Population Representation in the Military Services

Fiscal Year 1998

November 1999

Chapter 1

INTRODUCTION

This is the 25th annual Department of Defense (DoD) report on social representation in the U.S. Military Services. Such a profile of the social demography of the military was initiated in response to a mandate by the Senate Committee on Armed Services (Report 93-884, May 1974). Since fiscal year (FY) 1975, the Directorate for Accession Policy, Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense (Force Management Policy) has provided annual data addressing the quality and representativeness of enlisted accessions and personnel compared to the civilian population. In keeping with an increased emphasis and reliance on a Total Force, Accession Policy has expanded this report to include statistics not only for active duty enlisted personnel but for officers and reservists as well.

Added for the first time this year are data on the U.S. Coast Guard (USCG). Although the Coast Guard is routinely under the Department of Transportation, in times of war and national emergency, this armed force reports to the Department of the Navy. The USCG has fewer personnel requirements than any of the Military Services but it confronts many of the same personnel management issues including recruitment, personnel selection, and representation.

The term "representation" may suggest a focus on race/ethnicity and gender demographic groups. However, this report presents a broader array of characteristics. In addition to routine demographics (e.g., age, gender, race/ethnicity) estimates of cognitive ability supplemented with more complex composite measures (e.g., socioeconomic status) and service characteristics (e.g., years of service and pay grade) are used to describe the force. Further, historical data are included to aid in analyzing trends to render the statistics more interpretable. Thus, recruit quality, representation rates, and the like can be viewed within the context of the preceding decades. These data are invaluable to military personnel policymakers and analysts as well as others interested in monitoring the characteristics of people serving in the Military Services.

The aim of the *Population Representation* report is to disseminate facts regarding the demographic, educational, aptitude, and socioeconomic levels of applicants, new recruits, and enlisted and officer members of the Active Forces and Reserve Components. Aptitude, education levels, age, race/ethnicity, and gender are among the mainstay statistics that shed light on the formidable task of recruiting. Years of service and pay provide measures of the degree of personnel experience as well as career progress that are particularly informative when examined by gender and race/ethnicity. Indeed this report has increased in volume and coverage over the years, but it has not outgrown its usefulness. Representation levels may change only slightly from year to year but monitoring racial/ethnic and gender participation together with additional relevant factors maintains an ever present focus on equal opportunity.

The chapters that follow provide a narrative description with selected tables and graphs, as well as a detailed set of technical appendices addressing many of the traits and characteristics of current military personnel. This chapter sets the tone and provides some interpretive guidance with regard to the voluminous contents of the *Population Representation* report.

Fiscal Year 1998: A New Military for a New Age

FY 1998 marks the 25th Anniversary of the All Volunteer Force (AVF). The enthusiastic participation of Blacks in the military and the expanded use of women has been a hallmark of the AVF. FY 1998 also is the 50th Anniversary of the integration of minorities and women in the military. In July 1948, President Harry S. Truman issued Executive Order 9981 and ended the policy of racially segregating units. A month earlier, in that same year, Congress passed the Women's Armed Forces Integration Act. At the crossroads of these two anniversaries, it is an appropriate time to reflect on the results of these policy changes and how they have altered the U.S. military to make it one of the finest and most complex that history has known.

At the close of FY 1998, the Total Force stood at just under 1.4 million active duty members and more than 881,000 Selected Reservists. Despite further trimming of the force during FY 1998 and a continued rebound in the number of male youth in the population, recruiting remains a challenge. Labor market competition is particularly fierce given increasing college enrollment rates and a booming economy with concomitant low unemployment. Maintaining the volunteer spirit involves more than relatively low accession requirements and an ample youth population. In the past, recruiting goals were met in the face of the declining male youth population of the 1980s in large part because of enlistment and retention trends of minorities and women. Data for the past half century are shown in Figure 1.1, with some projections for the future.

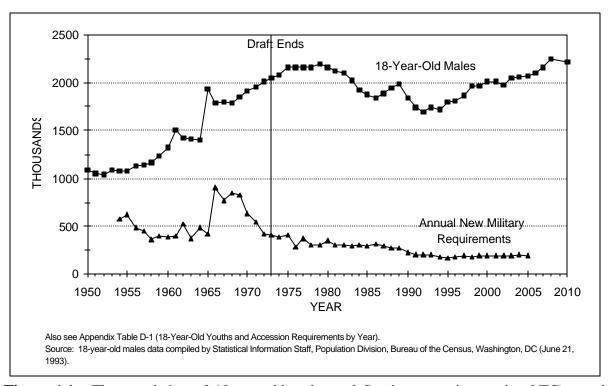


Figure 1.1. The population of 18-year-old males and Service non-prior service (NPS) recruiting requirements for fiscal years 1950–2010 (projected).

Diversity continues to grow. Blacks maintain their strong military presence and have made gains in the officer corps. Hispanics and other racial/ethnic minorities comprise notable proportions of enlisted members and officers alike. The real representation issue concerns women. While they comprise half of the youth population, they stand at less than 20 percent of both enlisted and officer accessions. However, these figures are all-time highs in the representation of women entering the military. Before the AVF, in FY 1964, less than 1 percent of enlisted accessions were women. Women climbed to 5 percent in 1973. Ten years ago, women stood at 13 percent of accessions and as of FY 1998 they accounted for 18 percent of new recruits. At just over 19 percent, their representation among officer accessions was even stronger. The representation levels for women among active component enlisted members and the officer corps were also record breaking at 14 percent, each.

Remaining Challenges

Volunteers for today's military lifestyle and missions come from a myriad of demographic and social lines and paths: Black, White, and "Other"; North, South, East, and West; middle class, rich, and poor; married and single; and men and women. This constellation of people train and fight or keep peace in an unstable interwoven world including the volatility of Kosovo and the lethal potential brought to the fore by the nuclear weapons potential of unpredictable states such as Iraq and North Korea. In addition to search and rescue missions, the domestically based Coast Guard must tackle such difficult duties as drug interdiction.

The challenges today's deployed military personnel confront are different than the challenges of those deployed in the wars of the 1950s, 1960s and 1970s. Since the end of the Cold War, the United States has struggled with its new and multifaceted strategic role in the world. While today's military has fewer people, the new strategic realities mean there are more roles and missions for those reduced numbers to fulfill. Additionally, the end of the draft brought with it a recruiting climate which compelled manpower and personnel planners to think outside of the box. With a strong economy and larger numbers of college-bound youth, recruiting and representation are tandem concerns that today's military personnel management must confront. Retention within and beyond the initial period of obligation is also critical. Reducing personnel turnover and turbulence not only eases recruiting strain but feeds needed levels of diversity and experience to the career force.

Today many minorities and women not only participate in the military, but also achieve high levels of success and recognition. While the news is good, significant challenges remain. For example, it is easy to over-emphasize the problems of women's increased integration or under-emphasize the need to continue to foster positive race relations. Fifty years ago, minorities and women were given a permanent role in the military. Today's volunteer military relies upon the resultant multicultural cadre of quality men and women who stand ready to carry out missions at home and around the globe. In the interest of military cohesion, morale, and readiness in the 21st century, progress toward equitable access to the risks and rewards of military service must continue.

Data Sources

The primary sources for this report are computerized data files on military personnel maintained by the Defense Manpower Data Center (DMDC). In addition, the Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS) provides the bulk of the comparison data on the national population. Though the data sources have remained constant, refinements have been made over the years, most of them in regard to the civilian comparisons. Starting with the report for FY 1994, Census data were adjusted to provide a more accurate comparison for military applicants and accessions (yearly average rather than last month of the fiscal year). Age comparisons for prior-service enlisted accessions to the Selected Reserve were also adjusted, from the 18- to 44-year-old civilian labor force to the 20- to 39-year-old civilian labor force. Comparisons for Selected Reserve enlisted members were changed from 18- to 44-year-old civilians to 18- to 49-year-olds. Starting with data for FY 1995, a further age refinement was introduced for comparisons with the officer corps. Previously the comparison group for Active Component officers comprised civilian workforce college graduates who were 21 and older. This was adjusted by establishing an upper bound at age 49, making the more precise comparison, college graduates aged 21 to 49 who are in the workforce. In addition, beginning with the FY 1995 Population Representation report, DMDC provided edited, rather than raw, data on applicants for enlistment. Last year, prior service accession data for the Active Component were added. U.S. Coast Guard representation statistics are included for the first time this year. A brief description of the data sources for FY 1998 follows:

<u>Subject</u>	Data Source

Active Components

Applicants to Enlisted Military DMDC U.S. Military Entrance Processing

Command (USMEPCOM) Edit Files, October 1997 through September 1998

Enlisted Accessions DMDC USMEPCOM Edit Files, October

1997 through September 1998

Enlisted Force DMDC Active and Loss Edit File,

September 1998

Officer Accessions DMDC Officer Gain Files, October 1997

through September 1998

Officer Corps DMDC Officer Master and Loss Edit File,

September 1998

Recruit Socioeconomic Status

DMDC Survey of Recruit Socioeconomic Backgrounds, October 1997 through September 1998

Reserve Components

Selected Reserve Enlisted and Officer Accessions

Reserve Components Common Personnel Data System (RCCPDS), October 1997 through September 1998

Selected Reserve Enlisted Force and Officer Corps Civilian Comparisons Reserve Components Common Personnel Data System (RCCPDS), September 1998

Civilian Comparison Groups for Applicants, Accessions, and Active and Reserve Members Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey Files, October 1997 through September 1998

Civilian Socioeconomic Comparison Data Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey Files, October 1997 through September 1998

Civilian Comparisons for Military Entrance Test Data *Profile of American Youth* (Washington, DC: Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense [Manpower, Reserve Affairs, and Logistics], March 1982).

Chapter 2

ACTIVE COMPONENT ENLISTED APPLICANTS AND ACCESSIONS

The Services are one of the largest employers in the United States, enlisting more than 180,000 young men and women in the Active Components in FY 1998. Recruiting a quality force is as important as ever, perhaps more important, given the smaller number of men and women in the military and the increasing sophistication of weapons and methods for fighting modern wars. Service missions are changing to include peacekeeping and humanitarian efforts, requiring additional skills from today's men and women in uniform.

Military recruiting is challenging in today's society. The Youth Attitude Tracking Study (YATS), conducted annually, measures propensity to enlist. About one-quarter (26 percent) of young men (16- to 21-year-olds) reported that they planned definitely or probably to enlist in the military in the next few years.¹ Overall propensity, as measured by YATS, has not changed significantly since 1994. The significant drop in the propensity of 16- to 21-year-old Hispanic men, from 43 percent in 1996 to 37 percent in 1997, rebounded to 44 percent in 1998. Also, propensity of 16- to 21-year-old women increased slightly from 12 percent in 1997 to 13 percent in 1998.²

The Monitoring the Future (MtF) project, a survey of high school students, also measures youth enlistment intentions. Results from the most recent period—1991 to 1997—have shown the lowest propensity since the MtF project began collecting data in 1975. This time period can be characterized by a large-scale military downsizing during an economic boom. The percent reporting that they definitely will enlist in the Armed Forces, a stable measure across time and grade-level, dropped below 5 percent and at the same time the percent declaring that they definitely would not enlist climbed above 70 percent.³

As the United States experiences its lowest unemployment rate in 30 years,⁴ employers—including the military—find recruiting qualified personnel very competitive. The increasing proportion of high school graduates attending college limits the supply of high-quality applicants to the Services. Most high school seniors report that they plan to go to college (77 percent right after high school and 15

Enlistment propensity is measured with the Youth Attitude Tracking Study (YATS) conducted annually by the Department of Defense.

² Ibid.

Segal, D.R., Bachman, J.G., Freedman-Doan, P., and O'Malley, P.M., "Propensity to Serve in the U.S. Military: Temporal Trends and Subgroup Differences," *Armed Forces & Society*, 25 (1999), pp. 407–427.

Labor force statistics extracted from the Current Population Survey, Bureau of Labor Statistics. (Seasonally adjusted unemployment rate of 16-year-olds and older and 16- to 19-year-olds in the civilian labor force.) URL:http://www.dol.gov.

percent a year or more after graduating).⁵ About 67 percent of today's high schoolers actually enroll in college in the Fall after graduation, compared to 65 percent last year and about half of high school graduates 15 years ago.⁶ The increasing desire to participate in post-secondary education is important to monitor as propensity of college-bound youth is lower than for those not planning to attend college.⁷ In spite of relatively low propensity, record low unemployment rates, and increasing competition with colleges and universities, military recruiters were able to enlist a high-quality accession cohort in FY 1998.⁸ Recruiting is likely to continue to be a challenge as recruiting objectives increase amid a strong economy and increasing opportunities for post-secondary education.⁹ This chapter introduces the Active Component enlistment process, followed by demographic characteristics of enlisted applicants and recruits.

The Recruiting Process

Initial contacts between military recruiters and youth interested in military service are exploratory. In most cases, youth seek information from recruiters in more than one Service. Once they select a Service and take the Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB), youth may wait before deciding to proceed with enlistment processing.

In addition to providing information to the prospective enlistee, recruiters determine an applicant's eligibility for military service. They ask questions regarding age, citizenship, education, involvement with the law, use of drugs, and physical and medical conditions that could preclude enlistment. Most prospects take an aptitude screening test at a recruiting office. Estimates are that 10 to 20 percent of prospects do not continue beyond this point.¹⁰

The Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery. Prospects who meet initial qualifications take the ASVAB, the first formal step in the process of applying to enlist in the Armed Forces. The ASVAB is a battery of tests used by DoD to determine enlistment eligibility and

Lehnus, J. and Lancaster, A., "Declining Interest in Military Service: Quantitative Observations," in *Youth Attitudes Toward Military Service in the Post-Cold War Era: Selected Papers Presented at the International Military Testing Association*, San Antonio, Texas, 1996 (DMDC Report No. 97-001).

U.S. Department of Education, *The Digest of Education Statistics 1998* (NCES 1999-036) (Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics, 1999), Table 183.

Segal, D.R., Bachman, J.G., Freedman-Doan, P., and O'Malley, P.M., "Propensity to Serve in the U.S. Military: Temporal Trends and Subgroup Differences," *Armed Forces & Society*, 25 (1999), pp. 407–427.

Memorandum from F. M. Rush, Acting Assistant Secretary of Defense (Force Management Policy), Subject: 1998 Youth Attitude Tracking Study, January 5, 1999.

⁹ Gilroy, C. and Sellman, W.S., *Today's Recruiting Challenge and The Economic Implications of an All-Volunteer Force*, paper presented as part of Panel on Recruitment in the All-Volunteer Era: Theory, practice, and results at the 1999 Inter-University Seminar of Armed Forces and Society Biennial Conference, Baltimore, October 1999.

Waters, B.K., Laurence, J.H., and Camara, W.J., *Personnel Enlistment and Classification Procedures in the U.S. Military* (Washington, DC: National Academy Press, 1987), p. 12.

qualifications for military occupations. It consists of 10 tests, four of which comprise the Armed Forces Qualification Test (AFQT): Arithmetic Reasoning, Mathematics Knowledge, Word Knowledge, and Paragraph Comprehension. The AFQT, a general measure of trainability and a predictor of on-the-job performance, is the primary index of recruit aptitude.

AFQT scores, expressed on a percentile scale, reflect an applicant's standing relative to the national population of men and women 18–23 years of age. The scores are grouped into five categories based on the percentile score ranges shown in Table 2.1. Persons who score in Categories I and II tend to be above average in trainability; those in Category III, average; those in Category IV, below average; and those in Category V, markedly below average. By law, Category V applicants and those in Category IV who have not graduated from high school are not eligible for enlistment. Over and above these legal restrictions, each Service prescribes its own aptitude and education criteria for eligibility. Each Service uses combinations of ASVAB test scores to determine an applicant's aptitude and eligibility for different military occupations.

Table 2.1. Armed Forces Qualification Test (AFQT) Categories and Corresponding Percentile Score Ranges						
AFQT Category	Percentile Score Range					
I	93–99					
п	65–92					
IIIA	50–64					
IIIB	31–49					
IV	10–30					
V	1–9					

Educational Credentials. DoD implemented a three-tier classification of education credentials in 1987. The three tiers are:

- Tier 1—Regular high school graduates, adult diploma holders, and non-graduates with at least 15 hours of college credit.
- Tier 2—Alternative credential holders, including those with a General Education Development (GED) certificate of high school equivalency.
- Tier 3—Those with no education credentials.

The score scale is based on a 1980 study, the Profile of American Youth, conducted by DoD in cooperation with the Department of Labor (DoL). Participants were drawn from a nationally representative sample of young men and women selected for an ongoing DoL study, the National Longitudinal Survey of Youth Labor Force Behavior. An effort is currently underway to update the Profile of American Youth study.

The system was developed after research indicated a strong relationship between education credentials and successful completion of the first term of military service. ¹² Current research continues to show that education attainment of youth predicts first-term military attrition. ¹³ In conjunction with the National Academy of Sciences, the Defense Department developed a mathematical model that links recruit quality and recruiting resources to job performance. The model was then used to establish the recruit quality benchmarks now specified in Defense Planning Guidance. Service programs are required to ensure that a minimum of 90 percent of non-prior service (NPS) recruits are high school diploma graduates. At least 60 percent of these recruits must be drawn from AFQT Categories I–IIIA; no more than 4 percent of the recruits can come from Category IV. This DoD policy does not prohibit the Services from setting their own targets above these benchmarks. These benchmarks were set by examining the relationship between costs associated with recruiting, training, attrition, and retention using as a standard the performance level obtained by the reference cohort of 1990, the cohort that served in Operations Desert Shield and Desert Storm. Thus, these benchmarks reflect the recruit quality levels necessary to minimize personnel and training costs while maintaining Desert Shield/Desert Storm cohort performance. ¹⁴

The Services have different standards for individuals in each tier. Generally, Tier 3 applicants must have higher AFQT test scores than Tier 2 applicants, who must have higher test scores than Tier 1 individuals. The Air Force and Marine Corps follow these differential standards, requiring different minimum test scores for each tier. The other Services apply the standards slightly differently. The Army and Navy require applicants with alternative credentials (Tier 2) and those with no credentials (Tier 3) to meet the same AFQT standards, which are more stringent than those for high school graduates (Tier 1).

With the proliferation of alternative credential programs, particularly home schooling, the Department of Defense initiated a pilot study in FY 1999—The Alternative Educational Credential Pilot Program. The goals of the project are to assess the interest in enlistment of home school graduates and participants earning GED certificates through the National Guard ChalleNGe program and to evaluate the performance of the alternative credential holders in these programs who do enlist. At the conclusion of the study, the results will be used to provide a recommendation on permanent tier status of home school graduates and ChalleNGe GED applicants.

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See Flyer, E.S., Factors Relating to Discharge for Unsuitability Among 1956 Airman Accessions to the Air Force (Lackland AFB, TX: Personnel Research Laboratory, December 1959); and Elster, R.E. and Flyer, E.S., A Study of the Relationship Between Educational Credentials and Military Performance Criteria (Monterey, CA: Naval Postgraduate School, July 1981).

For attrition by education credential, see Department of Defense, *Educational Enlistment Standards: Recruiting Equity for GED Certificates*, Report to Congress (Washington, DC: Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense [Force Management Policy], April 1996); and Laurence, J.H., *Does Education Credential Still Predict Attrition?*, paper presented as part of Symposium, Everything Old is New Again—Current Research Issues in Accession Policy, at the 105th Annual Convention of the American Psychological Association, Chicago, August 1998.

Sellman, W.S., *Public Policy Implications for Military Entrance Standards*, Keynote Address presented at the 39th Annual Conference of the International Military Testing Association, Sydney, Australia, October 1998.

Physical Examination. If an applicant achieves qualifying ASVAB scores and wants to continue the application process, he or she is scheduled for a physical examination and background review at a Military Entrance Processing Station (MEPS). The examination assesses physical fitness for military service. It includes measurement of blood pressure, pulse, visual acuity, and hearing; blood testing and urinalysis; drug and HIV testing; and medical history. Some Services also require tests of strength and endurance. If a correctable or temporary medical problem is detected, the applicant may be required to get treatment before proceeding. Other applicants may require a Service waiver of some disqualifying medical conditions before being allowed to enlist.

Moral Character Standards. Each applicant must meet rigorous moral character standards. In addition to the initial screening by the recruiter, an interview covering each applicant's background is conducted at the MEPS. For some individuals, a financial credit check and/or a computerized search for a criminal record is conducted. Some types of criminal activity are clearly disqualifying; other cases require a waiver, wherein the Service examines the applicant's circumstances and makes an individual determination of qualification. Moreover, applicants with existing financial problems are not likely to overcome those difficulties on junior enlisted pay. Consequently, credit histories also may be considered as part of the enlistment decision.

Occupational Area Counseling. If the applicant's ASVAB scores, educational credentials, physical fitness, and moral character qualify for entry, he or she meets with a Service classification counselor at the MEPS to discuss options for enlistment. Up to this point, the applicant has made no commitment. The counselor has the record of the applicant's qualifications and computerized information on available Service training/skill openings, schedules, and enlistment incentives.

A recruit can sign up for a specific skill or for a broad occupational area (such as the mechanical or electronics areas). In the Army, all recruits enter for specific skill training. Approximately 60 percent of Air Force recruits enter for a specific skill, while the rest sign up for an occupational area and are classified into a specific skill while in basic training. In the Navy, approximately 70 percent of recruits enlist for a specific skill, while the rest go directly to the fleet after basic training, classified in airman, fireman, or seaman programs. Approximately 85 percent of Marine Corps enlistees enter with a guaranteed occupational area and are assigned a specific skill within that area after recruit training; the rest enlist with either a specific job guarantee or assignment to a job after recruit training.

Normally an applicant will be shown a number of occupations. In general, the higher the individual's test scores, the more choices he or she will have. While the process differs by Service, specific skills and occupational groupings are arranged similarly to an airline reservation system, with the "seat" and time of travel (to recruit training) based upon either school or field unit position openings. The counselor discusses the applicant's interests and explains what the Service has to offer. The counselor may suggest incentives to encourage the applicant to choose hard-to-fill occupational specialties. The applicant, however, is free to accept or reject the offer.

Many applicants do not decide immediately, but take time to discuss options with family and friends; others decide not to enlist. A review of the enlistment decision process indicates that the

military continues to compete with civilian employment and educational opportunities even after the prospect has completed the application stage of the enlistment process.¹⁵

The Delayed Entry Program (DEP). When the applicant accepts an offer, he or she signs an enlistment contract. Only a small proportion of new enlistees is sent to a recruit training center from the MEPS within a month of their enlistment. Most enter the delayed entry program (DEP), which allows up to a year before the individual reports for duty, with up to a 6-month extension upon approval by the respective Service Secretary. The DEP controls recruit flow into training "seats" at technical schools. Average time in the DEP is about four months.

Qualified high school students may enlist in the DEP with a reporting date after graduation; their enlistment contract is contingent upon successfully completing high school. Not all DEP enlistees actually enter active duty. By Service, an average of 11 to 19 percent of individuals in the DEP changed their minds and asked to be released from their enlistment contracts in FY 1998. The Services consider enlistment in the DEP a serious commitment, but they do not require youth to enter military service against their will during peacetime.

Characteristics of Active Component Non-Prior Service Applicants

In FY 1998, approximately 347,000 individuals applied to serve in the active enlisted military force (Appendix Table A-1). The distribution of FY 1998 Active Component NPS applicants by race/ethnicity and gender is shown in Table 2.2.

Seventy-eight percent of the applicants were male, of whom 63 percent were White, 20 percent Black, 11 percent Hispanic, and 7 percent "Other." For female applicants, approximately 53 percent were White, 30 percent Black, 10 percent Hispanic, and 7 percent "Other." Additional statistics on applicant characteristics (e.g., age, education levels, AFQT scores, and marital status, by gender and race/ethnicity) are contained in Appendix A, Tables A-1 through A-8.

Characteristics of Active Component Accessions

During FY 1998, 180,031 Active Component non-prior service recruits (individuals who had not previously served in the military) and 5,508 prior service recruits (individuals with military experience) shipped to recruit training centers (Table 2.3). This does not include individuals who entered the DEP in FY 1998 but had not been sent to basic training by September 30, 1998, nor does it include Reserve Component recruits (see Chapter 5 for Reserve Component enlisted accession data).

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Orvis, B.R. and Gahart, M.T., *Enlistment Among Applicants for Military Service: Determinants and Incentives* (Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation, 1990), p. vii.

^{16 10} U.S.C. 513, as amended December 1996.

¹⁷ Includes Native Americans, Asians, and Pacific Islanders.

	Table 2.2. Race/Ethnicity and Gender of FY 1998 Active Component NPS Applicants*, by Service (Percent)										
	Army	Navy	Marine Corps	Air Force	DoD						
	MALES										
White	60.7	59.2	66.5	70.0	62.6						
Black	23.0	20.1	15.0	17.1	20.1						
Hispanic	10.8	10.9	12.9	7.1	10.8						
Other	5.5	9.8	5.7	5.9	6.5						
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0						
		F	EMALES								
White	50.5	50.3	57.6	60.5	53.0						
Black	33.4	28.8	21.0	25.5	30.0						
Hispanic	10.1	11.1	13.9	7.2	10.0						
Other	6.0	9.8	7.5	6.9	7.1						
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0						
			TOTAL								
Male	76.0	78.7	89.9	67.9	77.7						
Female	24.0	21.3	10.1	32.1	22.3						

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Tables A-3 (Race/Ethnicity by Service and Gender) and A-4 (Ethnicity by Service)

Table 2.3. FY 1998 Active Component Non-Prior Service (NPS) and Prior Service Enlisted Accessions								
		Enlist	ed Accessions					
Service	Prior Service	Non-Prior Service	Total	Non-Prior Service Percent of Service Total				
Army	4,299	68,321	72,620	94.1				
Navy	707	46,726	47,433	98.5				
Marine Corps	184	33,450	33,634	99.5				
Air Force	318	31,534	31,852	99.0				
DoD Total 5,508 180,031 185,539 97.0								
Also see Appendix Tables B-13 to	hrough B-22 (Prior Serv	vice Accessions).						

In the Active Component, 97 percent of accessions have never served in the military before. The small number of prior service accessions enlisting in FY 1998 are older and more likely to be married than their NPS counterparts. Prior service recruits more closely resemble the Active Component enlisted force—in terms of age and marital status—from which most of them came. In terms of other characteristics, they are similar to their non-prior service counterparts. Additional

^{*} Applicant data reported for FY 1998 are based on the DMDC Edit version of the MEPCOM file, which has been "cleaned" by the edit process. FY 1998 applicant data are consistent with Information Delivery System (IDS) data. However, comparisons of FY 1998 applicant data to data reported in Population Representation reports for FY 1994 or earlier (from unedited MEPCOM files) may show differences.

statistics on prior service accession characteristics (e.g., race/ethnicity, education levels, and AFQT scores) are contained in Appendix B, Tables B-13 through B-22. The remainder of this section examines a number of sociodemographic characteristics of FY 1998 NPS recruits, and compares them with the 18- to 24-year-old civilian non-institutionalized U.S. population.

The proportion of accessions to applicants over FYs 1976–1998 is tracked in Figure 2.1. This ratio provides an index of the recruiting market. In the earlier years, recruiters sent far more applicants to MEPSs for processing to achieve recruiting objectives. In FY 1981, more than 800,000 applicants were processed through MEPSs to access approximately 301,000 new recruits, a 38 percent accession-to-applicant ratio. In the early 1980s, the Services implemented a series of management initiatives designed to emphasize quality and reduce overhead costs. Recruiting management objectives and award systems were changed to emphasize types of applicants (e.g., high school diploma graduates, Category IIIA and higher) in contrast to achieving purely numerical goals; enlistment screening tests were devised to estimate ASVAB performance prior to sending an individual to a test site.

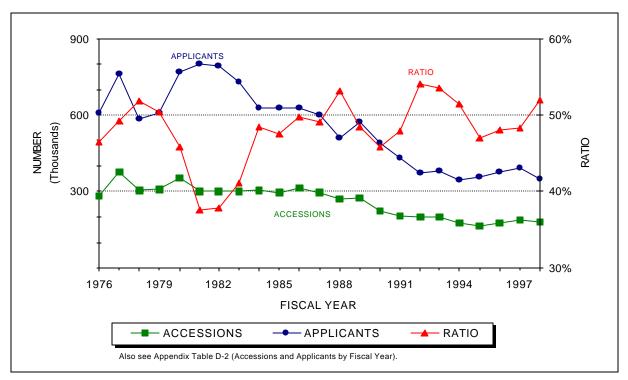


Figure 2.1. Number of accessions and applicants with ratio of accessions to applicants, FYs 1976–1998.

Over the last decade, recruiters have expended great effort in screening prospects. For most years, progressively fewer prospects were sent to MEPSs. In FY 1998, approximately 347,000 applicants were processed through MEPSs to access 180,000 new recruits, a 52 percent ratio of accessions to applicants, breaking the 50 percent mark for the first time in 4 years.

Age. By law, Active Component recruits must be between 17 and 35 years old; 17-year-olds must have parental permission to enlist.¹⁸ Within the 17–35 age range, the Services have different age ceilings. The Army and Navy accept applicants up to age 35; the Air Force accepts recruits prior to their 28th birthday, and the Marine Corps age limit is 29.

The age distribution of FY 1998 active duty NPS accessions is shown in Table 2.4. Approximately, 87 percent of new recruits are 18- to 24-year-olds, compared to about 35 percent of the comparable civilian population. The Marine Corps enlists the greatest percentage of 17- and 18year-old recruits (48 percent) and the smallest percentage of those over age 21 (11 percent). The Army has the greatest proportion of recruits older than age 21 (23 percent) and the smallest proportion of 17- and 18-year-old recruits (38 percent).

	Table 2.4. Age of FY 1998 Active Component NPS Accessions, by Service, and Civilians 17–35 Years Old (Percent)									
Age	Army	Navy	Marine Corps	Air Force	DoD	17- to 35-Year-Old Civilians	Number of Accessions per 1,000 Civilians			
17	5.9	6.1	6.9	4.4	5.9	5.5	2.7			
18	31.8	34.6	41.2	34.4	34.8	5.3	15.9			
19	20.2	22.6	23.7	24.1	22.2	5.2	10.4			
20	11.4	12.3	10.9	13.7	11.9	5.0	5.9			
21	7.6	7.5	5.9	8.3	7.4	4.9	3.7			
22	5.6	4.9	3.7	5.6	5.0	4.6	2.7			
23	4.4	3.3	2.5	3.6	3.6	4.8	1.9			
24	3.2	2.4	1.7	2.2	2.5	4.8	1.3			
>24	10.0	6.2	3.4	3.8	6.7	59.8	0.3			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	2.5			
Also see Appendix	Columns may not add to total due to rounding. Also see Appendix Table B-1 (Age by Service and Gender). Source: Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey File, October 1997 – September 1998.									

The right column of Table 2.4 shows the numerical rate at which civilian youth in each age group enlisted in the Armed Services in FY 1998. For example, an average of 15.9 of every 1,000 18-yearolds and 1.3 of every 1,000 24-year-olds enlisted in FY 1998.

Race/Ethnicity. Significant racial/ethnic differences exist among the Services, as shown in Table 2.5. Approximately 39 and 41 percent of Army and Navy accessions, respectively, are minorities, as compared to 32 percent of Marine Corps recruits and 31 percent of Air Force recruits. The Services maintained their 36 percent rate of minority recruitment in FY 1998. The proportion of Hispanics and "Other" minorities increased as the proportions of Blacks and Whites decreased, generally mirroring the trend in the comparable civilian population.

¹⁸ 10 U.S.C. 505.

Table 2.5. 1	Table 2.5. Race/Ethnicity and Gender of FY 1998 Active Component NPS Accessions, by Service,								
	and Civilians 18–24 Years Old (Percent)								
			Marine						
	Army	Navy	Corps	Air Force	De	oD			
MALES									
White	63.8	61.2	69.1	71.6	65	5.5			
Black	20.8	18.3	12.8	15.7	17	'.7			
Hispanic	10.4	11.1	13.0	7.0	10	0.6			
Other	5.0	9.4	5.1	5.7	6	5.3			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100	0.0			
			FEMALES						
White	51.3	52.6	61.8	61.3	55	5.0			
Black	33.7	27.2	17.4	24.8	28	3.4			
Hispanic	9.6	11.0	14.2	7.0	9).7			
Other	5.3	9.2	6.6	7.0	6	5.9			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100	0.0			
			TOTAL						
Male	81.1	81.0	92.6	73.9	81	.9			
Female	18.9	19.0	7.4	26.1	18	3.1			
White	61.5	59.6	68.6	68.9	63	3.6			
Black	23.2	20.0	13.1	18.1	19	0.6			
Hispanic	10.3	11.1	13.1	7.0	10).4			
Other	5.0	9.4	5.3	6.0	6	5.4			
	1	Non-Institutional	lized Civilians 1	3–24 Years Old					
White	Black	<u>Hispanic</u>	<u>Other</u>	<u>Total</u>	<u>Male</u>	<u>Female</u>			
65.9	14.2	15.0	4.9	100.0	50.1	49.9			
Columns may not add	to total due to rour	nding	ı			L			

Also see Appendix Tables B-3 (Race/Ethnicity by Service and Gender) and B-4 (Ethnicity by Service).

Source: Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey File, October 1997 - September 1998.

Figure 2.2 illustrates the race/ethnicity distribution of enlisted accessions for the 25-year period, FYs 1973-1998. Understanding the race/ethnicity profiles requires some explanation of events during the years up to 1985, before describing the current situation. The percentage of minority enlisted accessions increased, with some fluctuations, during the years following the end of conscription. The number of Black accessions peaked in FY 1979. Hispanic accessions also peaked in FY 1979 (ignoring aberrant data for FY 1976). Accessions of "Other" minorities, a very small proportion of new recruits, have generally shown a gradual increase from less than 1 percent in FY 1973 to 6 percent in FY 1998. The increase of minorities coincided with a miscalibration of the ASVAB, and consequent drop in the aptitude of accessions, both Whites and minorities, beginning in January 1976. The

See Appendix Tables D-5 (White accessions), D-6 (Black accessions), D-7 (Hispanic accessions), and D-8 ("Other" accessions) by Service and fiscal year.

miscalibration led to erroneous enlistment of many low-scoring applicants. Thus, representation of minorities, particularly Blacks (whose test scores, on average, are generally lower than those of Whites), increased during the miscalibration period. The error was corrected by September 1980.²⁰

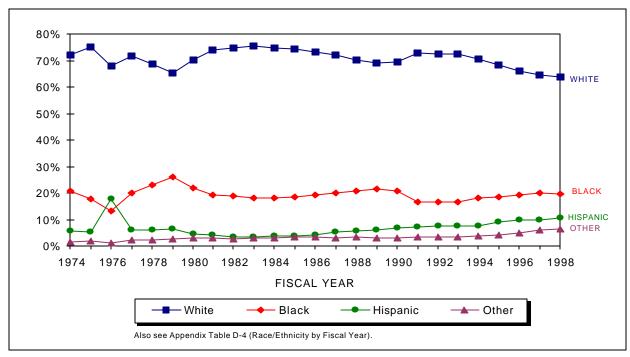


Figure 2.2. Race/ethnicity of Active Component NPS accessions, FYs 1973-1998.

Revised AFQT and education standards in the early 1980s limited the high minority representation levels of the late 1970s.²¹ By FY 1983, the proportion of Black recruits had returned to approximately the same level as before the test scoring error (18 percent Blacks in FY 1975). By the mid-1980s, a gradual increase had resumed. Not until FY 1987 did Hispanic recruit levels return to FY 1975 proportions. Higher high school dropout rates among Hispanics (25 percent), compared to Whites and Blacks (8 and 13 percent, respectively), confound the recruitment of qualified Hispanic applicants.²² The Services have accessed a greater proportion of Hispanics each year since FY 1985, when less than 4 percent of enlistees were Hispanic. Today, more than 10 percent of enlistees are Hispanic.

<u>Blacks</u>. In FY 1998, Blacks comprised nearly 20 percent of enlisted recruits, approximately 5 percentage points more than in the civilian population (14 percent). The Army continues to have the highest percentage of Black accessions, 23 percent in FY 1998. In the aftermath of Operations Desert

Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense (Manpower, Reserve Affairs, and Logistics), *A Report to the House Committee on Armed Services: Aptitude Testing of Recruits* (Washington, DC, 1980).

Congressional Budget Office, Social Representation in the U. S. Military (Washington, DC, 1989), p. 54.

See U.S. Department of Education, *The Digest of Education Statistics 1998* (NCES 1999-036) (Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics, 1999), Table 105.

Shield and Desert Storm and in the midst of the drawdown (FY 1991), there were lower proportions of Black recruits than in previous years. FYs 1992 to 1998 saw slight increases each year toward predrawdown levels of 21 percent Black accessions. In FY 1998, there was a slight decrease in Black enlistees.

While Black men comprise nearly 18 percent of DoD male recruits, Black women make up more than 28 percent of female recruits (Table 2-5 and Appendix Table B-3). Black women in FY 1998 comprised 34 percent of Army female recruits, 27 percent of Navy female recruits, 17 percent of Marine Corps female recruits, and 25 percent of Air Force female recruits. In comparison, the proportion of Black men ranged from 13 percent of Marine Corps male recruits to 21 percent of Army male recruits.

<u>Hispanics</u>. As the proportion of Hispanics has been increasing in the civilian population, so has the proportion of enlisted Hispanics. However, Hispanics were underrepresented among enlisted accessions in FY 1998, 10 percent of recruits compared to 15 percent of civilian 18- to 24-year-olds. The Marine Corps had the highest proportion of Hispanic accessions (13 percent) in FY 1998, followed by the Navy, Army, and Air Force (11, 10, and 7 percent, respectively).

The proportion of Hispanic accessions has increased over the years (Appendix Table D-7). In FY 1983, less than 4 percent of new recruits were Hispanic. Today, more than 10 percent of enlisted accessions are Hispanic. One factor influencing the representation of Hispanics in the military is high school graduation rates. In FY 1998, 57 percent of 18- to 24-year-old Hispanics completed high school (Tier 1) or earned an alternative credential (Tier 2) compared to 74 percent of Blacks and 84 percent of Whites. Although Hispanics are less likely to earn a high school diploma than those in other racial/ethnic groups, the graduation rates for this ethnic group generally have been on the rise.²³

In contrast to Black females, Hispanic females are slightly less represented among female recruits than Hispanic men are among male recruits. Approximately 10 percent of NPS accessions are Hispanic; 11 percent of male recruits and 10 percent of female recruits are Hispanic.

"Other" minorities. Members of "Other" racial minorities (e.g., Native Americans, Asians, and Pacific Islanders), at 6 percent, are slightly overrepresented in the Services. The proportion of "Other" minorities ranges from 5.0 to 9.4 in the Services, with the Navy the highest. In the civilian population, 5 percent of 18- to 24-year-olds are "Other" racial minorities, an increase of more than 3 percentage points since FY 1981.

Gender. Figure 2.3 illustrates the trend in the proportion of female recruits since the start of the All Volunteer Force. Appendix Table D-9 shows the number and proportion of NPS female accessions by Service in FY 1964 and FYs 1970 through 1998. The Air Force traditionally has the largest proportion of women recruits and the Marine Corps the smallest, in part a result of the number of positions open to women in these Services.

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See U.S. Department of Education, *The Condition of Education 1999* (NCES 1999-022) (Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics, 1999), p. 247; and previous *Population Representation* reports.

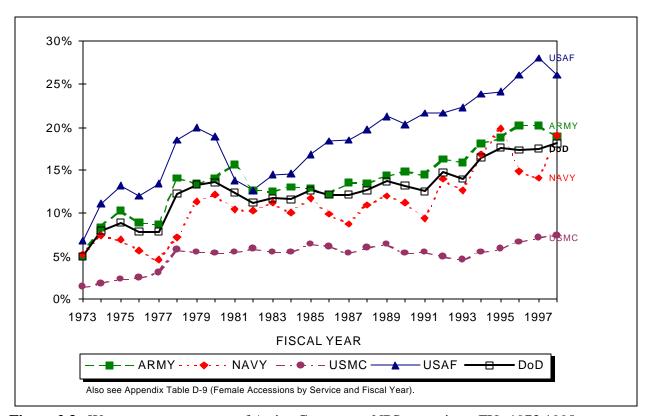


Figure 2.3. Women as a percentage of Active Component NPS accessions, FYs 1973-1998.

The proportion of NPS women accessing into the Services, 18 percent in FY 1998, is not comparable to female representation in the civilian population (50 percent). One reason for the difference is the lower inclination of women than men to apply for and enter the military.²⁴ With policy changes concerning women in combat,²⁵ more women may enter the Services and retention may increase among female members. The gender-integration policy is just beginning to have an effect on the numbers of women; FY 1995 was the first year under the new rules.²⁶

Under a gender-neutral recruiting program since FY 1990, the Air Force leads the Services in the proportion of female accessions. The Air Force has increased its proportion of female recruits, from 20 percent in FY 1990 to 26 percent in FY 1998, a slight decrease from 28 percent in FY 1997 (see Table D-9). When the Navy adopted a gender-neutral recruiting policy in FY 1994, the proportion of women accessions in the Navy increased 3 percentage points (from 17 percent in FY 1994 to 20 percent in FY 1995). However, the Navy dropped its gender-neutral recruiting policy because of the

The annual DoD-sponsored Youth Attitude Tracking Study indicates that young women, depending upon age, are approximately one-half less inclined to join the military than young men.

Memorandum from Les Aspin, Secretary of Defense, Subject: Policy on the Assignment of Women in the Armed Forces, April 28, 1993; Memorandum from Les Aspin, Secretary of Defense, Subject: Direct Ground Combat Definition and Assignment Rule, January 13, 1994.

Memorandum from William Perry, Secretary of Defense, Subject: Application of the Definition of Direct Ground Combat and Assignment Rule, July 28, 1994.

constrained berthing facilities on Navy vessels. The Navy's decision to rescind gender-neutral recruiting may be a factor in the 6-percentage-point drop of female accessions from FY 1995 to FY 1997 (from 20 to 14 percent).²⁷ However, the Navy was able to recruit a significantly larger proportion of women in FY 1998 (19 percent).

Marital Status. The majority of accessions are young high school graduates and the military is often their first full-time job. Thus, very few are married. In FY 1998, 9 percent of male and 12 percent of female recruits were married, compared to 55 and 44 percent of male and female enlisted members, respectively. Table 2.6 compares marriage rates of accessions in the Services with 18- to 24-year-old civilians in the labor force. Civilians are more likely to be married than accessions (15 versus 9 percent). Within the Services, Army recruits are most likely to be married (14 percent) and Marine Corps recruits are least likely (4 percent). Figure 2.4 shows marital status trends for FYs 1976-1998 by Service.

Table 2.6. FY 1998 Active Component NPS Accessions Who Are Married, by Gender and Service, and Civilians 18–24 Years Old (Percent)									
Gender	Gender Army Navy Corps Force DoD Civilians								
Males	13.5	5.0	4.1	9.3	8.7	10.6			
Females	18.3	6.0	6.5	9.6	11.8	19.1			
Total	14.4	5.2	4.3	9.3	9.2	14.8			
	Also see Appendix Table B-2 (Marital Status by Age and Gender). Source: Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey File, October 1997 – September 1998.								

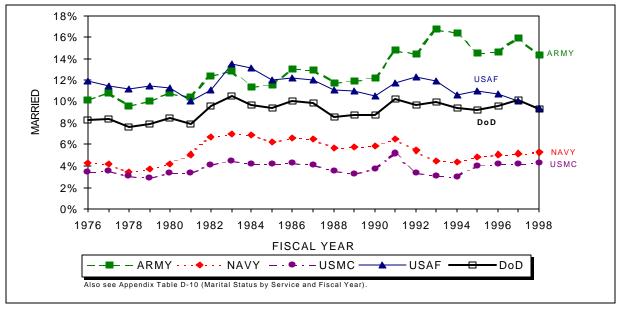


Figure 2.4. Marital status trends of Active Component NPS accessions, by Service, FYs 1976–1998.

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Born, D.H., *Women in the Military-Trends 1990 to 1996* (Washington, DC: Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense [Force Management Policy/Accession Policy]).

Research shows that marriage is important to a member's long-term career and can enhance individual readiness.²⁸ This is true if the member is in a strong marriage to a supportive but independent spouse. However, combining marriage and a military career can create challenges for younger Servicemembers as well as the Service. Entering into marriage just prior to or soon after enlisting in the Service can place extra burdens on the recruit, the family, and the military, particularly when frequent or unexpected deployments separate the "new" family. Thus, marital status trends of accessions (and members) are an important characteristic to monitor.

Education. More than 30 years of research indicates that enlistees who are high school graduates are much more likely than non-graduates to complete their first term of enlistment (80 percent versus 50 percent).²⁹ In the late 1960s and early 1970s, the Services gave high school graduates, including those with alternative education credentials, higher priority for enlistment. In the mid- to late 1970s, the Army, Navy, and Air Force classified GED holders and high school graduates differently because evidence showed that persons with GED certification experienced higher first-term attrition. Today, in all Services, applicants with GEDs need higher AFQT scores to enlist than do high school diploma graduates.

Additional research indicates that those with other alternative credentials, such as adult education and correspondence school diplomas, also have attrition rates greater than regular high school graduates.³⁰ In 1987, DoD implemented a three-tier classification of education credentials. Table 2.7 shows the percentage of FY 1998 active duty NPS accessions by education tier. Ninety-four percent of recruits possessed high school diplomas and/or some college education (Tier 1); 6 percent held alternative high school credentials (Tier 2); and less than 1 percent had not completed high school (Tier 3). It should be noted that enlisted occupations are generally comparable to civilian jobs not requiring college education.

While 99 percent of FY 1998 accessions were in Tiers 1 and 2, only 79 percent of 18- to 24-year-old civilians were high school graduates or possessed a GED certificate. Differences among Services in FY 1998 high school graduate accessions were small, ranging from 99 percent (Air Force) to 90 percent (Army). The Army had the highest proportion of recruits with Tier 2 credentials (10 percent); the Air Force had the lowest (1 percent). In FY 1998, the Navy did not enlist any applicants without education credentials; the other Services' acceptance of recruits with no high school credentials ranged from less than one-tenth of one percent to less than 2 percent.

Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense (Personnel and Readiness), *Family Status and Initial Term of Service, Volume I – Summary* (Washington, DC: Author, December 1993).

See Flyer, E.S., Factors Relating to Discharge for Unsuitability Among 1956 Airman Accessions to the Air Force (Lackland AFB, TX: Personnel Research Laboratory, December 1959); Elster, R.E. and Flyer, E.S., A Study of the Relationship Between Educational Credentials and Military Performance Criteria (Monterey, CA: Naval Postgraduate School, July 1981); and Lindsley, D.H., Recruiting of Women, presented to 1995 Committee on Women in the NATO Forces Conference, June 2, 1995.

Laurence, J.H., *Military Enlistment Policy and Educational Credentials: Evaluation and Improvement* (Alexandria, VA: Human Resources Research Organization, September 1987).

Table 2.7 Levels of Education of FY 1998 Active Component NFS Accessions, by Service, and Civilians 18–24 Years Old (Percent)									
Education Level ¹	Army	Navy	Marine Corps	Air Force	DoD	18- to 24- Year-Old Civilians*			
Tier 1: Regular High School Graduate or Higher	90.1	94.5	95.6	99.1	93.9				
Tier 2: GED, Alternative Credentials	9.9	5.5	2.7	0.7	5.7	78.8			
Tier 3: No Credentials	**	0.0	1.7	0.2	0.4	21.2			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			
College Experience (Part of Tier 1) ²	6.9	3.6	2.5	17.8	7.1	45.8			

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Tables B-7 (Education by Service and Gender) and B-8 (Education by Service and Race/Ethnicity).

Source: Service data from OASD(FMP)(MPP)/Accession Policy—submitted in accordance with DoD Instruction 7730.56. USMC college experience from DMDC's USMEPCOM Edit File. Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey File, October 1997 – September 1998.

The proportion of accessions with high school diplomas by Service for FYs 1973 through 1998 is shown in Figure 2.5. During most of the first decade of the volunteer military (FYs 1973–1982), the Services differed significantly in the proportion of high school diploma graduates. In addition, there were significant variations across years. Across Services, the proportion of accessions with high school diplomas fell from 75 percent in FY 1978 to 66 percent in FY 1980. The drop was most pronounced in the Army, declining from 73 to 52 percent over that period.

During the mid-1970s, the Services operated with reduced recruiting budgets. At the same time, there were highly publicized reports of shrinking military benefits and significant gaps in pay comparability with the civilian sector. Media articles cited the hemorrhage of talent from the Services due to loss of benefits, and the percentage of Servicemembers eligible for food stamps.

Because of lower education levels of new recruits, lower test scores, and increasing minority representation during this period, debates began on whether to replace the volunteer force with either a form of national service or a return to the draft.³¹ The Executive and Legislative branches of

^{*} Civilian numbers and percentages combine Tiers 1 and 2 as civilian data include GED certificates with high school graduate rates. ** Less than one-tenth of one percent.

¹ Service data from OASD(FMP)(MPP)/Accession Policy have been reviewed and updated by the Services for official submission. Data presented in this table may differ slightly from the data shown in appendix tables that are taken from DMDC's USMEPCOM Edit File.

² College experience data from the Services are defined as those individuals with the following credentials: associate degree, professional nursing diploma, baccalaureate, master's, post master's, doctorate, first-professional, or completed one semester of college.

In December 1976, the Department of Defense released a report, *The All Volunteer Force: Current Status and Prospects*, which listed seven alternatives to the all volunteer military. On June 20, 1978, the Senate Subcommittee on Manpower and Personnel of the Committee on Armed Services conducted an extensive hearing, *Status of the All-*

government funded major initiatives to reinvigorate the volunteer military, enhance recruiting programs, and improve Servicemembers' quality of life. Military pay and benefits and recruiting resources were increased substantially in 1981, resulting in a rapid increase in the quality of accessions. The proportion of high school graduate recruits jumped from 66 percent in FY 1980 to 83 percent in FY 1982. Further incentives, such as the Montgomery GI Bill and the Army, Navy, and Marine Corps College Funds, and Service emphasis on improving the quality of life for Servicemembers and their families led to improved recruiting. The proportion of high school graduates climbed to a peak of 98 percent in FY 1992. As previously stated, in FY 1998 the proportion of high school diploma graduates was 94 percent.

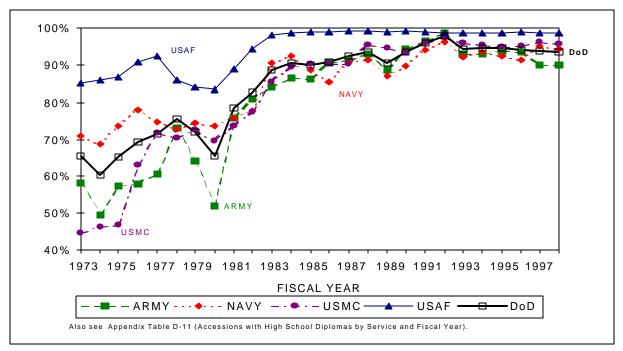


Figure 2.5. Active Component NPS accessions with high school diplomas, FYs 1973–1998.

Figure 2.6 compares FY 1998 accessions with civilians of similar age on the percentage of high school graduates (Tier 1) and those with alternative credentials (Tier 2), by gender and race/ethnicity. Although virtually all military recruits are in Tiers 1 and 2, the same is not true of 18- to 24-year-old civilians. Some dramatic differences in education level, by race/ethnicity, are evident in Figure 2.6. Only 73 percent of Black civilians and 59 percent of Hispanic civilians have high school diplomas or alternative credentials. Given these percentages, the Services' minority recruiting pool is limited. Thus, the race/ethnicity representation comparisons should be interpreted with these data in mind.

AFQT. AFQT scores are the primary measure of recruit potential. Figure 2.7 indicates the percentage of NPS recruits who scored at or above the 50th percentile (Categories I-IIIA) since FY

Volunteer Armed Force, on the problems of a volunteer force and the need to examine alternatives to the all volunteer military.

1973. Numerical data are in Appendix D, Table D-12. The drop in Category I-IIIA recruits after FY 1976 was due primarily to the miscalibration of the ASVAB.³² In FY 1976, when new versions of the ASVAB were introduced, an error in calibrating the score scales made the new versions "easier" than the old versions (i.e., applicants received test scores higher than their actual ability). In FY 1980, an independent study of the calibration was made and the test was correctly calibrated. Then, Congress added legal provisions stipulating that no more than 20 percent of accessions could be in Category IV and that such accessions had to be high school diploma graduates.³³ However, as previously stated, Defense Planning Guidance decreases this limit even further, allowing no more than 4 percent of recruits to come from Category IV.

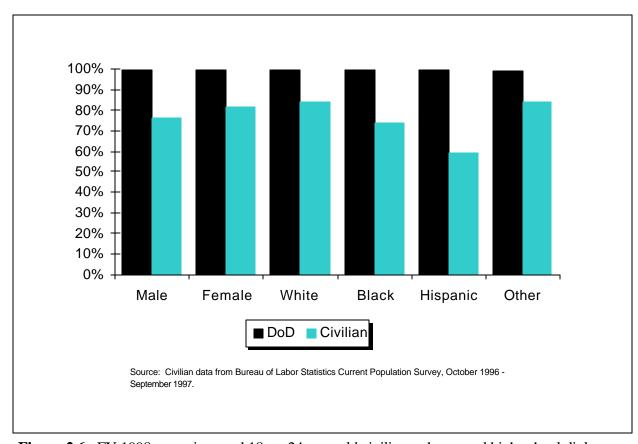


Figure 2.6. FY 1998 accessions and 18- to 24-year-old civilians who earned high school diplomas (Tier 1) or alternative credentials (Tier 2), by gender and race/ethnicity.

Figure 2.7 shows FY 1977 as the low point and FY 1992 as the high point in accessing recruits in Categories I to IIIA. In FY 1977, 34 percent of accessions scored in the top half of the AFQT

See two documents: Sims, W.H. and Truss, A.R., A Reexamination of the Normalization of Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB) Forms 6, 7, 6E, and 7E (Alexandria, VA: Center for Naval Analyses, September 1980); and Laurence, J.H. and Ramsberger, P.F., Low-Aptitude Men in the Military: Who Profits, Who Pays? (New York: Praeger, 1991).

³³ 10 U.S.C. 520.

distribution. Only 13 percent of Blacks, 19 percent of Hispanics, and 20 percent of "Others" scored in Categories I-IIIA.³⁴ Fifteen years later, in FY 1992, the majority of minority accessions achieved scores in the I-IIIA range (Blacks - 56 percent, Hispanics - 67 percent, "Others" - 67 percent). Hispanics have shown the most marked increase, with a 48-percentage-point gain in Category I to IIIA accessions from FY 1977 to FY 1992.

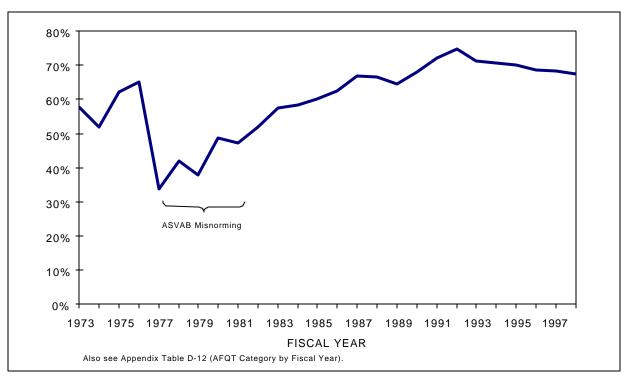


Figure 2.7. Percentage of NPS accessions in AFOT categories I-IIIA, FYs 1973–1998.

A graphic view of the increasing trend in AFQT performance of accessions from FY 1981 through FY 1992 is provided in Figure 2.8. The more significant gains were in Categories I to IIIA, where the percentages increased from 47 percent in FY 1981 to 75 percent in FY 1992. Conversely, there has been a steady decline in the percentage of Category IIIB accessions. Most dramatic has been the decrease in accessions who score in Category IV—from 33 percent in FY 1979 to one percent or less since FY 1991. There has been a slight decline in the percentage of accessions in Categories I to IIIA in the last six years, from 75 percent in FY 1992 to 68 percent in FY 1998.

The percentages of FY 1998 active duty NPS accessions in each AFQT category are shown in Table 2.8. The percentage of recruits in Categories I and II was slightly higher than for their civilian counterparts (males - 40 versus 39 percent; females - 36 versus 33 percent). Category III accessions greatly exceeded civilian proportions (males - 59 versus 30 percent; females - 64 versus 37 percent), while the percentage of recruits in Category IV was much lower than in the civilian population (males - 1

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Data from Defense Manpower Data Center.

percent versus 20 percent; females - less than 1 percent versus 22 percent). The low percentage of Category IV recruits is, in part, a result of DoD limits of 4 percent Category IV recruits, with even lower Service limits. Ten percent of civilian males and 9 percent of civilian females scored in Category V; DoD allows no Category V recruits.

Sixty-eight percent of recruits scored at or above the 50th percentile on the AFQT (Categories I–IIIA). Air Force recruits scored higher than those of the other three Services. Seventy-eight percent of Air Force recruits scored in Categories I–IIIA, compared to 68 percent of Army, and 64 percent of both Navy and Marine Corps recruits.

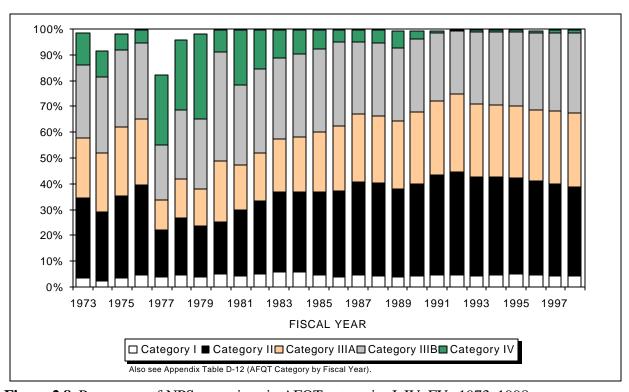


Figure 2.8. Percentage of NPS accessions in AFQT categories I–IV, FYs 1973–1998.

High Quality. One impact of the defense drawdown is the Services' redesign of a number of career fields, with incumbents assuming a more diverse workload and greater responsibilities. The redesign both increases the number of tasks assigned to an individual, and requires incumbents to perform new tasks of greater complexity.³⁵ The Services believe that as the levels of job/task difficulty and importance increase, so will the need to bring in and retain greater proportions of individuals with above-average aptitude. The Services define high-quality recruits as high school diploma graduates who score in the top 50 percent on the AFQT, Categories I through IIIA. Figure 2.9 shows the trends in the proportion of high-quality accessions since FY 1973. In FY 1998, the percentage of high-quality recruits ranged from 56 percent in the Army to 74 percent in the Air Force.

See Sellman, W.S., *Since We Are Reinventing Everything Else, Why Not Occupational Analysis?* Keynote address to the 9th Occupational Analyst Workshop, San Antonio, TX, May 31–June 2, 1995.

Table 2.8. AFQT Scores of FY 1998 Active Component NPS Accessions, by Gender and Service (Percent)											
AFQT Category ¹	Army	Navy	Marine Corps	Air Force	DoD						
	MALES										
I	4.3	5.3	3.6	5.4	4.6						
П	32.5	34.7	33.2	43.9	35.0						
IIIA	29.7	24.3	27.4	30.0	27.8						
IIIB	31.1	35.7	35.0	20.4	31.4						
IV	2.4	0.0	0.9	0.3	1.1						
V	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0						
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0						
		FEMALE:	S								
I	2.8	3.0	4.7	3.0	3.1						
II	31.9	31.0	33.2	35.5	32.7						
IIIA	40.1	27.8	30.1	34.1	34.4						
IIIB	24.7	38.2	31.8	27.3	29.7						
IV	0.5	0.0	0.3	0.1	0.2						
V	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0						
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0						

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Source: Service data from OASD(FMP)(MPP)/Accession Policy—submitted in accordance with DoD Instruction 7730.56. The 1980 civilian comparison group distribution for the total population (males and females) is 7 percent in Category I, 28 percent in Category II, 15 percent in Category IIIA, 19 percent in Category IIIB, 21 percent in Category IV, and 10 percent in Category V. Civilian data from *Profile of American Youth* (Washington, DC: Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense [Manpower, Reserve Affairs, and Logistics], March 1982).

Reading Ability. Because reading requirements for many military occupations are substantial, reading ability of recruits is important. The reading grade level (RGL) is estimated by converting the ASVAB verbal composite score to its RGL equivalent.³⁶ Table 2.9 shows that the mean RGL for FY 1998 recruits was at a level that would be expected of an 11th grade student, compared to 10th grade level for the average FY 1984 accession.

^{*} Less than one-tenth of one percent.

¹ Service data from OASD(FMP)(MPP)/Accession Policy are "cleaned" by the Services for official submission. Data presented in this table may differ slightly from the data shown in appendix tables that are taken from DMDC's USMEPCOM Edit File. Also see Appendix Tables B-5 (AFQT by Service and Gender) and B-6 (AFQT by Service and Race/Ethnicity).

See Waters, B.K., Barnes, J.D., Foley, P., Steinhaus, S.D., and Brown, D.C., *Estimating the Reading Skills of Military Applicants: The Development of an ASVAB to RGL Conversion Table* (Alexandria, VA: Human Resources Research Organization, October 1988).

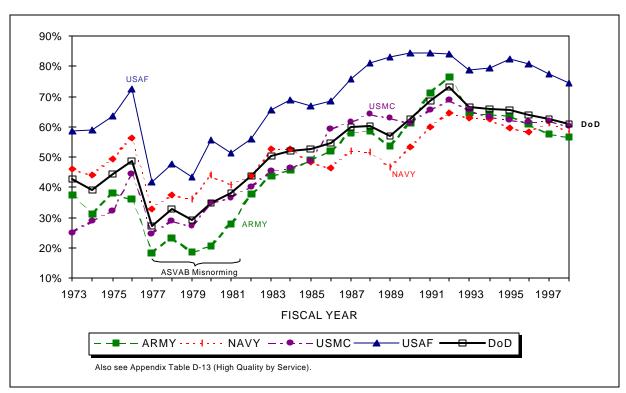


Figure 2.9. Percentage of high-quality NPS accessions, FYs 1973–1998.

Table 2.9. Mean Reading Grade Level of FY 1984–1998 Active Component NPS Accessions,									
	By Service, and 1980 Civilians 18-23 Years Old								
			Marine	Air		1980 Civilian			
Fiscal Year	Army	Navy	Corps	Force	DoD	Youth Population			
1984	10.0	10.2	9.8	10.5	10.1				
1985	10.6	10.5	10.1	10.8	10.6				
1986	11.2	11.0	11.1	11.4	11.1				
1987	11.2	11.1	11.2	11.6	11.2				
1988	11.2	11.1	11.2	11.5	11.2				
1989	11.1	11.0	11.2	11.4	11.2				
1990	11.2	11.1	11.2	11.7	11.3				
1991	11.4	11.0	11.3	11.7	11.3	10.3			
1992	11.5	11.4	11.3	11.7	11.5				
1993	11.5	11.5	11.2	11.8	11.5				
1994	11.4	11.3	11.2	11.7	11.4				
1995	11.3	11.3	11.2	11.7	11.4				
1996	11.3	11.3	11.1	11.7	11.4				
1997	11.2	11.2	11.1	11.6	11.3				
1998	11.2	11.2	11.1	11.5	11.2				

Source: 1980 civilian youth population data from the *Profile of American Youth* (Washington, DC: Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense [Manpower, Reserve Affairs, and Logistics], March 1982); and Waters, et al., *Estimating the Reading Skills of Military Applicants: The Development of an ASVAB to RGL Conversion Table* (Alexandria, VA: Human Resources Research Organization, October 1988).

Inter-Service differences in RGL were relatively small in FY 1998, with mean RGLs ranging from 11.1 for the Marine Corps to 11.5 for the Air Force. The 1980 nationally representative sample of 18- to 23-year-olds, on whom ASVAB scores are based, read at a mean 10th grade level.

Geography. The percentages of recruits from some census regions of the United States have remained fairly stable since the inception of the volunteer force. However, as Figure 2.10 illustrates, in other regions some substantial shifts have taken place. The percentage of accessions from the Northeast dropped 8 points from a high of 22 percent in FY 1977 to a low of 14 percent in FY 1989. Today, 15 percent of enlisted recruits are Northeasterners. The proportion of accessions from the South increased 9 percentage points from 34 percent in FY 1985 to 43 percent in FY 1995. In FY 1998, 42 percent of new recruits were from the South.

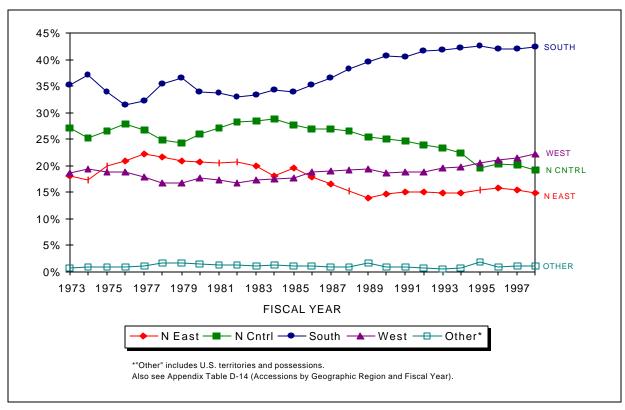


Figure 2.10. NPS accessions by geographic region, FYs 1973–1998.

Changes in geographical representation are related to factors such as shifts in demographic patterns, unemployment, college enrollment, and employment compensation rates, which vary widely across regions of the country.³⁷ Obviously, no one factor can explain variations in enlistment rates between different sections of the country; they are more likely attributable to a wide array of economic, social, and demographic factors.

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Kostiuk, P.F., Geographic Variations in Recruiting Market Conditions (Alexandria, VA: Center for Naval Analyses, 1989).

Table 2.10 presents FY 1998 accession statistics by geographic region, division, and state. The third and fourth columns show percentages of accessions and percentages of the 18- to 24-year-old civilian population, respectively, in each area. The fifth column presents military/civilian representation ratios—the percentage of enlisted accessions divided by the percentage of civilians in each area. A representation ratio of 1.00 means that the area has the same proportion of accessions as of the youth population—for example, 8 percent of all recruits and 8 percent of all youth aged 18–24. A ratio of less than 1.00 means that relatively few youth in an area enlist in the military, while a ratio of more than 1.00 indicates above-average market penetration. The last two columns of the table present the percentages of high-quality accessions (high school graduates in AFQT Categories I–IIIA) and mean AFQT scores for each area.

Tab	Table 2.10. Selected Statistics for FY 1998 NPS Accessions by								
R	Region, Division, and State, and Civilians 1824 Years Old								
CENSUS REGION CENSUS DIVISION STATE	Area's Contribution of All NPS Accessions	Area's Percent of All NPS Accessions	Area's Percent of All 18- to 24-Year- Olds	Represen- tation Ratio	Percent of High-Quality Accessions*	Mean AFQT Percentile Score			
NORTHEAST REGION	26,878	15.1	18.1	0.8	62.0	60.2			
New England Division Maine New Hampshire Vermont Massachusetts Rhode Island Connecticut Middle Atlantic Division New York New Jersey	5,996 1,089 783 323 2,081 470 1,250 20,882 10,077 3,778	3.4 0.6 0.4 0.2 1.2 0.3 0.7 11.7 5.7 2.1	4.4 0.4 0.4 0.2 2.2 0.3 0.9 13.7 6.5 2.8	0.8 1.6 1.1 0.9 0.5 0.8 0.8 0.9	63.9 68.0 68.8 67.2 61.1 60.9 62.2 61.5 59.9	61.5 63.0 64.1 64.3 60.2 60.3 60.4 59.8 59.2 58.5			
Pennsylvania	7,027	3.9	4.3	0.9	64.6	61.3			
NORTH CENTRAL REGION East North Central Division Ohio Indiana Illinois Michigan Wisconsin	34,574 23,635 6,610 3,172 6,541 5,000 2,312	19.4 13.3 3.7 1.8 3.7 2.8 1.3	24.0 16.6 4.1 2.2 4.4 4.0 1.9	0.8 0.8 0.9 0.8 0.8 0.7 0.7	65.0 64.4 64.7 64.5 61.6 65.0 69.6	61.6 61.1 61.1 61.9 59.9 60.8 64.1			
West North Central Division Minnesota Iowa Missouri North Dakota South Dakota Nebraska Kansas	10,939 1,921 1,639 3,692 377 564 1,119 1,627	6.1 1.1 0.9 2.1 0.2 0.3 0.6 0.9	7.3 1.7 1.1 2.2 0.3 0.4 0.7 1.1	0.8 0.6 0.9 1.0 0.8 0.9 0.9 0.9	66.4 69.4 70.9 61.5 74.3 70.6 64.8 67.1	62.5 64.6 64.1 60.0 67.3 63.5 62.4 62.7			

(Continued)

Table 2.10. Selected Statistics for FY 1998 NPS Accessions by								
	Division, and St				•			
,	, , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , , ,	,	Area's					
CENSUS REGION CENSUS DIVISION	Area's Contribution	Area's Percent	Percent of All 18-	Represen-	Percent of	Mean AFQT		
STATE	of All NPS Accessions	of All NPS Accessions	to 24-Year- Olds	tation Ratio	High-Quality Accessions*	Percentile Score		
SOUTH REGION	76,302	42.9	34.7	1.2	58.5	58.4		
South Atlantic Division	37,722	21.2	16.7	1.3	58.3	58.4		
Delaware	452	0.3	0.3	0.9	60.4	58.4		
Maryland	3,570	2.0	1.5	1.3	61.1	59.8		
District of Columbia	248	0.1	0.2	0.7	49.6	54.0		
Virginia	5,693	3.2	2.2	1.5	59.0	59.4		
West Virginia	1,494	0.8	0.7	1.3	58.1	57.4		
North Carolina	5,111	2.9	2.9	1.0	57.4	57.8		
South Carolina	3,596	2.0	1.3	1.5	55.7	56.5		
Georgia	5,983	3.4	2.8	1.2	55.8	57.2		
Florida	11,575	6.5	4.9	1.3	59.8	59.3		
East South Central Division	11,509	6.5	6.1	1.1	55.9	57.1		
Kentucky	2,347	1.3	1.5	0.9	58.9	58.4		
Tennessee	3,147	1.8	1.9	0.9	60.5	59.3		
Alabama	3,874	2.2	1.6	1.4	53.6	55.9		
Mississippi	2,141	1.2	1.1	1.1	49.9	54.5		
West South Central Division	27,071	15.2	11.8	1.3	59.8	58.9		
Arkansas	2,114	1.2	1.0	1.1	57.3	58.2		
Louisiana	3,728	2.1	1.9	1.1	53.9	55.7		
Oklahoma Texas	3,070 18,159	1.7 10.2	1.2 7.8	1.5 1.3	61.4 61.0	59.5 59.5		
WEST REGION	40,164	22.6	23.3	1.0	62.3	60.3		
		7.3	6.0	, ,	642	61.4		
Mountain Division	12,917	7.3	6.9	1.1	64.2	61.4		
Montana	1,064	0.6	0.3	1.7	71.0	63.5		
Idaho Wyoming	1,006 570	0.6 0.3	0.5 0.2	1.1	65.1 67.5	63.1 63.2		
Wyoming Colorado	2,660	1.5	1.6	1.7 1.0	64.1	63.2		
New Mexico	1,551	0.9	0.6	1.0	60.0	59.4		
Arizona	3,695	2.1	1.9	1.4	62.5	60.0		
Utah	1,046	0.6	1.9	0.5	67.2	63.2		
Nevada	1,325	0.0	0.6	1.3	64.6	61.5		
Pacific Division	27,247	15.3	16.5	0.9	61.4	59.7		
Washington	3,991	2.2	2.0	1.1	66.8	63.9		
Oregon	2,351	1.3	1.2	1.1	66.7	63.3		
California	19,547	11.0	12.6	0.9	59.7	58.4		
Alaska	539	0.3	0.2	1.4	66.6	63.1		
Hawaii	819	0.5	0.4	1.1	54.7	56.8		
Total (50 STATES + D.C.)	177,918*	100.0	100.0	1.0	61.1	59.7		

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

^{*} High-quality accessions are high school graduates who score at or above the 50th percentile on the AFQT. This column is the number of high-quality accessions in area divided by the total number of accessions in area.

^{**} Does not include 2,113 recruits from the territories and unknowns.

Source: Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey, File, October 1997 – September 1998

The South region had the greatest ratio of enlistees (1.2). The South Atlantic and West South Central divisions had the strongest representation (1.3 each). The Northeast and North Central regions had representation ratios of 0.8 and the West region had a representation ratio of 1.0.

Slightly more than half of the states had representation ratios of 1.0 or more. These included: Maine and New Hampshire in the Northeast; Missouri in the North Central; all states except Utah and California in the West; and all states, except Delaware, Kentucky, Tennessee, and the District of Columbia, in the South. Among all states and the District of Columbia, the ratios ranged from a low of 0.5 in Massachusetts and Utah to a high of 1.7 in Montana and Wyoming.

The sixth column of Table 2.10 shows the proportion of high-quality accessions by geographical area. There were only minor differences by region in FY 1998. The proportion of high-quality accessions by region ranged from a low of 59 percent in the South to a high of 65 percent in the North Central region. Differences across divisions were somewhat larger. Nearly 11 percentage points separated the East South Central and West North Central divisions. Differences at the state level were still larger, ranging from 50 percent in the District of Columbia and Mississippi to 74 percent in North Dakota.

The last column of Table 2.10 shows the mean AFQT score by each geographical area. Occasionally interest has been expressed in using AFQT scores as an indicator of the performance of state educational systems. AFQT statistics are not particularly suitable for this purpose for several reasons. As a sample of youth in a state, ASVAB test-takers reflect a number of selection biases, the total effect of which is unknown. Those who take the test as part of the enlistment process exclude many students who intend to enroll in college, prospects who fail the enlistment screening test, and youth who do not have an interest in military enlistment. Therefore, youth who take the ASVAB should not be presumed to be representative of the communities or school systems from which they are drawn. Even without the biases, it would be difficult to determine how much the test scores reflect differences in school performance from state to state, or how much they reflect other state characteristics, such as social composition and economic conditions. In sum, while the ASVAB is an excellent instrument for the purposes for which it was designed, it does not provide valid state-by-state school performance data.

Nevertheless, AFQT scores by state may be of interest for purposes other than assessing school system performance. The AFQT figures in Table 2.10 reflect the mean AFQT percentile scores for accessions in each state. Percentiles displayed in Table 2.10 are all above 50 because low-scoring applicants are screened out.

Chapter 3

ACTIVE COMPONENT ENLISTED FORCE

At the end of Fiscal Year 1998, enlisted force end-strength was 1.17 million, down from 1.20 million in FY 1997. Enlisted end-strength has dropped each year since FY 1987, when the Active Component counted 1.85 million enlisted members, which was more than in any year since FY 1974. Figure 3.1 displays trend lines by Service for the active duty enlisted force size since FY 1973, and Appendix Table D-15 provides end-strength data by year and by Service for FYs 1964 and 1973 through 1998.

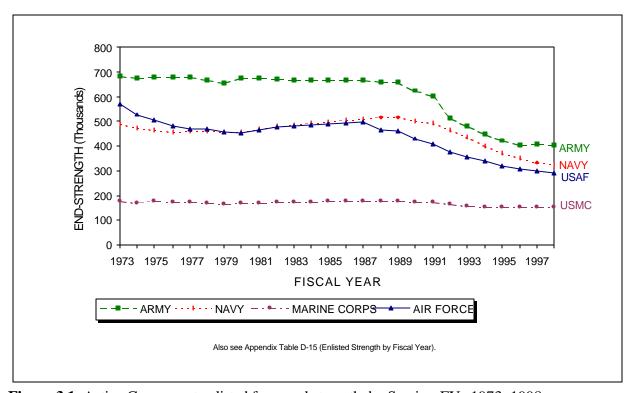


Figure 3.1. Active Component enlisted force end-strength, by Service, FYs 1973–1998.

Characteristics of Active Component Enlisted Force

Age. Trained person-years are more important than end-strength when evaluating personnel readiness. Greater proportions of trained person-years reduce training costs and enable the Services to cut recruiting objectives. To gain increased person-years with the same number of Servicemembers, DoD and Service planners increase the mean initial term of enlistment and restructure the mix of first-term and career force personnel.

The mean number of months in service per enlisted Servicemember is highlighted in Figure 3.2. Mean time in service rose from 75 months in FY 1987 to 90 months in FY 1994 and then dropped slightly to 88 months in FY 1998. Although the cumulative effect of various policies put in place since the early 1980s resulted in an increase in the mean age of the Services' enlisted force from 25 years old

in FY 1980 to more than 27 years old in FY 1997, current retention problems have led to a slight decrease in mean age and time in Service in FY 1998.

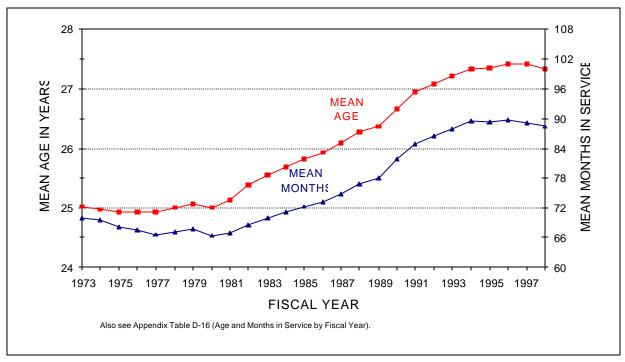


Figure 3.2. Active Component enlisted force average age and months in service, FYs 1973–1998.

Force structure, retention, and personnel policies govern the distribution of Servicemembers by occupation and grade. These factors have resulted in an overall DoD force profile wherein approximately half the force (51 percent) has less than 6 years of service, with slightly less than half (45 percent) having 6 to 19 years, and 4 percent having more than 20 years. Pay grade and time in service are highly correlated. Paralleling the years in service data, pay grade distributions include slightly more than half of the enlisted force in pay grades E1 through E4 (54 percent) and slightly less than half in pay grades E5 through E9 (46 percent), as shown in Table 3.1. Progression from E1 and E2 (trainees) to E3 occurs quickly; consequently, relatively few enlisted members are in pay grades E1 and E2 (15 percent). Nearly three-quarters (74 percent) of the enlisted force is in pay grades E3 through E6. Service differences primarily are the result of retention trends as well as the force structure and personnel requirements needed to support Service-unique roles and missions. Thus, time in service and pay grade data should be interpreted cautiously.

In FY 1998, 45 percent of the enlisted force was 17–24 years old, yet a little more than 1 percent was older than 44, as shown in Table 3.2. For those who make the military a career, the 20-year retirement option results in many leaving service while in their late 30s and early 40s. In the Army, Navy, and Marine Corps, a large proportion of the enlisted force was under age 25 (45, 42, and 67 percent, respectively). Marine Corps members were the "youngest" with two-thirds under age 25, and

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See Timenes, N., Jr., *Force Reductions and Restructuring in the United States*, presented to NATO Seminar on Defense Policy and Management, Brussels, Belgium, July 2, 1992. The derived force was based on the distribution by years of service from FY 1987 through FY 1989—a period of stable funding preceding the drawdown.

3 percent 40 years or older. Air Force members were the "oldest" with 35 percent under age 25, and 8 percent older than 39. The Marine Corps traditionally has the youngest accessions. The Air Force experiences higher enlisted retention rates than the other Services, contributing to somewhat "older" enlisted members.

Table 3.1. FY 1998 Pay Grade of Active Component Enlisted Members, by Service							
Pay Grade	Army	Navy	Marine Corps	Air Force	DoD		
E1	6.7	6.5	8.8	3.9	6.2		
E2	8.4	8.4	13.2	6.1	8.5		
E3	15.1	15.1	26.2	15.3	16.6		
E4	25.5	19.6	19.0	23.2	22.4		
E5	18.1	21.8	15.3	25.2	20.5		
E6	13.7	17.6	8.9	13.1	14.0		
E7	9.2	7.9	5.7	10.2	8.6		
E8	2.6	2.1	2.2	2.0	2.3		
E9	0.8	1.0	0.8	1.0	0.9		
Unknown	0.1	*	*	0.0	*		
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Table B-46 (Active Component by Pay Grade and Service).

Table 3.2. FY 1998 Age of Active Component Enlisted Members, by Service, and Civilian Labor Force 17 and Older (Percent)							
Age	Army	Navy	Marine Corps	Air Force	DoD	Civilian Labor Force	
17–19	11.2	9.7	17.7	7.1	10.6	5.0	
20–24	33.9	31.9	49.3	28.3	34.0	9.9	
25–29	23.2	20.5	15.3	20.0	20.6	11.6	
30–34	15.1	15.9	7.9	17.7	15.0	12.3	
35–39	10.9	15.0	6.9	19.3	13.6	13.8	
40–44	4.1	5.4	2.3	6.5	4.8	13.7	
45–49	1.1	1.4	0.6	1.1	1.1	11.8	
50+	0.2	0.2	0.1	0.1	0.2	21.9	
Unknown	0.4	*	0.0	*	0.1	0.0	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

^{*} Less than one-tenth of one percent.

^{*} Less than one-tenth of one percent.

Also see Appendix Table B-23 (Active Component by Age Group, Service, and Gender).

Source: Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey File, September 1998.

Although 45 percent of the enlisted force was in the 17–24 age group, less than one-sixth of the civilian labor force fell in this range. At the other end of the distribution, one-fifth of the civilian labor force was 50 years old or older, compared with two-tenths of one percent of enlisted members.

Race/Ethnicity. The military attracts and retains higher proportions of Blacks and "Other" minority groups but lower proportions of Hispanics than are in the civilian labor force. As Table 3.3 indicates, the overall proportion of enlisted minorities was higher than in the civilian labor force in FY 1998 (36 and 30 percent, respectively). While Hispanics were underrepresented among enlisted members (8 percent versus 13 percent), the Services have made gains since 1987, when only 4 percent of the enlisted force was Hispanic.

Table 3.3. FY 1998 Race/Ethnicity of Active Component Enlisted Members, by Service, and Civilian Labor Force 18–44 Years Old (Percent)						
Race/ Ethnicity	Army	Navy	Marine Corps	Air Force	DoD	18- to 44-Year-Old Civilians
White	56.3	63.2	66.6	73.0	63.7	70.5
Black	29.5	19.9	16.6	17.8	22.2	12.3
Hispanic	7.6	9.0	12.3	5.1	8.0	12.5
Other	6.6	7.9	4.5	4.2	6.1	4.7
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Table B-25 (Race/Ethnicity by Service and Gender).

Source: Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey File, September 1998.

Twenty-two percent of the enlisted force was Black, compared with 12 percent of the civilian labor force (18–44 year-olds). This near 2:1 ratio for Black members was higher than for FY 1998 accessions, primarily because retention was higher among Blacks than Whites. The Army had the highest proportion of Black enlisted members in FY 1998 (30 percent).

Changes over time in the percentage of Black enlisted members in each Service are shown in Figure 3.3. Black soldiers in the Army increased from 18 percent in FY 1973 to a high of 33 percent in FY 1981. That proportion decreased to 30 percent by the mid-1980s, in large part due to an increase in entrance standards and the Army's decision not to renew enlistment contracts of low-scoring members who entered during the ASVAB misnorming. The proportion of Blacks in the Army has remained stable since FY 1993 at 30 percent.

The Marine Corps has experienced slight decreases in Blacks during recent years, paralleling the drop in minority accessions in FY 1991 and the concomitant decrease in the propensity to enlist among Black youth. Black male propensity declined 19 percentage points between 1991 and 1998.² The Navy, on the other hand, exhibited a consistent long-term increase in the proportion of Blacks,

Memorandum from F. M. Rush, Acting Assistant Secretary of Defense (Force Management Policy), Subject: 1998 Youth Attitude Tracking Study, January 5, 1999.

from 8 percent in FY 1973 to 20 percent in FY 1998. In all Services, the percentage of female members who are Black significantly exceeds the percentage of male members who are Black (Appendix Table B-25).

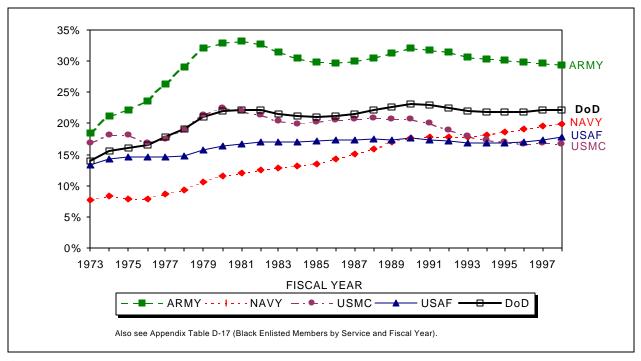


Figure 3.3. Blacks as a percentage of Active Component enlisted members, by Service, FYs 1973–1998.

In FY 1998, active duty Hispanic enlisted members were a smaller part of the enlisted force than of the civilian labor force in the 18–44 age group (8 percent and 12 percent, respectively). The highest representation of Hispanics was in the Marine Corps (12 percent). The proportions of "Other" minority individuals in the Army and Navy were similar (7 and 8 percent, respectively), while the Marine Corps and Air Force had somewhat less (5 and 4 percent, respectively).

Gender. Trends in the percentage of enlisted women since FY 1973 are shown in Figure 3.4 (Appendix Table D-19 provides numerical data). Thirty years ago, because of legal restrictions, women constituted less than 2 percent of military members. In 1967, Public Law 90-30 removed the 2-percent cap on women in the military.³ However, policies, particularly those related to the roles of women, did not change accordingly. It took nearly 20 years for the Services to achieve 10 percent representation of women.

Born, D.H. and Lehnus, J.D., *The World of Work and Women at War*, paper presented at the International Military Testing Association, Toronto, Canada, October 1995.

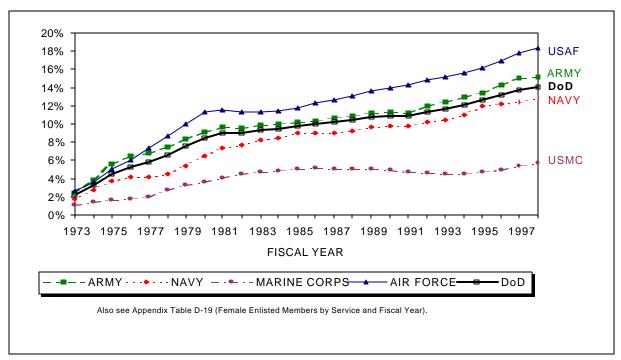


Figure 3.4. Women as a percentage of Active Component enlisted members, by Service, FYs 1973–1998.

Four factors affect the proportion of enlisted female members. First, women have a lower inclination to enlist than men do⁴; only 13 percent of females age 16–21 planned to enlist in 1998 compared to 26 percent of males ages 16–21.⁵ Second, combat exclusion policies restrict the positions and skills in which women may serve. However, as directed by former Secretary of Defense Les Aspin, the Services have opened more positions for women. Third, the military personnel system is a "closed" system. Growth must come from within, and from the bottom up; lateral entries play no significant role. Consequently, the gender structure of the career force is shaped primarily by the proportion of females recruited. Fourth, women leave the Services at a higher rate than men. Thus, the percentage of women in the military may not change much from current levels unless there are significant increases in female recruiting or retention.

As a result of policy and social changes, the number of active duty enlisted women increased from nearly 28,000 in FY 1972 to a pre-drawdown peak of 196,000 in FY 1989, then down to 160,000 in FY 1995. The number and proportion of women has increased to nearly 165,000, more than 14 percent women, in FY 1998. The increase in women in the military since FY 1972 brought about significant changes across all aspects of personnel management: in training programs and physical fitness regimens, in assignments, in living arrangements, and in medical services. It also created new administrative issues regarding pregnancy, the proportion of single parents in the military, child care

Memorandum from F.M. Rush, Acting Assistant Secretary of Defense (Force Management Policy), Subject: 1998 Youth Attitude Tracking Study, January 5, 1999.

⁵ Ibid.

arrangements during peacetime and deployment, and dual-service marriages (where husband and wife both serve in uniform).

Nearly all career fields (92 percent) are now open to women: 91 percent in the Army, 96 percent in the Navy, 93 percent in the Marine Corps, and 99 percent in the Air Force.⁶ Gradual increases in the proportion of women in the military underscore the Services' commitment to recruit and retain women.

As shown in Table 3.4, the Air Force has the highest proportion of women on active duty (18 percent), while the Marine Corps has the lowest (6 percent). Percentages in the Army and Navy are 15 and 13 percent, respectively. The differences are primarily a function of the proportion of positions closed to women in each Service. Overall, the proportion of enlisted women has gradually increased (about half a percentage point each year) over the past six years, from 11.6 to 14.1 percent from FY 1993 to FY 1998 (Appendix Table D-19).

Table 3.4. FY 1998 Gender of Active Component Enlisted Members, by Service, and								
Civilian Labor Force 18–44 Years Old (Percent)								
Marine Air 18- to 44-Year-Old								
Gender	Army	Navy	Corps	Force	DoD	Civilians		
Male	84.9	87.2	94.3	81.6	85.9	53.6		
Female	15.1	12.8	5.7	18.4	14.1	46.4		
Total 100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0 100.0								
Also see Appendix Table B-23 (Age by Service and Gender).								

Marital Status. Although only 9 percent of first-time enlisted recruits are married, a majority of enlisted Servicemembers are (53 percent). By the end of the first term of service (typically four years), approximately 42 percent of male enlisted members have become married.⁷ Trends in marital status of active duty members are shown in Figure 3.5. The proportion of married enlisted members declined from FY 1977 (50 percent) to FY 1980 (47 percent). In FY 1981 the proportion began to increase until a peak of 57 percent in FY 1994. Since FY 1994, the proportion of married members has dropped slightly to less than 55 percent in FY 1998. Marital status varies by Service. Air Force members are most likely to be married (65 percent), while Marines are least likely to be married (42 percent).

The percentages of FY 1998 Active Component enlisted married males and females are shown by Service in Table 3.5 and by age in Appendix Table B-24. Proportionally, more Servicemen were married than Servicewomen (55 and 44 percent, respectively). Similarly, more civilian men were married than civilian women (62 versus 55 percent, respectively). The proportion of married

News release from Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense (Public Affairs), "Secretary of Defense Perry Approves Plans to Open New Jobs for Women in the Military," July 29, 1994.

Department of Defense, *Family Status and Initial Term of Service*, Volume I-Summary (Washington, DC: Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense [Personnel and Readiness], December 1993).

Servicemen was somewhat lower than married 18- to 44-year-old men in the civilian population (55 and 62 percent, respectively). The proportion of married Servicewomen was lower than that of women in the comparable civilian population (44 and 55 percent, respectively).

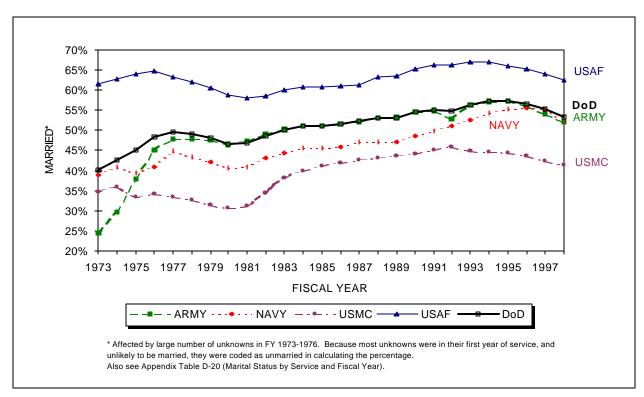


Figure 3.5. Percentage of Active Component enlisted members who were married, by Service, FYs 1973–1998.

Table 3.5. FY 1998 Active Component Enlisted Members Who Were Married, by Gender and Service, and Civilian Labor Force 18–44 Years Old (Percent)								
Gender Army Navy Corps Force DoD 18- to 44-Year-Old Civilians								
Male	53.5	54.6	41.7	65.4	54.9	61.5		
Female	44.3	37.6	38.3	50.0	44.2	54.7		
Total	52.1	52.4	41.5	62.6	53.4	58.3		
Also see Appendix Table B-24 (Age by Marital Status and Gender). Source: Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey File, September 1998.								

The percentage of married military women has changed significantly since FY 1973.8 Twenty-five years ago women constituted 2 percent of military members. Military women were not expected to be married; retention directives implicitly encouraged separation of married enlisted women. In FY 1973, 18 percent of military women were married, increasing to 36 percent in FY 1978 and to 44 percent in FY 1998.

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Department of Defense, *Population Representation in the Military Services: Fiscal Year 1989* (Washington, DC: Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense [Force Management and Personnel], July 1990).

During and after the Persian Gulf War, questions were raised regarding the deployment of both parents in a dual-service marriage (i.e., a marriage wherein both husband and wife are military members). The proportion of members in each Service who are married and the proportion of those married who are members of a dual-service marriage are shown in Table 3.6.

Ta				nel Who Were Marrie (Number and Percent			
	In Buar Service	Married		Married W	/ho Were In ce Marriages		
Gender	End-Strength	Number	Percent	Number*	Percent**		
		1	ARMY				
Male	341,153	182,381	53.5	12,494	6.9		
Female	60,830	26,945	44.3	11,301	41.9		
Total	401,983	209,326	52.1	23,795	11.4		
			NAVY				
Male	280,731	153,176	54.6	8,351	5.5		
Female	41,367	15,565	37.6	6,605	42.4		
Total	322,098	168,741	52.4	14,956	8.9		
MAR'INE CORPS							
Male	146,335	60,954	41.7	2,835	4.7		
Female	8,925	3,416	38.3	2,094	61.3		
Total	155,260	64,370	41.5	4,929	7.7		
		AII	R FORCE				
Male	238,048	155,640	65.4	14,412	9.3		
Female	53,542	26,785	50.0	14,657	54.7		
Total	291,590	182,425	62.6	29,069	15.9		
			DoD				
Male	1,006,267	552,151	54.9	38,092	6.9		
Female	164,664	72,711	44.2	34,657	47.7		
Total	1,170,931	624,862	53.4	72,749	11.6		

^{*} There are some differences between the number of males and females reporting dual-service marriages.

Larger proportions of men than women are married, but significantly greater proportions of women are members of dual-service marriages (48 percent of married women versus 7 percent of married men; Table 3.6). The Marine Corps has the greatest variance, with 5 percent of married men but 61 percent of married women in dual-service marriages. Proportionally, more Air Force personnel

^{**} These percentages reflect the proportion of married enlisted members who are married to a Servicemember. For example, 12,494 male Army enlisted personnel are in dual-service marriages. That is, 6.9 percent of married male Army enlisted members (182,381) are in dual-service marriages.

are members of dual-service marriages (16 percent). Across the Services, 12 percent of enlisted members are in dual-service marriages.

Education. The majority of the enlisted force have high school diplomas (95 percent), as indicated in Table 3.7. In FY 1998, 97 percent of female and 95 percent of male enlisted personnel were high school diploma graduates (Tier 1). There were fewer people with no credentials in the military than in the civilian labor force (2 versus 12 percent), and fewer people with college experience (28 versus 55 percent). This latter comparison is misleading because enlisted occupations are generally comparable to civilian occupations that do not require college degrees. Most military members with college degrees are officers (98 percent of officers have undergraduate or advanced degrees). The education levels of the officer corps are discussed in Chapter 4.

Table 3.7. FY 1998 Education of Active Component Enlisted Members, by Service, and						
C	ivilian Labor	Force 18–4	4 Years Old	(Percent)		
			Marine	Air		18- to 44-Year- Old
Education Level	Army	Navy	Corps	Force	DoD	Civilians*
Tier 1: Regular High School Graduate or Higher	92.9	93.4	95.3	99.9	95.1	
Tier 2: GED, Alternative Credentials	3.1	4.7	4.6	0.1	3.0	88.1
Tier 3: No Credentials	4.0	1.9	0.2	**	1.9	11.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
College Experience (Part of Tier 1) ¹	10.0	4.9	2.7	90.8	27.7	54.6

^{*} Civilian percentages combine Tiers 1 and 2.

Also see Appendix Table B-27 (Education by Service and Gender).

Source: Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey File, September 1998.

The Army, Navy, and Marine Corps had roughly the same proportion of high school diploma graduate enlisted members in FY 1998, ranging from 93 to 95 percent. Almost all Air Force members held diplomas (99+ percent). The Army had the largest proportion without at least a high school diploma (7 percent), while the Air Force had the smallest (one-tenth of one percent). Because of the way in which its forces are deployed, Air Force members can more readily schedule and attend off-duty education programs. As a result, more than 90 percent of Air Force members have some college experience—much more than in the other Services (3, 5, and 10 percent, for the Marine Corps, Navy, and Army, respectively).

The Services encourage members to continue their education while in the military. In-service tuition assistance programs pay 75 percent of tuition costs. Members also can use the Montgomery GI Bill to cover the majority of the cost of off-duty college and technical courses.⁹ The investment in

^{**} Less than one-tenth of one percent.

¹ Military data represent only enlisted members. Officers, who usually have college degrees, are not included. See Chapter 4 for a discussion of officers.

Department of Defense, *Biennial Report to Congress on the Montgomery GI Bill Education Benefits*Program (Washington, DC: Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense [Force Management Policy], May 1998).

continuing education is a sound one. Enlisted personnel who used tuition assistance had higher promotion rates and stayed in the service longer than those who did not.¹⁰

Representation Within Occupations. The percentages of enlisted personnel by occupational area in FY 1998 are shown in Table 3.8. No shifts in the occupational distribution of the force occurred during that year. Occupations such as infantry and related specialties, craftsmen, and service and supply included less than one-third (29 percent) of enlisted personnel. Many enlisted members (43 percent) were in jobs requiring mid-level skills, including medical and dental specialties, functional support and administration, and electrical/mechanical equipment repair. The high-skilled and high-tech areas—electronic equipment repair, communications and intelligence specialists, and other allied specialists—made up about 21 percent of the force. The remaining 7 percent were non-occupational, to include patients, students, and those with unassigned duties.

	Table 3.8. FY 1998 Occupational Areas of Active Component Enlisted Personnel by Gender (Percent)							
	Occupational Code and Area	Males	Females	Total DoD				
0	Infantry, Gun Crews, and Seamanship Specialists	19.0	4.3	16.9				
1	Electronic Equipment Repairers	9.9	5.4	9.3				
2	Communications and Intelligence Specialists	8.7	9.2	8.7				
3	Medical and Dental Specialists	5.6	16.6	7.1				
4	Other Allied Specialists	3.1	2.9	3.0				
5	Functional Support and Administration	13.2	33.0	16.0				
6	Electrical/Mechanical Equipment Repairers	21.9	8.9	20.1				
7	Craftsmen	3.9	1.8	3.6				
8	Service and Supply Handlers	8.3	9.9	8.5				
9	Non-occupational*	6.6	8.0	6.8				
	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0				

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

The assignment of enlisted personnel to military occupations depends on eligibility (determined by ASVAB scores and sometimes other tests or requirements), individual preference, and the availability of openings. As part of the occupational classification process, the military uses aptitude composites made up of ASVAB test scores related to occupations. The composites vary by Service, and are developed empirically to predict the probability of training success.

Men tend to score higher than women on the ASVAB tests in the mechanical and electronics composites, while women tend to do better on administrative measures. On average, Whites have higher test scores than Hispanics and "Other" minorities, who in turn have higher scores than Blacks.

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^{*} Non-occupational includes patients, students, those with unassigned duties, and unknowns.

See Appendix Tables B-29 (Occupational Area by Service and Gender) and B-30 (Occupational Area by Service and Race/Ethnicity).

¹⁰ See Boesel, D. and Johnson, K., *The DoD Tuition Assistance Program: Participation and Outcomes* (Arlington, VA: Defense Manpower Data Center, May 1988).

Within each demographic group, there is wide variation in ASVAB test scores, and most recruits qualify for a number of occupations. The recruits' preferences and the availability of openings for which they are qualified determine the occupations to which individuals are assigned.

Representation of women within occupations. The major shift that has occurred in assignment patterns for women in the last two decades has been to increase their presence in "non-traditional" jobs. In the early 1970s, most enlisted women (88 percent) were in two occupational areas: functional support and administration, and medical/dental. In FY 1998, 33 and 17 percent, respectively, served in these occupations. Viewed another way, approximately 12 percent of enlisted women in the 1970s served in areas considered non-traditional (gun crews, communications, craftsmen, etc.), and in FY 1998 half of all Servicewomen were in these occupations (50 percent).

Women are ineligible for infantry and other positions in which the primary mission is to physically engage the enemy. However, the direct ground combat rule allows women to serve on aircraft and ships engaged in combat. The proportion of women in occupational code 0 (infantry, gun crews, and seamanship specialists) in FY 1998 was 4 percent. The percentage of men in these occupations was approximately five times that of women because of the direct ground combat exclusion policy for women.

The occupational differences by gender are illustrated in Table 3.8. In FY 1998, the percentage of women in functional support and administration as well as medical and dental occupations was approximately two times that of men. Although the percentages of women in the technical and craftsmen occupations are greater now than when women first joined the military, men account for the preponderance of Servicemembers in these areas.

Representation of minorities within occupations. In FY 1998, the proportions of Blacks, Whites, and Hispanics were similar in four of the nine occupational areas—communications and intelligence specialists, medical and dental specialists, other allied specialists, and craftsmen (Table 3.9). In electronic equipment repair, where the proportions of Blacks and Hispanics were very similar, the proportion of Whites was substantially higher. The proportions of Hispanics and Whites were approximately the same in service and supply handlers, and were lower than Blacks. In electrical/mechanical equipment repair, Whites and Hispanics were similar and were higher than Blacks. Blacks were more heavily represented in the functional support and administration area and, to a lesser extent, the service and supply area.

Pay Grade. Enlisted pay grades, E1 to E9, correspond to the ranks of Private in the Army and Marine Corps, Seaman Recruit in the Navy, and Airman Basic in the Air Force through Sergeant Major in the Army and Marine Corps, Master Chief Petty Officer in the Navy, and Chief Master Sergeant in the Air Force. Enlisted personnel in grades E1 and E2 are trainees. Members in pay grades E3 and E4 are at the apprentice level, working under journeymen, who are at pay grades E5 and E6. Supervisor

Department of Defense, *Population Representation in the Military Services: Fiscal Year 1993* (Washington, DC: Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense [Force Management Policy], November 1994), p. 4-13.

Memorandum from Les Aspin, Secretary of Defense, Subject: Direct Ground Combat Definition and Assignment Rule, January 13, 1994.

positions are at pay grades E7 through E9. Soldiers, marines, and airmen at pay grades E5 and above and some at E4 are noncommissioned officers (NCOs), with demonstrated ability in the job and as a leader. In the Navy, those at pay grades E4 and above are petty officers, with leadership responsibilities. Servicemembers in NCO and petty officer positions are required to lead, supervise, and train entry-level enlisted personnel. They perform the work as well as direct the work of others.

Tal	Table 3.9. FY 1998 Occupational Areas of Active Component Enlisted Personnel by Race/Ethnicity (Percent)								
	Occupational Code and Area	White	Black	Hispanic	Other				
0	Infantry, Gun Crews, and Seamanship Specialists	18.2	13.2	17.9	15.4				
1	Electronic Equipment Repairers	10.7	6.7	7.2	6.4				
2	Communications and Intelligence Specialists	9.4	8.0	7.4	6.2				
3	Medical and Dental Specialists	6.3	8.3	7.7	10.6				
4	Other Allied Specialists	3.3	2.5	2.5	2.6				
5	Functional Support and Administration	12.2	25.6	17.2	18.3				
6	Electrical/Mechanical Equipment Repairers	21.9	15.2	19.0	20.4				
7	Craftsmen	3.9	3.0	3.2	3.4				
8	Service and Supply Handlers	7.2	12.1	8.7	9.3				
9	Non-occupational*	6.9	5.5	9.2	7.5				
	Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0				

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

More than half of the enlisted force is in pay grades E1 through E4 (54 percent). Grades E4 and E5 have the largest concentration of the enlisted force (22 and 21 percent, respectively). This distribution is necessary to provide a sufficient number of trained leaders to fill the higher ranks; not all personnel in the lower ranks reenlist and progress to the higher grades. There are slight variations among racial/ethnic groups (Table 3.10) as well as differences between male and female enlisted members (Table 3.11).

A comparison of pay grade distributions by race/ethnicity shows larger percentages of Black and "Other" minorities at pay grades E5 through E7 than Whites and Hispanics. Hispanics fill the lower grades (E1 through E3) in greater proportions than the other racial/ethnic groups. Retention rates play a role in these distributions. Blacks traditionally have higher retention rates than other racial/ethnic groups.

^{*} Non-occupational includes patients, students, those with unassigned duties, and unknowns.

Also see Appendix Tables B-29 (Occupational Area by Service and Gender) and B-30 (Occupational Area by Service and Race/Ethnicity).

Table 3.10.	Table 3.10. FY 1998 Pay Grade of Active Component Enlisted Members, by Race/Ethnicity (Percent)							
Pay Grade	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	Total DoD			
E1	6.1	5.6	8.5	6.4	6.2			
E2	8.4	7.5	11.3	8.6	8.5			
E3	16.3	15.4	22.4	17.2	16.6			
E4	23.0	20.7	23.9	21.6	22.4			
E5	20.8	21.4	16.7	19.6	20.5			
E6	13.7	16.2	9.4	14.7	14.0			
E7	8.5	9.8	5.9	8.6	8.6			
E8	2.3	2.5	1.6	2.3	2.3			
E9	1.0	0.8	0.5	1.0	0.9			
Unknown	*	*	*	0.0	*			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

As shown in Table 3.11, a larger proportion of women fill pay grades E1 to E4 (64 percent) than men (52 percent). At higher pay grades, there are more men. The primary reason for the difference by gender is lower retention rates among enlisted women.

Table 3.11. FY 1998 Pay Grade of Active Component Enlisted Personnel, by Gender (Percent)							
Pay Grade	Male	Female	Total DoD				
E1	6.2	6.7	6.2				
E2	8.3	9.6	8.5				
E3	15.9	20.9	16.6				
E4	21.7	27.0	22.4				
E5	20.9	17.9	20.5				
E6	14.6	10.1	14.0				
E7	9.0	6.1	8.6				
E8	2.4	1.4	2.3				
E9	1.0	0.4	0.9				
Unknown	*	*	*				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0				

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

^{*} Less than one-tenth of one percent.

Also see Appendix Table B-47 (Active Component by Pay Grade and Race/Ethnicity.)

^{*} Less than one-tenth of one percent.

Also see Appendix Table B-46 (Active Component by Pay Grade and Gender).

Chapter 4

ACTIVE COMPONENT OFFICERS

The commissioned officer corps (with civilian oversight) is the senior leadership and management of the Armed Forces. This chapter presents a view of the demographic and social characteristics of both Active Component officer accessions and the commissioned officer corps in FY 1998.¹ Also highlighted are longitudinal changes among officers. Figure 4.1 illustrates the trend in Active Component officer strength by Service since 1973. Supporting data are provided in Appendix Table D-25.

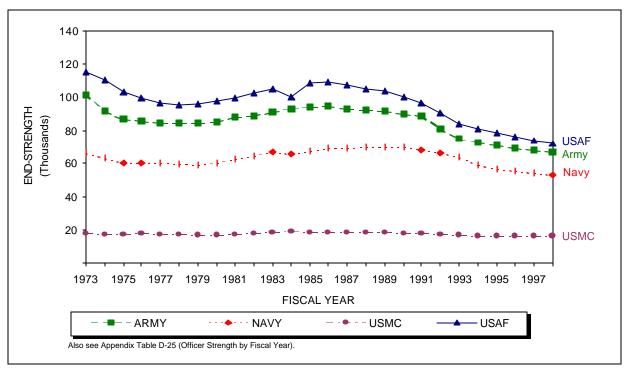


Figure 4.1. Active Component officer end-strength, by Service, FYs 1973–1998.

These data depict two drawdowns and one buildup in the Active Component officer corps. These changes in military strength can be attributed, at least partially, to changes in the world situation. The first decline, during the 1973 to 1979 period, can be attributed to the demobilization following the end of the Vietnam Conflict; the defense buildup of the 1980s was predicated by the escalation of the "Cold War"; and the most recent drawdown can be attributed to the fall of communism and the end of the Cold War. At a few more than 208,100, the FY 1998 Active Component officer end-strength is 2 percent smaller than in FY 1997 and less than three-quarters the size of the FY 1986 officers corps, which was the peak of the buildup. The FY 1998 officer end-strength represents the smallest officer corps since the advent of the All Volunteer Force 25 years ago.

4-1

Data are for commissioned officers; warrant officers are excluded for the most part. A brief sketch of warrant officers is presented at the end of this chapter.

The overall number of individuals commissioned by the Services decreased slightly (1 percent) in FY 1998 to approximately 15,600 (Figure 4.2). As the Army experienced a 6-percent drop in accessions, the other Services increased their numbers of officer appointments. The Navy and Marine Corps accessed 1 percent more new officers than in FY 1997. The FY 1998 Air Force accession cohort grew by more than 4 percent compared to FY 1997.

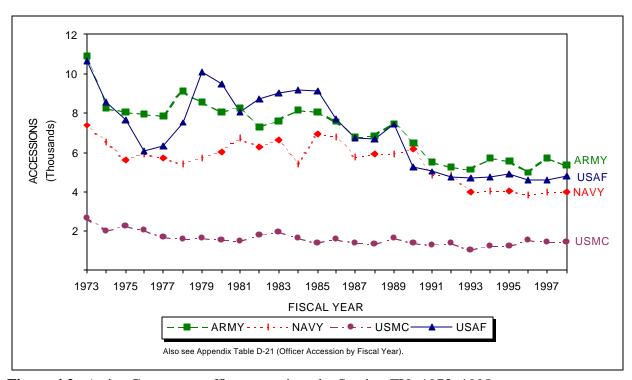


Figure 4.2. Active Component officer accessions, by Service, FYs 1973–1998.

Characteristics of Active Component Officers

Table 4.1 shows the number and percentage of FY 1998 Active Component officer accessions and officers by Service. In total personnel, the Army is the largest Service, but the Air Force has the highest officer content. The Air Force stood at slightly less than 72,000 active duty officers in contrast to the Army's almost 67,000. This variation in force structure is most likely due to variations in mission requirements of the two Services.

While the Air Force has more total active duty officers than the Army, the Army continues to access more officers than the Air Force. This pattern suggests that annual requirements rest on more than the relative size of the Service, to include retention and its underlying influencers.

Pay Grade. The commissioned officer corps is divided into 10 pay grades [O-1 through O-10]. Officers in pay grades O-1 through O-3 are considered company grade officers. In the Army, Marine Corps, and Air Force, these pay grades correspond to the ranks of second lieutenant (O-1), first lieutenant (O-2), and captain (O-3), and in the Navy, ensign, lieutenant junior grade, and lieutenant.

Officers in the next three pay grades (O-4 through O-6) are considered field grade officers. In the Army, Marine Corps, and Air Force, these pay grades correspond to the ranks of major (O-4), lieutenant colonel (O-5), and colonel (O-6), and in the Navy, lieutenant commander, commander, and captain. The last four pay grades are reserved for general officers in the Army, Marine Corps, and Air Force, and flag officers in the Navy. The ranks associated with each pay grade are as follows: in the Army, Marine Corps, and Air Force, brigadier general (O-7), major general (O-8), lieutenant general (O-9), and general (O-10); in the Navy, rear admiral-lower half, rear admiral-upper half, vice admiral, and admiral.

Table 4.1. FY 1998 Active Component Officer Accessions and Officer Corps (Number and Percent) ¹								
	Active Component Off	icer Accessions	Active Componer	nt Officer Corps				
Service	Number	Percent	Number	Percent				
Army	5,381	34.5	66,980	32.2				
Navy	4,007	25.7	53,206	25.6				
Marine Corps	1,443	9.3	16,075	7.7				
Air Force	4,763	30.5	71,893	34.5				
Total 15,594 100.0 208,154 100.0								
¹ End-strength reflects commissioned officers only (it excludes warrant officers).								

As Table 4.2 shows, the force structure of the officer corps is that of a pyramid with the company grade officers making up the broad base (60 percent of officers in FY 1998), followed by field grade officers representing the narrower middle (40 percent of officers in FY 1998), and general/flag officers representing the pinnacle (less than 1 percent of officers in FY 1998). This pay grade distribution is influenced not only by the military's emphasis on youth and fitness, but also by the choices and competition engendered by "up or out" career progression policies.

Source of Commission. The criteria for the selection of potential officers for commissioning include age, U.S. citizenship, physical fitness, moral character, education, and cognitive ability. Given that officers form the military's leadership and professional echelons and that investment in officer education programs is high, the selection standards are quite stringent.²

With few exceptions, a 4-year college degree is a prerequisite for commissioning. To this end, two of the primary commissioning programs, the Service academies and the Reserve Officers Training Corps (ROTC), are administered in conjunction with an individual's academic preparation. The United States Military Academy (USMA), the United States Naval Academy (USNA), and the United States Air Force Academy (USAFA) each offer room, board, medical and dental care, salary, and tuition

Also see Tables D-21 (Officer Accessions) and D-25 (Officer Strength).

See Eitelberg, M.J., Laurence, J.H., and Brown, D.C., "Becoming Brass: Issues in the Testing, Recruiting, and Selection of American Military Officers," in B.R. Gifford and L.C. Wing (Eds.), Test Policy in Defense: Lessons from the Military for Education, Training, and Employment (Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 1991).

throughout a 4-year undergraduate program of instruction leading to a baccalaureate degree.³ Located at numerous undergraduate colleges and universities throughout the country, ROTC has both scholarship and non-scholarship options.⁴

Table 4.2. FY 19	Table 4.2. FY 1998 Active Component Officer Corps, by Rank/Pay Grade ¹ and Service (Percent)							
Rank [*]	Pay Grade	Army	Navy	Marine Corps	Air Force	DoD		
Second Lieutenant (Ensign)	O-1	12.4	11.5	15.3	9.5	11.4		
First Lieutenant (Lieutenant Jr. Grade)	O-2	14.4	12.5	17.0	10.3	12.7		
Captain (Lieutenant)	O-3	33.1	35.6	31.4	38.3	35.4		
Major (Lieutenant Commander)	O-4	20.6	19.8	21.1	21.7	20.8		
Lieutenant Colonel (Commander)	O-5	13.5	13.9	10.9	14.5	13.8		
Colonel (Captain)	O-6	5.4	6.3	3.9	5.3	5.5		
Brigadier General (Rear Admiral - Lower Half)	O-7	0.2	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.2		
Major General (Rear Admiral - Upper Half)	O-8	0.2	0.1	0.2	0.1	0.1		
Lieutenant General (Vice Admiral)	O-9	0.1	**	0.1	0.1	0.1		
General (Admiral)	O-10	**	**	**	**	**		
Total		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Table B-48 (Pay Grade by Gender and Service).

The two remaining primary commissioning programs, Officers Candidate/Training School (OCS/OTS) and Direct Commissioning, are designed almost exclusively for individuals who already possess at least a baccalaureate degree. OCS/OTS exists as a rather quick commissioning source for college graduates who did not receive military training or indoctrination as part of their undergraduate education. This source also provides a means for promising enlisted personnel to earn a commission. Direct commissions, with a minimum of military training, are offered to professionals in fields such as law, medicine, and the ministry. Because of their advanced degrees and/or work

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^{*} Ranks in parenthesis are Navy designations.

^{**} Less than one-tenth of one percent.

¹ Excludes those with unknown rank/pay grade.

There is no separate Marine Corps academy, but a percentage of each Naval Academy graduating class pledges to become Marine Corps officers.

Non-scholarship ROTC is not without benefits, such as a subsistence allowance upon progress to advanced training.

experience, officers directly appointed are often commissioned at ranks higher than the customary second lieutenant or ensign. There are other specialized commissioning sources that, together with the primary programs, ensure that the Services have access to a number of different pools of personnel with diverse skills.

Table 4.3 highlights the flexibility afforded officer procurement by the alternative commissioning programs. The largest proportion of FY 1998 officer accessions (40 percent) came through ROTC programs—and most were recipients of a college scholarship (29 percent of all officer accessions and 72 percent of ROTC accessions). Among officers on active duty who were commissioned through ROTC, slightly more did not receive scholarships than those who did get them. However, this is exclusively an Army phenomenon. Direct appointments accounted for 20 percent and academy graduates accounted for 18 percent of incoming officers. OCS/OTS produced about 17 percent of FY 1998 Active Component officer accessions.

Table 4.3. FY 1998 Source of Commission of Active Component Officer Accessions and Officer Corps, by Service (Percent)									
Source of Commission	Source of Commission Army Navy Marine Corps Air Force DoD								
ACTIVE COMPONENT OFFICER ACCESSIONS									
Academy	16.7	19.5	10.7	17.0	17.8				
ROTC-Scholarship	39.3	16.8	11.8	32.2	28.8				
ROTC-No Scholarship	21.4	1.5	0.0	10.9	11.1				
OCS/OTS	5.6	23.7	59.0	11.2	16.9				
Direct Appointment	16.5	24.5	1.3	25.7	20.0				
Other *	**	13.8	17.2	0.3	5.2				
Unknown	0.5	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.2				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0				
	ACTIVE C	OMPONENT OF	FICER CORPS						
Academy	16.4	19.8	11.9	19.8	18.1				
ROTC-Scholarship	18.9	19.7	16.6	21.8	19.9				
ROTC-No Scholarship	40.1	2.5	0.0	20.4	20.6				
OCS/OTS	8.3	20.6	56.9	19.2	19.0				
Direct Appointment	15.7	21.7	1.3	18.7	17.2				
Other *	0.1	14.6	13.4	0.1	4.8				
Unknown	0.5	1.3	0.0	0.0	0.5				
Total	100.0	100.00	100.00	100.00	100.00				

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Tables B-40 (Active Component Officer Accessions by Source of Commission, Service, and Gender) and B-41 (Active Component Officer Corps by Source of Commission, Service, and Gender).

^{*} Includes officers trained in one Service and accessed into another (primarily Marine Corps).

^{**}Less than one-tenth of one percent.

There were Service differences in reliance on the various commissioning sources. For example, 59 percent of the Marine Corps' newly commissioned officers came through OCS-type pipelines and only one percent were recipients of direct commissions. In fact, the Marine Corps does not have a Service academy or ROTC program. Midshipmen at the Naval Academy and in the Navy's ROTC program can opt to enter the Marine Corps upon program completion. The Marine Corps relies on the Navy for officers in medical and dental specialties and chaplains, thereby lowering its need for direct commissioning. The Service differences are probably influenced by retention rates, budget considerations, and historical fluctuations in officer recruiting needs.

Age. As shown in Table 4.4, officers, on average, tend to be older than enlisted personnel. Upon commissioning in FY 1998, the average officer was 23 years old in contrast to 20 years old for the average enlisted accession. The mean age of all active officers was 34 years and that of enlisted members was 27 years. The mean age of officer accessions varies by source of commission. In FY 1998, the average age of newly commissioned officers ranged from 23 years for Service academy graduates to 33 years for officers commissioned directly.⁵

Table 4.4. FY 1998 Mean Age of Active Component Officer Accessions and Officer Corps in Comparison to Enlisted Personnel						
Officers Enlisted						
Active Component Accessions	22.7	19.9				
Active Component Force	34.2	27.3				
Also see Appendix Table B-31 (Age by Service).						

Figures 4.3 and 4.4 (together with Appendix Table B-31) highlight the military's emphasis on youth. In particular, Marine Corps officer accessions and officer corps were younger than those in other Services. About 6 percent of Marine Corps officers were 31 or older upon entry. The proportion within this age range among the other Services' newly commissioned officers was greater but still notably small. The percentage who were 31 years or older was 10 percent in the Army, 22 percent in the Navy, and 16 percent in the Air Force. The rigorous physical demands and rapid deployment of Marines, and this Service's absence of officers in medical and ministry fields, no doubt are related to the relative youth of Marine Corps officers.

Figure 4.5 shows that along with age, there has been a steady increase in the tenure of officers. On average, as of FY 1998, the typical commissioned officer was around 34 years old and had been in uniform for nearly 11 years.

Race/Ethnicity. The percentages of minorities among newly commissioned officers and the Active Component officer corps are shown in Table 4.5. In FY 1998, almost 21 percent of entering officers were minorities—Black, Hispanic, and "Other" (e.g., Native Americans, Asians, and Pacific Islanders)—and 16 percent of all commissioned officers on active duty were members of minority groups. The Air Force had the smallest proportion of minority officer accessions at 18 percent and the

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Data from Defense Manpower Data Center.

Army had the largest proportion at 23 percent. The most populous minority group, Blacks, were represented at 9 percent of officer accessions and 8 percent of all active duty officers.

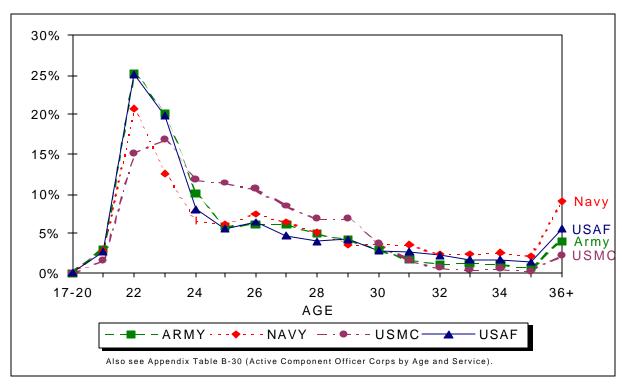


Figure 4.3. Age of FY 1998 Active Component officer accessions, by Service.

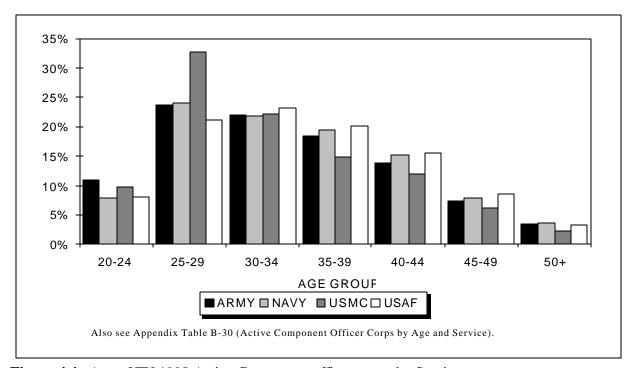


Figure 4.4. Age of FY 1998 Active Component officer corps, by Service.

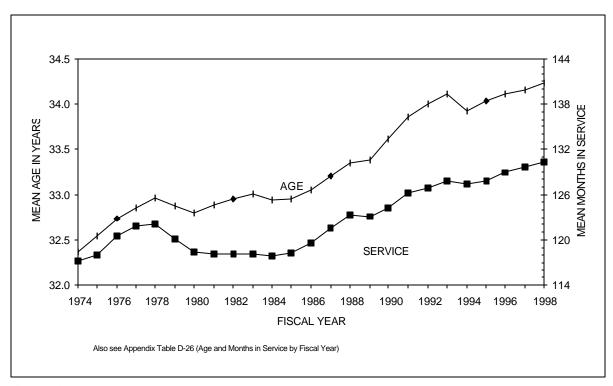


Figure 4.5. Active Component officers' mean years of age and months of service, FYs 1973–1998.

Table 4.5. FY 1998 Active Component Minority Officer Accessions and Officer Corps, by Service (Percent)								
Minority	Army							
	ACTIVE COME	ONENT OFFICE	R ACCESSIONS					
Black	10.7	7.7	9.4	6.6	8.5			
Hispanic	4.9	6.1	7.1	1.1	4.3			
Other	7.6	6.5	5.7	10.3	7.9			
Total Minority Officer Accessions	23.2	20.3 OMPONENT OFF	22.2	18.0	20.7			
Black	11.1	6.1	6.3	6.1	7.7			
Hispanic	3.6	4.0	4.5	2.1	3.3			
Other	5.1	4.3	3.1	4.9	4.7			
Total Minority Officers	19.8	14.4	13.9	13.1	15.7			
Columns may not add to total due to rounding. "Other" includes Native Americans, Asians, and Pacific Islanders.								

Also see Appendix Table B-34 (Race/Ethnicity by Service).

Over the last few years the focus on minority representation within the officer corps has increased. Concern stems from the appearance of underrepresentation among officers in stark contrast to the trends for the enlisted ranks. A number of factors contribute to the seeming underrepresentation of Blacks and Hispanics (though not "Other" minorities) in the officer corps. For reasons too complicated to dissect within this report, minorities disproportionately suffer from poverty and disorderly learning environments.⁶ These risk factors take their toll in the form of lower college enrollment and graduation rates, and, on average, lower achievement than other population groups. Although test score trends have improved for minorities over the past two decades, large average differences compared to Whites remain. For example, the mean verbal Scholastic Assessment Test (SAT) scores for college-bound seniors in 1997 were 526 for Whites and 434 for Blacks; mean math scores were 526 for Whites and 423 for Blacks.⁷ In light of these and other factors (e.g., fierce labor market competition for college-educated minorities),⁸ minority representation among officer accessions appears rather equitable when compared to the 21- to 35-year-old civilian population of college graduates which stands at 7.8 percent Black, 5.5 percent Hispanic, and 8.3 percent "Other." Blacks are proportionately represented and Hispanics and "Other" minorities are slightly underrepresented.

Academic achievement differences factor into the divergent racial/ethnic distributions across the commissioning sources as shown in Tables 4.6 and 4.7. In FY 1998, White and "Other" minority officer accessions were more likely than other racial/ethnic groups to be commissioned via one of the academies, but were less likely to have attended OCS/OTS than other groups. "Other" racial/ethnic officer accessions were more likely than other groups to have direct appointments, but were the least likely to attend OCS/OTS. For the overall Active Component officer corps in FY 1998, Black officers were less likely to have attended a Service academy, but more likely to have graduated from a non-scholarship ROTC program. Among the FY 1998 officer corps, "Other" minorities were more likely than other groups to be given a direct appointment.

The DoD is actively looking into issues affecting minority officer recruitment, performance, promotion, and retention in keeping with its track record of dedication to equal opportunity. The Services have programs designed to increase minority participation in the officer corps. In addition to academy preparatory schools, ROTC programs have a considerable presence at Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) and there are Army ROTC units placed at predominantly Hispanic institutions. Furthermore, there are incentive and preparation programs aimed at boosting the presence of minorities within ROTC programs and the officer corps.

See Smith, T.M., *The Educational Progress of Black Students* (Washington, DC: U.S. Department of Education, Office of Educational Research and Improvement, May 1996).

For recentered scores—not comparable with older scores—see U.S. Department of Education, *Digest of Education Statistics 1998* (NCES 1999-036) (Washington, DC: National Center for Education Statistics, 1999), Table 131.

See Eitelberg, M.J., Laurence, J.H., and Brown, D.C., "Becoming Brass: Issues in the Testing, Recruiting, and Selection of American Military Officers," in B.R. Gifford and L.C. Wing (Eds.), *Test Policy in Defense: Lessons from the Military for Education, Training, and Employment* (Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers, 1991).

Table 4.6 FY	Table 4.6 FY 1998 Source of Commission of Active Component Officer Accessions, by Race/Ethnicity and Gender (Percent)							
Source of Commission	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	Male	Female		
Academy	18.7	10.7	14.1	18.0	18.9	13.1		
ROTC-Scholarship	29.1	28.1	24.6	29.1	28.0	32.3		
ROTC-No Scholarship	10.1	17.4	17.1	11.4	11.5	9.3		
OCS/OTS	16.6	17.3	30.5	12.1	18.5	10.1		
Direct Appointment*	20.0	19.6	10.0	25.4	17.1	32.2		
Other**	5.3	6.8	3.8	3.9	5.8	2.9		
Unknown	0.3	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.2		
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Table B-42 (Source of Commission by Service and Race/Ethnicity) and B-40 (Source of Commission by Service and Gender).

Table 4.7. FY 1998 Source of Commission of Active Component Officer Corps,							
	by R	ace/Ethnicity	and Gender (Pe	cent)			
Source of Commission	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	Male	Female	
Academy	18.6	11.7	17.3	19.4	19.4	10.3	
ROTC-Scholarship	20.2	17.5	16.6	21.3	20.2	18.5	
ROTC-No Scholarship	19.4	32.6	23.7	19.9	21.4	15.6	
OCS/OTS	19.4	16.8	22.1	13.1	19.8	13.9	
Direct Appointment*	17.0	16.6	15.1	22.4	13.6	38.5	
Other**	4.9	4.7	5.0	3.5	5.2	2.8	
Unknown	0.5	0.2	0.2	0.5	0.5	0.4	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Table B-43 (Source of Commission by Service and Race/Ethnicity) and B-41 (Source of Commission by Service and Gender).

Targeted recruiting programs, together with a focus on equal opportunity once commissioning takes place, have contributed to increased representation of minorities (especially Blacks) within the officer corps over the years (see Appendix Tables D-22, D-23, D-27, and D-28). The 8.5 percent of Blacks, for example, among officer accessions in FY 1998 compares favorably with figures from one and two decades ago (1988: 7.5 percent; 1978: 6.3 percent).

^{*} Females accessed through direct appointment are primarily health care professionals.

^{**} Includes officers trained in one Service and accessed into another (primarily Marine Corps).

^{*} Females accessed through direct appointment are primarily health care professionals.

^{**} Includes officers trained in one Service and accessed into another (primarily Marine Corps).

These accession trends have been contributing to greater minority strength levels in the total officer corps. For example, Blacks comprised 4 percent of all active duty officers in FY 1978, 7 percent in FY 1988, and 8 percent by the end of this past fiscal year. The lagging long-term minority progress seen through the Active Component officer percentages, relative to the near-term success seen among officer accessions, is mirrored in the pay grade distribution differences by minority status as shown in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8. FY 1998 Pay Grade ¹ of Active Component Officers, by Service and Race/Ethnicity (Percent)						
Race/Ethnicity and Pay Grade	Army	Navy	Marine Corps	Air Force	DoD	
White						
O-1 through O-3	58.7	57.4	61.5	57.0	58.0	
O-4 through O-6	40.8	42.2	38.0	42.6	41.6	
O-7 through O-10	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.4	0.5	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Black						
O-1 through O-3	61.2	72.2	74.1	59.8	63.8	
O-4 through O-6	38.5	27.6	25.6	40.0	35.9	
O-7 through O-10	0.3	0.2	0.3	0.2	0.3	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Hispanic						
O-1 through O-3	69.1	73.7	80.4	54.6	68.5	
O-4 through O-6	30.8	26.3	19.3	45.2	31.4	
O-7 through O-10	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.2	0.1	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
Other						
O-1 through O-3	70.6	73.4	78.2	76.8	73.9	
O-4 through O-6	29.3	26.5	21.8	23.1	26.0	
O-7 through O-10	0.1	*	0.0	0.1	0.1	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Table B-49 (Active Component Officer Corps by Pay Grade, Service, and Race/Ethnicity).

Compared to Whites, higher percentages of minority members are found in the lower grades (O-1 through O-3). More notable differences between Whites and minorities were found in the Navy and Marine Corps, where 57 and 62 percent of Whites, respectively, held the rank of captain or lower but 72 and 74 percent of Blacks and 74 and 80 percent of Hispanics, respectively, were company grade officers. The pay grade distributions were closest in the Air Force, with approximately 3 percentage points separating Whites and Blacks in terms of the percentage in grade O-3 and below. Additionally, the Air Force has a slightly greater proportion of Hispanics than Whites in field grade

^{*} Less than one-tenth of one percent.

¹ Excludes those with unknown rank/pay grade.

positions. Factors such as increased college graduation rates and targeted recruiting programs have provided minorities greater access to the officer corps. However, it is also important to monitor progress further along the pipeline.

Gender. As shown in Table 4.9, women constituted about 19 percent of officer accessions and 14 percent of the officer corps in FY 1998. The Air Force holds its place as the most gender-integrated regarding officers, with the Army and the Navy not far behind. Though the levels of women in the officer corps are nowhere near college graduate population proportions, sustained growth has occurred in the representation of women among officers (see Appendix Tables D-24 and D-29 for trends among accessions and the officer corps since FY 1973).

Table 4.9. FY 1998 Active Component Female Officer Accessions and Officer Corps (Percent)						
	Army Navy Marine Corps Air Force DoD					
Active Component Accessions	19.6	17.2	9.2	23.2	19.1	
Active Component Officer Corps	14.4	14.5	4.6	16.7	14.4	
Also see Appendix Table B-32 (Gender by Service).						

The primary source of commission for women in FY 1998 continued to be the direct appointment (32 percent), as shown in Table 4.6. Female officer accessions were less likely than males to have attended an academy. The majority of directly appointed officers are in the professional groups (i.e., medical, dental, legal, and ministry). Officers from these professional groups are classified as "non-line," are managed separately, and do not assume command responsibilities over "line" officers. Career opportunities tend to be somewhat limited for non-line officers and can result in differences in pay grade distributions. Table 4.10 shows pay grade by gender for each of the Services and for DoD as a whole. There were pay grade differences between the genders, though not to the same degree as among racial/ethnic groups. Across DoD, 41 percent of male officers were O-4s through O-6s, whereas the percentage of women in these grades was 8 percentage points lower at 33 percent.

Commissioning source differences complicate the interpretation of variations in pay grade distributions by gender. For example, direct commissions may provide an early grade boost for women, since advanced degree requirements associated with occupations in the professional echelons are rewarded by DoD with advanced pay grade initially for commissioned officers. However, assignment differences and command restrictions, as well as networking obstacles, may retard retention, continuation, and hence career progression for women. Assignment qualifications, interests, and policy also affect pay grade. In the Air Force, for example, status as a pilot would contribute to enhanced career prospects. (Assignment data are provided later in this chapter in the discussion of occupation areas.)

Marital Status. As indicated in Table 4.11, officers were more likely to be married than the enlisted personnel they lead. It is interesting to note that for officers as well as enlisted personnel, women on active duty were less likely than men to be married. In fact, while nearly three-quarters of male officers were married, only 54 percent of women officers had a spouse. Furthermore, whereas

male officers were more likely than their civilian counterparts (college graduates in the workforce 21 to 49 years of age) to be married, female officers were less likely to be married. This suggests that women in the officer corps are more divergent from their civilian peers regarding family patterns.

Table 4.10. FY 1998 Pay Grade ¹ of Active Component Officers, by Service and Gender (Percent)							
Pay Grade	Army	Navy	Marine Corps	Air Force	DoD		
		MA	LES				
O-1 through O-3	58.7	59.1	63.0	56.2	58.3		
O-4 through O-6	40.8	40.4	36.5	43.4	41.2		
O-7 through O-10	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5		
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		
		FEM	ALES				
O-1 through O-3	67.6	62.4	77.4	67.8	66.5		
O-4 through O-6	32.4	37.5	24.4	32.2	33.4		
O-7 through O-10	0.1	0.1	0.3	0.1	0.1		
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Table B-48 (Pay Grade by Gender and Service).

Table 4.11. FY 1998 Married Active Component Officer Corps and Enlisted Personnel, by Gender (Percent)					
Gender	Officers	Enlisted			
Males	74.0	54.9			
Females	53.8	44.2			
Total	71.1	53.4			
Also see Appendix Table B-33 (Marital Status by Service).					

Though female officers are less likely to be married than male officers, among those who are married women are considerably more likely to be a partner in a dual-military marriage. As can be seen from Table 4.12, married female officers are more than eight times more likely than married male officers to have a spouse in uniform. This trend is more than a curiosity, as dual-service marriages pose unique challenges to assignment and deployment, in addition to affecting Servicemembers' satisfaction with military life.

Education. Given Service requirements, with few exceptions, that commissioned officers have at least a 4-year college degree, the education levels of FY 1998 Active Component officer accessions come as no surprise. Table 4.13 clearly shows the officer corps' reliance on the college-educated. Five percent of officers commissioned in FY 1998 did not have at least a bachelor's degree; most likely

Excludes those with unknown rank/pay grade.

these officers were former enlisted personnel. A notable percentage of newly commissioned officers (14 percent)—mostly lawyers, chaplains, and health care professionals (i.e., physicians, dentists, etc.)—held advanced degrees.

Table 4.12.		•	rs Who Were Max vice (Number and	rried, and in Dual-Ser	vice Marriages,
			rried	Married W	/ho Were In ce Marriages
Gender	End-Strength	Number	Percent	Number*	Percent
			ARMY		
Male	57,371	41,796	72.9	2,451	5.9
Female	9,609	5,206	54.2	2,481	47.7
Total	66,980	47,002	70.2	4,932	10.5
			NAVY		
Male	45,512	32,788	72.0	639	2.0
Female	7,694	3,923	51.0	849	21.6
Total	53,206	36,711	69.0	1,488	4.1
		MAR	INE CORPS		
Male	15,337	10,716	69.9	326	3.0
Female	738	316	42.8	210	66.5
Total	16,075	11,032	68.6	536	4.9
		AII	R FORCE		
Male	59,922	46,450	77.5	2,388	5.1
Female	11,971	6,698	56.0	2,478	37.0
Total	71,893	53,148	73.9	4,866	9.2
			DoD		
Male	178,142	131,750	74.0	5,804	4.4
Female	30,012	16,143	53.8	6,018	37.3
Total	208,154	147,893	71.1	11,822	8.0
* There are some diffe	erences between the nun	nber of males and	females reporting d	ual-service marriages.	

Not only are college graduates amply represented among newly commissioned officers, but the education levels in the officer corps indicate that the Services promote continuing education. Significant proportions of officers attained advanced degrees while serving. The Air Force had the greatest

proportion (57 percent) of officers with advanced degrees, and was the only Service with a greater proportion of officers with advanced degrees than bachelor's degrees. The Marine Corps had fewer officers with advanced degrees than the other Services. A contributing factor may be that the Navy provides the Marine Corps with health professionals, chaplains, or other such direct appointees, who typically have advanced degrees.

Table 4.13. FY 1998 Educational Attainment of Active Component Officer						
Accessions at	nd Officer Co	rps, by Serv	rice (Percent)		T	
			Marine			
Educational Attainment	Army	Navy	Corps*	Air Force	DoD	
ACTIVE CO	MPONENT (OFFICER AC	CESSIONS			
Less than College Graduate	1.1	15.0	5.2	1.8	4.9	
College Graduate (B.A., B.S., etc.)	86.1	71.0	91.5	79.3	81.0	
Advanced Degree (M.A., Ph.D., etc.)	12.9	13.9	3.3	18.9	14.2	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
ACTIVE	COMPONEN	T OFFICER	CORPS			
Less than College Graduate	0.8	6.1	5.8	0.5	2.4	
College Graduate (B.A., B.S., etc.)	59.2	56.1	76.2	42.8	54.0	
Advanced Degree (M.A., Ph.D., etc.)	40.0	37.8	18.1	56.8	43.7	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Percentages do not include "Unknown" data.

Also see Appendix Table B-35 (Education by Service).

Representation Within Occupations. Tables 4.14 and 4.15 present the distribution of officers across occupational areas by gender and race/ethnic group, respectively. At a glance, the data suggest the need for officers to have technical knowledge in addition to more general leadership and management skills. More than one-third of officers were working in jobs classified as part of tactical operation. Together, the second, third, and fourth most populous occupations—health care, engineering and maintenance, and supply—approximated the manning levels of tactical operations. Appendix Table B-37 provides FY 1998 occupational area data by Service, including personnel classified as non-occupational.

Representation of women within occupations. Table 4.14 shows significant assignment differences between male and female officers. Despite expanding numbers of and roles for women, it takes time to bring women into new positions and career fields, as has been the case in FY 1998. Significantly greater percentages of men than women were in tactical operations (44 and 9 percent, respectively), whereas greater percentages of women than men were in "traditional" female occupations of administration (12 and 5 percent, respectively) and health care (46 and 14 percent, respectively). Appendix Table B-38 shows the assignment patterns by Service and gender.

^{*} Marine Corps accession data provided by U.S. Marine Corps, Officer Appointments.

Table 4.14. FY 1998 Occupational Areas of Active Component Officer Corps, by Gender (Percent)						
Occupational Area	Males	Females	Total			
General Officers and Executives	0.5	0.1	0.4			
Tactical Operations	43.5	8.6	38.4			
Intelligence	4.9	5.8	5.0			
Engineering and Maintenance	11.9	10.3	11.7			
Scientists and Professionals	4.9	4.8	4.9			
Health Care	14.4	45.5	18.9			
Administration	4.9	12.3	6.0			
Supply, Procurement, and Allied Occupations	8.7	8.8	8.7			
Non-Occupational*	6.4	3.9	6.0			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0			

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Calculations exclude 590 male and 10 female Marine Corps and 492 male and 15 female Air Force O-6 officers classified as general officers by the Services.

Also see Appendix Table B-38 (Occupational Area by Service and Gender).

Table 4.15. FY 1998 Occupational Areas of Active Component Officer Corps, by Race/Ethnicity (Percent)					
Occupational Area	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	
General Officers and Executives	0.5	0.3	0.1	0.1	
Tactical Operations	40.2	26.7	35.1	28.5	
Intelligence	5.0	4.7	6.0	5.2	
Engineering and Maintenance	11.4	14.6	11.2	12.9	
Scientists and Professionals	5.0	4.2	4.4	4.2	
Health Care	18.5	19.2	16.4	26.2	
Administration	5.5	10.7	6.7	6.4	
Supply, Procurement, and Allied Occupations	8.1	15.0	10.2	8.7	
Non-Occupational*	5.9	4.6	9.9	7.9	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Calculations exclude 558 White, 26 Black, 12 Hispanic, and 4 "Other" Marine Corps and 479 White, 13 Black, 6 Hispanic, and 9 "Other" Air Force O-6 officers classified as general officers by the Services.

* Non-occupational includes patients, students, those with unassigned duties, and unknowns.

Also see Appendix Table B-39 (Occupational Area by Service and Race/Ethnicity).

^{*} Non-occupational includes patients, students, those with unassigned duties, and unknowns.

Representation of minorities within occupations. The percentage of each racial/ethnic category by officer occupational areas is shown in Table 4.15. In FY 1998, racial and ethnic groups of officers generally had similar patterns of representation across occupational areas, although fewer Blacks, Hispanics, and "Others" were assigned to tactical operations. Greater percentages of officers in the "Other" racial category than Whites, Blacks, or Hispanics were in health care positions. Larger proportions of Hispanics than Whites and "Other" minorities were in intelligence, administration, and supply occupations. Proportionately more Blacks than other racial/ethnic groups were in the engineering and maintenance, supply, and administration occupations. The Services strive to achieve racial/ethnic balance during the assignment process. Such a focus is important because occupational assignment is related to promotion opportunities and success as an officer.

Regardless of race/ethnicity, the largest percentage of officers worked in tactical operations; the lowest percentages worked in intelligence and scientific/professional occupations. Appendix Table B-39 provides data on occupational areas by Service and race/ethnicity.

Warrant Officers ⁹

Warrant officers comprise a relatively small but vital group of technicians and specialists who serve in the Army, Navy, and Marine Corps. These Servicemembers ordinarily do not assume typical officer command responsibilities and their careers emphasize depth rather than breadth of experience, in contrast to commissioned officers. The status and duties of these experts, trainers, and specialty managers have grown and otherwise changed since their grades were established around 1920. Today, they can be found advancing within military careers such as aviation, physicians' assistant, nuclear weapons, and administration.

Although some warrant officers may enter directly from civilian life (e.g., helicopter pilots), most warrant officers previously were in the upper enlisted ranks. In FY 1998, 1,496 warrant officer accessions were added to the force and the overall total force of warrant officers on active duty stood at 15,413. Table 4.16 presents gender and race/ethnicity statistics on FY 1998 warrant officers. They are overwhelmingly male (94 percent) but have greater minority representation than commissioned officers. Blacks, in particular, are more highly represented among warrant officers, accounting for 15 percent of active duty warrant officers (in contrast to 8 percent of commissioned officers). Appendix Tables B-44 and B-45 provide a glimpse of warrant officer accessions and the corps of warrant officers on active duty by gender and race/ethnicity.

For more detailed information on warrant officers, see Department of Defense, *DoD Report on the "Warrant Officer Management Act" (WOMA)* (Washington, DC: Author, 1989).

Upper-level warrant officers, however, frequently function in foreman-type roles within their system specialties.

The Air Force discontinued its warrant officer program in 1959 and increased promotion opportunities for senior enlisted personnel.

Table 4.16. FY 1998 Active Component Warrant Officer Accessions and Officer Corps, by Race/Ethnicity, Gender, and Service* (Fercent)									
Race/Ethnicity and Gender	Army	Army Navy Marine Corps							
ACTI	ACTIVE COMPONENT WARRANT OFFICER ACCESSIONS								
White	70.5	73.2	68.1	70.5					
Black	19.8	20.8	17.2	19.6					
Hispanic	5.1	2.3	10.8	5.5					
Other	4.7	3.7	3.9	4.4					
Male	90.8	94.0	93.1	91.6					
Female	9.2	6.0	6.9	8.4					
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0					
A	CTIVE COMPONEN	Γ WARRANT OFFIC	ER CORPS						
White	75.3	77.9	77.1	75.8					
Black	15.2	15.4	14.1	15.1					
Hispanic	4.7	1.5	6.6	4.5					
Other	4.9	5.1	2.2	4.6					
Male	93.4	93.6	93.7	93.7					
Female	6.6	6.4	6.4	6.4					
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0					

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

* The Air Force does not have warrant officers.

Also see Appendix Tables B-44 (Warrant Officer Accessions and Officers by Gender) and B-45 (Warrant Officer Accessions and Officers by Race/Ethnicity).

Chapter 5

SELECTED RESERVE ENLISTED ACCESSIONS AND ENLISTED FORCE

The Ready Reserve, with an FY 1998 strength of more than 1.3 million, is the major source of manpower augmentation for the Active force. As illustrated in Figure 5.1, the two principal elements of the Ready Reserve are the Selected Reserve and the Individual Ready Reserve. Reserve Component data in this report include only the Selected Reserve.

Ready Reserve 1,340,560							
Sel	Selected Reserve 881,490 ¹						
Units and Full-Tim	Units and Full-Time Support 859,070						
Units ² 737,510	Full-Time Support ³ 121,560	Individual Mobilization Augmentees 22,420	Individual Ready Reserve/Inactive National Guard 459,070				

¹ Components within the Selected Reserve include the Army National Guard (ARNG), Army Reserve (USAR), Naval Reserve (USNR), Air National Guard (ANG), Air Force Reserve (USAFR), and Marine Corps Reserve (USMCR). Coast Guard Reserve is excluded.

Numbers are rounded to nearest ten.

Source: Department of Defense, *Official Guard and Reserve Manpower Strengths and Statistics: FY 1998 Summary* (RCS: DD-RA[M]1147/1148) (Washington, DC: Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense [Reserve Affairs], 1998), Report A0, p. 1.004.

Figure 5.1. FY 1998 composition of the Selected Reserve within the Ready Reserve.

The Selected Reserve includes three types of personnel: (1) those trained in units (including full-time support personnel) who are organized, equipped, and trained to perform wartime missions; (2) trained individuals (Individual Mobilization Augmentees [IMAs]) who provide wartime augmentation on or shortly after mobilization; and (3) those in the training pipeline (including personnel currently on or awaiting initial active duty for training, personnel awaiting the second part of initial active duty training, Active Guard/Reserve [AGR] currently on or awaiting initial active duty training, personnel in simultaneous membership programs [SMP], and personnel in other training programs). Reservists and Guardsmen in the training pipeline may not deploy. Selected Reservists assigned to units and some IMAs train throughout the year. Selected Reserve units may be either operational or augmentation

² Includes Selected Reserve members in the training pipeline.

³ Includes Active/Guard Reserve (AGR) and military technicians, excluding competitive civil service technicians not having mobilization assignments in the ARNG and ANG.

Department of Defense, *Official Guard and Reserve Manpower Strengths and Statistics: FY 1998 Summary* (RCS: DD-RA(M)1147/1148) (Washington, DC: Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense [Reserve Affairs], 1998), Appendix C, p. 3.003.

units. Operational units train and deploy as units; augmentation units train as units in peacetime, but are absorbed into Active Component units upon mobilization.

The Selected Reserve Recruiting Process

The recruiting process is similar for the Reserve and Active Components.² With the exception of a number of Air National Guard (ANG) units, Reserve recruiters process their non-prior service (NPS) applicants through Military Entrance Processing Stations (MEPSs), following procedures almost identical to the Active Component.

Recruiters describe the demands and opportunities of military service, and evaluate prospective recruits to determine eligibility for enlistment. The prospect is asked about his or her age, education, involvement with the law, use of drugs, and physical and medical factors that could preclude enlistment. The prospect may take an enlistment screening test. Non-prior service prospects take the ASVAB at either a local test site or at a MEPS. If an NPS applicant achieves qualifying ASVAB scores and wishes to continue the application process, he or she is scheduled for a physical examination and background review at a MEPS. If the applicant's education, ASVAB scores, physical fitness, and moral character qualify for enlistment, he or she meets with a Service classification counselor at a MEPS (or in some instances at a National Guard unit) to discuss options for enlistment.

Up to this point, the applicant has made no commitment. The counselor has the record of the applicant's qualifications and computerized information on available training/skill openings, schedules, and enlistment incentives. They discuss the applicant's interests. The counselor may offer bonuses to encourage the applicant to choose hard-to-fill occupational specialties. The applicant, however, is free to accept or reject the offer. Many applicants do not decide immediately, but take time to discuss options with family and friends. When the applicant accepts the offer, he or she signs an enlistment contract and is sworn into the Reserve.

One of the most critical factors in achieving Reserve readiness is the ability to meet Selected Reserve manpower requirements—in numbers, skills, and quality. More than half (61 percent in FY 1998) of Selected Reserve accessions have prior service experience, primarily from active duty. However, a sizable proportion of new recruits enter the National Guard or Reserve without previous military affiliation. Recruiting must target both populations. Success in meeting recruiting and retention goals varies significantly from unit to unit. First, there are substantial differences in unit size; larger units require greater effort. Second, National Guard and Reserve units differ significantly in skills required. Third, National Guard and Reserve units exist in thousands of localities, and each locality presents a unique set of labor market characteristics. The size of the community, distinct demographic and socioeconomic profiles, the mix of skills in the local civilian labor force and among recent veterans, local civilian wage levels and hours worked, frequency and duration of employment, employer attitudes regarding National Guard or Reserve duty, attitudes toward the military, effect of recent mobilizations on propensity to enlist, and other secondary job opportunities create recruiting and retention challenges for Selected Reserve units.

For a description of NPS Selected Reserve recruiting, see Tan, H.W., *Non-prior Service Reserve Enlistments:* Supply Estimates and Forecasts (Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation, 1991).

The 1998 Youth Attitude Tracking Study shows that enlistment propensity for the Selected Reserve is lower than for the active Services (19 percent versus 26 percent, respectively, for 16- to 21-year-old males). Moreover, propensity is consistently higher for the Service Reserves than for the National Guard. Among 16- to 21-year-old males, there is a 4-percentage-point difference between interest in the two components (10 percent National Guard versus 14 percent Reserves); smaller differences (3 percentage points) are found with 22- to 24-year-old males and 16- to 21-year-old females. In 1997, 22- to 24-year-old females also showed a difference of 3 percentage points between the two components; however, in 1998 the difference was reduced to 1 percentage point. Propensity among 16- to 21-year-old women did not change from 1997 to 1998. While trends indicate less interest today among the primary recruit population—male youth 16 to 21 years old—to enter the Selected Reserve than 7 years ago (25 percent in 1991, 19 percent in 1998), results of the survey illustrate relatively stable levels of National Guard and Reserve propensity over the last 3 years.³

The occupational distribution among the Active and Reserve Components varies (e.g., 11 percent of active Navy enlistees serve in administration while 22 percent of Naval Reserve [USNR] members serve in administration). Some units have to recruit more NPS individuals to fill unit vacancies. Another factor that can create large differences in manning success across skills is marketability, including civilian skill transferability, quality of training, equipment, and promotion opportunity. To combat the limited training opportunities, expense of field training, and lack of access to training facilities, the Reserve Component Virtual Training Program was created at the Mounted Warfare Simulation Training Center in Fort Knox, Kentucky. It provides structured, simulation-based training currently used in the Army National Guard (ARNG).⁴

The diversity of mission and force structure among the Reserve Components affects the demographic composition of units. A National Guard or Reserve company with a combat mission may need a significantly higher proportion of young NPS accessions. Conversely, combat service support functions may require more experienced personnel and thus have greater proportions of prior service recruiting requirements.

The population representation profiles of the Reserve Components are different from the Active Services due to a number of factors:

- The proportional distribution of combat, combat support, and combat service support skills in the Selected Reserve;
- The location of units, given the requirement for Reserve Components to recruit for local unit vacancies within a 50-mile radius; and

Memorandum from F.M. Rush, Acting Assistant Secretary of Defense (Force Management Policy), Subject: 1998 Youth Attitude Tracking Study, January 5, 1999.

Virtual Training Program: History and Lessons Learned (Fort Knox, KY: U.S. Army Research Institute for the Behavioral and Social Sciences, 1994).

Hoffman, R.G., Graves, C.R., Koger, M.E., Flynn, M.R., and Sever, R.S., Developing the Reserve Component

 Differences between the force structure and occupational distribution of the Active and Reserve Components in conjunction with the prior service requirements of the National Guard and Reserve.

This chapter provides demographic characteristics and the distribution of FY 1998 enlisted accessions and the enlisted force of the Selected Reserve. Characteristics of Selected Reserve NPS accessions are described and, where applicable, are compared to prior service accessions. Characteristics and distribution of Selected Reserve officer accessions and the officer corps are contained in Chapter 6.

Characteristics of Selected Reserve Accessions

FY 1998 Reserve Component recruiting results for NPS and prior service gains and assigned end-strengths are shown in Table 5.1. In FY 1998, the Reserve Component recruited nearly 135,500 enlisted persons compared to the Active Component's almost 180,500. The Army Reserve (USAR) is again the largest Reserve Component recruiting program, followed by the ARNG. The USAR recruited more than 15,000 NPS enlistees, approximately 8,000 less than the ARNG. However, the USAR recruited just over 30,700 prior service recruits, almost 10,000 more than the ARNG. Recognizing the importance of experience provided by qualified prior service personnel to the Reserve Forces, Congress established additional prior service accessions for the ARNG as part of the Army Guard Combat Reform Initiative: "The Secretary of the Army, shall increase the number of qualified prior active-duty enlisted members in the Army National Guard.' While the legislation applies only to the ARNG, the Secretary of the Army has required the Army Reserve to comply, which would explain the large number of prior service accessions to the USAR and the ARNG.

Table 5.1. FY 1998 Selected Reserve Non-Prior Service (NPS) and								
Prior Service Enlisted Accessions and End-Strengths								
		Enlisted Accessions						
		Prior Service						
	Non-Prior	Prior		Percent of	Enlisted			
Component	Service	Service	Total	Component Total	End-Strength			
Army National Guard	28,846	26,538	55,384	47.9	323,150			
Army Reserve	15,281	30,707	45,988	66.8	161,286			
Naval Reserve	2,474	15,177	17,651	86.0	73,490			
USMC Reserve	6,132	4,255	10,387	41.0	36,620			
Air National Guard	3,435	5,304	8,739	60.7	94,861			
Air Force Reserve	1,285	6,135	7,420	82.7	56,032			
DoD Total	57,453	88,116	145,569	60.5	745,439			
Also see Appendix Tables C-1 (NPS Age by Component and Gender), C-9 (Prior Service Age by Component and Gender), C-15								

(Enlisted Member Age by Component and Gender).

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⁵ Army National Guard Combat Readiness Reform Act of 1992, Section 1111, Public Law 102-484.

Selected Reserve recruiting achievements increased slightly, adding nearly 2,000 enlisted accessions from FY 1997 to FY 1998 (from almost 144,000 to nearly 146,000). The increase was limited to the Army National Guard and Air Force Reserve; the other components experienced cuts.

Due to differences in mission and force structure, the size of recruit cohorts by component varied greatly. Therefore, comparisons between the Reserve Component percentages must be interpreted with care. The Army Components—the ARNG and USAR—had the largest Selected Reserve recruit cohorts, recruiting 70 percent of total Reserve Component accessions (38 and 32 percent for the ARNG and USAR, respectively) in FY 1998. The Naval Reserve and Air Force Reserve (USAFR) had the highest proportion of prior service recruits (86 percent and 83 percent of their total recruiting efforts, respectively). The Marine Corps Reserve (USMCR) had the lowest proportion of recruits with past military experience (41 percent). Prior service accessions provide the Reserve Component with a more experienced personnel base, contributing to increased readiness to meet future missions.

The increase in availability of prior service recruits, a temporary phenomenon due to the larger number of active duty members leaving service during the drawdown, has ended. The result is fewer prior service individuals from which the Reserve Component can recruit. The numerical effects of the drawdown coupled with changes in the Reserve mission and increased combat risks may lead to difficulties in Reserve recruiting. "Future Reserve recruits are likely to consider [the] risk, the costs and benefits associated with [serving], and the likelihood that security threats in the future will differ from those in the past." A decision to join the Selected Reserve today likely involves more tradeoffs than in the past. Potential recruits are likely to find combat risk, family hardships, and financial losses during a mobilization more important in the Reserve participation decision today and in the future.

Age. The largest proportions of FY 1998 NPS Reserve Component accessions were in the 17- to 19-year age group (Table 5.2). The one exception to this trend was the USNR, which had 62 percent falling in the 25- to 34-year age group. This was true, despite the increase in the percentage of unknown age for NPS Reserve Component accessions to the USNR (11 percent to 21 percent from FY 1997 to FY 1998).

Several factors contribute to age differences within the Reserve Component, including the size of the recruiting mission and the incentives used by recruiters. ARNG and USAR recruiters work extensively with the high school population because of the size of their respective NPS recruiting missions. Although the high school senior market is their primary target, recruiters use the split training option as an important incentive. This option allows high school juniors to enlist and attend basic training after their junior year of high school, and then enter skill training a year later upon graduating from high school. In FY 1998, 33 and 21 percent, respectively, of ARNG and USAR NPS recruits were students still enrolled in high school.

Asch, B.J., *Reserve Supply in the Post-Desert Storm Recruiting Environment* (Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation, 1993), p. 5.

Table 5.2. FY 1998 Selected Reserve Non-Prior Service Enlisted Accessions, by Age and Component,									
and Civilian Labor Force 17–35 Years Old (Percent)									
A 000	Army National	A 27777 /	Naval	Marine	Air National	Air Force	Total	17- to 35- Year-Old	
Age Group	Guard	Army Reserve	Reserve	Corps Reserve	Guard	Reserve	DoD	Civilians	
17–19	62.5	68.9	0.2	65.9	53.4	39.2	60.8	16.0	
20–24	23.0	22.5	1.5	28.2	31.9	38.5	23.4	24.2	
25–29	8.4	6.1	34.4	5.3	9.5	13.8	8.8	25.7	
30–34	3.9	2.3	27.4	0.6	4.7	8.0	4.3	27.9	
35–39	1.3	0.1	15.5	*	0.4	0.5	1.4	6.2	
40–44	0.4	*	0.3	0.0	*	0.0	0.2		
45–49	0.2	*	0.0	0.0	*	0.0	0.1		
50+	0.1	*	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1		
Unknown	0.2	*	20.7	0.1	*	0.0	1.0		
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Tables C-1 (Age by Component and Gender) and C-2 (Age by Marital Status and Gender).

Source: Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey File, October 1997 - September 1998.

Race/Ethnicity. Table 5.3 presents the racial/ethnic makeup of FY 1998 NPS enlisted accessions by Selected Reserve Component. These figures are similar to those seen in FY 1997, with the greatest changes being found in the USAR NPS recruits, as the percentage of Whites increased from 59 percent in FY 1997 to 65 percent in FY 1998. The percentage of USAR prior service Whites also increased from FY 1997 to FY 1998 (62 to 66 percent). The percentage of USAFR NPS Hispanics increased 3 percentage points. Other than these results, differences in the racial/ethnic makeup of the FY 1997 and FY 1998 cohorts were generally less than 3 percentage points.

Since the inception of the All Volunteer Force, Blacks have been somewhat overrepresented in the active duty ranks, while Whites and Hispanics have been underrepresented as compared to the nation's youth population as a whole. We would expect this to be reflected in the makeup of the Reserve Forces. Table 5.3 demonstrates that the proportion of prior service Black accessions in each of the Selected Reserve components, except the ANG, is higher than their representation among the 20- to 39-year-old civilian labor force. Conversely, Hispanics are underrepresented across the board, with the exception of the USMCR's prior service recruits. In previous years, Whites also have made up a smaller proportion of Reserve accessions than of the comparison group. However, in FY 1998, the proportion of NPS White accessions in the ARNG, USMCR, and ANG and prior service White accessions in the ARNG and ANG was higher than in the civilian comparison groups.

Black females represented the largest proportion of minority Reserve accessions (see Appendix Tables C-3 and C-11). Across the Reserve Component, the proportion of Black women (29 and 31 percent for NPS and prior service, respectively) was nearly twice that of Black men (14 and 18 percent for NPS and prior service, respectively). The USAR had the highest proportion of Black female recruits (35 percent of NPS and 37 percent of prior service). The USAFR also had a 35-percent proportion of NPS Black females.

^{*} Less than one-tenth of one percent.

Table 5.3. FY 1998 Selected Reserve Non-Prior Service and Prior Service Enlisted Accessions,										
by Race/Ethnicity, and Civilians (Percent)										
	Army			Marine	Air	Air				
Race/	National	Army	Naval	Corps	National	Force	Total			
Ethnicity	Guard	Reserve	Reserve	Reserve	Guard	Reserve	DoD	Civilians*		
			NON-I	'RIOR SERV	ICE .					
White	72.5	64.5	63.5	68.3	76.2	58.8	69.5	65.9		
Black	15.9	24.5	18.5	11.6	10.3	25.8	17.7	14.2		
Hispanic	7.0	5.7	11.6	13.2	5.5	7.7	7.4	15.0		
Other	4.7	5.3	6.5	6.9	8.0	7.7	5.4	4.9		
	PRIOR SERVICE									
White	69.4	65.8	70.5	66.7	77.1	73.5	69.0	69.8		
Black	19.0	25.3	16.7	13.8	11.8	15.7	19.9	12.6		
Hispanic	7.2	4.8	8.5	13.9	5.6	5.7	6.7	12.8		
Other	4.4	4.2	4.3	5.6	5.5	5.1	4.5	4.7		
TOTAL ACCESSIONS										
White	71.0	65.4	69.5	67.6	76.8	71.0	69.2			
Black	17.4	25.0	16.9	12.5	11.2	17.4	19.9			
Hispanic	7.1	5.1	9.0	13.5	5.6	6.1	7.0			
Other	4.5	4.5	4.6	6.4	6.5	5.5	4.8			

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Tables C-3 (NPS Race/Ethnicity by Component and Gender) and C-11 (Prior Service Race/Ethnicity by Component and Gender).

Source: Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey File, October 1997 - September 1998.

Gender. The proportion of Selected Reserve accessions in FY 1998 who were women was slightly greater (19 percent) than in the Active Component (18 percent). Table 5.4 reflects the gender percentages for NPS and prior service accessions by Component. The USAR and USAFR had the highest proportion of female accessions in the Selected Reserve (26 and 23 percent, respectively), while the USMCR had the lowest (5 percent). With the exception of the USMCR, the proportion of prior service female recruits was lower than NPS female recruits.

Marital Status. Approximately 10 percent of FY 1998 Selected Reserve NPS enlisted accessions were married (Table 5.5). The marriage rates of prior service recruits look markedly different, with 40 percent married. The FY 1998 prior service cohort, predominantly those leaving active duty enlisted service who chose to affiliate with the Reserves, were less likely to be married than active duty enlisted members (53 percent). Also, prior service Reserve recruits were less likely to be married than their civilian counterparts, 20- to 39-year-old civilians in the labor force (51 percent). Among FY 1998 prior service Reserve accessions, a somewhat larger proportion of males were married than females, consistent with the trend in the 20- to 39-year-old civilian population. There were no marital status differences by gender for FY 1998 NPS Reserve accessions.

^{*} NPS civilian comparison is 18- to 24-year-old civilians; prior service civilian comparison is 20- to 39-year-old civilian labor force.

Table 5.4. FY 1998 Selected Reserve Non-Prior Service and Prior Service Accessions, by Gender									
(Percent)									
	Non-Prio	or Service	Prior S	Service	Total				
Component	Males	Females	Females	Males	Females				
Army National Guard	80.8	19.2	90.4	9.6	85.4	14.6			
Army Reserve	63.5	36.5	78.6	21.4	73.6	26.4			
Naval Reserve	69.8	30.2	83.9	16.1	81.9	18.1			
USMC Reserve	95.3	4.7	94.4	5.6	94.9	5.1			
Air National Guard	70.5	29.5	81.9	18.1	77.4	22.6			
Air Force Reserve	62.0	38.0	78.5	21.5	75.6	24.4			
DoD Total 76.2 23.8 84.0 16.0 81.0 19.1									
Also see Appendix Tables C-1 (NPS Age by Component and Gender) and C-9 (Prior Service Age by Component and Gender).									

Table 5.5. FY 1998 Married Selected Reserve Non-Prior Service and Prior Service Enlisted Accessions and Active Component Non-Prior Service Enlisted Accessions and Enlisted Members, by Gender,

and Civilians (Percent)								
	Non-Prior			Civilian	Non-Prior			
	Service	Civilians,	Prior Service	Labor Force,	Service Active			
	Reserve	17–35 Years	Reserve	20–39 Years	Component	Active Component		
Gender	Accessions	Old	Accessions	Old	Accessions	Enlisted Members		
Male	10.4	35.8	41.5	51.3	8.7	54.9		
Female	10.3	42.3	34.3	50.7	11.8	44.2		
Total	10.4	39.1	40.3	51.0	9.2	53.4		

Also see Appendix Tables C-2 (NPS Age by Marital Status and Gender), C-10 (Prior Service Age by Marital Status and Gender), B-2 (NPS Active Component Enlisted Accession by Age, Marital Status and Gender), and B-23 (Active Component Enlisted Members by Age, Service, and Gender).

Source: Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey File, October 1997 - September 1998.

Education. More Selected Reserve NPS recruits completed high school than was the case for their civilian peers, as indicated in Table 5.6. Approximately 91 percent of FY 1998 Selected Reserve NPS accessions were in Tiers 1 (high school graduates) and 2 (alternative credentials), compared to 79 percent of 18- to 24-year-old civilians. The most marked differences among the Reserve Components in FY 1998 high school graduate NPS recruits were between the Army and "non-Army" Components. In the Army National Guard and Army Reserve, 87 and 77 percent of NPS enlistees were high school diploma graduates, respectively. In comparison, the USMCR, accessed 97 percent NPS high school graduates. The percentage in Tier 1 for all Components except the Army National Guard decreased from FY 1997 to 1998, with decreases ranging from less than 1 percentage point to 16 percentage points. The Army National Guard and Air National Guard had the highest proportion of Tier 2 accessions (7 and 6 percent, respectively). The proportion of Tier 2 accessions for the ARNG decreased from 17 in FY 1997. The Army Reserve experienced a significant increase in Tier 3 accessions from 3 percent in FY 1997 to 20 percent in FY 1998.

College experience refers to individuals who have completed at least one semester in junior college or a 4-year institution. The USNR had, by far, the highest proportion of accessions with college experience (33 percent). Most enlisted occupations are generally comparable to civilian jobs not requiring college education.

Table 5.6. FY 1998 Selected Reserve Non-Prior Service Enlisted Accessions, by Education Tier and Component, and Civilians 18–24 Years Old (Percent)									
Education Tier	Army National Guard	Army Reserve	Naval Reserve	Marine Corps Reserve	Air National Guard	Air Force Reserve	Total DoD	18- to 24-Year- Old Civilians*	
Tier 1: Regular High School Graduate or Higher**	86.5	77.4	92.7	96.5	92.5	96.0	86.0	78.8	
Tier 2: GED, Alternative Credentials	6.7	2.7	5.4	3.2	6.3	3.0	5.1		
Tier 3: No Credentials	6.8	19.9	1.8	0.3	1.3	1.1	8.9	21.2	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
College Experience (Part of Tier 1) ¹	2.1	3.7	33.1	4.0	5.4	5.4	4.4	45.8	

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Tables C-7 (Education by Component and Gender) and C-8 (Education by Component and Race/Ethnicity). Source: Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey File, October 1997 – September 1998.

AFQT. FY 1998 Selected Reserve NPS accessions are compared with civilian youth by AFQT category, gender, and Reserve Components in Table 5.7. The percentage of Reserve male recruits who scored in AFQT Categories I to IIIA was greater than for their civilian counterparts (59 versus 54 percent). Sixty-eight to 75 percent of USAR, USMCR, ANG, and USAFR NPS male accessions were in AFQT Categories I through IIIA, compared to 54 percent in the civilian group. Fifty-three percent of ARNG NPS male recruits scored in AFQT Categories I through IIIA, comparable to the civilian group. The differences between scores of female recruits and their comparable civilian group were similar to male accessions; however, ARNG NPS female recruits scored 2 percentage points higher in AFQT Categories I–IIIA than the comparable civilian group.

^{*}Civilian percentages combine Tiers 1 and 2.

^{**}Tier 1 includes members still in high school.

¹ These military data represent only Selected Reserve NPS enlisted accessions. Officers, who usually have college degrees, are not included. See Chapter 6 for a discussion of Reserve officers.

	Table 5.7			Non-Prior Servi , and Compone	ce Enlisted Accent (Percent)	cessions,				
AFQT Category	Army National Guard	Army Reserve	Naval Reserve	Marine Corps Reserve	Air National Guard	Air Force Reserve	Total DoD			
	MALES									
I	3.9	5.7	0.5	7.6	7.6	5.9	4.9			
II	27.9	35.0	7.8	42.9	46.1	44.7	32.0			
IIIA	20.8	27.6	5.8	22.3	23.3	24.5	22.1			
IIIB	39.8	23.2	6.6	22.6	21.7	24.0	31.2			
IV	2.2	2.4	1.3	0.3	0.0	0.0	1.8			
V	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0			
Unknown	5.5	6.0	78.1	4.3	1.2	1.0	8.0			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			
			FEMAI	LES						
I	2.2	2.6	0.1	3.8	4.3	2.9	2.5			
II	25.9	24.7	2.3	46.5	40.3	31.2	25.8			
IIIA	22.7	26.1	2.7	29.9	26.6	33.4	23.8			
IIIB	45.8	39.6	2.0	14.2	28.0	32.0	38.4			
IV	1.1	1.3	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.4	1.0			
V	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0			
Unknown	2.4	5.8	92.5	5.6	0.7	0.2	8.5			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Tables C-5 (AFQT by Component and Gender) and C-6 (AFQT by Component and Race/Ethnicity).

Source: Service data from Defense Manpower Data Center. The 1980 civilian comparison group distribution for the total population (males and females) is 7 percent in Category I, 28 percent in Category II, 15 percent in Category IIIA, 19 percent in Category IIIB, 21 percent in Category IV, and 10 percent in Category V. Civilian data from the *Profile of American Youth* (Washington, DC: Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense [Manpower, Reserve Affairs, and Logistics], 1982).

Characteristics of the Selected Reserve Enlisted Force

Reserve Component forces perform a variety of important missions in the event of national emergency, and assist the Active Component in meeting its peacetime operating requirements. Figure 5.2 shows the Selected Reserve enlisted end-strengths for FYs 1974 to 1998.

Age. Substantive differences exist among the Reserve Components in the proportion of enlisted members in various age groups, as shown in Table 5.8. The Air Force Reserve Components (ANG and USAFR) have the "oldest" members with 33 and 34 percent, respectively, of enlisted members 40 years of age or older. These proportions are strikingly different from the Active Component and other Reserve Components. For example, only 4 percent of USMCR enlisted members are 40 or older.

^{*} Less than one-tenth of one percent.

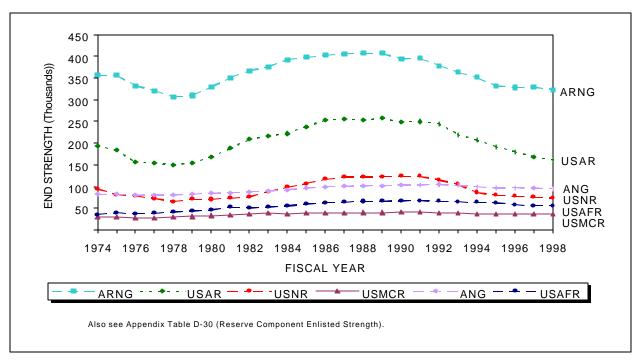


Figure 5.2. Reserve Component enlisted end-strength, FYs 1974–1998.

	Table 5.8. FY 1998 Selected Reserve Enlisted Members, by Age and Component, and Civilian Labor Force Over 16 Years Old (Percent)								
Age Group	Army National Guard	Army Reserve	Naval Reserve	Marine Corps Reserve	Air National Guard	Air Force Reserve	Total DoD	Civilians	
17–19	9.2	10.5	1.1	12.8	2.6	1.0	7.4	5.0	
20–24	20.0	22.3	10.8	48.3	10.9	7.1	18.9	9.9	
25–29	20.4	18.7	21.4	22.1	15.9	15.3	19.3	11.6	
30–34	15.3	14.8	23.1	8.5	19.2	20.8	16.5	12.3	
35–39	13.5	13.4	20.6	4.8	18.6	21.5	15.0	13.8	
40–44	8.3	9.0	11.8	1.9	11.5	13.6	9.3	13.7	
45–49	6.5	5.8	6.3	0.9	10.3	10.2	6.8	11.8	
50+	6.8	5.0	4.9	0.7	11.0	10.5	6.7	21.9	
Unknown	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.2	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.0	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Table C-15 (Age by Component and Gender).

Source: Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey File, September 1998.

Age differences among the Components result from diverse mission requirements and retention. The mission drives the NPS/prior service mix in each of the Reserve Components. For example, the labor-intensive requirements of infantry and other ground combat units usually mandate the need for

^{*} Less than one-tenth of one percent.

younger individuals, while equipment-intensive requirements demand more formal training. Normally, longer training periods result in the Services seeking recruits for longer terms of enlistment or maintaining a force with greater experience. Individuals in equipment-intensive or high-technology fields, such as those found more often in the USNR, ANG, and USAFR, usually are more experienced, and therefore older.

Race/Ethnicity. As shown in Table 5.9, the proportion of minority Servicemembers varies by Reserve Component. The proportion of Blacks is higher than in the comparable civilian group (18 and 12 percent, respectively), but lower than in the Active Component (22 percent). The USAR has the largest proportion of Blacks (28 percent), while the ANG has the lowest (9 percent). The USMCR has the greatest proportion of Hispanic members (13 percent) and, along with the ANG, the greatest proportion of "Other" racial minorities (6 percent). The USAR data are affected by the large number of FY 1998 accessions with unknown race/ethnicity who are included in the "Other" minorities category.

Ta				· •	Race/Ethnicity				
		onent, and Ci	vilian Labor F	1	ears Old (Perce		<u> </u>		
	Army			Marine	Air	Air			
Race/	National	Army	Naval	Corps	National	Force	Total		
Ethnicity	Guard	Reserve	Reserve	Reserve	Guard	Reserve	DoD		
			MALES	T			1		
White	73.8	61.9	74.0	68.9	80.6	73.6	72.1		
Black	15.3	23.5	13.7	11.9	7.7	15.9	15.6		
Hispanic	7.4	8.9	7.8	13.1	5.7	5.7	7.7		
Other	3.5	5.8	4.5	6.1	6.1	4.8	4.6		
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		
FEMALES									
White	61.3	46.8	64.6	59.8	72.6	62.5	58.3		
Black	28.4	40.9	23.7	20.7	15.5	27.6	30.3		
Hispanic	6.2	6.8	7.3	13.8	5.2	4.9	6.4		
Other	4.1	5.5	4.3	5.7	6.7	5.0	5.1		
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		
			TOTAL	4					
White	72.6	58.2	72.2	68.5	79.3	71.4	70.0		
Black	16.6	27.7	15.6	12.3	9.0	18.2	17.8		
Hispanic	7.3	8.3	7.7	13.1	5.6	5.5	7.5		
Other	3.6	5.7	4.5	6.1	6.1	4.9	4.7		
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		
		CIVILIAN LA	ABOR FORCE	18-49 YEARS	OLD				
White	Bl	ack	Hispani	С	Other	7	Fotal		
71.6		2.1	11.7		4.6		100.0		
Columns may not add) (Fd : :: 1 G				

Also see Appendix Tables C-17 (Race/Ethnicity by Component and Gender) and C-18 (Ethnicity by Component).

Source: Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey File, September 1998.

Substantial gender differences exist in the racial and ethnic composition of Reserve Component members (Appendix Table C-17). While Black males represent 16 percent of the male enlisted Selected Reserve, Black females represent 30 percent of females. Approximately 54 percent of USAR females are minorities: 41 percent Black, 7 percent Hispanic, and 6 percent in the "Other" racial category. Conversely, the ANG has the lowest proportion of minority females (27 percent), compared to 28 percent in the 18- to 49-year-old civilian labor force.

Gender. The proportion of enlisted women is slightly greater in the Selected Reserve than in the Active Component (15 versus 14 percent, respectively). However, as Table 5.10 makes clear, there are differences in the proportion of women among the Reserve Components. The Component with the highest proportion of women is the USAR (24 percent), while the other Army Component, the ARNG, has 10 percent and the USMCR, with the lowest proportion, has 4 percent. Differences in gender composition are the result of the types of units in the Components. For example, the ARNG and USMCR have mainly combat units and the USAR has primarily combat support and combat service support units.

	Table 5.10. FY 1998 Selected Reserve Enlisted Members, by Gender and Component,									
and Civilian Labor Force 18–49 Years Old (Percent)										
	Army			Marine	Air	Air		18- to 49-		
	National	Army	Naval	Corps	National	Force	Total	Year-Old		
Gender	Guard	ard Reserve Reserve Guard Reserve DoD Civilian								
Male	90.0	75.6	81.3	95.7	84.0	80.2	84.8	53.6		
Female	Female 10.0 24.4 18.7 4.3 16.0 19.8 15.2 46.4									
Also see App	endix Table C	-15 (Age by Co	omponent and C	Gender).						
Source: Civi	lian data from	Bureau of Lab	or Statistics Cu	rrent Population	Survey File, S	entember 1998				

Marital Status. Just over half of Selected Reserve members are married (Table 5.11). This proportion is lower than for the comparable civilian population (56 percent), and for enlisted members in the Active Component (55 percent). The proportion of married female Selected Reserve members (37 percent) is much lower than the proportion of married female civilians (55 percent). This difference is in part explained by the younger age of women enlisted members compared to their civilian counterparts.

Table 5.11. FY 1998 Married Selected Reserve Enlisted Members, by Gender, and Civilian Labor Force 18–49 Years Old (Percent)								
Gender DoD 18- to 49-Year-Old Civilians								
Male 53.6 56.9								
Female	37.1	53.6						
Total	51.1	55.3						
Also see Appendix Table C-16 (Age by Marital Status and Gender). Source: Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey File, September 1998.								

Education. As shown in Table 5.12, 99 percent of FY 1998 Selected Reserve enlisted members have a high school diploma or alternative credential (Tiers 1 and 2), compared to 89 percent

of the comparably aged civilian labor force. Comparing Table 5.6 (education levels of Selected Reserve accessions) with Table 5.12 suggests that a significant number of enlisted members gain college experience while in the Selected Reserve (5 percent of NPS accessions versus 20 percent of enlisted members).

Table 5.1	Table 5.12. FY 1998 Selected Reserve Enlisted Members, by Education Levels and Component, and Civilian Labor Force 18–49 Years Old (Percent) ¹								
	l	Civilian	Labor Force	ı		Γ΄ Ι	T	I	
	Army			Marine	Air	Air		18- to 49-	
Education	National	Army	Naval	Corps	National	Force	Total	Year-Old	
Tier	Guard	Reserve	Reserve	Reserve	Guard	Reserve	DoD	Civilians*	
Tier 1: Regular High School Graduate or Higher	99.2	92.9	98.2	97.2	99.1	99.6	97.7	88.6	
Tier 2: GED,								00.0	
Alternative Credentials	0.0	3.7	1.0	2.6	0.8	0.3	1.2		
Tier 3: No Credentials	0.8	3.5	0.8	0.1	0.1	0.1	1.2	11.4	
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	
College Experience (Part of Tier 1)	20.3	13.5	36.4	8.2	17.3	24.0	19.7	55.7	

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Tables C-19 (Education by Component and Gender) and C-20 (Education by Component and Race/Ethnicity). Source: Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey File, September 1998.

Representation Within Occupations. The assignment of Reserve Component personnel to occupations is based upon individual qualifications and desires, military requirements, and unit vacancies. The changing missions of the Armed Services, including domestic and international humanitarian efforts, affect personnel assignment. Table 5.13 shows the occupational area distribution of Reserve and Active Components.

Table 5.14 indicates that the occupational distribution among Active and Reserve Components varies. The differences reflect each Reserve Component's unique mission requirements and force structure. These differences may preclude some direct transfers from active duty to the National Guard and Reserve within the same skill. For example, 13 percent of active Navy enlisted members serve in electronics specialties, but Naval Reserve requirements account for only 7 percent of this skill area. On the other hand, only 10 percent of active Navy enlistees serve in administration while 21 percent of USNR enlistees serve in administration. Similar occupational differences are found in each Service component. Some occupational areas may not be able to absorb all transfers, while other areas may have to recruit more NPS individuals to fill unit vacancies or retrain those with prior service. The occupational distribution percentages for FY 1998 are relatively similar to those of FY 1997.

^{*} Civilian percentages combine Tiers 1 and 2.

¹ Comparisons between FY 1998 data and previous years' data may show some large changes due to extensive updates and corrections made to the education data in October 1997.

Ta	Table 5.13. Comparison of FY 1998 Reserve and Active Enlisted Occupational Areas (Percent)							
	Occupational Code and Area	Reserve	Active					
0	Infantry, Gun Crews, and Seamanship Specialists	18.6	16.9					
1	Electronic Equipment Repairers	4.6	9.3					
2	Communications and Intelligence Specialists	4.9	8.7					
3	Medical and Dental Specialists	6.8	7.1					
4	Other Allied Specialists	2.7	3.0					
5	Functional Support and Administration	18.4	16.0					
6	Electrical/Mechanical Equipment Repairers	16.6	20.1					
7	Craftsmen	5.8	3.6					
8	Service and Supply Handlers	10.3	8.5					
9	Non-occupational*	11.2	6.8					
_	Total	100.0	100.0					

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

6=Electrical, 7=Craftsmen, 8=Supply, 9=Non-occupational.

Also see Appendix Tables B-29 and C-21 (Occupational Area by Service/Component and Gender) and B-30 and C-22 (Occupational Area by Service/Component and Race/Ethnicity).

Table 5.14.	Compari	son of FY	1998 Oc	cupationa	ıl Area I	Distributi	on of Enli	sted Mer	nbers,	
	by Active and Reserve Components (Percent)									
Active and Reserve				(Occupati	onal Are	ea*			
Components	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
ARMY										
Active Component	26.6	6.6	9.9	8.3	3.4	15.9	14.4	2.0	12.4	0.7
Army National Guard	25.2	3.6	5.0	4.6	2.4	13.6	14.3	3.8	11.0	16.6
Army Reserve	16.5	2.3	4.5	11.2	3.2	23.0	10.6	5.0	14.7	9.2
NAVY										
Active Component	9.8	13.3	9.6	8.1	2.1	10.3	26.5	5.4	4.8	10.1
Naval Reserve	9.8	7.3	8.2	10.0	0.8	21.2	21.8	15.0	4.9	1.1
MARINE CORPS										
Active Component	22.4	6.1	7.1	0.0	2.4	16.1	15.6	2.5	13.1	14.7
USMC Reserve	26.0	3.0	7.6	0.0	1.2	12.8	12.6	3.1	15.2	18.4
AIR FORCE										
Active Component	8.5	10.3	7.2	8.2	3.9	22.2	23.2	4.4	4.9	7.2
Air National Guard	7.8	10.2	3.6	4.9	4.8	22.2	27.5	7.7	5.9	5.6
USAF Reserve	11.9	5.5	2.8	10.7	3.4	26.3	24.7	6.5	4.7	3.6
* Occupational Area Codes:	0=Infantry	, 1=Electro	onics, 2=C	ommunica	tions, 3=1	Medical, 4	=Other Tee	chnical, 5	=Administr	ation,

Representation of minorities within occupations. As shown in Table 5.15, about two-thirds of all Selected Reserve personnel are in four occupational areas: infantry, administration, electrical/mechanical equipment repair, and service and supply. The largest percentage of Blacks and "Others" are in functional support and administration, while combat occupations are the most prevalent among Whites and Hispanics.

^{*} Non-occupational includes patients, students, those with unassigned duties, and unknowns.

	Table 5.15. FY 1998 Occupational Areas of Selected Reserve Enlisted Personnel Within Race/Ethnicity (Percent)								
	Occupational Code and Area	White	Black	Hispanic	Other				
0	Infantry, Gun Crews, and Seamanship Specialists	19.6	14.6	20.1	18.1				
1	Electronic Equipment Repairers	5.0	3.6	3.7	4.7				
2	Communications and Intelligence Specialists	5.3	3.7	4.4	4.2				
3	Medical and Dental Specialists	6.3	8.3	7.4	8.4				
4	Other Allied Specialists	2.9	2.4	2.3	2.2				
5	Functional Support and Administration	16.3	26.2	18.1	20.1				
6	Electrical/Mechanical Equipment Repairers	17.7	12.3	16.9	15.6				
7	Craftsmen	6.4	4.2	5.3	5.4				
8	Service and Supply Handlers	9.5	13.7	11.2	8.3				
9	Non-occupational*	11.1	11.1	10.7	13.0				
Total		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0				

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Representation of women within occupations. The assignment patterns for Selected Reserve enlisted men and women in occupational areas are reflected in Table 5.16. Most National Guard and Reserve enlisted women are assigned to two occupational areas: functional support (41percent) and medical (16 percent). Enlisted men are assigned primarily to infantry (21 percent) and electrical/mechanical equipment repair (19 percent).

7	Table 5.16. FY 1998 Occupational Areas of Selected Reserve Enlisted Personnel, by Gender (Percent)							
	Occupational Code and Area	Male	Female					
0	Infantry, Gun Crews, and Seamanship Specialists	21.2	4.4					
1	Electronic Equipment Repairers	5.0	2.4					
2	Communications and Intelligence Specialists	5.1	3.7					
3	Medical and Dental Specialists	5.2	15.9					
4	Other Allied Specialists	2.8	2.2					
5	Functional Support and Administration	14.4	41.0					
6	Electrical/Mechanical Equipment Repairers	18.6	5.6					
7	Craftsmen	6.5	2.3					
8	Service and Supply Handlers	10.5	9.1					
9	Non-occupational*	10.7	13.4					
	Total	100.0	100.0					

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

^{*} Non-occupational includes patients, students, those with unassigned duties, and unknowns.

Also see Appendix Table C-22 (Occupational Area by Component and Race/Ethnicity).

^{*} Non-occupational includes patients, students, those with unassigned duties, and unknowns.

Also see Appendix Table C-21 (Occupational Area by Component and Gender).

The April 1993 policy⁷ to open more specialties and assignments to women resulted in new opportunities for women in both the Active and Reserve Components. Women are not permitted to serve in direct ground combat roles, but positions on ships and aircraft engaging in combat are now open to women. In FY 1998, 4 percent of women served in infantry, gun crew, and seamanship specialties, as illustrated in Table 5.16.

The proportion of Selected Reserve women in non-traditional occupations, such as technical and craftsmen, was relatively low in FY 1998. Women were nearly three times more likely than men to serve in the traditional occupational areas of medical and administration. In the future, the proportion of women enlisting in non-traditional positions in the National Guard and Reserves will depend to a considerable extent on the number of Active Component women in non-traditional skills, their willingness to join a Selected Reserve unit upon separating from active duty, and the proportion of technical skill vacancies in Guard and Reserve units. However, with the end of the military drawdown, there are fewer prior service women available to enter the Selected Reserve. Consequently, it is important to continue monitoring occupational trends by gender in both the Active and Reserve Components.

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Memorandum from Les Aspin, Secretary of Defense, Subject: Policy on the Assignment of Women in the Armed Forces, April 28, 1993.

Chapter 6

SELECTED RESERVE OFFICER ACCESSIONS AND OFFICER CORPS

This chapter describes demographic characteristics of Selected Reserve officer accessions and commissioned officers in FY 1998. The total officer accessions for Reserves increased in FY 1998 (from 14,379 in FY 1997 to 15,482 in FY 1998). The FY 1998 officer corps decreased by about 3 percent from FY 1997 (from 127,009 to 124,309). On the whole, however, the Selected Reserve officer corps of FY 1998 looks similar to the FY 1997 officer corps. Figure 6.1 shows the Reserve Component officer corps end-strengths for FYs 1974 to 1998.

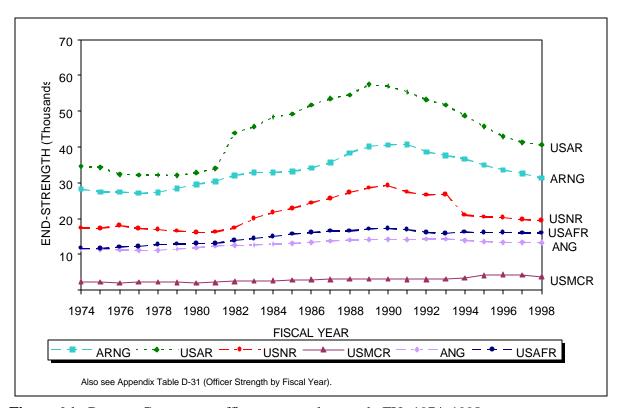


Figure 6.1. Reserve Component officer corps end-strength, FYs 1974–1998.

Table 6.1 compares the number and proportion of Reserve officer accessions with the officer corps. The ARNG and the USAR account for the largest proportion of Selected Reserve officers. The two Army components comprise 57 percent of Reserve officer accessions and 58 percent of Reserve officer end-strength. With the exception of the ANG and USMCR, accessions increased for all components in FY 1998. End-strength decreased in all components except the USAFR.

6-1

Data are for commissioned officers; warrant officers are excluded. A brief look at Reserve Component warrant officers is provided in Appendix Tables C-34 and C-35.

Table 6.1. FY 1998 Selected Reserve Officer Accessions and Officer Corps End-Strength (Number and Percent)									
	Reserve Offic	er Accessions	Reserve Off End-Str						
Component	Number	Percent	Number	Percent					
Army National Guard	2,387	15.4	31,306	25.2					
Army Reserve	6,474	41.8	40,665	32.7					
Naval Reserve	2,968	19.2	19,405	15.6					
USMC Reserve	694	4.5	3,760	3.0					
Air National Guard	1,100	7.1	13,235	10.6					
Air Force Reserve	1,859	12.0	15,938	12.8					
Total	15,482	100.0	124,309	100.0					
Columns may not add to total due to ro Also see Appendix Tables C-23 (Offic	· ·	d Component) and C-24	4 (Officers by Age and Co	omponent).					

Characteristics of Selected Reserve Officer Accessions and Officer Corps

Age. The differing missions and force structures of the Reserve Component affect the age composition of the officer corps as shown in Figure 6.2. The USAR and USAFR have the largest proportions of officers aged 40 and older (52 and 54 percent, respectively). Conversely, the ARNG and USMCR have the smallest proportions of officers 40 or older (34 and 41 percent, respectively). The ARNG and USAR have the greatest proportions of officers aged 29 and younger (18 and 10 percent, respectively).

Recruiting policies affect the age structure of the Selected Reserve officer corps. As in the Active Component, one might expect the USMCR to have a greater proportion of younger officers than the other Reserve Components. However, this is not the case. The USMCR's policy to recruit only officers with prior military service increases the age of its officers.

Race/Ethnicity. The percentages of FY 1998 Selected Reserve officer accessions and officer corps by race/ethnicity are shown in Table 6.2. The proportions of Black and Hispanic officer accessions in the Selected Reserve are comparable to the proportions in the Active Component (Blacks: Active - 9 percent, Reserve - 9 percent; Hispanics: Active - 3 percent, Reserve - 3 percent). In FY 1998, the Active Component accessed more new officers of "Other" race/ethnicity than the Selected Reserve (7 percent versus 4 percent), but the Reserve Component maintained the same proportion as the Active Component of "Others" in their officer corps (4 percent each).

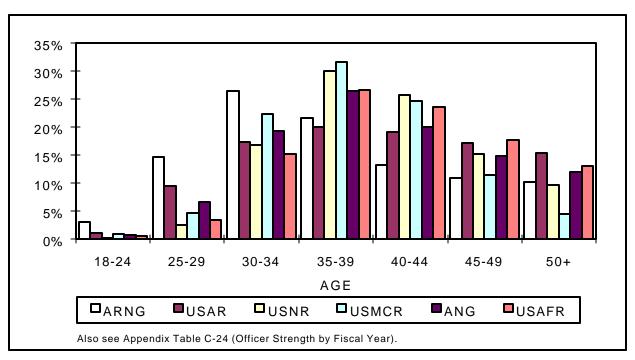


Figure 6.2. Percent of Selected Reserve officer corps by age group, FY 1998.

The Army components of the Selected Reserve have the highest proportions of Black and Hispanic officers (Blacks: ARNG 8 percent/USAR 13 percent; Hispanic: ARNG 5 percent/USAR 4 percent), while the USNR has the lowest (Blacks: 3 percent; Hispanics: 2 percent) with the USAFR also having 2 percent Hispanic officers. In the remaining components, the proportions of Black officers range from 4 to 6 percent and the proportions of Hispanic officers are all approximately 3 percent.

Gender. Women comprise 19 percent of Selected Reserve officer accessions and 18 percent of the Selected Reserve officer corps, as shown in Table 6.3. The proportion of Selected Reserve female officer accessions is the same as the Active Component (both 19 percent). However, the proportion of women in the Selected Reserve officer corps is larger than in the Active Component (18 and 14 percent, respectively), due to higher retention among female officers in the Reserve Component.

The impact of force structure and mission diversity is reflected in the distribution of women officers among the Reserve Component. The proportion of female officers in the USMCR is 5 percent, while 23 percent of the USAR and 24 percent of the USAFR officers are female. Reasons for this divergence are discussed in the portion of this chapter dealing with the occupational assignment of officers.

Table 6.2	2. FY 1998 Selecte	d Reserve Office Race/Ethnicity (F		Officer Corps,								
Component	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	Total							
	SELECTED RESERVE OFFICER ACCESSIONS											
Army National Guard	82.6	8.2	4.7	4.6	100.0							
Army Reserve	78.5	13.3	3.5	4.8	100.0							
Naval Reserve	90.9	3.4	2.0	3.7	100.0							
USMC Reserve	89.1	5.0	3.3	2.6	100.0							
Air National Guard	86.6	5.5	2.6	5.3	100.0							
Air Force Reserve	88.6	4.7	1.9	4.8	100.0							
Total DoD	83.8	8.7	3.1	4.5	100.0							
	SELECTE	D RESERVE OFI	FICER CORPS									
Army National Guard	85.3	7.4	4.5	2.9	100.0							
Army Reserve	77.4	14.3	3.9	4.5	100.0							
Naval Reserve	90.9	3.4	1.9	3.8	100.0							
USMC Reserve	90.5	4.2	2.8	2.5	100.0							
Air National Guard	87.2	5.0	3.0	4.8	100.0							
Air Force Reserve	88.0	5.6	2.5	3.9	100.0							
Total DoD	84.3	8.5	3.4	3.9	100.0							
Rows may not add to total due to Also see Appendix Table C-27 (I		mponent).										

Table 6.3. F	Y 1998 Selec	ted Reserve I	Female Office	r Accessions	and Officer C	Corps (Percent))
	Army National Guard	Army Reserve	Naval Reserve	USMC Reserve	Air National Guard	Air Force Reserve	DoD Total
Officer Accessions	12.2	22.8	16.0	5.0	17.0	23.5	18.7
Officer Corps	9.7	24.7	17.6	5.4	14.4	24.4	18.1
Also see Appendix Table C	-25 (Gender by	Component).					

Marital Status. In FY 1998, the proportion of Selected Reserve officer accessions and officers who were married was higher than for enlisted members (Table 6.4). As in the Active Component, more males were married than females. As detailed in Appendix Table C-26, the proportion of married male Selected Reserve officers (76 percent) is larger than the proportion of the male civilian college graduate labor force who are married (72 percent). However, the proportion of

married female Selected Reserve officers (57 percent) is lower than for their comparable female civilian college graduate labor force who are married (62 percent).

	l'able 6.4. FY	1998 Married Selecte	d Reserve C	Officers and Enlisted M	lembers, by	Gender,				
	and Civilians (Percent)									
	Reserve	21- to 35-Year-Old	Reserve	Civilian	Reserve					
	Officer	Civilian College	Officer	College Graduates	Enlisted	18- to 49-Year-Old				
Gender	Accessions	Graduates	Corps	in the Work Force	Members	Civilians				
Male	58.2	50.6	76.0	71.7	53.6	56.9				
Female	44.2	55.6	57.3	62.0	37.1	53.6				
Total	55.6	53.2	72.1	67.2	51.1	55.3				

Also see Appendix Tables C-16 (Enlisted Members by Age, Marital Status, and Gender) and C-26 (Officers by Gender, Marital Status, and Component).

Source: Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey File, October 1997 - September 1998.

Source of Commission. Each Reserve Component applies its own selection procedures for officer candidates. Many officers who transfer from an Active Component already possess at least a college degree. Officer candidates who do not have a degree undergo rigorous selection procedures, and must successfully complete an officer candidate or training school. For example, in FY 1998, 14 percent of ARNG officer accessions received their commissions through the ARNG Officer Candidate Schools (OCS) located in each state and territory (down from 20 percent in FY 1997); 28 percent of ANG officer accessions were commissioned through its Academy of Military Science (AMS) located in Tennessee (similar to FY 1997 with 29 percent; Table 6.5).

Table 6.5. FY 19	998 Source of	Commission	n of Selected	Reserve Of	ficer Accession	ons (Percent)	
Source of Commission	Army National Guard	Army Reserve	Naval Reserve	USMC Reserve	Air National Guard	Air Force Reserve	DoD Total
Service Academy	1.2	2.1	11.6	4.6	10.8	14.5	6.0
ROTC–Scholarship	5.3	4.5	16.9	0.0	5.7	15.1	8.2
ROTC-No Scholarship	19.3	9.0	3.3	15.7	16.0	18.6	11.4
OCS/OTS/PLC	1.9	1.8	20.8	79.7	11.0	16.1	11.3
ANG AMS/ARNG OCS	13.6	1.8	0.0	0.0	28.2	3.3	5.2
Direct Appointment	8.8	10.6	38.0	0.0	25.9	31.4	18.7
Other	49.1	0.3	6.2	0.0	2.4	1.0	9.2
Unknown	0.8	69.9	3.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	30.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Columns may not add to total du Also see Appendix Table C-33 (0	_	rce of Commi	ssion and Con	nponent).			

The variation in levels of reliance on the various sources of commission by the Reserve Component is evident in Table 6.5. In the USNR and USAFR, the largest source of commissions was through direct appointments. The overwhelming majority of USMCR officer accessions (80 percent) obtained their commissions through OCS or the Marine Corps Platoon Leader Class (PLC). PLC is a split-training program in which candidates normally attend officer training in the summers after their junior and senior years of college. The Army's components rely heavily on the Reserve Officers Training Corps (ROTC), primarily without scholarships. Approximately 9 percent of officer accessions are commissioned from other programs, primarily through the aviation cadet and aviation training programs.²

Education. The Reserve Component also tends to vary in the educational attainment levels of its officer accessions (Table 6.6). Overall in FY 1998, 85 percent of Reserve officer accessions were at least college graduates (bachelor and/or advanced degrees). The USNR had the highest proportion of officer accessions with at least a college degree (99 percent). In the other components, the percentage of officer accessions with degrees ranged from 70 percent in the ARNG to 96 percent in the USAFR.

Table 6.6. FY 1998 Educa	ational Attain	ment of Sel	ected Reserv	e Officer A	ccessions and	Officer Co	ps			
		(Per	cent)							
	Army				Air	Air				
	National	Army	Naval	USMC	National	Force	DoD			
Educational Attainment*	Guard	Reserve	Reserve	Reserve	Guard	Reserve	Total			
SELECTED RESERVE OFFICER ACCESSIONS										
Less than College Graduate	30.3	15.0	1.1	12.7	17.1	4.3	14.9			
College Graduate (B.A., B.S., etc.)	57.3	63.0	63.1	68.6	59.6	58.9	61.3			
Advanced Degree (M.A., Ph.D., etc.)	12.4	22.0	35.8	18.6	23.3	36.9	23.8			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			
	SELEC	TED RESER	VE OFFICE	R CORPS						
Less than College Graduate	18.7	11.5	2.0	2.0	5.0	3.4	10.0			
College Graduate (B.A., B.S., etc.)	61.0	56.0	57.9	69.6	66.7	49.1	58.3			
Advanced Degree (M.A., Ph.D., etc.)	20.3	32.5	40.1	28.4	28.3	47.5	31.7			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			
Columns may not add to total due to r	ounding.					•				

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* Excludes unknowns.

Also see Appendix Table C-28 (Education by Component).

For Reserve Component commissioned officer accessions, "other" sources of commission are defined as: Merchant Marine Academy, Aviation Cadet, and Aviation Training Program.

For all of the Reserve Components, except the USNR. the proportion of officers with at least an undergraduate degree is higher than that of its officer accessions. This difference is particularly evident in the ANG where 83 percent of the accessions and 95 percent of the officer corps have a college degree.

Several factors help explain why more officers have college degrees than do officer accessions. A number of Selected Reserve accessions have college credits but have not yet earned a degree when they join the Selected Reserve. Because of Service emphasis on an educated officer corps, many individuals join to take advantage of educational opportunities and education financing (e.g., the Montgomery G.I. Bill), and many non-degreed officers complete their college education while serving in the Selected Reserve.

Representation Within Occupations. The distribution of officers across occupational areas is shown in Table 6.7 for both Active and Reserve Components. The largest proportions of Reserve Component officers (56 percent) and Active Component officers (57 percent) are assigned to tactical operations and health care positions. However, due to assigned missions, the Reserve Component has a smaller proportion than the Active Component in tactical operations (34 and 39 percent, respectively), but a greater proportion of officers in health care (22 and 19 percent, respectively).

Table 6.7. FY 1998 Occupational Areas of Active and S	Selected Reserve Officer Co	orps (Percent)
Occupational Area	Active Component	Reserve Component
General Officers and Executives *	0.4	0.5
Tactical Operations	38.4	33.9
Intelligence	5.0	5.1
Engineering and Maintenance	11.7	10.1
Scientists and Professionals	4.9	6.4
Health Care	18.9	21.3
Administration	6.0	7.7
Supply, Procurement, and Allied Occupations	8.7	10.5
Non-Occupational**	6.0	4.6
Total	100.0	100.0

^{*} Reserve Component calculations do not include 770 O-6 officers classified as general or executive officers by the Services (1 - ARNG,

^{1 -} USAR, 305 - USMCR, 314 - ANG, and 149 - USAFR).

^{**} Non-occupational includes patients, students, those with unassigned duties, and unknowns.

Also see Appendix Tables B-37 (Occupational Area by Service and Gender) and C-31 (Occupational Area by Component).

Differences in occupational assignment among the Reserve Component are shown in Table 6.8. With the exception of the USAR and the USAFR, the largest proportion of officers in each component is in tactical operations. The ARNG and USMCR have the greatest proportions of officers in tactical operations (48 and 57 percent, respectively). The USAR and USAFR have the smallest proportions of officers in tactical operations (20 and 27 percent, respectively).

Table 6.8.	Comparis	son of FY	1998 Occu	pational A	Area Distr	ibution of	Officers,			
by Active and Reserve Component (Percent)										
Active and Reserve				Occu	pational A	Area*				
Components	0**	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	
ARMY										
Active Component	0.5	39.6	6.3	10.3	4.3	21.2	5.9	10.5	1.4	
Army National Guard	0.6	46.9	2.5	7.9	3.6	10.7	6.3	10.2	11.3	
Army Reserve	0.3	19.9	4.5	9.1	9.3	29.9	9.4	14.1	3.6	
NAVY										
Active Component	0.4	38.8	4.0	9.8	3.9	21.1	5.0	5.4	11.7	
Naval Reserve	0.3	38.3	10.7	10.5	3.8	22.7	6.0	7.1	0.8	
MARINE CORPS										
Active Component	0.5	51.9	4.4	8.3	2.7	0.0	5.7	12.7	13.8	
USMC Reserve	0.3	57.1	5.3	7.6	5.7	0.0	6.6	15.5	2.0	
AIR FORCE										
Active Component	0.4	34.2	4.7	15.1	6.6	19.2	6.8	8.6	4.5	
Air National Guard	1.1	40.5	2.6	16.2	4.5	15.9	10.0	6.8	2.6	
USAF Reserve	0.5	28.1	7.4	12.4	9.1	27.5	6.1	8.3	0.6	

Rows may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Tables B-37 (Occupational Area by Service and Gender) and C-30 (Occupational Area by Component).

Many Selected Reserve officers are health care professionals. The USAR and USAFR have the greatest proportion of officers in health care occupations (30 and 28 percent, respectively). Health care comprises the second largest percentage of officers in the ARNG and USNR (11 and 23 percent, respectively). Relatively few Reserve officers are in intelligence, science and professional, and administrative occupations.

Representation of women within occupations. The occupational assignments by gender of Selected Reserve officers are shown in Table 6.9. More than half (53 percent) of all female officers are assigned to health care positions and 13 percent to administration positions. As indicated in Appendix Table C-31, the assignment of women into officer occupational areas differs by component. Across components, female officers serving in health care positions range from 32 percent in the ARNG to 58 percent in the USAR and 59 percent in the USNR. Two percent of USAR female officers hold tactical operations positions compared to 9 percent in the ANG. As in the Selected Reserve enlisted force, reasons for this distribution include the differing missions of each component; the occupational

^{*} Occupational Area Codes: 0=General Officers, 1=Tactical Operations, 2=Intelligence, 3=Engineering and Maintenance,

⁴⁼Scientists and Professionals, 5=Health Care, 6=Administration, 7=Supply, Procurement, and Allied, 8=Non-occupational.

^{**} Reserve Component calculations do not include 770 O-6 officers classified as general or executive officers by the Services (1 - ARNG.

^{1 -} USAR, 305 - USMCR, 314 - ANG, and 149 - USAFR).

preferences of female officers; the number of Active Component female officers possessing such skills who join a Selected Reserve unit after separation from active duty; the proportion of technical skill unit vacancies; and direct ground combat exclusion policies.

Table 6.9. FY 1998 Occupational Areas of Sel	ected Reserve Office	r Corps, by Gender	(Percent)
Occupational Area	Male	Female	Total
General Officers and Executives*	0.6	0.1	0.5
Tactical Operations	40.5	4.1	33.9
Intelligence	5.1	5.3	5.1
Engineering and Maintenance	10.8	7.2	10.1
Scientists and Professionals	7.0	3.4	6.4
Health Care	14.3	52.9	21.3
Administration	6.4	13.3	7.7
Supply, Procurement, and Allied Occupations	10.6	10.3	10.5
Non-Occupational***	4.8	3.6	4.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Table C-31 (Occupational Area by Component and Gender).

Representation of minorities within occupations. An overview of the distribution of Selected Reserve officers by race/ethnicity is provided in Table 6.10. More than half of Whites, Hispanics, and "Others" serve in either tactical operations or health care occupations. The largest proportions of White and Hispanic officers are in tactical operations (36 and 30 percent, respectively); the largest percentages of Black and "Other" racial category officers are in health care occupations (26 and 29 percent, respectively).

As detailed in Appendix Table C-32, there are race/ethnicity differences among the Reserve Components by occupational areas. For example, 42 percent of White officers in the ANG have occupations in tactical operations, while only 20 percent of Black officers do. Other occupational areas such as health care attract members of different race/ethnic groups more uniformly. For example, in the USAFR, 42 percent of Blacks, 39 percent of "Other" racial categories, and 32 percent of Hispanics serve in health care, compared to 26 percent of Whites.

^{*} Calculations do not include 752 male and 18 female O-6 officers classified as general or executive officers by the Services.

^{**} Less than one-tenth of one percent.

^{***} Non-occupational includes patients, students, those with unassigned duties, and unknowns.

Table 6.10. FY 1998 Occupationa	l Areas of Selec	eted Reserve O	officer Corps, by	y Race/Ethnicit	y (Percent)
Occupational Area	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	Total
General Officers and Executives*	0.5	0.3	0.3	0.2	0.5
Tactical Operations	36.0	18.3	29.5	27.3	33.9
Intelligence	5.4	2.5	4.0	5.1	5.1
Engineering and Maintenance	9.9	11.7	11.3	11.0	10.1
Scientists and Professionals	6.7	4.5	4.6	5.0	6.4
Health Care	20.3	26.4	22.3	29.4	21.3
Administration	7.0	13.2	9.2	7.5	7.7
Supply, Procurement, and Allied Occupations	9.8	17.7	12.9	8.8	10.5
Non-Occupational**	4.4	5.4	5.9	5.7	4.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Table C-32 (Occupational Areas by Component and Race/Ethnicity).

^{*} Calculations do not include 745 White, 7 Black, 6 Hispanic, and 12 Other O-6 officers classified as general or executive officers by the Services.

** Non-occupational includes patients, students, those with unassigned duties, and unknowns.

** The C 32 (Occupational Areas by Component and Race/Ethnicity).

Chapter 7

SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS OF ENLISTED ACCESSIONS

Differing viewpoints on the socioeconomic status of accessions have been the basis for serious debates regarding the viability of the All Volunteer Force. While the concern that the volunteer military would recruit primarily from the lower economic and social levels has not been borne out, it is important to understand the socioeconomic composition of the military. This chapter reviews issues surrounding these aspects of the military and provides data on the social background of FY 1998 recruits.

Socioeconomic Status in Perspective

Imbalances in socioeconomic representation in the military often have been a controversial social and political issue.¹ In debate over the establishment of the volunteer force, opponents argued that it would lead to a military composed of those from poor and minority backgrounds, forced to turn to the military as an employer of last resort. Some critics anticipated that the consequences would be not only inequitable, but dangerous. They argued that by recruiting primarily from an underclass, the volunteer force would create a serious cleavage between the military and the rest of society.²

The belief that the enlisted military drew recruits primarily from lower socioeconomic groups was a major element in proposals for either a return to conscription or some form of national service program that would draw all classes into military or civilian service. The philosophical basis for these proposals was the conviction that all social classes should contribute their share to the national defense. A 1988 report by the Democratic Leadership Council stated, "We cannot ask the poor and underprivileged alone to defend us while our more fortunate sons and daughters take a free ride, forging ahead with their education and careers."

Many of the assertions about the class composition of the military have been based on impressions and anecdotes rather than on empirical data. Analysis of Vietnam era veterans indicated that individuals of high socioeconomic status comprised about half the proportion of draftees compared to their representation in the overall population.⁴ Three systematic analyses of the socioeconomic composition of accessions during the volunteer period suggest that little has changed with the All Volunteer Force. All found that members of the military tended to come from backgrounds that were

See, for example, Cooper, R.V.L., *Military Manpower and the All-Volunteer Force* (Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation, 1977).

See, for example, Janowitz, M., "The All Volunteer Military as a Socio-Political Problem," *Social Problems* (February 1975), pp. 432–449.

Democratic Leadership Council, *Citizenship and National Service: A Blueprint for Civic Enterprise* (Washington, DC: Author, May 1988), p. 25.

Boulanger, G., "Who Goes to War?" in A. Egendorf, C. Kadushin, R.S. Laufer, G. Rothbart, and L. Sloan (Eds.), Legacies of Vietnam: Comparative Adjustment of Veterans and Their Peers, Vol. 4. Long-term Stress Reactions: Some Causes, Consequences, and Naturally Occurring Support Systems (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1981), pp. 494–515.

somewhat lower in socioeconomic status than the U.S. average, but that the differences between the military and the comparison groups were relatively modest.⁵ These results have been confirmed in recent editions of this report, which portray a socioeconomic composition of enlisted accessions similar to the population as a whole, but with the top quartile of the population underrepresented.⁶ While the socioeconomic status of recruits is slightly lower than the general population, today's recruits have higher levels of education, measured aptitudes, and reading skills than their civilian counterparts.

Operations Desert Shield and Desert Storm revived concerns that Blacks would bear a disproportionate share of fighting and dying in future wars. The Chairman of the House Committee on Armed Services stated, "The...Committee spent some considerable time on this [issue] and came to a rather surprising conclusion about it. It's not true." A related report concluded that the volunteer system provided quality enlistees; that minorities would not bear a much heavier burden of combat; and that a draft would neither be as fair nor produce a force as high in quality as the current system. The report indicated that a draft would lead to a less educated, less motivated, and less competent force, even though it might be more representative of the upper and lower social strata.

Defining Socioeconomic Status

Although the term "socioeconomic status" is used frequently, there is no general consensus regarding how to define and measure this construct. Often, measures cited in the literature are those of convenience or availability (e.g., race, zip code). In general, socioeconomic status is considered as an indicator of economic and social position.⁹

Research suggests that occupation is the best single indicator of socioeconomic position.¹⁰ However, including additional information, such as education and income, can increase explained variance in the measure of social class. In addition, different items may assess unique dimensions of

See (1) Cooper, R.V.L., *Military Manpower and the All Volunteer Force* (Santa Monica, CA: RAND Corporation, 1977), pp. 223–250; (2) Fredland, J.E. and Little, R.D., *Socioeconomic Characteristics of the All Volunteer Force: Evidence from the National Longitudinal Survey, 1979* (Annapolis, MD: U.S. Naval Academy, 1982); (3) Fernandez, R.L., *Social Representation in the U.S. Military* (Washington, DC: Congressional Budget Office, October 1989).

Aspin, L., Chairman, House Committee on Armed Services, *The All Volunteer Force: Assessing Fairness and Facing the Future*, before the Association of the U. S. Army, Crystal City, VA, April 26, 1991.

⁶ See *Population Representation in the Military Services*, Fiscal Years 1991–1997.

Aspin, L., *All Volunteer: A Fair System, A Quality Force* (Washington, DC: Chairman, House Committee on Armed Services, April 26, 1991).

Stawarski, C.A. and Boesel, D., *Representation in the Military: Socioeconomic Status* (Alexandria, VA: Human Resources Research Organization, 1988).

Powers, M.G., "Measures of Socioeconomic Status: An Introduction," in M.G. Powers (Ed.), *Measures of Socioeconomic Status: Current Issues* (Boulder, CO: Westview, 1981), pp. 1–28.

socioeconomic status, which together may represent the construct more completely.¹¹ The variables traditionally used to assess social standing are education, occupation, and income; additional measures include employment status, possessions, and presence of reading materials in the home.¹²

Measuring Socioeconomic Status

Socioeconomic representation has been included in the annual *Population Representation in the Military Services* since the FY 1986 report. However, there were no reliable socioeconomic data to report at that time. Available data included the zip code of a recruit's current address and associated statistics from census data. While this type of data is useful for demographic trend analysis and advertising and marketing research, it is not reliable for comparing socioeconomic representation in the military to that of the general population. For example, applicants and recruits may not come from the background indicated by the zip code for their current address (i.e., these individuals may move away from home to go to college or to work).¹³

The Survey of Recruit Socioeconomic Backgrounds, first administered in March 1989, is currently administered on a continuing basis at recruit training centers. Participants answer questions about their parents' education, employment status, occupation, and home ownership. While income is a widely used measure of socioeconomic status, research provides evidence that recruit-aged youth are not accurate at estimating their parents' income.¹⁴ Therefore, home ownership is included as a proxy for income.

Several researchers have devised a summary statistic for socioeconomic status.¹⁵ The socioeconomic index (SEI), derived from predicted prestige scores based on levels of income and education within occupations, is one means of defining socioeconomic status. Stevens and Cho¹⁶ developed such scores for each 3-digit occupation code in the 1980 Census, revising earlier work by Duncan, and Featherman et al.¹⁷ More recently, this index has been revised by Hauser and Warren¹⁸ to

14 Ibid.

Nam, C.B. and Terrie, E.W., "Measurement of Socioeconomic Status from United States Census Data," in M.G. Powers (Ed.), *Measures of Socioeconomic Status: Current Issues* (Boulder, CO: Westview, 1981), pp. 29–42.

Department of Defense, *Population Representation in the Military Services: Fiscal Year 1986* (Washington, DC: Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense [Force Management and Personnel], 1987).

¹³ Ibid.

Stevens, G. and Cho, J.H., "Socioeconomic Indices and the New 1980 Census Occupational Classification Scheme," *Social Science Research*, *14* (1985), pp. 142–168.

¹⁶ Ibid.

See Duncan, O.D., "A Socioeconomic Index for All Occupations," in A.J. Reiss, Jr. (Ed.), *Occupations and Social Status* (New York: Free Press, 1981), pp. 139–161; Featherman, D.L., Jones, F.L., and Hauser, R.M., "Assumptions of Social Mobility Research in the U.S.: The Case of Occupational Status," *Social Science Research*, 4 (1975), pp. 329–360.

incorporate prestige ratings from the General Social Survey conducted by the National Opinion Research Center,¹⁹ as well as occupational income and education data from the 1990 Census. This report uses a version of the SEI that incorporates income and educational data about both males and females; it is termed the Total Socioeconomic Index (TSEI). TSEI scores for recruits can be calculated using parental occupational information reported in the Survey of Recruit Socioeconomic Backgrounds.

In FY 1998, the Survey of Recruit Socioeconomic Backgrounds was given to both active duty and Reserve Component recruits without prior military experience. Approximately 12,200 active duty and 3,200 Reserve Component enlisted accessions provided information on the marital status, education, employment, and occupation of their parents.²⁰ The survey requested information on the parents with whom the recruit was last living, whether they were biological parents, stepparents, or other legal guardians. Throughout this discussion, these will be referred to as "recruit or DoD parents."

For civilians, similar information is collected by the Bureau of the Census. These measures include marital status, highest level of education, home ownership, employment status, and occupation. For comparison, information is provided for parents of civilian youth between the ages of 14 and 21, inclusive, who were living at home. These data are taken from the Current Population Survey (CPS), an ongoing survey conducted by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Labor Statistics.²¹ They will be referred to as "CPS parents."

Comparisons between DoD and CPS parents should be tempered by the fact that the DoD group does not include officer accessions. Since Active Component officer accessions represent nearly 8 percent of total Active Component accessions, adding officer socioeconomic measures could produce a moderate change in the overall DoD results. However, for most of the variables reported in this section, including officer data would produce little change in the reported values, because the civilian and military distributions are quite similar. Specific areas in which adding officer data might change the comparisons will be noted in the following discussion.

Hauser, R.M. and Warren, J.R. *Socioeconomic Indexes for Occupations: A Review, Update, and Critique* (Madison, WI: Center for Demography and Ecology, June 1996).

Nakao, K. and Treas, J., "Updating Occupational Prestige and Socioeconomic Scores: How the New Measures Measure Up," in P. Marsden (Ed.), *Sociological Methodology*, *1994* (Washington, DC: American Sociological Association, 1994), pp. 1–72.

Navy recruits who said that they were in the TARS program were counted as active duty recruits.

To facilitate comparison between the military and civilian data sets, the CPS data were weighted to match the military data in terms of age. CPS sample weights were ratio-adjusted to age distributions, in 5-year intervals, of recruits' parents. Consequently, the adjusted CPS data contain the same percentage of parents in a specific gender and age group (e.g., male parents age 40–44) as the military data set. When sample sizes are large, small differences in magnitude can be statistically significant. For comparisons between DoD and CPS parents, any difference greater than about one percentage point is statistically significant; the comparable figure for comparisons between Services or between active duty and Reserve Components is 3 percent.

Socioeconomic Status of Enlisted Accessions and Civilians

The remainder of this chapter presents the results of the 1998 recruit survey and civilian comparison data from the CPS. These data provide several measures of socioeconomic status, including the TSEI scores.

Family Status. The number of parents in a family household is closely related to other indicators of socioeconomic status. For example, data from the CPS indicate that the median income of family households with two parents present is more than twice that of households headed by single females and 40 percent greater than households headed by single males.²² The Survey of Recruit Socioeconomic Backgrounds asks respondents to indicate the people who were in their household when they last lived with their parents, stepparents, or guardians. Approximately 69 percent of accessions indicated that they lived with both father and mother,²³ compared with 71 percent of CPS households (Table 7.1). Those who lived with one parent were more than three times more likely to live with their mother than with their father. The percentage of accessions living with two parents was greater for the Air Force (73 percent) than for the other three Services (from 66 to 68 percent). There were no other differences of consequence among the other Services, nor between active duty and Reserve Component accessions. Overall, the family composition of enlisted accessions was quite similar to that of the civilian population.

Table 7.1. Parents in Family of FY 1998 NPS Recruits, by Service, with Civilian Comparison Group (Percent)										
	Active Component				DoD S	ubtotal	То	tal		
Adults at Home	Army	Navy	Marine Corps	Air Force	Active Duty	Guard/ Reserve	DoD	CPS		
Father, Stepfather, or Male Guardian	6.8	7.1	8.2	6.3	7.0	5.9	6.8	6.2		
Mother, Stepmother, or Female Guardian	25.7	25.3	26.2	20.9	24.8	24.6	24.8	23.3		
Both	67.5	67.6	65.6	72.8	68.1	69.5	68.5	70.5		
Source: Civilian data f	rom Bureau o	f Labor Statis	tics Current P	opulation Surv	vey File, Octo	ber 1997–Sept	ember 1998.			

Education. The socioeconomic status of children and adolescents is closely related to mothers' education, fathers' education, average family income, and fathers' occupational status. Analysis of data collected for the *Profile of American Youth* study showed that mothers' education approximated the effects of all four variables.²⁴ Thus, the measure of recruit mothers' education becomes important as an

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U.S. Bureau of the Census, Current Population Reports, P60-200, *Money Income in the United States: 1997* (With Separate Data on Valuation of Noncash Benefits), U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, DC, 1998.

For purposes of this discussion, the term "father" represents either a biological father, a stepfather, or other male guardian, and the term "mother" represents either a biological mother, a stepmother, or other female guardian.

Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense (Manpower, Reserve Affairs, and Logistics), *Profile of American Youth: 1980 Nationwide Administration of the Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery* (Washington, DC: March 1982), pp. 40–42.

indicator of high-quality recruits. Approximately 20 percent of recruit mothers earned a college degree or better; an additional 29 percent accrued some college credits.

CPS fathers were somewhat better educated than DoD fathers (Table 7.2). The CPS fathers were more likely to have graduated from college than DoD fathers (29 percent for CPS and 24 percent for DoD), while DoD fathers were more likely to be a high school graduate or less (51 percent for DoD and 47 percent for CPS). CPS mothers were also slightly better educated than their DoD counterparts, although the pattern of results is somewhat different. Approximately the same percentage of DoD and CPS mothers attended college, whether or not they graduated (49 percent for DoD and 50 percent for CPS). However, a slightly greater percentage of CPS mothers graduated college than did DoD mothers (22 percent for CPS and 20 percent for DoD). Similarly, CPS mothers were slightly more likely to have graduated from high school than DoD mothers (36 percent for CPS and 34 percent for DoD).

Table	Table 7.2. Education of Parents of FY 1998 NPS Recruits, by Gender and Service, with Civilian Comparison Group (Percent at Each Education Level)										
		Active C	omponent		DoD S	Subtotal	Total				
Highest Level of Education	Army	Navy	Marine Corps	Air Force	Active Duty	Guard/ Reserve	DoD	CPS			
	FATHERS										
Less than High School Graduate	19.2	16.1	20.5	11.9	17.2	17.1	17.2	15.2			
High School Graduate	34.0	33.3	31.5	33.7	33.3	33.7	33.4	31.3			
Some College (No 4-Yr. Degree)	23.9	26.9	24.0	30.0	25.9	25.8	25.9	25.0			
College Graduate*	22.9	23.7	24.0	24.4	23.6	23.4	23.5	28.5			
			MOT	HERS							
Less than High School Graduate	18.6	17.5	18.9	11.6	17.0	17.5	17.1	14.6			
High School Graduate	32.9	33.1	34.8	36.5	34.0	33.6	33.9	35.9			
Some College (No 4-Yr. Degree)	29.0	29.5	26.6	33.4	29.5	29.0	29.4	27.6			
College Graduate*	19.6	19.9	19.7	18.5	19.5	19.9	19.6	21.9			
* College graduate includ Source: Civilian data from				oulation Surve	ey File, Octob	er 1997–Septe	mber 1998.				

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For both DoD and CPS parents, fathers were somewhat more educated than mothers. This difference is reflected in the greater percentage of college graduates among fathers (24 percent for DoD and 29 percent for CPS) than among mothers (20 percent for DoD and 22 percent for CPS). CPS fathers are also more likely to have education beyond high school than CPS mothers (54 percent for CPS fathers and 50 percent for CPS mothers); while a comparable difference was not found between DoD fathers and mothers.

On the average, parents of Air Force accessions had more advanced educational credentials than parents in the other Services. Both Air Force fathers and mothers were more likely to have at least a high school diploma (88 percent for both fathers and mothers) than the overall active duty average (83 percent for both fathers and mothers). They were also more likely to have attended or graduated college (54 percent for fathers and 52 percent for mothers) than the active duty average (50 percent for fathers and 49 percent for mothers). There were no other differences of note in parent education between Services or between parents of active duty and Reserve Component accessions.

Home Ownership. Both CPS mothers and fathers were more likely to own their home than DoD parents (Table 7.3). On the other hand, CPS parents were less likely than DoD parents to have housing arrangements other than buying or renting. This arrangement was very rare among CPS parents, but occurred for roughly 5 percent of DoD parents. Although there were no differences between the parents of Active and Reserve Component accessions, within the active duty Service categories both mothers and fathers of Air Force recruits were more likely to own their homes than parents in the other Services. Finally, both DoD and CPS fathers were more likely to own their homes than mothers, who were more likely to rent.

	Table 7.3. Home Ownership Status of Parents of FY 1998 NPS Recruits, by Gender and Service, with Civilian Comparison Group (Percent)										
	Active Component			DoD	Subtotal	То	otal				
			Marine	Air	Active	Guard/					
Residence	Army	Navy	Corps	Force	Duty	Reserve	DoD	CPS			
	FATHERS										
Own	76.1	77.1	76.3	79.5	77.1	79.9	77.8	83.9			
Rent	19.8	17.4	19.4	16.2	18.4	15.8	17.7	15.2			
Other	4.1	5.6	4.3	4.4	4.6	4.3	4.5	1.0			
			1	MOTHERS							
Own	69.2	71.6	69.0	76.0	71.1	73.7	71.7	77.3			
Rent	26.4	22.7	26.7	19.9	24.2	22.0	23.6	21.7			
Other	4.4	5.8	4.4	4.1	4.7	4.4	4.6	1.0			
Source: Civiliar	data from Bu	reau of Labor S	statistics Curre	nt Population S	Survey File, Oc	tober 1997–Sept	ember 1998.				

Employment Status. Table 7.4 reports, by Service, the rates of fathers and mothers who were employed. In the CPS, the civilian labor force is defined as all employed and unemployed civilians 16 years and over.²⁵ Unemployed, however, is limited to those civilians who made a specific effort to

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See Bureau of the Census, *Statistical Abstract of the United States: 1998* (Washington, DC: U.S. Government Printing Office, 1998), pp. 400–401, for a detailed explanation of labor force employment categories and the component parts of each category.

find a job within the past four weeks. All other persons are "not in the labor force." For this report, civilian comparison employment computations are based on all parents in the non-institutional population, including those not in the labor force. The three employment categories (employed, unemployed, not in the labor force) are included because recruits' parents represent the total population, not just the defined "labor force."

DoD recruit mothers were somewhat more likely to be employed than CPS mothers (78 percent for DoD mothers and 73 percent for CPS mothers). Fathers were more likely to be employed than mothers, but there were no differences in employment between CPS and DoD fathers (89 percent of CPS and DoD fathers were employed). Employment rates were very similar across Services and components.

Table 7.4. Employed Parents of FY 1998 NPS Recruits, by Gender and Service, with Civilian Comparison Group (Percent)								
	Active Component DoD Subtotal Total							
Gender of Parent	Army	Navy	Marine Corps	Air Force	Active Duty	Guard/ Reserve	DoD	CPS
Male	88.1	89.3	89.7	92.3	89.5	87.8	89.1	88.7
Female	76.6	76.5	77.9	81.4	77.7	77.7	77.7	73.3
1 0	DoD percentages exclude "no longer living" and "don't know" responses. Source: Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey File, October 1997–September 1998.							

Occupation. ²⁸ Table 7.5 compares the occupations of recruit and CPS parents. Although there was considerable similarity between the occupations held by DoD parents and those held by CPS parents, the data show that DoD parents were underrepresented in certain high-status occupations. Both DoD fathers and mothers were less likely to have either executive, administrative, and managerial occupations, or professional occupations. In addition, DoD fathers were underrepresented in sales occupations. On the other hand, DoD fathers were more likely than CPS fathers to have occupations involving precision production, craft, and repair. They were also slightly more prevalent in protective service and transportation occupations. DoD mothers were more likely than their CPS counterparts to be in service occupations. Finally, both DoD fathers and mothers were more likely to be in the military

2

Approximately 7 percent of recruits' fathers, 16 percent of recruits' mothers, 9 percent of CPS fathers, and 24 percent of CPS mothers were reported as "not in the labor force."

The recruit survey asks recruits whether the parent is currently working at a paid job, in a business, or on a farm, while the CPS asks whether the individual was employed in the last week. Thus, comparisons of employment rates from the two data sets must be interpreted with caution.

To determine occupation, recruits provided open-ended descriptions of their parents' jobs. CPS respondents answered similarly about their own primary occupation. The descriptions were manually coded to 3-digit Census occupation codes, which were then collapsed into 13 major Census categories.

than were CPS parents.²⁹ There were no significant differences between the occupations of Active and Reserve Component parents.

Table 7.5. Parents of FY 1998 NPS Recruits in Each Occupational Category, by Gender and Component, with Civilian Comparison Group (Percent)									
		Fathers			Mothers				
Occupation*	Active	Reserve	CPS	Active	Reserve	CPS			
Executive, Administration, & Managerial	13.8	12.7	18.6	10.7	10.4	13.6			
Professional	8.9	10.7	14.1	15.7	17.2	19.2			
Technicians & Related Services	3.8	3.5	2.6	3.9	4.4	3.8			
Sales	7.3	7.2	10.0	11.0	9.8	9.9			
Clerical & Administrative Support	5.0	4.2	4.7	26.2	24.2	24.5			
Protective Services	4.8	4.0	2.7	1.1	1.0	0.6			
Other Service Occupations	3.8	3.7	4.5	18.2	20.2	16.4			
Farming, Forestry, & Fishing	2.9	3.7	3.8	1.2	1.0	1.2			
Precision Production, Craft, & Repair	27.4	25.8	21.2	3.4	3.1	2.4			
Machine Operators	6.1	7.0	6.9	4.8	5.1	5.7			
Transportation	9.8	11.3	7.5	1.8	2.0	1.2			
Handlers, Helpers, Laborers	3.2	3.3	3.5	1.8	1.5	1.5			
Military	3.3	2.8	**	0.3	0.3	**			

^{*} Those not classified (15.7 percent of male parents and 26.5 percent of female parents) are excluded.

Source: Civilian data from Bureau of Labor Statistics Current Population Survey File, October 1997-September 1998.

Socioeconomic Index Scores. Socioeconomic index scores reflecting the education, income, and prestige associated with individual occupations were computed from responses to DoD and CPS surveys. We used a common scale, the TSEI,30 to indicate occupation prestige for both fathers and mothers.

The TSEI scores ranged from 10 to 81 for both DoD and CPS fathers. Figure 7.1 shows the distribution of TSEI scores for active duty, Reserve Component, and CPS fathers. In addition, the figure shows the Active and Reserve Component representation ratios for each of the TSEI categories. For any range of TSEI scores, this number is the ratio of the percentage of DoD fathers (either active

^{**} Less than one-tenth of one percent.

Differences in the number of parents in the military are due, at least in part, to differences in the way these occupations are coded in the military and civilian surveys. In the CPS data, an occupation is assigned a military code only if the military job cannot be classified in another occupational category. In the DoD data, all parents in the military are assigned a military occupational code.

Hauser, R.M. and Warren, J.R. Socioeconomic Indexes for Occupations: A Review, Update, and Critique (Madison, WI: Center for Demography and Ecology, October 1996).

duty or Reserve Component) in the range to the percentage of CPS fathers in the range. A representation ratio of greater than 1.0 for any TSEI category indicates a greater proportion of DoD parents in the category, compared to CPS parents, while a ratio of less than 1.0 indicates fewer DoD parents in the category, compared to CPS parents. The magnitude of the representation ratio indicates the extent to which the DoD and CPS distributions differ.

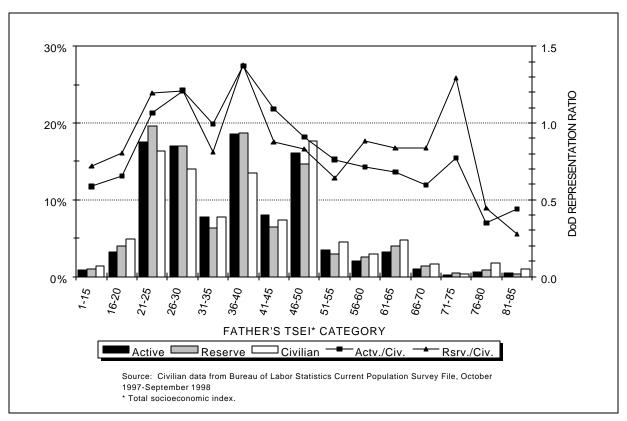


Figure 7.1. TSEI distribution for DoD and CPS fathers with DoD representation ratio.

With one exception, the representation ratios for active duty and Reserve Component fathers were very close; consequently, they will be described together. DoD fathers were underrepresented in the lowest two TSEI categories. This range of scores includes low-status service occupations, as well as some machine operators. The range of TSEI scores from 21 to 50 included over three quarters of the CPS fathers and 85 percent of DoD fathers. This difference produces a representation ratio of 1.1, indicating a slightly larger proportion of DoD fathers than CPS fathers in this range. For TSEI scores between 51 and 75, DoD representation decreased. It averages approximately 0.8 over the range, which encompasses 11 percent of DoD fathers and 14 percent of CPS fathers. DoD representation was lowest for the two highest TSEI categories; one percent of DoD fathers and 3 percent of CPS fathers were included in these categories. Thus, enlisted accessions tend to have fathers with occupations in the middle of the TSEI distribution, with both the high and low extremes underrepresented.

Mothers' TSEI scores ranged from 7 to 81 for both DoD and CPS mothers. As was the case with fathers, the TSEI distribution was similar for Active and Reserve Components. As shown in Figure 7.2, the pattern of results for mothers is similar to the pattern for fathers shown in Figure 7.1. DoD

mothers were underrepresented in both the lowest two and highest four TSEI categories, with representation ratios of approximately 0.8 and 0.6, respectively. In the range of TSEI between 21 and 65, the distribution of DoD mothers matched the distribution of CPS mothers, although it decreased slightly over this range. Overall, this range represented 87 percent of CPS mothers and 89 percent of DoD mothers, for a representation ratio of slightly greater than 1.0. Since the Survey of Recruit Socioeconomic Backgrounds excludes officer accessions, it would be expected to understate the average status of DoD parents.

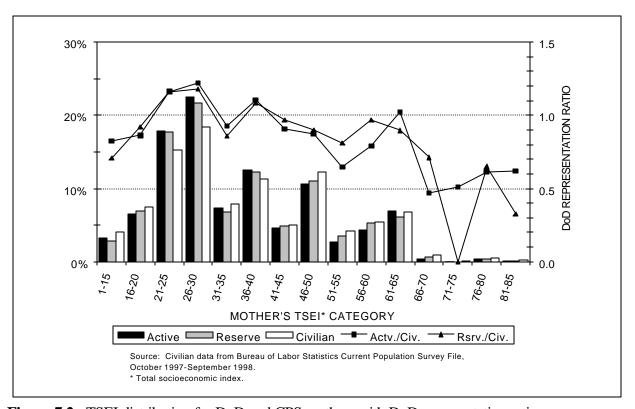


Figure 7.2. TSEI distribution for DoD and CPS mothers with DoD representation ratio.

Although both DoD mothers and fathers were underrepresented in high-status occupations, as measured by the TSEI scales, these occupations represent only a small portion of the overall TSEI distribution in the general population. Figure 7.3 shows the representation of DoD parents from each quartile of the general population. As the quartiles divide CPS parents into equal fourths with regard to TSEI, DoD parents would also be equally divided among the quartiles if they were represented equally at all levels of TSEI. Figure 7.3 shows that the highest quartile of the TSEI distribution was underrepresented among enlisted accessions. The deficit in the fourth quartile was compensated for by an excess in the second quartile, while the first and third quartiles were accurately represented. There were no substantial differences between mothers and fathers or between active duty and Reserve Component accessions. Thus, there is no indication that enlisted personnel are drawn primarily from the lowest social strata.

In summary, enlisted accessions come from all socioeconomic levels. However, there is a tendency for accessions to come from families in the lower three-quarters of the status distribution. These differences are expressed in the occupations of the parents of accessions, as well as

discrepancies in education and home ownership. No systematic differences were discovered between active duty and Reserve Component accessions. Including officer accessions in the analysis would be expected to increase the representation of higher social strata among military accessions, but would probably not eliminate differences between DoD and CPS parents.

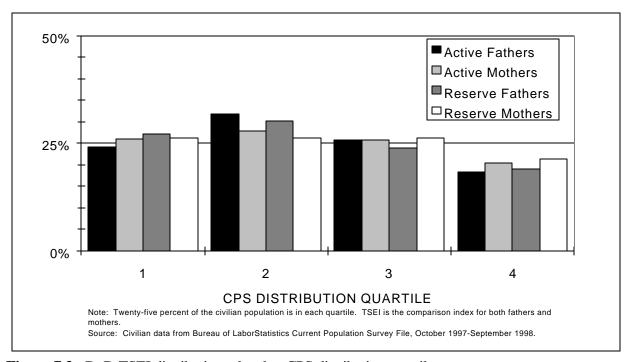


Figure 7.3. DoD TSEI distribution related to CPS distribution quartiles.

Racial and Ethnic Differences in Socioeconomic Status. Racial and ethnic differences in socioeconomic status are reflected in the characteristics of DoD parents, as well as in CPS comparison data. Both Hispanics and Blacks show lower socioeconomic status than Whites using several measures. However, racial and ethnic differences among recruits are less than the comparable differences in the civilian population, as the following discussion illustrates.

Table 7.6 shows the number of parents in the family for White, Black, and Hispanic recruits, and gives comparable percentages for the civilian population. Black youth are much less likely to live with both parents than White youth are. In the civilian population, fewer than half (42 percent) of Black youth live with two parents, while more than three-quarters (76 percent) of White youth and nearly two-thirds of Hispanic youth (65 percent) do. Both White and Hispanic recruits are similar to their CPS counterparts in this respect. Black recruits are more likely than Black CPS youth to live with both parents (50 percent vs. 42 percent), although they are still less likely than either White or Hispanic recruits to live with two parents (75 percent and 67 percent, respectively).

Other measures also indicate the relative disadvantage of minority families within the civilian population, although the patterns vary (Table 7.7). Within the CPS data, 51 percent of Hispanic parents completed high school compared to the overall average of 85 percent. Similarly, White fathers and mothers are more likely to own their home (89 percent and 85 percent, respectively) than are either Black (75 percent and 57 percent, respectively) or Hispanic (65 percent and 58 percent, respectively)

parents. Differences in employment rates are smaller, but indicate greater employment for White parents. Overall differences within the civilian population are summarized by the median TSEI scores, which are highest for White parents and lowest for Hispanic parents, with Black parents obtaining intermediate values.

Table 7.6. Parents in Family of FY 1998 Recruits, by Race/Ethnicity, with Civilian Comparison Group (Percent)								
Adults at Home		DoD CPS						
ridans at Home	White	Black	Hispanic	Total	White	Black	Hispanic	Total
Father, Stepfather, or Male Guardian	7.0	6.0	5.7	6.8	6.1	6.3	6.2	6.2
Mother, Stepmother, or Female Guardian	18.6	44.0	27.1	24.8	17.5	52.2	28.7	23.3
Both	74.5	50.0	67.2	68.5	76.4	41.5	65.0	70.5
Source: Civilian data	from Bureau o	of Labor Statis	tics Current Po	pulation surve	y File, Octobe	r 1997–Septen	nber 1998	

Table 7.7. Selected Characteristics of Parents of FY 1998 NPS Recruits, by Race/Ethnicity, with Civilian Comparison Group									
Highest Level of			oD	omparison	CPS				
Education	White	Black	Hispanic	Total	White	Black	Hispanic	Total	
	FATHERS								
High School Graduate of More	86.0%	82.2%	68.1%	82.7%	90.7%	81.1%	50.8%	84.8%	
Own their Home	82.4%	69.9%	67.5%	78.3%	88.7%	74.9%	65.4%	83.9%	
Currently Employed	90.2%	86.8%	87.1%	89.3%	90.8%	79.9%	84.1%	88.7%	
Median TSEI	36.1	31.3	31.9	36.1	38.5	29.7	25.8	37.0	
			MO	THERS					
High School Graduate of More	86.6%	85.0%	66.1%	83.1%	92.5%	81.2%	51.2%	85.4%	
Own their Home	78.7%	59.0%	60.9%	72.0%	85.0%	56.8%	57.9%	77.3%	
Currently Employed	79.0%	79.9%	70.2%	77.8%	76.6%	70.1%	58.8%	73.3%	
Median TSEI	31.1	30.3	30.3	30.9	35.8	29.7	24.6	31.7	
Source: Civilian data f	rom Bureau of	Labor Statisti	cs Current Pop	ulation Surve	y File, October	r 1997–Septem	nber 1998.		

The disparity in socioeconomic status among CPS parents is represented at a reduced level among DoD parents. In general, White DoD parents have lower values on several different socioeconomic measures than their CPS counterparts, while minority parents of recruits have higher values than do minority CPS parents. As shown in Table 7.7, there is very little difference in median TSEI among DoD mothers, while there is an 11-point range among CPS mothers. Similarly, the difference between racial and ethnic groups among DoD fathers is 5 points or less, compared to a 13-point difference among CPS fathers. Overall, racial and ethnic differences in socioeconomic status among recruit parents reflect differences in the population as a whole, but at a reduced level.

Chapter 8

U. S. COAST GUARD

Background

This year marks a significant addition to the *Population Representation in the Military Services Report*, the U.S. Coast Guard (USCG). While on a day-to-day basis the USCG falls under the jurisdiction of the Department of Transportation, the USCG is at all times an armed force—a full time military organization with a true peacetime mission. During times of war or at the direction of the President, the USCG functionally transfers to the Department of Defense falling under the Secretary of the Navy.

The U.S. Coast Guard is the Nation's oldest continuous seagoing service which can trace its history to 1790 with the introduction of the Revenue Cutter Service, whose mission was the enforcement of the first tariff laws enacted by Congress under the Constitution. What we know as today's Coast Guard is actually a combination of five Federal agencies. In addition to the Cutter Service, these agencies included the Lighthouse Service, the Steamboat Inspection Service, the Bureau of Navigation, and the Lifesaving Service. The multiple missions and responsibilities of today's Coast Guard can be traced back to these initial agencies with four main mission areas today—maritime law enforcement, maritime safety, marine environmental protection, and national security.²

In this chapter, the characteristics of both the Active and Reserve Components of the USCG are presented. Comparisons are presented for applicants (active enlisted only), accessions, and end-strength for enlisted members, officer corps, and warrant officers. Where applicable, these comparisons include overall DoD³ figures and comparable civilian data for reference.

Active Component Enlisted Applicants and Accessions

As with the other Armed Services, the USCG has entrance standards for age, physical fitness, maximum number of dependents, citizenship status, moral character, and mental ability to include minimum scores on the Armed Forces Qualification Test (AFQT). In the following sections various demographic characteristics of USCG active component enlisted applicants and accessions along with similar overall DoD figures and civilian comparisons are reported.

Characteristics of Active Component Non-Prior Service Applicants

In FY 1998, a total of 7,999 individuals without prior military experience applied to serve in the USCG. The distribution of FY 1998 USCG and overall DoD Active Component NPS applicants' race/ethnicity by gender is shown in Table 8.1. Eighty-two percent of the USCG

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USCG International Training Handbook. URL: http://www.uscg.mil/hq/g-ci/sect1.htm p. 2 of 5.

² Ibid., p. 3 of 5.

Overall DoD refers to the combined total of the Army, Navy, Marine Corps, and Air Force.

applicants were male (Appendix Table E-2), of whom 74 percent were White, 7 percent Black, 14 percent Hispanic, and 5 percent "Other." For female applicants, approximately 72 percent were White, 12 percent Black, 11 percent Hispanic, and 5 percent "Other." Additional statistics on applicant characteristics (e.g., age, education levels, AFQT scores, and marital status, by gender and race/ethnicity) are contained in Appendix E, Tables E-1 through E-4 for the USCG and Appendix A for the overall DoD.

Characteristics of Active Component Non-Prior Service Accessions

Of the 7,999 individuals who applied for service in the USCG, a total of 3,552 actually accessed. This number represents a 44-percent accession-to-applicant ratio. The distribution of race/ethnicity by gender for FY 1998 Coast Guard and overall DoD Active Component NPS accessions is shown in Table 8.1. Eighty-five percent of USCG NPS accessions were male (Appendix Table E-6), of whom 81 percent were White, 5 percent Black, 9 percent Hispanic, and 5 percent "Other." Of the female USCG accessions, 79 percent were White, 6 percent Black, 8 percent Hispanic, and 6 percent "Other." Overall, USCG accessions were slightly more likely to be White and male than accessions in DoD as a whole. The percent of USCG accessions who were Black is approximately one quarter of the figure for the overall DoD.

Table 8.1. Race/Ethnicity by Gender of FY 1998 USCG and DoD Active Component NPS Applicants and Accessions, and Civilians 18–24 Years Old (Percent)								
		(Coast Guard		DoD			
Race/Et	hnicity	Male	Female	Total	Male	Femal	le	Total
		NPS ACTIVE CO	OMPONENT	APPLICANTS				
White	e	73.9	72.2	73.6	62.6	53.0)	60.4
Black		7.3	11.5	8.0	20.1	30.0)	22.3
Hispa	nic	13.6	11.0	13.1	10.8	10.0)	10.6
Other	•	5.3	5.3	5.3	6.5	7.1	1	6.6
Total	Total		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0)	100.0
		NPS ACTIVE CO	OMPONENT .	ACCESSIONS				
White	e	81.1	79.1	80.8	65.5	55.0)	63.6
Black		4.9	6.2	5.1	17.1	28.4	1	19.6
Hispa	nic	8.6	8.3	8.6	10.6	9.7	7	10.4
Other	•	5.3	6.4	5.5	6.3	6.9	9	6.4
Total	Total		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0)	100.0
	Non-Institutionalized Civilians 18–24 Years Old							
White	Black	Hispanic	Other	Total	Male	ale Fe		Female
65.9	14.2	15.0	4.9	100.0	50.1			49.9

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Tables A-3 (Applicants for Active Component Enlistment by Race/Ethnicity, Service, and Gender), B-3 (NPS Active Component Enlisted Accessions by Race/Ethnicity, Service, and Gender), E-2 (Coast Guard Applicants for Active Component Enlistment by Race/Ethnicity and Gender), and E-9 (Coast Guard NPS Active Component Enlisted Accessions by Quality, Gender and Race/Ethnicity).

Age. While the overall acceptable age range for enlistment in the Armed Services is between 17 and 35, the USCG further restricts its new accessions to the 17 to 27 age range. In FY 1998, 89 percent of USCG NPS accessions were between the ages of 18 and 24 as compared to 87 percent of overall DoD accessions, and 35 percent of the comparable civilian population. Age differences are explained, in part, by different age requirements in each Service. The Army and Navy (accounting for 64 percent of overall DoD NPS accessions) accept 17 to 35 year olds. For detailed age statistics, see Appendix E, Table E-5 for USCG and Appendix B, Table B-1 for overall DoD figures.

Table 8.2. Education Levels and AFQT Categories of FY 1998 USCG and DoD Active Component NPS Accessions and Civilians 18–24 Years Old (Percent)							
Education Level	Coast Guard	DoD	18- to 24-Year-Old Civilians*				
Tier 1: Regular High School Graduate or Higher	96.9 93.9		78.8				
Tier 2: GED, Alternative Credentials	2.9	5.7	70.0				
Tier 3: No Credentials	0.3	0.4	21.2				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0				
College Experience (Part of Tier 1)	6.0	7.1	45.8				
AFQT (CATEGORY						
M	IALE						
	Coast G	uard	DoD				
I		4.7	4.6				
II		2.4	35.0				
IIIA		0.9	27.8				
IIIB		2.0	31.4				
IV Other/Unknown		0.0	1.1				
Total	100	0.0	100.0				
FE	MALE						
I		3.0	3.0				
II		45.0	32.7				
IIIA		28.4	34.4				
IIIB		23.5	29.7				
IV		0.0	0.2				
Other/Unknown		**	**				
Total		100.0	100.0				

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Tables B-5 (NPS Active Component Enlisted Accessions by AFQT Category, Service, and Gender), B-7 (NPS Active Component Enlisted Accessions by Education, Service, and Gender), E-7 (Coast Guard NPS Active Component Enlisted Accessions by AFQT Category, Gender and Race/Ethnicity), and E-8 (Coast Guard NPS Active Component Enlisted Accessions by Education, Gender and Race/Ethnicity).

Education. As shown in Table 8.2, almost 97 percent of USCG NPS accessions in FY 1998 were regular high school diploma graduates as compared to 94 percent for the overall DoD.

^{*} Civilian numbers and percentages for education combine Tiers 1 and 2 as civilian data include GED certificates with high school graduate rates.

^{**} Less than one-tenth of one percent.

The difference between the USCG and overall DoD can be accounted for in the numbers of GED holders accepted by the USCG (3 percent) compared to DoD (6 percent). For both the USCG and DoD as a whole, the overall percentage of accessions with high school credentials, either diplomas or GED certificates, was more than 99 percent, exceeding the comparable civilian group at 79 percent.

AFQT. The primary measure of a recruit's potential for success in training is his or her AFQT score. Table 8.2 shows FY 1998 USCG accessions were more likely than their DoD counterparts to be in AFQT Categories I – IIIA (i.e., top 50 percent). The overall proportion of FY 1998 USCG accessions in AFQT Categories I–IIIA was comparable to the distribution in the Air Force (78 and 77 percent, respectively).

Active Component Enlisted Force

At the end of FY 1998, the enlisted end-strength of the USCG stood at 27,297, up from the FY 1997 end-strength of 26,847. The FY 1998 Coast Guard enlisted force was 82 percent male and 18 percent female. Relative to the overall DoD, proportionally the Coast Guard has more female enlisted members (18 and 14 percent, respectively).

Characteristics of Active Component Enlisted Force

Race/Ethnicity. The distribution of race/ethnicity by gender for FY 1998 USCG and overall DoD Active Component enlisted members along with the applicable civilian comparison group is shown in Table 8.3. Relative to the comparable civilian population, the USCG enlisted force was slightly more likely to be White (74 and 71 percent, respectively) and slightly less likely to be Black (8 and 12 percent, respectively). Hispanics were underrepresented in DoD (8 percent), as a whole, but in the USCG enlisted force Hispanics (13 percent) were proportional to the civilian comparison group (13 percent).

Table 8.3. Race/Ethnicity by Gender of FY 1998 USCG and DoD Active Component Enlisted Members and Civilians 18–24 Years Old (Percent)									
			Coast Guard		DoD				
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	,	Total	
Race/Eth:	nıcıty	ACTIVE COMPONENT ENLISTED MEMBERS							
White	White		72.2	73.5	65.7	51.6		63.7	
Black	Black		11.5	8.0	20.2	34.8		22.2	
Hispan	Hispanic		11.0	13.1	8.1	7.6		8.0	
Other	Other		5.3	5.3	6.1	6.1		6.1	
Total	Total		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		100.0	
	Civilians 18–44 Years Old								
White	Black	Hispanic	Other	Total	Ma	Male		Female	
70.5	12.3	12.5	4.7	100.0	53	53.6		46.4	

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Table B-25 (Active Component Enlisted Members by Race/Ethnicity, Service, and Gender) and E-15 (Coast Guard Active Component Enlisted Members by Race/Ethnicity and Gender).

Age. The USCG enlisted force tends to be older than the overall DoD enlisted force, but still younger than the comparable civilian group. Forty-four percent of the USCG enlisted force was 30 years of age or older as compared to 35 percent of the overall DoD, and 73 percent of the civilian group (Table 8.4).

Table 8.4. Age and Education Le		SCG and DoD Actions (Percent)	ve Component Enlisted Members
	Coast Guard	DoD	Civilian Comparison
Age			Civilian Labor Force 17 and Older
17–19	6.3	10.6	5.0
20–24	27.4	34.0	9.9
25–29	22.3	20.6	11.6
30–34	16.7	15.0	12.3
35–39	19.5	13.6	13.8
40–44	6.5	4.8	13.7
45–49	1.1	1.1	11.8
50+	0.3	0.2	21.9
Unknown	0.0	0.1	0.0
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Education Level			18- to 44-Year-Old Civilians*
Tier1: Regular High School Graduate or Higher	95.4	95.1	00.1
Tier 2: GED, Alternative Credentials	3.4	3.0	88.1
Tier 3: No Credentials	1.3	1.9	11.9
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
College Experience (Part of Tier 1)	5.0	27.7	54.6

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Tables B-23 (Active Component Enlisted Members by Age Group, Service, and Gender), B-27 (Active Component Enlisted Members by Education, Service, and Gender), E-14 (Coast Guard Active Component Enlisted Members by Age Group and Gender), and E-16 (Coast Guard Active Component Enlisted Members by Education, Gender, and Race/Ethnicity).

Education. Overall, enlisted members of the USCG and DoD, as a whole, were more likely than the comparable civilian group to have high school graduation credentials, but the civilians were more likely to have college experience (Table 8.4). While the USCG participates in tuition assistance programs and the Montgomery GI Bill, the enlisted members of the USCG were less likely than the overall DoD group to have college experience. However, it should be noted that the percentage of individuals with college experience in the overall DoD was skewed; excluding the Air Force (91 percent with some college), enlisted members in the USCG and the Army, Navy, and Marine Corps had the same rate, on average, of post-secondary education (5 percent). Enlisted jobs do not require college experience and thus are generally comparable to civilian occupations not needing college education.

^{*} Civilian numbers and percentages for education combine Tiers 1 and 2 as civilian data include GED certificates with high school graduate rates.

Representation Within Occupations. The representation of USCG enlisted force by race/ethnicity and gender in occupational areas with the overall DoD rates for comparison is presented in Table 8.5. The USCG is unique in that all occupations are open to both men and women—no combat restrictions,⁴ but women were still underrepresented in the "infantry, gun crews, and seamanship specialists" compared to men in the USCG (7 and 16 percent, respectively).

	Table 8.5. Occupational Areas of FY 1998 USCG and DoD Active Component Enlisted Personnel by Race/Ethnicity and Gender (Percent)									
			Coast Guard							
Occ	Occupational Code and Area Male Female White Black Hispanic Other Total							DoD Total		
0	Infantry, Gun Crews, and Seamanship Specialists	15.8	7.1	16.7	3.6	9.6	10.6	14.9	16.9	
1	Electronic Equipment Repairers	11.4	5.2	10.9	7.5	11.7	13.0	10.8	9.3	
2	Communications and Intelligence Specialists	5.2	7.0	5.3	6.8	5.6	5.3	5.4	8.7	
3	Medical and Dental Specialists	2.4	5.8	2.5	4.5	3.9	3.8	2.8	7.1	
4	Other Allied Specialists	5.2	3.9	5.3	3.8	3.5	5.2	5.1	3.0	
5	Functional Support and Administration	12.6	36.5	12.4	39.3	17.7	17.4	15.0	16.0	
6	Electrical/Mechanical Equipment Repairers	15.9	3.7	15.2	11.0	13.0	13.4	14.7	20.1	
7	Craftsmen	13.7	3.2	13.3	8.2	11.5	10.5	12.7	3.6	
8	Service and Supply Handlers	1.2	**	1.2	0.1	0.7	1.0	1.1	8.5	
9	Non-Occupational*	16.5	27.6	17.2	15.3	22.7	19.8	17.6	6.8	
Tota	al	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Table B-29 (Active Component Enlisted Members by Occupational Area, Service, and Gender) and E-17 (Coast Guard Active Component Enlisted Members by Occupational Area, Gender, and Race/Ethnicity).

Historically, all new USCG enlisted members were directly assigned to field units before attending specialty training in the A-schools where the introductory job-specific training courses are taught. Presently an effort is being made to assign more recruits directly to A-schools in critical specialties. Approximately 15 percent of USCG recruits go directly to advanced training after basic training. A USCG member is admitted to any A-school for which he or she is qualified based on the individual's Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB) scores.⁵ Training takes place as openings become available, which may explain the higher percentage of non-occupationals in the USCG enlisted force compared to the overall DoD (18 and 7 percent, respectively).

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^{*} Non-occupational includes patients, students, those with unassigned duties, and unknowns.

^{**} Less than one-tenth of one percent.

⁴ USCG Recruiting Frequently Asked Questions. URL: http://www.uscg.mil/jobs/faq.htm, p. 3 of 11.

USCG Recruiting Frequently Asked Questions. URL: http://www.uscg.mil/jobs/faq.htm, p. 10 of 11.

Active Component Officers

The USCG uses a variety of programs to produce its commissioned officers. These include programs for both civilians and active USCG enlisted members and warrant officers to become commissioned officers. In FY 1998, the USCG commissioned a total of 390 new officers. The USCG commissioned officer corps stood at 5,530 at the end of FY 1998. In Table 8.6, the distribution of new USCG officers (accessions) and current officers (corps) by source of commission and level of education is presented with applicable overall DoD figures for comparison.

Characteristics of Active Component Commissioned Officers

Source of Commission. The USCG relies heavily on the U. S. Coast Guard Academy for its officer accessions. The USCG gets almost half of its new officers from its Academy as compared to 19 percent for DoD as a whole, as shown in Table 8.6. This large difference can be at least partially explained by the fact that the USCG does not have an ROTC program. The fact that an even greater proportion of the USCG officer corps were Academy graduates is an indication that the retention rate for graduates is higher than for the other sources of officers.

Table 8.6. FY 1998 USCG and DoD Active Component Officer Accessions and Officer Corps by Source of Commission and Educational Attainment (Percent)							
	Officer Ac	cessions	Officer Corps				
	Coast Guard	DoD	Coast Guard	DoD			
Source of Commission							
Academy	44.6	18.9	53.0	18.1			
ROTC – Scholarship	0.0	28.0	0.0	20.0			
ROTC – No Scholarship	0.0	11.5	0.0	20.7			
OCS/OTS	38.3	18.6	36.1	19.1			
Direct Appointment	17.1	17.1	10.9	17.3			
Other	0.0	5.8	0.0	4.9			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			
Education Level							
Less than College Graduate	23.4	4.9	16.1	2.4			
College Graduate (B.A., B.S., etc.)	70.2	81.0	69.6	54.0			
Advanced Degree (M.A., Ph.D., etc.)	6.4	14.1	14.3	43.6			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Percentages do not include "Unknown" data.

Also see Appendix Tables B-35 (Active Component Officer Accessions and Officer Corps by Education and Service), B-40 (Active Component Officer Accessions by Source of Commission, Service, and Gender), B-41 (Active Component Officer Corps by Source of Commission, Service, and Gender), E-20 (Coast Guard Active Component Officer Accessions and Officer Corps by Education), and E-22 (Coast Guard Active Component Officer Accessions and Officer Corps by Source of Commission, Gender, and Race/Ethnicity).

Educational Attainment. Table 8.6 shows that USCG officer accessions and members of the officer corps were less likely than their overall DoD counterparts to possess a college degree. The USCG has two commissioning programs that provide opportunities for a commission without a college degree. An enlisted member of the USCG who has attained the grade of E-5 and has at least 30 college credits can apply to attend the USCG's Officer Candidate School (OCS), thereby making a commission possible without college completion. In a related program, a USCG member who achieves the rank of chief warrant officer may apply for OCS attendance or a commission via the "Warrant-to-Lieutenant" program.⁶ These programs are indicative of USCG's emphasis on experience and education in its commissioning decisions.

Race/Ethnicity and Gender. The USCG percentage of Whites was slightly higher than the overall DoD rate for officer accessions (82 and 79 percent, respectively) and officers (88 and 84 percent, respectively), as shown in Table 8.7. By gender, 19 percent of both the USCG and overall DoD officer accessions were female, but members of the USCG's officer corps were slightly more likely to be male than were DoD officers (89 and 86 percent, respectively).

Table 8.7. Race/Ethnicity and Gender of FY 1998 USCG and DoD Active Component Officer Accessions and Officer Corps (Percent)							
	Officer A	Accessions	C	Officer Corps			
	Coast Guard	DoD	Coast Guard	DoD			
Race/Ethnicity							
White	82.1	79.3	88.1	84.3			
Black	6.2	8.5	4.1	7.7			
Hispanic	5.9	4.3	3.8	3.3			
Other	5.9	7.9	3.9	4.7			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			
Gender							
Male	81.0 80.9 88.9 85						
Female	19.0 19.1 11.1 14.4						
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Tables B-32 (Active Component Officer Accessions and Officer Corps by Gender and Service), B-34 (Active Component Officer Accessions and Officer Corps by Race/Ethnicity and Service), and E-19 (Coast Guard Active Component Officer Accessions and Officer Corps by Race/Ethnicity and Gender).

Representation Within Occupations. As was noted previously, the USCG does not have any combat restrictions—all occupations are open to both men and women. By gender, USCG female officers were underrepresented in tactical operations and engineering and maintenance, and overrepresented in the non-occupational area (Table 8.8). By race/ethnicity, minority officers were overrepresented in the non-occupational area; Black officers were underrepresented in tactical operations; Hispanic officers were underrepresented in engineering and maintenance. Compared to the overall DoD, the USCG officer corps comprised, proportionally, more engineering and maintenance officers and fewer health care providers. The difference in health care can be partially explained by the USCG's reliance on the Public Health Service for some of its medical and dental care.

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USCG Recruiting Frequently Asked Questions. URL: http://www.uscg.mil/jobs/faq.htm, pp. 6 and 7 of 11.

Table 8.8. Occupational Areas of FY 1998 USCG and DoD Active Component Officer Personnel by Race/Ethnicity and Gender (Percent)										
		Ruce/ Etimi		oast Guard	(0111)					
Occupational Area	Male	USCG								
General Officers and Executives	0.6	0.0	0.6	0.4	0.0	0.0	0.5	0.4		
Tactical Operations	42.8	36.6	42.9	29.0	42.5	38.1	42.1	38.4		
Intelligence	0.5	0.2	0.5	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.4	5.0		
Engineering and Maintenance	33.8	29.9	33.5	35.1	24.5	35.3	33.3	11.7		
Scientists and Professionals	1.6	2.3	1.8	1.3	0.5	0.9	1.7	4.9		
Health Care	0.3	0.0	0.3	0.0	0.5	0.0	0.2	18.9		
Administration	9.5	9.8	9.6	8.8	10.4	6.9	9.5	6.0		
Supply, Procurement, and Allied Occupations	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	8.7		
Non-Occupational	10.6	20.8	10.4	25.0	21.2	18.4	11.7	6.0		
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Table B-38 (Active Component Officer Corps by Occupational Area, Service, and Gender) and E-22 (Coast Guard Active Component Officer Corps by Occupational Area, Gender, and Race/Ethnicity).

Characteristics of Active Component Warrant Officers

In FY 1998, the USCG accessed a total of 204 new warrant officers and the warrant officer end-strength was 1,472. The distribution by race/ethnicity and gender of USCG warrant officer accessions and warrant officers with overall DoD rates for comparison is presented in Table 8.9. In general, both USCG warrant officer accessions and warrant officers were more likely to be White and male than their overall DoD counterparts.

Table 8.9. FY 1998 USCG and DoD Active Component Warrant Officer Accessions and Officer Corps by Race/Ethnicity and Gender (Percent)								
	Warrant Offic	er Accessions	Warra	ant Officer Corps				
	Coast Guard	DoD	Coast Guard	DoD				
Race/Ethnicity								
White	85.3	70.5	90.0	75.8				
Black	7.4	19.6	4.6	15.1				
Hispanic	4.4	5.5	3.1	4.5				
Other	2.9	4.4	2.5	4.6				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0				
Gender								
Male	95.6 91.6 97.3 93.7							
Female	4.4 8.4 2.7 6.4							
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0				

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Tables B-44 (Active Component Warrant Officer Accessions and Warrant Officer Corps by Gender and Service), B-45 (Active Component Warrant Officer Accessions and Warrant Officer Corps by Race/Ethnicity and Service), and E-23 (Coast Guard Active Component Warrant Officer Accessions and Warrant Officers by Race/Ethnicity and Gender).

Coast Guard Reserve

In FY 1998, the USCG Reserve accessed a total of 1,813 new enlisted personnel. Of these, 322 (18 percent) had no prior military experience, and 1,491 (82 percent) had served in the Armed Forces previously.

Characteristics of USCG Reserve Enlisted Accessions

Race and Gender. Compared to the overall DoD, USCG Reserve enlisted accessions were more likely to be White, as shown in Table 8.10. In FY 1998, 85 percent of USCG Reserve NPS enlisted accessions were male and 15 percent were female (Appendix E, Table E-6).

Т	Table 8.10. Race by Gender of FY 1998 USCG and DoD Reserve Component Enlisted Accessions and Civilians (Percent)								
			Coast Guard	(2 2 2 3)		DoD			
Race		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total		
	NON-PRIOR SERVICE								
White		79.1	76.6	78.6	72.4	60.1	69.5		
Black		14.7	15.6	14.9	14.3	28.6	17.7		
Hispan	nic	*	*	*	7.8	6.3	7.4		
Other		6.2	7.8	6.5	5.5	5.1	5.4		
Total		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		
		PRI	OR SERVICE						
White		89.6	87.6	89.3	70.9	58.6	69.0		
Black		4.2	6.2	4.5	17.7	31.3	19.9		
Hispan	nic	*	*	*	7.0	5.5	6.7		
Other		6.2	6.2	6.2	4.4	4.6	4.5		
Total		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		
		TOTAL	L ACCESSIO	NS					
White		87.8	85.0	87.4	71.5	59.3	69.2		
Black		6.0	8.4	6.3	16.4	30.0	19.0		
Hispan	nic	*	*	*	7.3	5.8	7.0		
Other		6.2	6.6	6.2	4.8	4.9	4.8		
Total		100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		
	18–2	24/20–39 Year-O	ld Non-Institu	tionalized Civi	ilians				
White	Black	Hispanic	Other	Total	M	ale	Female		
65.9/69.8	14.2/12.6	15.0/12.8	4.9/4.7	100.0	50.1	/54.0	49.9/46.0		

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Tables C-3 (NPS Selected Reserve Enlisted Accessions by Race/Ethnicity, Component, and Gender), C-11 (Prior Service Selected Reserve Enlisted Accessions by Race/Ethnicity, Component, and Gender), E-26 (NPS Coast Guard Reserve Enlisted Accessions by AFQT Category, Gender, and Race/Ethnicity), and E-29 (Prior Service Coast Guard Reserve Enlisted Accessions by Race/Ethnicity and Gender).

Educational Attainment. Table 8.11 shows that 86 percent of FY 1998 USCG Reserve accessions had earned high school diplomas compared with 97 percent active Coast Guard NPS accessions and 92 percent of overall DoD Reserve accessions. The USCG Reserve accessed more individuals, proportionally, with GEDs than did the overall DoD. Relative to the

^{*} Coast Guard Reserve reports racial data only.

comparable civilian group, USCG Reserve enlisted accessions were more likely to have high school credentials.

Table 8.11. Education Level of FY 1998 USCG and DoD Reserve Component									
Accessions and Civilians (Percent)									
	Coast		Civilian						
Education Level	Guard	DoD	Comparison*						
NON-PRIOR SERVICE RESERVE CO	MPONENT A	ACCESSION	NS						
Tier 1: Regular High School Graduate or Higher	82.6	86.0							
Tier 2: GED, Alternative Credentials	17.1	5.1	78.8**						
Tier 3: No Credentials	0.3	8.9	21.2						
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0						
College Experience (Part of Tier 1)	15.8	4.4	45.8						
PRIOR SERVICE RESERVE COMP	ONENT AC	CESSIONS							
Tier 1: Regular High School Graduate or Higher	87.2	95.7							
Tier 2: GED, Alternative Credentials	11.8	2.8	89.1**						
Tier 3: No Credentials	1.0	1.5	10.9						
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0						
College Experience (Part of Tier 1)	23.4	7.8	56.1						
TOTAL RESERVE COMPONE	ENT ACCESS	SIONS							
Tier 1: Regular High School Graduate or Higher	86.4	91.8							
Tier 2: GED, Alternative Credentials	12.7	3.7							
Tier 3: No Credentials	0.9	4.5							
Total	100.0	100.0							
College Experience (Part of Tier 1)	22.1	6.4							

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Characteristics of Reserve Component Enlisted Force

At the end of FY 1998, the USCG Reserve enlisted force stood at 6,312. The race by gender distribution of these enlisted members is presented in Table 8.12.

Race and Gender. Overall, USCG Reserve enlisted members were more likely to be White than either the overall DoD or the comparable civilian group. USCG Reserve enlisted members were also slightly less likely to be female than were their DoD counterparts.

Age. In general, USCG Reserve enlisted members tend to be older than the DoD comparison group. Almost 43 percent of USCG Reserve enlisted members were 40 years of age or older, while only 23 percent of the DoD Reserve comparison group fell into this category, but more than 47 percent of the civilian comparison group was 40 or older (Table 8.13). This can be explained, in part, by the proportion of prior service individuals in each Service. The Coast Guard Reserve relies more on prior service recruits to fill its enlisted ranks than the overall DoD Reserve Components (82 and 61 percent prior service accessions in FY 1998, respectively). Therefore, members of the USCG enlisted force joined the Coast Guard Reserve at an older age, on average, than those joining the overall DoD Reserve Components.

^{*} NPS civilian comparison is 18–24 year-old civilians; prior service civilian comparison is 20–39 year-old civilian labor force.

^{**} Civilian numbers/percentages for education combine Tiers 1&2 as civilian data include GED certificates with high school graduate rates. Also see Appendix Tables C-7 (NPS Selected Reserve Enlisted Accessions by Education, Component, and Gender), C-14 (Prior Service Reserve Enlisted Accessions by Education, Component, and Race/Ethnicity), E-27 (NPS Coast Guard Reserve Enlisted Accessions by Education and Race/Ethnicity), and E-30 (Prior Service Coast Guard Reserve Enlisted Accessions by Education and Race/Ethnicity).

Table	Table 8.12. Race by Gender of FY 1998 USCG and DoD Reserve Component Enlisted Members							
		and Civilian	Labor Force 18	-49 Years Old	d (Percent)			
			Coast Guard			I	OoD	
Race	e	Male	Female	Total	Male	Fema	le	Total
			Reserved Enlist	ted Members				
Whi	te	91.9	83.1	90.7	72.1	58.	3	70.0
Blac	k	4.5	11.9	5.5	15.6 30.3 17.8			
Hisp	anic	*	*	*	7.7	6.	4	7.5
Othe	er	3.7	5.0	3.8	4.6	5.	1	4.7
Tota	ıl	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.	0	100.0
Civilian Labor Force 18–49 Years Old								
White	Black	Hispanic	Other	Total	Male Female			
71.6	12.1	11.7	4.6	100.0	53.4	ļ		46.6

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Educational Attainment. More than 99 percent of the USCG Reserve enlisted members have at least high school credentials, exceeding the civilian comparison of 89 percent (Table 8.13). As far as college experience, USCG Reserve enlisted members were more likely than their DoD Reserve counterparts to have college experience, but less likely than the civilian comparison group to have at least some college.

Table 8.13. Age and Education Level of FY 1998 USCG and DoD Reserve Component Enlisted Members and Civilians (Percent)								
2.	Coast	is and environment (1						
	Guard	DoD	Civilian Comparison					
Age			Civilian Labor Force					
17–19	2.8	7.4	5.0					
20–24	9.4	18.9	9.9					
25–29	16.0	19.3	11.6					
30–34	13.3	16.5	12.3					
35–39	15.8	15.0	13.8					
40–44	13.1	9.3	13.7					
45–49	12.5	6.8	11.8					
50+	17.2	6.7	21.9					
Unknown	0.0	0.1	0.0					
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0					
Education Level			18- to 49-Year-Old Civilian Labor Force					
Tier 1: Regular High School								
Graduate or Higher	87.5	97.7	88.6*					
Tier 2: GED, Alternative								
Credentials	11.9	1.2						
Tier 3: No Credentials	0.7	1.2	11.4					
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0					
College Experience (Part of Tier 1)	36.2	19.7	55.7					

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

^{*} Coast Guard Reserve reports racial data only.

Also see Appendix Table C-17 (Selected Reserve Enlisted Members by Race/Ethnicity, Component, and Gender) and E-32 (Coast Guard Reserve Enlisted Members by Race/Ethnicity and Gender).

^{*} Civilian numbers/percentages for education combine Tiers 1 and 2 as civilian data include GED certificates with high school graduate rates. Also see Appendix Tables C-15 (Selected Reserve Enlisted Members by Age Group, Component, and Gender), C-19 (Selected Reserve Enlisted Members by Education, Component, and Gender), E-31 (Coast Guard Reserve Enlisted Members by Age Group and Gender), and E-33 (Coast Guard Enlisted Members by Education, Gender, and Race/Ethnicity).

Representation Within Occupations. FY 1998 occupational representation of the USCG Reserve enlisted force by gender and race is presented in Table 8.14. Female and Black USCG Reserve enlisted members were overrepresented in the functional support and administration occupational area (50 and 34 percent, respectively, compared to 16 percent for the USCG Reserve as a whole). Relative, proportionally, to DoD, the USCG had more craftsmen, and service and supply handlers; and fewer electrical/mechanical equipment repairers and medical and dental specialists. Some of the difference between the USCG Reserve and DoD Reserve Components in the medical and dental specialties may be explained by the fact that the USCG uses both internal and external sources (i.e., Public Health Service personnel) for medical/dental services.

Table 8.14. Occupational Areas of FY 1998 USCG and DoD Reserve Component Enlisted Personnel by Race and Gender (Percent)								l
			(Coast Guai	rd			
		_					USCG	DoD
Occupational Code and Area	Male	Female	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	Total	Total
Infantry, Gun Crews, and Seamanship Specialists	21.4	13.3	21.1	11.3	*	14.9	20.3	18.6
1. Electronic Equipment Repairers	4.6	1.6	4.2	2.9	*	6.2	4.2	4.6
2. Communications and Intelligence Specialists	2.7	6.2	3.1	2.9	*	2.5	3.1	4.9
3. Medical and Dental Specialists	1.6	3.9	1.8	2.3	*	1.7	1.9	6.8
4. Other Allied Specialists	4.4	2.1	4.0	4.1	*	5.8	4.1	2.7
5. Functional Support and Administration	10.7	49.6	14.4	34.0	*	20.3	15.7	18.4
Electrical/Mechanical Equipment Repairers	6.1	1.2	5.6	2.6	*	6.6	5.4	16.6
7. Craftsmen	16.1	2.2	14.7	9.0	*	11.6	14.3	5.8
8. Service and Supply Handlers	25.3	9.4	23.8	18.0	*	18.7	23.3	10.3
9. Non-Occupational**	7.3	10.4	7.3	12.8	*	11.6	7.7	11.2
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	*	100.0	100.0	100.0

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Table C-21 (Selected Reserve Enlisted Members by Occupational Area, Component, and Gender) and E-34 (Coast Guard Reserve Enlisted Members by Occupational Area, Gender, and Race/Ethnicity).

Characteristics of Reserve Component Commissioned Officers

In FY 1998, the USCG Reserve accessed a total of 144 new officers and the overall Reserve officer corps end-strength stood at 1,059. By race/ethnicity and gender, both the new Reserve officers and members of the overall USCG Reserve officer corps were more likely to be White and male than were their DoD Reserve counterparts, as shown in Table 8.15.

Source of Commission. Table 8.16 presents source of commission for Reserve officer accessions and Reserve officers in the Coast Guard and overall DoD Reserve Components. The most often cited source of commission for both new USCG Reserve officer accessions and members of the USCG Reserve officer corps was "Other," which includes officers trained in one Service, but accessed or serving in another Service. The remainder of new officer accessions or

^{*} Coast Guard Reserve reports racial data only.

^{**}Non-occupational includes patients, students, those with unassigned duties, and unknowns.

officer corps members were commissioned via either OCS or the Coast Guard Academy. The Coast Guard Reserve does not have an ROTC program.

Table 8.15. Race and Gender of FY 1998 USCG and DoD Reserve Component Officer Accessions and Officer Corps (Percent)								
	Reserve Office	r Accessions	Reserve Off	icer Corps				
	Coast Guard	DoD	Coast Guard	DoD				
Race								
White	85.4	83.8	91.5	84.3				
Black	5.6	8.7	3.5	8.5				
Hispanic	*	3.1	*	3.4				
Other	9.0	4.5	5.0	3.9				
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0				
Gender								
Male	88.9 81.1 86.9 81.							
Female	11.1 18.9 13.1 18.							
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0				

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Educational Attainment. Almost one-in-five of Coast Guard Reserve officer accessions and officer corps members (both 19 percent) were not college graduates (Table 8.16). As was mentioned for the Active Component officer corps, USCG has specialized programs that offer commissions to enlisted members who are traditionally less likely to have college credentials.

Table 8.16. FY 1998 USCG and DoD Reserve Component Officer Accessions and Officer Corps by Source of							
Commission and Educational Attainment (Percent)							
	Reserve Offic	er Accessions	Reserve Officer Corps				
	Coast Guard	DoD	Coast Guard	DoD			
Source of Commission							
Academy	0.7	8.9	0.3	5.0			
ROTC – Scholarship	0.0	11.9	0.0	9.6			
ROTC – No Scholarship	0.0	16.0	0.0	23.2			
OCS/OTS	40.3	16.6	19.4	13.3			
ANG AMS/ARNG OCS	0.0	7.2	0.0	16.4			
Direct Appointment	0.0	27.2	0.0	29.9			
Other	59.0	12.3	80.4	2.5			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			
Education Level							
Less than College Graduate	18.8	14.4	19.3	10.0			
College Graduate (B.A., B.S., etc.)	66.0	61.5	58.7	58.3			
Advanced Degree (M.A., Ph.D., etc.)	15.3	24.1	22.0	31.7			
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0			

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Tables C-28 (Selected Reserve Officer Accessions and Officers by Education), C-33 (Selected Reserve Officer Accessions by Source of Commission), C-34 (Selected Reserve Officers by Source of Commission), and E-37 (Coast Guard Selected Reserve Officer Accessions and Officers by Education), and E-40 (Coast Guard Reserve Officer Accessions and Officers by Source of Commission).

Representation Within Occupations. Unlike the Active Component, USCG Reserve officer corps females were equally represented with their male counterparts in tactical operations

^{*} Coast Guard Reserve reports racial data only.

Also see Appendix Tables C-25 (Selected Reserve Officer Accessions and Officers by Gender), C-27 (Selected Reserve Officer Accessions and Officers by Race/Ethnicity), and E-36 (Coast Guard Reserve Officer Accessions and Officer Corps by Race/Ethnicity and Gender).

(Table 8.17). But, similar to the Active Component Coast Guard, women in the USCG Reserve were underrepresented in engineering and maintenance and overrepresented in non-occupational areas. Black USCG Reserve officers were underrepresented in tactical operations.

Table 8.17. Occupational Areas of FY 1998 USCG and DoD Reserve Component Officer Personnel by Race and Gender (Percent)								
	Coast Guard							
							USCG	DoD
Occupational Area	Male	Female	White	Black	Hispanic	Other	Total	Total
General Officers and Executives	0.5	0.0	0.5	0.0	*	0.0	0.5	0.5
Tactical Operations	27.3	27.3	28.5	21.6	*	9.4	27.3	33.9
Intelligence	3.6	3.6	3.4	2.7	*	7.6	3.6	5.1
Engineering and Maintenance	30.9	20.9	29.8	35.1	*	20.8	29.6	10.1
Scientists and Professionals	1.3	1.4	1.3	2.7	*	0.0	1.3	6.4
Health Care	0.8	0.7	0.8	0.0	*	0.0	0.8	21.3
Administration	3.8	5.8	4.2	2.7	*	1.9	4.1	7.7
Supply, Procurement, and Allied	0.5	0.0	0.5	0.0	*	0.0	0.5	10.5
Occupations	21.2	40.2	20.0	25.1	*	c0 4	20.5	1.6
Non-Occupational	31.3	40.3	30.9	35.1	·	60.4	32.5	4.6
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	*	100.0	100.0	100.0

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Table C-32 (Selected Reserve Officers by Occupational Area, Component, and Race/Ethnicity) and E-39 (Coast Guard Reserve Officers by Occupational Area, Gender, and Race/Ethnicity).

Characteristics of Reserve Component Warrant Officers

In FY 1998, the USCG Reserve accessed a total of 24 new warrant officers; their endstrength was 216. The proportion of both USCG warrant officer accessions and warrant officers who were female was higher than the comparable rate for DoD. Any differences between the USCG and overall DoD information should be interpreted with caution given the small numbers of USCG Reserve warrant officer accessions and warrant officers (Table 8.18).

Table 8.18. FY 1998 USCG and DoD Reserve Component Warrant Officer Accessions and Officer Corps by Race and Gender (Percent)						
	`	rrant Officer	Reserve Warrant Officer Corps			
	Accessions			•		
	USCG	DoD	USCG	DoD		
Race						
White	91.7	81.4	90.7	89.5		
Black	4.2	10.0	6.9	5.1		
Hispanic	*	4.8	*	3.1		
Other	4.2	3.7	2.3	2.3		
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		
Gender						
Male	83.3	88.2	87.5	93.6		
Female	16.7	11.8	12.5	6.4		
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0		

Columns may not add to total due to rounding.

Also see Appendix Tables C-35 (Selected Reserve Warrant Officer Accessions and Warrant Officers by Gender and Component), C-36 (Selected Reserve Warrant Officer Accessions and Warrant Officers by Race/Ethnicity and Component) and E-41 (Coast Guard Reserve Warrant Officer Accessions and Warrant Officers by Race/Ethnicity and Gender).

^{*} Coast Guard Reserve reports racial data only.

^{*} Coast Guard Reserve reports racial data only.

Closing

While the Coast Guard's organizational positioning is unique—part of one cabinet level department during peace (Transportation) and another during war or under Presidential direction (Defense)—its contributions to national defense have been significant. The USCG represents the oldest continuous seagoing service in this country and has fought in almost every war since implementation of the U.S. Constitution to include battles with pirates, the War of 1812, the Mexican War, the Seminole Indian uprising, the Spanish-American war, both world wars, Korea, Vietnam⁷, and most recently the Persian Gulf War, where the USCG was the only Armed Service with the ship search capabilities necessary to make the embargo of seagoing goods a success.

On a daily basis numerous Coast Guard personnel are serving in joint billets and as part of joint task forces (e.g., drug interdiction) falling under direct oversight of the Department of Defense. The USCG truly is a full-time military organization with a genuine peacetime mission.

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U.S. Coast Guard: A Historical Overview. URL: http://www.uscg.mil/g-cp/history/h_USCGhistory.html.p. 3 of 9.

Chapter 9

TWENTY-FIVE YEARS OF THE ALL VOLUNTEER FORCE

Personnel and Mission Changes

The U.S. Armed Forces observed the 25th anniversary of the All Volunteer Force (AVF) in 1998. The recognition of this benchmark brings with it the challenges of an ever-changing constellation of military personnel issues. Service today is a matter of choice. As a result, the military must attract its members from a broad demographic base. Military personnel are, in general, younger, more likely to be female, and more likely to be married than ever before. These and other factors place quality-of-life matters at the forefront of human resource interests and force management.

The 25-year old AVF is a very active one. Since its inception, it has not only been deployed all over the world, but it is currently deployed in capacities beyond warfighting. Various public opinion surveys suggest that despite the non-customary nature of today's military operations, there is broad public support to use American troops abroad for peacekeeping, peacemaking, and other non-traditional military operations.

When the AVF was formed 25 years ago, the strategic environment in which the military operated was, in many ways, more transparent than it is today. Distinguishing between enemies and allies was easier, and international relations were more reliable and less volatile. When the Cold War ended, so did the era of superpower rivalry and thus, strategic predictability. This post-Cold War world has drawn the military into regional conflicts, civil wars, and ethnic disputes beyond traditional U.S. security interests. It is no small matter that the international events eliciting American military response today include not only direct U.S. security concerns but also decisions about humanitarian aid and ethical issues. It is an important and perplexing task to try to understand how the military's evolving missions affect today's military recruiting and personnel management.

Competing for Recruits

Because the U.S. economy has enjoyed a spate of economic success the past few years, with low unemployment rates and increased job opportunities for more and varied groups, the supply of quality military applicants has been tight. The economic detractors from recruiting are compounded by growing college enrollment rates among youth of enlistment age. Without the draft to press youth into service, the military must compete for qualified recruits. While a military career, or even one term of service, offers many tangible and intangible benefits to include pay, job training, educational opportunities, adventure, discipline, and pride, it carries significant burdens not the least of which include separation from family, danger, and other routine hardships.

As always, reliance on all demographic and social segments in the United States is imperative. Issues of representation arise not just under a draft or in times of war when it is anathema that the defense of the nation would fall disproportionately on selected groups. Representation remains a concern today. Each subgroup represented in the military, whether racial/ethnic, gender, or otherwise, brings with it unique experiences, concerns, and needs.

Understanding the opportunities and experiences of all potential personnel allows military human resource planners to prepare for future trends. Given fierce labor market competition, increased college enrollment, a rapid operating tempo and other factors increasing the complexity of recruiting, military personnel policymakers today face significant challenges. After 25 years of maintaining a successful volunteer military, it is timely to reflect on what has made it successful and what factors challenge that success.

Declining Representation

Attracting new members depends in part on perceptions that the military is a viable career path and an honorable calling. Without the draft to call varied segments of society into service, the over- or underrepresentation of various ethnic/racial and economic subgroups in the military is to be expected. Traditionally, Black Americans have participated in the military at higher proportions than their overall representation in the general population, but Asian-Americans and Hispanics tend to be underrepresented. While this is so, the military's commitment to equal opportunity and advancement for all its members is strong. It is notable that Eric Shinseki, a Japanese-American, recently became the Army's 34th Chief of Staff, one of the highest-profile positions in the Army, and the current Secretary of the Army, Louis Caldera, is Hispanic. Trying to narrow the gap in Hispanic representation, Secretary Caldera has been travelling around the United States speaking to young Hispanic audiences telling them that the Army both wants and needs them. As he explained to one audience, "It's important that the Army represent the great diversity of this nation. ... We have to have a nation that pulls together across ethnic lines."

With these examples in the Army and examples in the other Services, minority visibility within the military may have an impact on increasing the numbers of those groups that have traditionally been underrepresented. Or, it may take more proactive methods, such as the approach Secretary Caldera is undertaking, to increase the proportions of those in underrepresented groups.

Much research defining the relationship between propensity to enlist and socioeconomic status suggests that when there are economic downturns, individuals will increasingly turn to military or public service as alternative employment. This has been true especially for Black Americans who have historically been left out of the rewards of even a strong economy. Compared to the early 1970s when the AVF was just underway, the U.S. is now experiencing economic prosperity. Despite the continued chronic economic disparity between majority and minority members, the latter groups are experiencing a comparative cultural and economic boom.

For example, in general, employment, income levels and college enrollment for Black Americans are at an all-time high and so is their optimism for a better future. While this is good news overall, it may be bittersweet for the military. The military may find that as Blacks have more economic options available to them, fewer numbers may enlist. Although Blacks are still overrepresented in the military relative to youth population proportions, Hispanics are underrepresented despite their growing population counts. One challenge that the military must face is how to project an image of viable career contender for all Americans regardless of economic conditions.

College graduates are another segment of society that is underrepresented in the military's enlisted ranks. Since the military recruits heavily from the high school graduate population, and the trend indicates an increasing number of high school graduates are college bound, it is reasonable to assume college graduates will remain underrepresented among the active-duty enlisted corps. However, college graduates are well represented among the officer corps and among the reserves, so the issue of representation is not one of equity, as in the case of race or gender, but concerns enlistment supply. Defense must grapple with how to attract recruits from the growing segment of enlistment-aged youth who are college oriented.

These socioeconomic and demographic trends are important and dynamic forces in American society and culture. Because the military relies exclusively on volunteers for its personnel, it must recognize and work with these societal trends. Understanding the economic opportunities available to different groups, the population projections of ethnic and racial minorities, and various other population trends will provide the military with some of the information necessary to understand its future recruiting and personnel needs. The same is true for gender representation.

Female Representation

Both research and conventional wisdom have demonstrated that there are multiple factors contributing to the levels of women's participation in the military: comparative economic opportunity, increased social acceptance of women in non-traditional roles, increased exposure of women to non-traditional jobs, changes in laws and military policies and so forth. The AVF marked a turning point in women's participation in the military. During the mid- to late 1970s when the AVF was suffering recruiting woes, a significant increase in the number of highly qualified women entering military service helped the AVF survive the transition from the draft. Ironically, 25 years later, when women comprise approximately 18 percent of new recruits and 14 percent of the active duty enlisted force, and continue to make inroads into all enlisted and officer ranks and most occupations, the military is again facing significant recruitment shortfalls.

While women are making inroads into leadership positions, their military roles are still unsettled. Although the Congressional Commission on Military Training and Gender-Related Issues concluded that the Services' current training practices (including mixed gender environments in all but the Marine Corps) were contributing to readiness, a minority of commissioners were reluctant to endorse removing the barriers to gender interaction at the basic training phase, in part in reaction to increasing military participation by women.

Though women's representation in the military is at its largest in history, American women in the general population still suffer pay inequities and are well below men in terms of median income in all racial/ethnic groups. For example, according to the Census Bureau¹ the female-to-male earnings ratio was 0.74 in 1997. Such pay inequities, at least in terms of parity in job performance, do not exist in the military. This could be a contributing factor as to why women's participation is at an historical high and why the military is still a good alternative employment opportunity for women.

See Timenes, N., Jr., Force Reductions and Restructuring in the United States, presented to NATO Seminar on Defense Policy and Management, Brussels, Belgium, July 2, 1992. The derived force was based on the distribution by years of service from FY 1987 through FY 1989—a period of stable funding preceding the drawdown.

While military representation of minorities is relatively high and has been growing for women over the past 25 years, fewer and fewer Americans, proportionately, are serving in the military, owing to its smaller size. The military may remain a trusted institution, but fewer veterans means that the direct influence of a family tradition of service to country is less commonplace than in the past. Fewer policymakers today have military experience. For example, the ratio of Congressional members with military service has declined from more than 75 percent in 1971, just prior to the inception of the AVF, to less than 34 percent for the current, 106th Congress. No matter how serious or trivial the civil-military divide is in the United States, the military cannot ignore the possibility that recruiting may suffer as a result of this widening gap. If young men and women are less exposed to positive military images and stories and feel far removed from the role the military has in American society, then it is reasonable to assume their propensity to enlist will decrease.

Clearly and for many reasons listed above, the U.S. military does not reflect completely the population from which it is derived. But how representative should the U.S. military be? Among the difficulties in considering representation issues is how and to what extent we as a nation want the military to mirror American society, its demographic makeup, its values, its politics. Many argue that having a military as diverse and variable as the American populace is an ideal as important as the liberties the Armed Forces are instituted to protect.

But the reality is, the military has moved beyond these basic questions. Plainly, the military does not reflect the demographic makeup of the United States. The democratic process of filling military personnel needs, instituted in 1973, is much more palatable to Americans than going back to a draft that would constitute a more representative force. So the concern today, at the AVF's quarter-century mark, is how to attract new members from all segments of society and levelout the burden of military service to increase participation among underrepresented groups, such as Asians and Hispanics. If we are to have, as Secretary of the Army Caldera stated, "a nation that pulls together across ethnic [and other minority] lines," then the military must actively engage in drawing underrepresented groups into service. Military leadership values the dynamic and diverse characteristics of its personnel. It is concerned about the health of its personnel management and about the image the military has among citizens in general. After 25 years, the AVF and the nation it protects still struggle with minority representation issues. But the military has demonstrated it is willing to continue the struggle to achieve, on the one hand a successful warfighting capability, and on the other, an organization that comprises "we the people."