

Working for Uncle Sam—a look at members of the Armed Forces

The 'career force' is growing rapidly, as almost half of recruits reenlist; in 1982, the total labor force included 1.7 million men and women assigned to military duty in the United States

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Individuals seeking work may consider the military to be an attractive alternative to a civilian job—especially for those lacking employment experience, facing a tight labor market, looking for a lifetime career, or having strong patriotic feelings. More than 2 million men and women are in the Armed Forces. This article compares the demographic and occupational characteristics of the 1.7 million stationed in the United States with those of civilian workers.¹

It is especially appropriate to examine data on military personnel, because at the beginning of 1983, the Bureau of Labor Statistics began publishing an unemployment rate which includes the resident Armed Forces in the labor force count. Other statistical series including the resident Armed Forces, such as labor force participation rates, the number of employed, and employment-population ratios, also became available at that time. Calculations have been made for each of these series back to 1950.²

These statistical series were made available in accordance with the recommendations of the National Commission on Employment and Unemployment Statistics, which was established in 1978 to study the Nation's labor force data system with regard to its accuracy and relevance to current conditions. The Commission determined that, with the change to a volunteer system in 1973, military employment was

not "substantively different" from civilian employment and thus concluded that military personnel should be counted in national employment and labor force totals.³ Because the civilian labor force includes only persons residing in the United States, the Armed Forces count is similarly restricted.

Who are counted?

Monthly data on the Armed Forces are obtained by the Bureau of the Census from the Department of Defense. The Armed Forces count includes persons on active duty in either the regular military or the reserve forces for an extended period. More specifically, six groups are included in the 1982 count of 2.2 million: (1) total military personnel on active duty; (2) Marine reserve forces on active duty training for 6 months or longer; (3) Army reserve forces on active duty training for 4 months or longer; (4) Air Force reserve personnel on tours of duty lasting a minimum of 12 months; (5) National Guard personnel on initial active duty training; and (6) Coast Guard personnel on active duty. Demographic characteristics, which are gathered quarterly, are applied to the monthly counts of the total Armed Forces.

The resident Armed Forces is a subgroup of the total military and consists of military personnel stationed in any of the 50 States. This includes about two-thirds of Army personnel, 80 percent of the Navy and the Air Force, 85 percent of the Marines, and virtually all Coast Guard personnel. Included in the count of Navy personnel are those

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on ships homeported in the United States.⁴

Trends in size and composition

In the post-World War II period, the total active-duty Armed Forces ranged from a low of 1.4 million in 1948 to 3.6 million in 1952 and 3.5 million in 1968 and 1969. Between 1969 and 1979, this number dropped to 2.1 million, before inching upward to 2.2 million in 1982. The resident Armed Forces ranged from 1.2 million in 1950 at the inception of the data series to 2.4 million in 1952 and 2.3 million in 1968. In 1979, the resident military fell to slightly less than 1.6 million, edging up to 1.7 million in 1982. (See table 1.) While changes in the size of the two Armed Forces counts are directly related, the impact of a military buildup during periods of armed conflict is, of course, greatest on the number stationed overseas and therefore has a larger effect on the total Armed Forces.

Since 1973, monthly changes in the size of the services have been fairly small—generally no more than 5,000 and rarely more than 20,000. These increases and decreases have virtually no effect on the unemployment rate. In fact, the unemployment rate which includes the resident Armed Forces in the labor force base runs just one or two-tenths of a

percentage point below the civilian-based rate, and even the largest changes in the size of the military from month to month have made only a one-tenth of a point difference in the over-the-month movement of the overall unemployment rate.

Service, gender, and minority status

The Army is the largest branch of the resident Armed Forces with about 545,000 members, or 33 percent of the resident military. The next largest is the Air Force's 460,000, or 28 percent, closely followed by the Navy's 455,000, or 27 percent. About 11 percent of the resident Armed Forces are in the Marine Corps, with 165,000 members, and the Coast Guard, with 40,000, makes up 2 percent.⁵

The number of women in the resident military is relatively small with a total of only about 140,000 in 1982. They were outnumbered by men 11 to 1. However, military women numbered less than 30,000 in 1962, and the ratio of male-to-female personnel declined from 70 to 1 in that year to 43 to 1 in 1972. Over the same period, the ratio among civilian workers dropped from 2 to 1 to 1.3 to 1. With the change to an all-volunteer force in 1973, women joined the military at an increasing rate, reflecting stepped-up recruit-

Table 1. Members of the Armed Forces by selected characteristics, 1950–82 annual averages

[Numbers in thousands]

Year	Total Armed Forces		Resident Armed Forces			
	Number	Percent of the total noninstitutional population	Total	Percent of total employment	Women	
					Total	Percent of the resident Armed Forces
1950	1,649	1.5	1,169	1.9	19	1.6
1951	3,098	2.9	2,143	3.5	31	1.4
1952	3,593	3.3	2,386	3.8	38	1.6
1953	3,547	3.2	2,231	3.5	36	1.6
1954	3,350	3.0	2,142	3.4	33	1.5
1955	3,048	2.7	2,064	3.2	31	1.5
1956	2,856	3.4	1,965	3.0	28	1.4
1957	2,799	2.4	1,948	3.0	27	1.4
1958	2,636	2.3	1,847	2.8	27	1.5
1959	2,551	2.2	1,788	2.7	27	1.5
1960	2,514	2.1	1,861	2.8	28	1.5
1961	2,572	2.1	1,900	2.8	29	1.5
1962	2,827	2.3	2,061	3.0	29	1.4
1963	2,737	2.2	2,006	2.9	27	1.3
1964	2,738	2.2	2,018	2.8	27	1.3
1965	2,722	2.1	1,946	2.7	27	1.4
1966	3,122	2.4	2,122	2.8	30	1.4
1967	3,446	2.6	2,218	2.9	32	1.4
1968	3,534	2.6	2,253	2.9	34	1.5
1969	3,506	2.5	2,238	2.8	34	1.5
1970	3,188	2.3	2,118	2.6	37	1.7
1971	2,816	2.0	1,973	2.4	39	2.0
1972	2,449	1.7	1,813	2.2	41	2.3
1973	2,326	1.6	1,774	2.0	49	2.8
1974	2,229	1.5	1,721	1.9	63	3.7
1975	2,180	1.4	1,678	1.9	78	4.6
1976	2,144	1.4	1,668	1.8	86	5.2
1977	2,133	1.3	1,656	1.8	92	5.6
1978	2,117	1.3	1,631	1.7	100	6.1
1979	2,088	1.3	1,597	1.6	108	6.8
1980	2,102	1.2	1,604	1.6	134	7.7
1981	2,142	1.2	1,645	1.6	133	8.1
1982	2,180	1.2	1,668	1.6	139	8.3

ing efforts for both men and women, as well as women's growing participation in the labor force in general. However, since 1979, there has been no growth in the civilian labor force participation of women under 25, and women's entrance into the Armed Forces has slowed. Despite the increasing number of women in the military, their representation in the Armed Forces still does not come anywhere near their share of civilian employment. The following tabulation shows actual and projected numbers of enlisted women during selected fiscal years:⁶

	<i>Numbers, in thousands</i>			<i>Percent of all enlisted members</i>		
	1972	1982	1987	1972	1982	1987
Total	31.8	163.2	188.1	1.6	9.0	9.6
Army	12.3	64.3	70.1	1.8	9.6	10.1
Navy	5.7	37.0	45.6	1.1	7.7	8.7
Marine Corps	2.1	7.9	9.1	2.1	4.5	5.0
Air Force	11.7	54.1	63.4	2.0	11.3	11.5

It should be noted that each of the services still imposes limits on the number of women. For example, the Army had a limit of 70,000 in 1982.

The distribution of women by service is a bit different than that of men. In 1982, almost 40 percent of enlisted women were in the Army, 33 percent were in the Air Force, 23 percent were in the Navy, and just 5 percent were in the Marine Corps. The tabulation above points out that enlisted women are proportionately best represented in the Air Force, while being outnumbered by male Marines 22 to 1. The situation for women officers in 1982 was quite similar as women comprised 9.2 percent of all officers, but made up 10.4 percent of Air Force officers and just 3.1 percent of Marine officers. Because female officers as a percent of all officers and enlisted women as a percent of total enlistees are each about 9 percent, it can be assumed that women are proportionately about as likely as men to be officers, although there are differences among the branches.

For both sexes combined, officers make up about 18 percent of the resident Armed Forces; the proportion ranges from 11 percent of the Marine Corps to 24 percent of the Air Force, where officer ranks are swelled by the larger number of pilots and various support personnel.

Although most members of the resident Armed Forces are white, blacks make up a large share, as the following percentage distribution shows:

	<i>Total</i>	<i>Men</i>	<i>Women</i>
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0
Non-Hispanic			
White	74.2	74.6	69.4
Black	18.2	17.7	24.2
Other	4.0	4.1	3.5
Hispanic origin	3.6	3.6	2.9

By comparison, more than 80 percent of civilian workers in a comparable age range—18 to 54—are non-Hispanic whites,⁷ while less than 75 percent of the resident military is in that category. The number of Hispanics, Asian-Americans, and other nonblack minorities in the military is rel-

atively smaller than their number in the population. In contrast, the proportion of black men in the Armed Forces is twice that among civilian workers, and the ratio is even a bit higher for black women. Before the late 1960's, the representation of black men in the Armed Forces was disproportionately low when compared with their share of civilian male employment. Noting the increasing percentage of blacks in the military since the mid-1960's, one analyst attributed it to three factors: "(1) a dramatic increase over time in the proportion of blacks found eligible for military service; (2) particularly high unemployment rates that plagued the young black population during the beginning of the volunteer force; and (3) a lag in earning potential for young blacks in the civilian work force."⁸

The civilian employment situation for black youth has not improved since the start of the all-volunteer military—in fact, the jobless rate for 18- and 19-year-olds rose from about 28 percent in 1973 to nearly 48 percent in 1982—and so the disproportionately high participation of blacks in the military is still quite relevant. During economic downturns, more blacks than whites enter the military from outside the labor force rather than from the ranks of the unemployed.⁹ Many of the blacks outside the labor force had not sought jobs in the civilian economy because of the poor employment situation they faced. Thus, the continually high jobless rates for young blacks directly contributed to their military enlistments during recent years. Another factor contributing to the growing proportion of blacks in the military was shown in a recent study¹⁰ which found that blacks who complete their first enlistment are more likely than other racial groups to reenlist.

Youthfulness predominant

As expected, persons in the military tend to be younger than civilian workers. Among both men and women in the resident Armed Forces, only 1 or 2 percent are age 45 or older; among civilian workers, more than 30 percent are in this age group. The recent increase in the number of military women helps account for their especially large concentration in the younger age groups. Ninety-five percent are under age 35, compared with less than half of civilian women workers, and more than half of the military women are under age 25. (See table 2.)

The relative youthfulness of members of the Armed Forces indicates that a large number of men and women in the resident military view their time in the military as a transition between school and civilian jobs. However, half of these men and two-fifths of the women are at least 25 years old and thus are not in a first enlistment from high school. The 1980 National Longitudinal Survey found that men and women with a high degree of satisfaction with their military jobs are more likely to extend their term of service. While the study notes that this may seem to be a trivial finding, "it suggests that the usual view of military service as a transitory rather than a permanent career-oriented job may not be

Table 2. Military personnel and civilian employment by age and sex, 1982

(Numbers in thousands)

Age	Men			Women		
	Total Armed Forces ¹	Resident Armed Forces ¹	Civilian employment ²	Total Armed forces ¹	Resident Armed Forces ¹	Civilian employment ²
Total	1,908	1,536	56,271	189	143	43,256
Percent	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
16 to 17 years5	.6	2.3	.3	.4	2.8
18 to 19 years	11.4	12.3	3.7	11.2	12.3	4.6
20 to 24 years	38.4	38.1	12.8	48.0	46.5	15.0
25 to 34 years	33.3	32.5	28.4	36.3	36.3	28.1
35 to 44 years	14.5	14.6	21.2	3.7	3.9	20.8
45 to 54 years	1.9	2.0	16.4	.5	.5	15.5
55 years and over1	.1	15.2	—	—	13.4

¹As of September 1982.²Annual averages for 1982.

NOTE: Dashes indicate data round to less than 0.1 percent.

relevant for most youths."¹¹

Another way to view the issue of temporary job versus career is by examining reenlistment rates. Among first-term members of the military, an increasing proportion—about 47 percent—chose to reenlist in 1982. In fact, since 1973, the proportion has been rising among all military members, reaching 68 percent in 1982.¹² Another way to examine this issue is in terms of the "career force"—that is, the body of enlisted personnel with more than 4 years of service. In 1982, the career force made up 46 percent of the total enlisted strength, up from 33 percent in 1971 and 41 percent in 1976.¹³

As previously mentioned, there are relatively few military members above age 45. In part, this results from the eligibility for partial pensions beginning after 20 years of service when the retiree may be as young as age 38. In fact, the retirement age of the average enlisted retiree is 42, and the average retiring officer is 45. Moreover, persons over 35 are generally precluded from enlisting in the Armed Forces, so that the young retirees cannot be replaced by older civilian workers. Officers tend to be somewhat older than enlisted personnel in that they usually join the military later because of additional schooling and retire after serving an average of 2 years longer than enlistees. Close to 8 percent of the officers are age 45 or older, compared with only 1 percent of enlisted personnel. There is little difference in the age distribution of all persons in the Armed Forces compared with that of the resident military, except that the latter includes a slightly larger proportion of 18- and 19-year-olds, reflecting the fact that initial military training takes place within the United States.

Family status

Times have changed since World War I when military regulations required enlisted men and junior officers to be unmarried. In 1982, a little more than half of the men in the resident Armed Forces were married. Not surprisingly, however, a higher proportion of civilian male workers were

married—about three-fifths of those in the most comparable ages (18 to 44). Among military women, about two-fifths were married, compared with close to half of comparable aged (18 to 34) women with civilian jobs. Part of the difference is attributed to the fact that the majority of military women were under 25, while the civilian workers were most often over 25. In addition, the military traditionally has served as a transitional period for many persons just out of school and who do not yet have family obligations. Women, in particular, typically join the Armed Forces before marriage and often do not reenlist once marriage and family responsibilities make military life more difficult to adapt to. However, women are more likely than men to complete their initial term of service, and to reenlist at higher rates when they reach the end of their first term. At later reenlistment periods, reenlistment rates for men exceed those for women.¹⁴ About 45,000,¹⁵ or two-thirds of all married military women, were married to military men.

According to data from the March 1982 supplement to the Current Population Survey, there are nearly a half million married-couple families with children under age 18 whose fathers are in the Armed Forces. This represents three-fourths of all military married-couple families (that is, the husband is in the service and the wife is a civilian). On average, civilian families are older than military families, and are less apt to include children; in fact, only half have children under age 18. In addition to the half million married military men with children, there were about 12,000 military fathers raising their children alone, and a number of military mothers doing the same. When the husband was in the Armed Forces, close to half of the families included preschoolers, compared with one-fourth of all civilian husband/wife families; this again points to the relative youthfulness of persons in the military.

Historically, military wives were less likely to work outside the home than were civilian wives, as frequent moves, limited job opportunities, extended separations from their husbands, the longstanding custom of volunteer activities, and young children were obstacles to paid employment.¹⁶ Nevertheless, the labor force participation of Armed Forces wives has been rising rapidly since the early 1970's, increasing by 25 percentage points in the past decade to nearly 52 percent in 1982. While this rate almost matched that for civilian wives, the labor force participation of wives of employed civilians was much higher—about 59 percent. Wives of civilian workers tend to be younger than all civilian wives, as their husbands generally are of preretirement age.¹⁷ (Data are not available from the Current Population Survey on married-couple families where the wife is in the Armed Forces, on military mothers raising their children alone, and on the labor force participation of civilian husbands of military wives.)

Occupational comparisons

To liken military and civilian occupations could very well

resemble a comparison of apples and oranges. After all, combat-related occupations do not usually exist for civilians. In reality, however, only a small—and shrinking—proportion of the military performs combat and other specific military duties. During World War I, about 40 of every 100 soldiers had direct combat-related jobs. By World War II, the number had dropped to 30 of every 100, and during the height of the Vietnam conflict fewer than 13 of every 100 had combat assignments.¹⁸ In 1982, only 9 of every 100 persons in the resident military were classified in the infantry, gun crews, air crews, and seamanship specialist category. Most other military personnel held jobs similar to those of civilians, such as managers, clerks, musicians, and nurses, although a small proportion provided support for combat-related jobs.

The distribution of military occupations differs from that of civilians as shown in table 3. Among enlisted men, craftworkers make up the largest category; about 42 percent of these workers are mechanics and repairers, compared with 21 percent of civilian men age 18 to 54. Professional, technical, and managerial workers and clerical and administrative workers each account for about 16 percent of enlisted men. Among civilian men, professional, technical, and managerial workers account for more than 30 percent of the employed and clerical, administrative, and sales an additional 12 percent. The remaining enlisted men have service, operative, and laborer jobs (10 percent) or general military duties (16 percent). Male officers, as might be expected, are found primarily in professional, technical, and managerial jobs. A large group—about 40 percent—are in such tactical categories as pilots and artillery officers.

Among women, a different picture emerges in that enlisted women tend to perform duties other than those assigned to their male counterparts. (It should be noted that women are excluded from various combat occupations by

law.) Occupations of enlisted and civilian women are somewhat similar. The largest proportion of both groups (41 percent of military women and 35 percent of civilians) are in clerical and administrative fields. About 30 percent of enlisted women and one-fourth of their civilian counterparts have professional, technical, or managerial positions. But where close to 17 percent of the military women are craftworkers (such as aircraft and auto mechanics and electronic equipment repairers), only 2 percent of the nonmilitary women are so employed. Work in the service, operative, and laborer categories is much more common among civilian women (29 percent) than among their enlisted counterparts. General military duties are performed by less than 1 percent of the enlisted women. The jobs of female officers, like those of male officers, are concentrated in professional, technical, and managerial fields. Almost half are medical officers, including nurses, doctors, pharmacists, and other health professionals.

Educational attainment

Education is an important consideration of the military. For example, the educational attainment of recruits is used as an enlistment standard. The military also sets goals regarding the enlistment of both high school graduates and those who score in the upper half of the Armed Services Vocational Aptitude Battery Test, in part, because military personnel who hold high school diplomas tend to have lower attrition rates and fewer disciplinary problems.¹⁹ Schooling is also used as an enlistment incentive, as new members of the Armed Forces receive skill training and later may attend more specialized classes. Of course, many veterans and active duty personnel have also taken advantage of high school and college courses.²⁰

How similar or dissimilar are the educational backgrounds of persons in the resident military and those of employed civilians? Among teenagers (age 18 and 19), those in the military are much more likely to be high school graduates than are their civilian counterparts. (See table 4.) Only 15 percent of the 18- and 19-year-old men and 3 percent of women in the military do not have a high school diploma. In the next age group, however, the opposite generally is true—that is, the educational attainment of civilian workers surpasses that of members of the Armed Forces among the 20- to 24-year-olds, as fewer military personnel than civilians in that age category have attended college. Some of the 20- to 24-year-old civilian workers, of course, were both working and attending college or had recently graduated.

Military personnel, age 25 to 34, were old enough to have attended college before enlisting, or to have attended while in the military, and more than a fifth of these men and a fourth of these women had attended at least 4 years of college. Many view the military as a career, rather than as a transitional phase between high school and civilian employment. The proportion of college graduates among the 25- to 34-year-old civilian men is slightly higher than that

Table 3. Resident military personnel and civilian employment by occupation, sex, and age, 1982

(Percent distribution)

Occupation	Men		Women	
	Enlisted Armed Forces ¹	Civilian employment ²	Enlisted Armed Forces ¹	Civilian employment ²
Total employed	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Professional, technical, and managerial workers	16.1	31.5	29.9	26.4
Clerical and administrative workers	15.6	6.4	41.2	35.2
Sales workers	—	6.1	—	6.4
Craft and kindred workers	42.3	21.0	17.1	2.1
Mechanics and repairers	37.1	6.2	14.9	.2
Other craftworkers	5.2	14.8	2.2	1.9
Service workers, operatives, and laborers	10.1	31.7	11.0	28.9
Farm workers	—	3.3	—	1.0
General military workers	15.9	—	.9	—

¹As of September 1982; data exclude officers.

²Annual averages for 1982; data relate to persons age 18 to 54.

NOTE: Dashes indicate data round to less than 0.1 percent.

Table 4. Educational attainment of resident military personnel and civilian employment by sex and age, 1982

[Percent distribution]

Educational attainment and sex	Total	16 to 17 years	18 to 19 years	20 to 24 years	25 to 34 years	35 to 44 years	45 years and over
MEN							
Resident Armed Forces ¹	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
High school: Less than 4 years	7.5	30.2	14.6	10.4	3.7	2.4	2.1
4 years only	67.3	69.7	84.9	79.8	59.2	43.9	24.5
College: Less than 4 years	10.4	.1	.6	5.6	15.4	20.1	17.9
4 years or more	14.7	—	—	4.3	21.7	33.6	55.6
Civilian employment ²	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
High school: Less than 4 years	21.6	97.2	37.2	15.0	11.3	17.6	29.6
4 years only	37.5	2.5	54.1	49.2	37.9	35.6	34.1
College: Less than 4 years	17.9	.3	8.8	25.8	21.9	17.6	13.4
4 years or more	23.0	—	—	10.0	28.9	29.2	23.0
WOMEN							
Resident Armed Forces ¹	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
High school: Less than 4 years	1.0	5.7	2.9	1.0	.4	.2	.1
4 years only	70.8	94.2	95.6	81.9	53.4	26.3	9.0
College: Less than 4 years	12.6	.2	1.4	10.3	18.7	21.3	18.0
4 years or more	15.5	—	—	6.8	27.5	52.2	72.9
Civilian employment ²	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
High school: Less than 4 years	17.9	95.0	27.5	8.5	8.7	15.3	25.0
4 years or more	45.0	5.0	58.9	48.5	41.6	46.4	47.3
College: Less than 4 years	19.5	—	13.5	30.0	23.2	18.2	14.2
4 years or more	17.6	—	.1	13.0	26.5	20.2	13.9

¹As of September 1982.²As of March 1982.

NOTE: Dashes indicate data round to less than 0.1 percent.

of military men, but women in and out of the military are about equally likely to have completed college. Only very small numbers of military men and almost no military women are high school dropouts, while substantial proportions of employed civilians do not have a high school diploma, and these proportions rise with age (to 30 percent for men and 25 percent for women 45 years and over). Among military personnel in this age group, more than half of the men and nearly three-fourths of the women have college degrees; it can be assumed that most are officers. In fact, 97 percent of the commissioned officers of all ages are graduates, compared to 2 percent of enlisted personnel.²¹

Compensation

The military has an unusual pay structure in that it is a combination of cash earnings and allowances, plus various in-kind allowances and benefits. The total compensation received, unlike that of civilian workers, is partially determined by marital and family status and is based on rank and years in service, rather than on occupation and seniority. Any attempt to compare military and civilian pay is fraught with problems.

Regular military compensation is a combination of basic pay, quarters allowance, variable or station housing allowance, subsistence allowance, and the tax advantages associated with these tax-free allowances.²² In addition to regular military compensation, special pay and allowances are provided for hazardous, sea, or foreign duty, special skills, to maintain uniforms, and the maintenance of two households during periods of separation. Fringe benefits include a non-

contributory retirement plan which starts to pay after a minimum of 20 years of service at 50 percent of base pay, and rises to 75 percent with 30 years; medical coverage for military personnel and their families; discounted prices for the purchase of food, clothing, and housewares at post exchanges and commissaries; and coverage under the social security system.

Monthly basic pay for fiscal 1982 ranged from \$573 to \$2,215 for enlisted personnel and from \$1,099 to \$5,317 for commissioned officers, depending on rank and years of service. Basic allowances relate to rank and dependent family members or marital status. About half of the military personnel live in government quarters while a smaller proportion receives subsistence in kind.²³ But enlisted personnel without family members who received cash allowances for quarters were given from \$123 to \$272; allowances for commissioned officers ranged from \$224 to \$509. Military personnel with families received from \$214 to \$383 if enlisted and \$291 to \$636 if commissioned. The variable housing allowance is granted to those persons stationed in high-cost areas. Allowances for subsistence are less complicated; enlisted members received about \$142 and officers received \$98. Finally, the value of the income tax advantage varies with each person's own family and income situation.

An example is a male member of the Armed Forces with a civilian spouse and one child who live together off base. If in 1982 he had been in the Army for 8 years and was an E-6 staff sergeant, he earned \$1,103 per month in basic pay. His allowance for subsistence was \$4.68 per day or \$140 per month. His allowance for quarters was \$303. His

monthly tax advantage was estimated at \$110. The total annual Basic Military Compensation—the sum of these four items—was about \$19,900. If the family lives in a high-cost area, the Variable Housing Allowance of, say \$188 per month (in Washington, D.C.) brought the annual salary—now called Regular Military Compensation—to about \$22,100.

IN SUMMARY, available data indicate that the military is an attractive alternative to many jobseekers—including some without work experience, some who desire occupational training, some who have strong feelings of patriotism, and

some who are looking for a lifetime career. Persons in the Armed Forces tend to be younger than civilian workers and include relatively more blacks but fewer women. About half the men and two-fifths of the women are married. Combat jobs are not prevalent—fewer than 9 of every 100 persons in the resident military hold them—and crafts predominate among enlisted men, while enlisted women are more likely to hold clerical and administrative positions. Officers generally can be classified as professional, technical, and managerial workers. The 1.7 million members of the resident Armed Forces are, indeed, an important part of the U.S. economy. □

—FOOTNOTES—

ACKNOWLEDGMENT: The author wishes to thank Ken Scheffen and his staff at the Defense Manpower Data Center, Arlington, Va., for providing data on the resident Armed Forces.

¹Because 1982 data on the Armed Forces were tabulated specifically for this article by the Department of Defense, civilian data obtained from the Current Population Survey also refer to 1982. The Current Population Survey (CPS) is a sample survey of about 60,000 households conducted monthly by the Bureau of the Census for the Bureau of Labor Statistics.

²It should be noted that those series exist only for three groups: men age 16 and over, women age 16 and over, and both sexes combined.

³See *Counting the Labor Force* (Washington, National Commission on Employment and Unemployment Statistics, Labor Day 1979), pp. 49–51.

⁴These are ships whose homeport is in the United States and are not deployed to the Mediterranean, the Mideast, the Far East, or the Indian Ocean. The actual location of all Navy ships is reported annually to the Bureau of the Census and the ratio of persons on ships deployed to the above locations to the total number afloat is applied to the monthly count of Navy personnel on ships.

Department of Defense data provided for this article include all Navy personnel on ships—bringing the resident forces to 95 percent of the Navy—and this helps account for the fact that the total resident military count in the tables shown in this article is slightly higher (less than 1 percent) than the total generally used by the Bureau of Labor Statistics. In addition, the detailed data shown for the Armed Forces refer to September 1982 (the end of fiscal 1982) unless otherwise noted, while the civilian data used for comparison purposes generally are 1982 annual averages.

⁵These data are those used by the Census Bureau to calculate the size of the resident Armed Forces for the CPS. Department of Defense data provided specifically for this article and used throughout most of the remaining text show a 31-percent share for the resident Army, 31 percent for the Navy, 27 percent for the Air Force, and 11 percent for the Marine Corps.

⁶This tabulation, showing enlisted women in the total Armed Forces, is from the *Military Manpower Task Force, A Report to the President on the Status and Prospects of the All-Volunteer Force*. Rev. ed. (Washington, 1982), pp. 11–18.

⁷It is not possible to directly count the number of non-Hispanic whites from the CPS, because in that survey race and ethnic origin are determined independently. There is evidence that most Hispanics are classified as white. In order to compare data for military and civilian workers, Hispanic

civilian employment was subtracted from white civilian employment (in both instances for persons age 18–54) to arrive at a civilian employment level for non-Hispanic whites. However, because a small number of Hispanics are black or other nonwhite races, the actual proportion of non-Hispanic whites is slightly higher than that shown.

⁸Richard V. L. Cooper, *Military Manpower and the All-Volunteer Forces* (Santa Monica, Calif., The Rand Corp., 1977), p. 210.

⁹See Charles Dale and Curtis L. Gilroy, "The Effects of the Business Cycle on the Size and Composition of the U.S. Army," *Atlantic Economic Journal*, March 1983, p. 45.

¹⁰Choongsoo Kim, *Youth and the Military Services: 1980 National Longitudinal Survey Studies of Enlistment, Intentions to Serve, Reenlistment and Labor Market Experience of Veterans and Attriters* (Columbus, Ohio State University, Center for Human Resource Research, 1982), p. 81.

¹¹Kim, *Youth and the Military Services*, p. 88.

¹²Department of Defense, *Selected Manpower Statistics, Fiscal Year 1982* (Washington, 1983), tables 2–25 and 2–26.

¹³*Military Manpower Task Force*, p. III–9

¹⁴*Ibid.*, p. II–18.

¹⁵*Ibid.*, p. II–18.

¹⁶Allyson Sherman Grossman, "The employment situation for military wives," *Monthly Labor Review*, February 1981, pp. 60–62.

¹⁷These data are from the March 1982 supplement to the Current Population Survey.

¹⁸Sar A. Levitan and Karen C. Alderman, *Warriors At Work* (Beverly Hills, Calif., Sage Publications, Inc., 1977), p. 141.

¹⁹Levitan and Alderman, *Warriors At Work*, pp. 23–25.

²⁰Through September 1982, a total of 7.9 million veterans received financial educational assistance under the post-Korean GI Bill; 4.8 million of these attended college. During fiscal year 1982, more than three-quarters of a million veterans received financial assistance to attend college, and more than 200,000 participated in other educational and training programs. See *Veterans' Benefits Under Current Education Programs, Fiscal Year 1982* (Veterans Administration, 1983), RSM70–83–1, pp. 12 and 18.

²¹Department of Defense, *Selected Manpower Statistics, Fiscal Year 1982*, table 2–5.

²²Public Law 96–579, Dec. 23, 1980.

²³Martin Binkin and Irene Kyriakopoulos, *Paying the Modern Military* (Washington, The Brookings Institution 1981), p. 15.