational periods include, but are not limited to, the weekend National Guard/Reserve training and two (2)-week training periods.

- **Military Leave** – when an employee of the State is called to service or voluntarily enters the armed forces of the United States or the National Guard of the State.

- **Qualifying Services:**
  a. Active duty
  b. Active duty for training
  c. Inactive duty training (when reservists train one (1) weekend per month and two (2) weeks per year)
  d. Full-time National Guard duty
  e. Examination to determine fitness for any of the above types of duty
  f. Funeral honors duty performed by National Guard or reserve members
  g. Duty performed by intermittent employees of the National Disaster Medical System (NDMS) which is part of the Department of Homeland Security – Emergency Preparedness and Response Directorate (FEMA), when activated for a public health emergency and approved training to prepare for such service.

- **Reasonable Efforts** – actions, including training, that do not cause undue hardship to the employer.

- **Uniformed Services:**
  a. Army, Navy, Marine Corps, Air Force or Coast Guard
  b. Army Reserve, Naval Reserve, Marine Corps Reserve, Air Force Reserve or Coast Guard Reserve
  c. Army National Guard or Air National Guard
  d. Commissioned Corps of the Public Health Service or
  e. Any other category of individuals designated by the President of the United States in time of war or emergency.

- **Uniformed Services Employment and Reemployment Rights Act (USERRA)** – the federal law that establishes rights and responsibilities for Uniformed Service members and their civilian employers.

4. POLICY

a. It is the policy of the State to comply with USERRA, which is a federal law that establishes rights and responsibilities for members of the Armed Forces, including the National Guard and Reserve. USERRA ensures that these service members are not disadvantaged in their civilian careers because of their service, are promptly reemployed in their civilian job upon their return from duty, and are not discriminated against in employment because of their military status or obligations.

b. An eligible employee shall be paid to attend training camp or special duty on orders as a member of the military reserves of the United States or the National Guard, not to exceed 112.5 hours (37.5-hour weekly schedule) or 120 hours (40-hour weekly schedule), on a pro-rata basis, in any calendar year. For employees employed less than full time, the maximum number of hours for which the employee is eligible to be paid shall be determined on a pro-rata basis. Such military or special duty leaves shall not be deducted from annual leave or in any other way result in loss of privileges or compensation to said employee. If the active duty tour extends beyond the number of hours for which the employee is eligible to be paid, the portion of the leave beyond that time period shall be without pay.

c. An employee called to active military service for any operational mission to augment active forces as ordered may be eligible for continuation of their State base salary, less any military compensation received. See the "Military Leave: Employee Salary Continuation Operating Procedure" for further guidance.

d. In general, reemployment rights are extended under USERRA to employees who have been absent from their positions because of service in the uniformed services, provided all of the following eligibility criteria are met:

   1) The employee (or an appropriate officer of the uniformed service) must have given prior verbal or written notice of the impending service to their Agency Human Resources (HR) office and/or Supervisor,

   2) The employee's cumulative period or periods of service shall not have exceeded five (5) years,[2]

[2] USERRA establishes the cumulative length of time that an individual may be absent from work for military duty and retain reemployment rights to five (5) years. There are important exceptions to the five-year limit, including initial enlistments lasting more than five (5) years, periodic National Guard and Reserve training duty, and involuntary active duty extensions and recalls, especially during a time of national emergency.

3) The employee must have completed the period of service without having received a punitive or other than honorable discharge or having been dismissed or dropped from the rolls of the uniformed service, and

4) The employee must have made a timely application for reemployment or have been timely in reporting back to work.

e. Advance Notice

The employee, or an appropriate officer of the uniformed service, must notify the State that the employee intends to perform military service. The employee's notice to the State may be either verbal or written; however, an employee is not required to ask for or get the Agency HR office's permission. An employee should provide notice as far in advance as is reasonable under the circumstances. The Department of Defense strongly recommends advance notice be provided at least 30 days prior to departure when it is feasible to do so. However, no notice is required if military necessity prevents the giving of the notice or the giving of the notice is otherwise impossible or unreasonable.

f. Return Timeframes

To be eligible for protection under USERRA, the employee must report back to work or apply for reemployment within the following guidelines:

1) 1-30 days of service: Report next scheduled workday after safe travel and eight (8) hours of rest.

2) 31-180 days of service: Apply within 14 days after completion of service.

3) 181+ days of service: Apply within 90 days after completion of service.

g. Reemployment

1) Upon completion of a period of service in the uniformed services, the employee shall be promptly reemployed in accordance with the following order of priority:

a) In the position that s/he would have attained had it not been interrupted by military service with the same seniority, status and pay, as well as other rights and benefits determined by seniority, or

b) In the position of employment in which s/he was employed on the date of the commencement of his/her military service, only if s/he is not qualified to perform the duties of the position referred to in subparagraph (a) after reasonable efforts by the Agency HR office to qualify the employee.

2) A request for reemployment need not follow any format. Employees may apply verbally or in writing to their supervisor or Agency HR office. If the period of service exceeds 30 days, s/he must provide documentation to establish all of the following:

   a) Reemployment application is timely,

   b) Employee has not exceeded the total time limit, currently five (5) years, on the duration of service, and

   c) The employee's separation or dismissal from service was not disqualifying.

3) Documents that satisfy the requirement that the employee establishes eligibility for reemployment after more than 30 days of service include:

   a) Department of Defense Form DD-214 Certificate of Release or Discharge from Active Duty,
   b) Copy of duty orders prepared by the facility where the orders were fulfilled and carrying an endorsement indicating completion of the described service,
   c) Letter from the commanding officer of the Personnel Support Activity or someone of comparable authority,
   d) Certificate of completion of military training school,
   e) Discharge certificate showing character of service, and
   f) Copy of extracts from payroll documents showing period of service.

4) The types of documents necessary to establish eligibility for reemployment will vary from case to case. Not all these documents are available or necessary in every instance to establish reemployment eligibility. If an employee does not provide satisfactory documentation because it is not readily available or does not exist, the Agency must still promptly reemploy the individual.

5) If the employee has a disability incurred in, or aggravated during, the period of service, the employer must make reasonable efforts to accommodate that disability to perform the duties of his/her reemployment position. If the employee is not qualified for reemployment in the escalator position because of a disability after reasonable efforts by the employing Agency HR office to accommodate the disability, and to help the employee to become qualified, the employee must be reemployed in a position according to the following priority. The Agency HR office must make reasonable efforts to accommodate the employee's disability and to help the employee perform the duties of one of these positions:

   a) A position that is equivalent in seniority, status and pay to his/her position, or

   b) A position that is the nearest approximation to the equivalent position, consistent with the circumstances of the employee's case, in terms of seniority, status and pay. Note that a position that is the nearest approximation to the

equivalent position may be a higher or lower position, depending on circumstances.

h. If an employee's most recent period of service in the military was more than 30 days, s/he must not be discharged, except for cause, for:

   1) 180 days after the employee's date of reemployment if his/her most recent period of uniformed service was more than 30 days, but less than 181 days; or

   2) One (1) year after the date of reemployment if the employee's most recent period of uniformed service was more than 180 days.

i. Employees may continue all State benefits while on military leave spanning more than 30 days. For their group health benefits, the State's share of medical benefits will continue for the first two (2) years of active duty military absence, provided the employee submits a monthly payment for their employee share of the cost of elected coverage by the first of the month for the month of coverage to their employing Agency. After two (2) years, employees would be responsible for the full premium to continue coverage. Dental and vision insurance may be continued while on active military leave for two (2) full years, provided the total employee cost is paid by the first of the month for the month of coverage to the employing Agency. Supplemental benefits can be continued, but payment must be arranged to pay the vendor directly. Critical illness losses that are a direct result of war would not be covered per the terms of the certificate. Those would need to be reviewed on a case-by-case basis. Life insurance may be eligible to continue coverage like those individuals on leave. Group Universal Life coverage through the State's vendor would be continued at 100% but billed directly to the employee/customer. In general, if employees elect to discontinue coverage by not paying their cost, insurances will be canceled until the employee returns to work. Coverage may be resumed with no waiting period upon returning to active employment.

j. While receiving military salary continuation or taking an unpaid military leave of absence, State employees will not accumulate holidays, annual leave or sick leave, but will be credited with State Service time when they return to active employment. Employees will resume accrual of annual and sick leave from the time they return to work.

k. An employee who suffers a serious illness or injury in the line of duty that is caused or contributed by war or an act of war (declared or not), who is a member of the United States Military or National Guard or Reserves, may be granted up to six (6) months of paid time off from work for medical procedures or operations required as a result of the serious illness or injury without using sick or annual leave. See the "Military Serious Illness or Injury Operating Procedure" for further guidance.

5. PROCEDURES

a. Employee Responsibilities

1) Provide verbal or written notice of military duty and military orders to the supervisor and/or Agency HR office as soon as possible.

2) For periods of military duty of two (2) weeks or more, provide contact information and elections regarding paid leave and benefits in writing to Agency HR office.

3) Report any change or extension of military duty to the Agency HR office as soon as possible and provide any updated military orders.

4) If employees elect to discontinue coverage by not paying their cost, insurances will be canceled until the employee returns to work. Coverage may be resumed with no waiting period upon returning to active employment.

   For periods of duty of more than 30 calendar days, provide Form DD-214 Certificate of Release or Discharge from Active Duty or other written documentation from the military unit that reflects the date of release from active duty, upon return to work or as soon as practical afterward. Other written documentation includes: Copy of duty orders prepared by the facility where the orders were fulfilled and carrying an endorsement indicating completion of the described service; Letter from the commanding officer of the Personnel Support Activity or someone of comparable authority; Certificate of completion of military training school; Discharge certificate showing character of service; Copy of extracts from payroll documents showing period of service.

5) Employees seeking reinstatement to State employment after a period of active duty of more than 180 calendar days must make their requests in accordance with USERRA.

b. Agency Responsibilities

1) For military leave of more than two (2) weeks, employing Agencies should provide employees with an informational letter to inform them of their rights, status and obligations.

2) Remain in contact with employees on military leave to determine whether military leave status remains the same.

3) Should an employee's military leave span two (2) calendar years, the military leave is to be paid at the beginning of the new calendar year if the employee has remained in contact with the Agency HR office and has provided current military orders. The paid leave shall not exceed the time on military leave or the military benefit of 15 workdays or pro-ration thereof for part-time employees.

4) Employees may not move on and off payroll at will throughout their leave of absence, using either annual leave or military leave in minute amounts to sandwich in periods of otherwise unpaid leave, for the purpose of accumulating and/or extending benefits (holiday pay, health insurance, etc.).

5) While on military leave without pay for less than 30 days, annual and sick leave will continue to accrue. The payment at the beginning of the new calendar year will not entitle the employee to either holiday pay or additional vacation or sick leave accrual. An employee's period of military leave will be counted as covered service with the State for pension eligibility, vesting and benefit accrual purposes.

6) While receiving military salary continuation or taking an unpaid military leave of absence, State employees will not accumulate holidays, annual leave or sick leave, but will be credited with State Service time when s/he returns to active employment. Employees will resume accrual of annual and sick leave from the time s/he returns to work.

7) Monitor unpaid military leaves of absence to determine when employees are nearing the exhaustion of five (5) cumulative years. Send required documentation outlined in this policy to the Department of Human Resources (DHR) Employee Relations (ER) Manager to determine if the employee is entitled to reemployment.

c. Five (5)-Year Service Limit

1) If an Agency HR office believes an employee has met the five (5)-year service period, it must provide the following documents to the DHR ER Manager for review:

a) Official military orders
b) Any written or documented communication with the employee
c) Leave records covering the military absence

2) Once official orders are reviewed, the Agency HR office will receive written notification from DHR confirming that the employee has met or exceeded the cumulative five (5)-year period of military leave covered under USERRA.

6. EXCLUSIONS OR EXCEPTIONS

a. Reasonable Expectation of Continued Employment

The State is exempt from reemployment obligations if the employee's pre-service position is for a brief, non-recurrent period and there is no reasonable expectation that such employment will continue indefinitely or for a significant period.

b. Retired Uniformed Services members are not eligible for paid military leave.

c. Military Leave without Pay may be used by temporary, seasonal, casual or emergency employees.

d. Reemployment rights are terminated if the employee is:

1) Separated from uniformed service with a dishonorable or bad conduct discharge,

2) Separated from uniformed service under other than honorable conditions, as characterized by regulations of the uniformed service,

3) A commissioned officer dismissed by sentence of a general court-martial; in commutation of a sentence of a general court-martial; or, in time of war, by order of the President, or

4) A commissioned officer dropped from the rolls due to absence without authority for at least three (3) months; separation by reason of a sentence to confinement adjudged by a court-martial; or a sentence to confinement in a federal or state penitentiary or correctional institution.

7. DISSEMINATION AND TRAINING

a. The Agency HR office shall provide current employees a review of this policy and procedure within 30 days of its effective date and shall provide employees who are new to their respective Agencies a review of this policy and procedure within 30 days of the employee's hire date.

b. Employees must read and acknowledge receipt of this policy in the Learning Center, or if not applicable by other means within 30 days of its effective date.

8. FORMS ASSOCIATED WITH THIS POLICY

- Military Leave FAQs
- Military Leave: Employee Salary Continuation Operating Procedure
- Military Leave Employee Salary Continuation Form
- Military Serious Illness/Injury Operating Procedure
- Military Serious Illness/Injury – Leave Request Form

9. ASSOCIATED POLICY/REGULATIONS/INFORMATION

a. FMLA Policy and Procedure

b. References:

1) United States of America, *Uniformed Services Employment and Reemployment Rights Act (USERRA),* Pub. Law No. 103-353, October 13, 1994
2) U.S. Department of Labor, *Uniformed Services Employment and Reemployment Rights Act of 1994 Final Rules*, Federal Register, Vol. 70, No. 242, December 19, 2005
3) U.S. Department of Defense, Employer Support of the Guard and Reserve (ESGR), Employer Resource Guide, 2011
4) Merit Rule 5.6.1 (State of . Merit Rules)
5) 29 Section 5905
6) Employee State Salary Continuation Standard Operating Procedure for Employees on Authorized Military Leave – 29 . Sections 5105(b) & (c)
7) Federal Code, Title 20, Chapter IX, Part 1002

c. Resources:

Commission of Veterans Affairs
Website: www.veteransaffairs. .gov
Phone: 1-800-344-9900

Employer Support of the Guard and Reserve
Website: www.ESGR.mil
Phone: 1-800-336-4590

Department of Labor
Website: www works.com/veterans
Phone: 1-877-872-5627

Personnel Locators
Army: 1-800-318-5298
Air Force: 1-210-565-2660
Navy: 1-901-874-3383
Marines: 1-800-268-3710
Coast Guard: 1-202-493-1697

This policy is not intended to create any individual right or cause of action not already existing and recognized under State and Federal law.

APPENDIX D PAY CHART FOR MILITARY PERSONNEL

Enlisted Ranks by Pay Grade and Service

Grade	Rank								
	Army		Navy/Coast Guard		Marine Corps		Air Force		
E1	Private		Seaman Recruit (SR)		Private		Airman Basic		
E2	Private E-2 (PV2)		Seaman Apprentice(SA)		Private First Class (PFC)		Airman (Amn)		
E3	Private First Class(PFC)		Seaman (SN)		Lance Corporal(LCpl)		Airman First Class(A1C)		
E4	Corporal (CPL)	Specialist (SPC)	Petty Officer Third Class (PO3)		Corporal (Cpl)		Senior Airman (SrA)		
Leadership responsibility significantly increases in the mid-level enlisted ranks. This responsibility is given formal recognition by use of the terms noncommissioned officer and petty officer. An Army sergeant, an Air Force staff sergeant, and a Marine corporal are considered NCO ranks. The Navy NCO equivalent, petty officer, is achieved at the rank of petty officer third class.									
E5	Sergeant (SGT)		Petty Officer Second Class (PO2)		Sergeant (Sgt)		Staff Sergeant (SSgt)		
E6	Staff Sergeant (SSG)		Petty Officer First Class (PO1)		Staff Sergeant (SSgt)		Technical Sergeant (TSgt)		
E7	Sergeant First Class (SFC)		Chief Petty Officer (CPO)		Gunnery Sergeant (GySgt)		Master Sergeant (MSgt)	First Sergeant	
At the E-8 level, the Army, Marines and Air Force have two positions at the same pay grade. Whether one is, for example, a senior master sergeant or a first sergeant in the Air Force depends on the person's job. The same is true for the positions at the E-9 level. Marine Corps master gunnery sergeants and sergeants major receive the same pay but have different responsibilities. All told, E-8s and E-9s have 15 to 30 years on the job, and are commanders' senior advisers for enlisted matters. A third E-9 element is the senior enlisted person of each service. The sergeant major of the Army, the sergeant major of the Marine Corps, the master chief petty officer of the Navy and the chief master sergeant of the Air Force are the spokespersons of the enlisted force at the highest levels of their services.									
E8	Master Sergeant (MSG)	First Sergeant (1SG)	Senior Chief Petty Officer (SCPO)		Master Sergeant (MSgt)	First Sergeant	Senior Master Sergeant (SMSgt)	First Sergeant	
E9	Sergeant Major (SGM)	Command Sergeant Major (CSM)	Master Chief Petty Officer (MCPO)	Fleet/ Command Master Chief Petty Officer	Master Gunnery Sergeant (MGySgt)	Sergeant Major (SgtMaj)	Chief Master Sergeant (CMSgt)	First Sergeant	Command Chief Master Sergeant
E9	Sergeant Major of the Army (SMA)		Master Chief Petty Officer of the Navy (MCPON) and Coast Guard (MCPOCG)		Sergeant Major of the Marine Corps (SgtMajMC)		Chief Master Sergeant of the Air Force (CMSAF)		

Officer Ranks by Pay Grade and Service

Grade	Army	Navy/Coast Guard	Marine Corps	Air Force
W1	Warrant Officer 1 WO1	USN Warrant Officer 1 — WO1	Warrant Officer 1 WO	NO WARRANT
W2	Chief Warrant Officer 2 CW2	USN Chief Warrant Officer 2 — CWO2	USN Chief Warrant Officer 2 — CWO2	NO WARRANT
W3	Chief Warrant Officer 3 CW3	USN Chief Warrant Officer 3 — CWO3	Chief Warrant Officer 3 CWO3	NO WARRANT
W4	Chief Warrant Officer 4 CW4	USN Chief Warrant Officer 4 — CWO4	Chief Warrant Officer 4 CWO4	NO WARRANT
W5	Chief Warrant Officer CW5	USN Chief Warrant Officer CWO5	Chief Warrant Officer 5 CWO5	NO WARRANT
O1	Second Lieutenant 2LT	Ensign ENS	Second Lieutenant 2ndLt	Second Lieutenant 2d Lt
O2	First Lieutenant 1LT	Lieutenant Junior Grade LTJG	First Lieutenant 1stLt	First Lieutenant 1st Lt
O3	Captain CPT	Lieutenant LT	Captain Capt	Captain Capt
O4	Major MAJ	Lieutenant Commander LCDR	Major Maj	Major Maj
O5	Lieutenant Colonel LTC	Commander CDR	Lieutenant Colonel LtCol	Lieutenant Colonel Lt Col
O6	Colonel COL	Captain CAPT	Colonel Col	Colonel Col
O7	Brigadier General BG	Rear Admiral Lower Half RDML	Brigadier General BGen	Brigadier General Brig Gen
O8	Major General MG	Rear Admiral Upper Half RADM	Major General MajGen	Major General Maj Gen
O9	Lieutenant General LTG	Vice Admiral VADM	Lieutenant General LtGen	Lieutenant General Lt Gen
O10	General GEN Army Chief of Staff	Admiral ADM Chief of Naval Operations and Commandant of the Coast Guard	General Gen Commandant of the Marine Corps	General Gen Air Force Chief of Staff

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APPENDIX E MILITARY OCCUPATIONAL TERMS TRANSLATION

Common Military–to-Civilian Translations

MILITARY TERMINOLOGY	CIVILIAN TRANSLATION
AAM-ARCOM	Award/recognition
Action Officer (AO)	Analyst or Senior Analyst
Administrative NCO	Administrative officer, administrator, personnel manager
AI	Additionally skilled in
AR/DA/NAV Pamphlets	Policy/guidelines/rules
Assigned	Employed, worked, attached
Battalion, Unit, Platoon	Organization, agency, department
BN, BDE, HHD, Co & Garrison	Unit, organization, staff section, widely dispersed organization, agency
Branch Or Division Chief	Branch, Division Chief
Brigade	Group, division
Chain Of Command	Executive levels, management, upper-level management
Combat	Conflict, hostilities, emergency, highly hazardous condition
Combat Training	Survival skills, emergency training, emergency instruction
Combat/War	Hazardous conditions, conflict
Commanded	Supervised, directed
Commander	Director, Senior Manager, President
Commander, Chief	Supervisor, head of, leader, director, executive, officer, upper-level management
Company	Company, unit, department
Company Grade Officer (O1 To O3)	Associate, Operations Manager, unit or Section manager
Correspondence Course	Extension course, distance learning, professional development
Deactivation	Closure, terminated operations
Deployed	Temporarily assigned, traveled
Enlisted Soldier/Assistant Crew (E1 to E4)	Assembler, specialist, team member, member, technician
Executive Officer (XO)	Deputy Director, Assistant

MILITARY TERMINOLOGY	CIVILIAN TRANSLATION
Field Exercises (FTX)	Dispersed operations, training, remote training location
Field Grade Officer (O4)	Executive Manager, Executive Officer, Deputy Director, Assistant to the Director, Operations Manager
Field Office	Large diverse or dispersed organization, remote work site
First Sergeant	Operations manager, supervisor, foreman
First Sergeant	Personnel Manager
General Officer	President, Senior Director, Chairperson, CEO, COO, CFO, Senior Vice President, Executive Vice President
Hand Receipt Holder	Logistics manager, supply manager, equipment manager
Headquarters	headquarters
Infantry	Ground Security Force
Inspector	Examiner, troubleshooter, inspector, reviewer
Leader	Supervisor, manager, executive, management, trainer, official, conductor, chief, guide, director
Master Fitness Trainer	Physical fitness instructor, fitness instructor/trainer
Medal	Award, recognition
Military Occupation Specialty (MOS)	Career specialty
Military Personnel Office (MILPO)	Personnel office
MILPO/PSC/PSB	Personnel center, personnel office, personnel administration office
Mission	Tasks, function, objectives, obligations, requirements, priorities, initiatives, operations
NCO (E5 To E6)	Supervisor, manager
NCOIC, Watch captain, Petty Officer of the Watch	Supervisor, senior technician, section chief

MILITARY TERMINOLOGY	CIVILIAN TRANSLATION
NCOs	Management, middle management, senior personnel supervisor(s), employee(s), official(s), administrator, executive
OER/NCOER	Performance rating, performance evaluation, performance appraisal
Officer Advanced Course (OAC)	Entry level Officer Training Course
Officer(s)	Management, middle management, senior personnel, supervisors, employee(s), official(s), administrator, executive
OJT	On-the-job training, hands-on experience
Operations NCO	Operations manager
PCS	relocation
Personnel Action Center (Pac)	Personnel office, human resources office
Personnel Specialist	Administrative clerk, personnel records clerk
Physical Training (PT)	Physical training
Platoon	Section, element/department
Platoon Sergeant	Supervisor, Instructor, Trainer
PMCS	Preventive maintenance
Program Or Project Manager	Program or Project Manager
Reconnaissance	Data collection, survey, analysis
Regulations	Policies, guidelines, instructions
Scattered Units	Outlying organizations, affiliated organizations, field section
Security Clearance	Security clearance
Senior Field Grade Officer (O5 To O7)	Director, Chief Executive Officer (CEO), Chief Operating Officer (COO), Deputy Chief, Chief Administrator
Senior NCO (E7 To E9)	Director, First-Line Supervisor
Sensitive	confidential
Sergeant Major	Senior Advisor
Service Members	Employees, co-workers, colleagues, personnel, individuals

MILITARY TERMINOLOGY	CIVILIAN TRANSLATION
SIDPERS	Automated personnel strength accounting system
Soldiers	Personnel, individuals,
Soldiers/Airmen/Marines/Sailors	Personnel, staff, employees, individuals, people, positions, elements, clients, members
Squad	section
Squad Leader	Team leader, team chief
Subordinates	Employees, personnel, staff, individuals, people
Superior(s)	Supervisor, management, executive management
Supply Sergeant	Supply manager, logistics manager
Supply/Logistics	Shipping, receiving, inventory control clerk, warehouse clerk
Suspense Date	deadline
TAC NCO	Trainer, advisor, counselor
Tasking/Detail	Assignment, job
TDA/MTOE	Organizational structure, human or material resources, staffing documents
TDY/TDA	Business travel
Team	Temporary responsibility, visiting consultant, business trip, traveled to other locations to, detailed official visits
Team/Squad Leader	Team supervisor, trainer
Temporary Duty (TDY)	Business trip, temporary duty
Training	Instruction, teaching, program instruction, training development, staff development
Troops	Personnel, passengers, individuals, people, positions, cadre, staff, clients, employees
Uniform Code Of Military Justice	Legal action
Units	Supported organizations, subordinate elements, clients
Warrant Officer	Director, Specialist, Department Manager

In the military	In the civilian world	In the military	In the civilian world
Commander	Director, Senior Manager, President	O-7 and above	President, Senior Director, Chairman of the Board, Managing Director
Executive Officer	Deputy Director, Assistant Director	O-5 and O-6	Chief Executive Officer, Chief Operating Officer, Program Director
Action Officer	Senior Analyst	O-4	Senior Administrator, Department Head, Program Manager
Branch/Division Chief	Branch/Division Chief	O-1 to O-3	Executive, Administrator, Manager, Project Officer
Program/Project Manager	Program/Project Manager	WO1 to WO5	Director, Specialist, Facilitator, Technical Manager, Technical Specialist, Department Manager
General Officers	President, Senior Director, Chairperson, Chief Executive Officer, Chief Operating Officer, Chief Financial Officer, Senior Vice President, Executive Vice President	Senior Field Grade Officer	Senior Administrator, Chief Executive, Department Head, Program Director, Deputy Chief, Senior Executive
E-7 to E-9	Director, Supervisor	Field Grade Officer	Executive, Manager
E-4 to E-6	Assistant Manager, Line Supervisor, Section Leader, Task Leader, Supervisor, Foreman	Company Grade Officer	Associate, Operations Manager, Unit or Section Manager
E-1 to E-3	Production Worker, Assembler, Technician, Assistant, Apprentice, Team Member	Senior NCOs	Director, First-Line Supervisor
Infantry	Ground security force	Operations NCO	Operations Manager
Sergeant Major	Senior Advisor	NCO/NCOIC	Supervisor, Manager, Coordinator
First Sergeant	Personnel Manager	TDY/TAD	Business Related Travel, business trip
Squad Leader	Team Leader, Team Chief	PCS	Relocation
Supply Sergeant	Supply Manager, Logistics Manager	NCO Academy	Leadership/Management Training

War College	Executive Military Leadership School, Advanced Strategic Studies Course	AAM-ARCOM/NAM/ medal	Award, recognition
Command and General Staff College	Senior Military Leadership School, Strategic Management Course	ANCOC/BNCOC/PLDC	Advanced (specialty) course, advanced leadership development course
Basic Officers Course	Entry Level Officer Leadership Course	Battalion (BN)	Unit, organization, agency, division
Basic Training	Introductory Military Training	Headquarters	Headquarters
OER/NCOER	Performance rating, evaluation	Combat	Conflict, hostilities, emergency, highly hazardous conditions
Garrison	Organization, company	Company	Company, unit, department
Mission	Task, function, objective	Military occupation specialty	Career specialty
Platoon	Section, element, department	Platoon Sergeant	Supervisor, instructor, trainer
Reconnaissance	Data collection, survey, analysis	Regulations	Policy, guidelines, instructions
Soldiers, Airmen, Marines, Sailors	Personnel, staff, employees, individuals, people	Subordinates	Employees, personnel, staff, individuals, people
Uniform Code of Military Justice	Legal action	TDA/MTOE	Organizational structure, human and material resources
Personnel Action Center	Personnel office	AR/DA/NAV Pamphlets	Policy, guidelines, rules
Squad	Section	Brigade	Group, division

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