

**SECOND CAREERS FOR MILITARY OFFICERS:
THE TRAINING AND DEVELOPMENT ISSUES
AND IMPLICATIONS IN TAIWAN**

being a Thesis submitted for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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by

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ABSTRACT

This study investigated the situations and trends towards second careers and employment opportunities of military officers in the Taiwanese armed forces, following their retirement. The research issues were pursued by highlighting the problems of officers retiring at the middle-top ranks of major, lt. colonel and colonel in Taiwan.

This research has attempted not only to explore quantitatively and qualitatively the second career development of retired military officers (assessing job satisfaction and identifying employment problems), but also to see whether the experiences and perceptions of retired military officers in this field research generate insights which may contribute to managerial, sociological, or even military thinking, and be beneficial both to Taiwan and to other countries.

This research explored a body of empirical data dealing with officers' training and development for a second career based on a questionnaire survey of retired officers. Two broad lines of analysis of training and development were pursued: (1) impact of actual career experiences, and (2) determinants for transition to civilian work. Of the factors relating to career experience, the officers' perceptions of the utilization of their skills and experiences and the transferability of their learning skills to civilian employment were investigated.

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CONTENTS

	<i>Page</i>
Abstract	i
Acknowledgments	ii
Contents	iii
Common Abbreviations	ix
List of Figures	x
List of Tables	xiii
I. Introduction	1
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
1.1 Background to the Study	1
1.2 The Purpose of the Study	6
1.3 The Framework of the Research	9
1.4 The Significance of the Study	12
II. Underpinnings	17
Chapter 2: Western Philosophical Foundations	17
2.1 Introduction	17
2.2 Burrell and Morgan's Paradigm	19
2.3 Positivist Approach	29
2.4 Assumptions	36
2.5 Conclusion	42

Chapter 3: Chinese Philosophical Foundations	44
3.1 Introduction	44
3.2 Some Considerations on Studying Chinese Philosophy	45
3.3 Confucianism	47
3.4 Conceptions of Knowledge	50
3.4.1 Knowing Things	51
3.4.2 Knowing How	53
3.5 Theory of <i>Li</i> in Neo-Confucianism	57
3.6 A New Vision	63
3.7 Conclusion	66
III. Context	71
Chapter 4: Political and Military Perspectives	71
4.1 Introduction	71
4.2 Taiwan's Party-State and Its Military	73
4.3 Situational Considerations	77
4.4 Statement of the Problem - Retirement	82
4.4.1 Taiwan's Case	82
4.4.2 British and American Cases	89
4.5 Conclusion	91
Chapter 5: Economic, Human Resource and Cultural Perspectives	93
5.1 Introduction	93
5.2 Economic and Human Resource Perspectives	95
5.2.1 Taiwan's Economic Conditions	95
5.2.2 Impact of Economic Changes on Employment Structure	99
5.2.3 Taiwan's Human Resource Development Policies	105

5.2.4 HRD Policy: Some Situational Considerations	110
5.2.5 Recruitment and Job Seeking Methods	115
5.2.6 Implications for Future Manpower Policy	123
5.3 Cultural Perspectives	124
5.3.1 Chinese Culture and Its Significance	126
5.3.2 Confucius and Human Resource Management	129
5.3.3 <i>Guan Xi</i> and Human Resource Management	134
5.4 Conclusion	138
Chapter 6: Military Career Management	141
6.1 Introduction	141
6.2 Taiwan's Military Personnel Management	144
6.2.1 Strength Management	144
6.2.2 Performance Evaluation	150
6.2.3 Professional Development	153
6.2.4 Resettlement Training Programmes	155
6.3 Conclusion	158
IV. Literature Basis for Study	161
Chapter 7: Literature Review - Career Development	161
7.1 Introduction	161
7.2 The Concepts of Career and Development	165
7.3 Career Theories and Models	171
7.3.1 Developmental Models of Careers - Life-Span Models	174
7.3.2 Levinson's Theory - Adult Development	179
7.4 Second Career Development for Military Officers	185
7.5 Measurement Considerations on Second Career Success	193
7.6 Conclusion	200

Chapter 8: Literature Review - Adult Training and Learning 203

8.1 Introduction	203
8.2 Learning and Behaviour Change	205
8.3 Training and Learning of Mid-Aged People	211
8.4 Hypotheses	217
8.5 Conclusion	223

V. Research 226

Chapter 9: Field Research 226

9.1 Introduction	226
9.2 Design of the Study	227
9.3 Research Questions	228
9.4 Hypotheses and Test Criteria	229
9.5 The Population and Sample	235
9.6 Survey Questionnaires	240
9.7 The Pre-Test of Questionnaires	243
9.8 Statistical Approach	245
9.8.1 Frequency Distribution	247
9.8.2 Crosstabulation - Chi-Square	247
9.8.3 Compare Means: Paired-Samples T-Test	249
9.8.4 Significance Level	250
9.9 Survey Limitations	250
9.10 Data Collection and Result of the Mailings	253
9.11 Conclusion	254

Chapter 10: Analysis of the Findings	256
10.1 Introduction	256
10.2 Summary of the Findings	257
10.3 Conclusion	287
Chapter 11: Discussion and Implications	293
11.1 Introduction	293
11.2 Implications for Employment opportunity Issues	301
11.2.1 Transitional Training Course	301
11.2.2 Older Age	303
11.2.3 Jobs and Pay	304
11.2.4 Skills Transferability	306
11.3 Implications for Human Resource Management	308
11.3.1 Career Management	308
11.3.2 Individual Career Planning	324
11.3.3 Civilian Career Practices and Their Parallels with Military Personnel	327
11.4 Implications for the Military and Government	328
11.5 Implications for Business Organisation and Society	337
11.6 Economic Implications	342
11.7 Philosophical and Cultural Perspectives	346
11.7.1 Introduction	346
11.7.2 In the Military Service	350
11.7.3 In the Employing Company	352
11.7.4 The Comparison Between Retired Officers and Civilian Employees	355
(1) Self-Perceived Criteria for Seeking Jobs by Retired Officers	355
(2) Job Search Methods by Retired Officers	359
11.7.5 New Insights between East and West	365
11.7.6 Summary	379

11.8 A Model of Second Career Success	381
11.9 Conclusion	390
Chapter 12: Conclusions and Future Research	397
12.1 Conclusions	397
12.2 Future Research	408
Appendix A: Base Data Analysis	414
Appendix B: Statistical Analysis of Findings	467
Appendix C: A Letter to Survey Subjects (Groups A and D)	524
Appendix D: A Letter to Survey Subjects (Groups B and C)	525
Appendix E: Questionnaires (Groups A, B, C and D)	526
References:	533

COMMON ABBREVIATIONS

B.A., Bachelor of Art
B.M.C., Business Management Course
B.S., Bachelor of Science
C., Colonel
C.E.O., Chief of Executive Officer
C.E.P.D., Council for Economic Planning and Development
C.I.C., Computer and Information Centre (Navy)
C.M.A., Chinese Military Academy (Army)
C.N.F.I., Chinese National Federation of Industries
C.P.T., Captain
C.S., Combat Services
C.S.S., Combat Support Services
D.G.B.A.S., Directorate General of Budget, Accounting and Statistics
D.O.D., Department of Defence
G., General
G.C.O.C., General Chamber of Commerce
G.D.P., Gross Domestic Production
G.N.P., Gross National Production
G.S.P., General Staff of Personnel
H.Q., Headquarters
H.R.D., Human Resource Development
H.R.M., Human Resource Management
K.M.T., Kuomintang Party (Taiwan)
L.T., Lieutenant
L.T.C., Lieutenant Colonel
M., Major
M.N.D., Ministry of National Defence
M.O.D., Ministry of Defence
M.P., Military Police
N.A.M.S.E., National Association of Medium and Small Enterprise
N.T.D., New Taiwan Dollar
N.V.Qs., National Vocational Qualifications
P.W., Political Warfare
S.P.S.S., Statistical Package for the Social Science
T.T.C., Transitional Training Course

LISTS OF FIGURES

Figure 1.1 The second career pattern for military officers	2
Figure 1.2 The framework of the research	10
Figure 1.3 The transferable professions between military and civilian sectors	14
Figure 2.1 The subjective-objective dimension	20
Figure 2.2 Two theories of society: 'order' and 'conflict'	25
Figure 2.3 Four paradigms for the analysis of social theory	26
Figure 2.4 Ontological and epistemological positions and its methodology	31
Figure 7.1 Levinson's theory-middle age	181
Figure 7.2 A process flow of career development for military officers	187
Figure 11.1 The framework of discussion	294
Figure 11.2 The second career pattern for military officers	311
Figure 11.3 A process flow of career development for military officers	313
Figure 11.4 Two parallel career development models	316
Figure 11.5 Human resource management in operation	321
Figure 11.6 A model of second career success	385
Figure 11.7 The transition cycle	386
Figure 11.8 Transitional model for retired officers in transition	387
Figure A.1 Are you satisfied with military education and training?	431
Figure A.2 Is learning multiple skills important while in the military?	431
Figure A.3 What are the learning environment and opportunity in the military?	432
Figure A.4 Can the military become a learning organisation?	432
Figure A.5 Do your senior officers care about subordinates' career development?	433
Figure A.6 Do your senior officers care about subordinates' learning, education and training?	434
Figure A.7 Do you have a personal career development plan in the military?	434
Figure A.8 Is it necessary to have a career development plan for officers in the military?	435
Figure A.9 Does the military provide you with sufficient information to make a career development plan?	436

Figure A.10 Does the military provide you with sufficient information, training or assistance for your resettlement and employment?	436
Figure A.11 What are your perceptions on your military career achievement while you were in the service?	437
Figure A.12 What do you think about the employers' acceptance of retirees?	439
Figure A.13 Middle-aged retired officers find it more difficult to find jobs	439
Figure A.14 The transferability of military expertise and skills to the civilian employment	440
Figure A.15 The transferability of military management and experiences to the civilian employment	440
Figure A.16 The desire to pursue the goals in second career	441
Figure A.17 The need for training, education and development programmes by the company for new veteran-employees	441
Figure A.18 Employed persons by job category	443
Figure A.19 Family or non-family business	444
Figure A.20 Training and development units/programmes among companies	445
Figure A.21 Are you satisfied with your civilian job?	451
Figure A.22 Are you satisfied with your payment?	452
Figure A.23 Middle-aged officers find it more difficult to find jobs	452
Figure A.24 What do you think about the employers' acceptance of retirees?	453
Figure A.25 Have you ever been discriminated against while you are employed or seeking a job?	453
Figure A.26 Have you ever had any difficulty in finding a job because of a Lack in expertise/skills?	454
Figure A.27 Number of jobs since retirement?	454
Figure A.28 What is your desire to pursue your second career goals?	456
Figure A.29 Military welfare programmes are better than business ones	458
Figure A.30 Military management emphasizes more on personal training and development than business management does	459
Figure A.31 Military promotion policy and practise are fairer than business ones	459
Figure A.32 I can learn more skills and experiences in military organisations than business ones	460

Figure A.33 Employees are more motivated by business reward policy and practise than military ones	460
Figure A.34 Business pay level is higher than military one	461
Figure A.35 Performance evaluation policy and practise in business organisations are better than military ones	461
Figure A.36 The policy and practise of merit and demerit in business organisation are fairer than military ones	462
Figure A.37 I would get more chance to be promoted in business organisations than in military ones	462
Figure A.38 I would get more payment according to my ability/performance in business organisations than in military ones	463
Figure A.39 I could apply my skills and expertise to the work more in business organisations than military ones	463
Figure A.40 If I worked incompetently, I would be easier to get fired in business organisations than military ones	464
Figure A.41 Business management cares and concerns more on human factors than military management does	464
Figure A.42 Did the TTC help your civilian employment?	465
Figure A.43 What are your perceptions on the value and function of TTC?	465
Figure A.44 What are your perceptions on the value and function of BMC?	466

LISTS OF TABLES

Table 4.1 Different service lengths - academy 4-year cadets	84
Table 4.2 Retirement population	86
Table 5.1 Structural employment percentage	99
Table 5.2 Employment structure by educational attainment	100
Table 5.3 The total employment population in 1995	101
Table 5.4 Asian economic indicators	103
Table 5.5 Unemployment rates in Taiwan by age group	104
Table 5.6 The economic changes and human resource development policies	106
Table 5.7 The recruitment criteria for new employees	115
Table 5.8 The recruitment criteria for employees	117
Table 5.9 The comparison of working characteristics between traditional and new workers	118
Table 5.10 Evaluation for current employees with college/university degrees	119
Table 5.11 What are your most important considerations in looking for an ideal job?	120
Table 5.12 Job search methods for employed persons	121
Table 5.13 The recruitment methods used by business companies	122
Table 6.1 Military personnel systems	146
Table 6.2 Statistics for the TTC and BMC	158
Table 9.1 Hypotheses and tested criteria	231
Table 9.2 Retired population by grade and service (1992-1995)	236
Table 9.3 The transitional training course (TTC) statistics	238
Table 9.4 Groups by mid-aged retirees (groups B and C)	248
Table 9.5 Questionnaire response	254
Table 10.1 The results of testing hypothesis	259
Table 11.1 Comparison between key skills for attaining civilian jobs as perceived by retired officers and for civilian employees as suggested by senior management	356
Table 11.2 The most important considerations in looking for an ideal job	357
Table 11.3 Job search methods among retired officers: groups B and C	359
Table A.1 The four sample sizes	415
Table A.2 Total distribution by service	416

Table A.3 Total distribution by rank	417
Table A.4 Total distribution by age	417
Table A.5 Total distribution by educational level	418
Table A.6 Total distribution by military training level	418
Table A.7 Total distribution by skills	419
Table A.8 Perceived 'job satisfaction' in groups B and C	422
Table A.9 Perceived 'pay satisfaction' in groups B and C	423
Table A.10 Current monthly income by transition index (groups B and C)	424
Table A.11 The average monthly income in industry	426
Table A.12 The top/bottom five monthly income	426
Table A.13 Officers' monthly income in 1995	427
Table A.14 Starting monthly pay in industry in 1995	428
Table A.15 Current monthly income in groups B and C	430
Table A.16 What is the best statement of 'military career development'?	433
Table A.17 When should the career development plan start for an officer?	435
Table A.18 Why you decided to retire from military service?	437
Table A.19 Why you decided to retire from military service?	438
Table A.20 What kinds of skills and expertise you should have in order to apply for an ideal job?	442
Table A.21 Employment rate	443
Table A.22 Employed retirees by industry	444
Table A.23 Family company by training/development programmes	445
Table A.24 Company size by training/development programmes and percent of employed military retirees	446
Table A.25 What are the most important considerations in looking for an ideal job?	447
Table A.26 Employment monthly income	448
Table A.27 Distribution of transferable skills	448
Table A.28 Distribution of pensioner	449
Table A.29 Distribution of the military service	449
Table A.30 Is there any difficulty in seeking a job and/or employment?	450
Table A.31 Expected difficulties of seeking a job or employment in the near future	451
Table A.32 Reasons of dissatisfaction with your job, if any?	455

Table A.33 What are the best qualifications to seek an ideal job for retired officers?	456
Table A.34 Job search methods among retired officers: group B	457
Table A.35 Job search methods among retired officers: group C	457
Table B.1 Groups B and C by transition index	468
Table B.2 Groups B and C by employment rate	469
Table B.3 Four groups by the self-goal	470
Table B.4 Four groups by the need for training and education of the company for military retirees	470
Table B.5 Groups B and C by the need for training and education of the company for military retirees	471
Table B.6 Groups B and C by job satisfaction	472
Table B.7 Groups B and C by pay satisfaction	472
Table B.8 Current age by transition index (groups B and C)	474
Table B.9 Current age by employment rate (groups B and C)	475
Table B.10 Current age by employment income (groups B and C)	475
Table B.11 Current age by number of jobs since retirement (groups B and C)	476
Table B.12 Current age by the self-goals (four groups)	477
Table B.13 Current age by the self-goal (groups B and C)	478
Table B.14 Transition index by the mid-aged retirees (groups B and C)	479
Table B.15 Four groups by mid-aged retirees	480
Table B.16 Groups by mid-aged retirees (groups B and C)	481
Table B.17 Service by mid-aged retirees (four groups)	481
Table B.18 Service by mid-aged retirees (groups B and C)	482
Table B.19 Rank levels by mid-aged retirees (four groups)	482
Table B.20 Rank levels by mid-aged retirees (groups B and C)	483
Table B.21 Educational attainments by mid-aged retirees (four groups)	483
Table B.22 Educational attainments by mid-aged retirees (groups B and C)	484
Table B.23 Military training levels by mid-aged retirees (four groups)	485
Table B.24 Military training levels by mid-aged retirees (groups B and C)	485
Table B.25 The transferable skills by mid-aged retirees (four groups)	486
Table B.26 The transferable skills by mid-aged retirees (groups B and C)	486

Table B.27 Four groups by the officers' perceptions on the employers' acceptance of the retirees	487
Table B.28 Groups by the officers' perceptions on the employers' acceptance of the retirees (groups B and C)	488
Table B.29 Transition index by the officers' perceptions on the employers' acceptance of the retirees (groups B and C)	488
Table B.30 Transition index by the self-goal (groups B and C)	490
Table B.31 Employment rate by the self-goal (groups B and C)	491
Table B.32 The self-goal by employment income (groups B and C)	491
Table B.33 The self-goal by job satisfaction (groups B and C)	492
Table B.34 The self-goal by pay satisfaction (groups B and C)	493
Table B.35 Groups by transition index (groups B and C)	494
Table B.36 Groups by employment rate (groups B and C)	494
Table B.37 Groups by employment income (t-test for paired of groups B and C)	495
Table B.38 Groups B and C by job satisfaction	496
Table B.39 Groups B and C by pay satisfaction	496
Table B.40 Rank level by transition Index (groups B and C)	498
Table B.41 Rank level by employment rate (groups B and C)	499
Table B.42 Rank level by employment income (groups B and C)	499
Table B.43 Rank level by job satisfaction (groups B and C)	500
Table B.44 Rank level by pay satisfaction (groups B and C)	501
Table B.45 Transition index by military career achievement (groups B and C)	502
Table B.46 Ranks by military career achievement (groups B and C)	502
Table B.47 Military career achievement by job satisfaction (groups B and C)	503
Table B.48 Military career achievement by pay satisfaction (groups B and C)	503
Table B.49 Educational level by transition index (groups B and C)	504
Table B.50 Military training level by transition index (groups B and C)	505
Table B.51 Educational level by employment rate (groups B and C)	505
Table B.52 Military training level by employment rate (groups B and C)	506
Table B.53 Educational level by employment income (groups B and C)	507
Table B.54 Military training level by employment income (groups B and C)	507
Table B.55 Educational levels by job satisfaction (groups B and C)	508
Table B.56 Military training levels by job satisfaction (groups B and C)	509

Table B.57 Educational levels by pay satisfaction (groups B and C)	509
Table B.58 Military training levels by pay satisfaction (groups B and C)	510
Table B.59 The skills by transition index (groups B and C)	511
Table B.60 The skills by employment rate (groups B and C)	511
Table B.61 The skills by employment income (groups B and C)	512
Table B.62 The skills by job satisfaction (groups B and C)	513
Table B.63 Transferable skills by pay satisfaction (groups B and C)	513
Table B.64 The skills by number of jobs since retirement (groups B and C)	514
Table B.65 Groups B and C by the transferability of military management and experience	515
Table B.66 Groups B and C by the transferability of military expertise and skills	516
Table B.67 Transition index by the transferability of military management and experience (groups B and C)	516
Table B.68 Transition index by the transferability of military expertise and skills (groups B and C)	517
Table B.69 Rank levels by the transferability of military management and experience (groups B and C)	518
Table B.70 Rank levels by the transferability of military expertise and skills (groups B and C)	519
Table B.71 The career plan by transition index (groups B and C)	520
Table B.72 The career plan by employment rate (groups B and C)	521
Table B.73 The career plan by employment income (groups B and C)	521
Table B.74 The career plan by job satisfaction (groups B and C)	522
Table B.75 The career plan by pay satisfaction (groups B and C)	523

I. Introduction

Chapter 1: Introduction

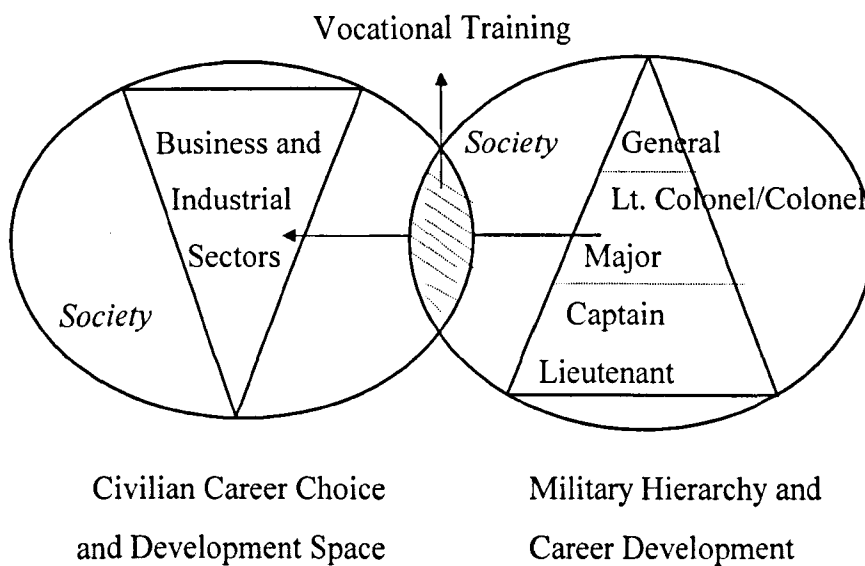
1.1 Background to the Study

This study investigates the circumstances surrounding and trends in relation to second careers and employment opportunities for military officers in the Taiwanese armed forces, following their retirement. The research issues will be pursued by highlighting the problems of officers retiring at the middle-top ranks of major, lt. colonel and colonel in Taiwan, particularly for the latter two ranks, who are generally most accountable for the direction and implementation of organisational objectives. Figure 1.1 shows the basic pattern of second careers for military officers in Taiwan. The military hierarchy maintains a rank distribution which is pyramidal in shape, keeping limited opportunities open for those who are qualified to be promoted within the military organisation.

From Figure 1.1, for example, a lt. colonel must have some qualifications, such as completion of study at the Command Staff College, to make him/her eligible for promotion as a colonel at the brigade level; otherwise, he/she must retire before reaching the rank of colonel. In a brigade organisation in the Army, for example, there is only one colonel's position available, which is that of commander of the brigade; there may be the competition for this single vacancy among about 5 to 8 lt. colonels within the same brigade at the battalion level.

Military officers will retire after completing their main period of service. Only officers in the 'general/admiral' ranks, or, for example, these in high-technology professions or with a Ph.D. degree may serve longer than the obligatory service length, if they want to. Once military officers retire and enter the employment market to seek a subsequent career in business or industrial society, they may find there are far more jobs and opportunities from which they can choose than are available in the military organisation. From this point of view, the business and industrial world may offer a broader job market with more development opportunities for those retired military officers who are seeking a second career; hence the invented cone as shown in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1 The Second Career Pattern for Military Officers



With the evolution and the development of military organisation over time, critical issues to be addressed include the following. Will national armed forces be able to offer rewarding career structures for their personnel, sufficient to retain the most able, given the decrease in the limited senior positions available, and at the same time to offer appropriate human resources to meet the need of national economic development? In

addition, will a nation, or its armed forces, be able to design effective resettlement programmes and strategies in order to recruit, train and retain (for periods required for optimal organisation performance) the best and brightest personnel for military and business organisations? (Bagnall-Oakley, 1991).

The military service will, in future, need to be able to show that they are providing value to society. This will include showing that they provide a first-rate training in skills that are of direct benefit to society once military personnel resettle in civilian careers. An effort should be made both to raise public awareness of the resettlement of retired officers and to ensure that the transferability of skills between military and civilian worlds is eased through, for example, reforms of the formal qualifications and accreditation of training provided by the services (Ramsbostham, 1992). However, whether the skills, training and education provided by the military are what the civilian business organisations require, will be investigated in this research.

An unpublished report to the President, Lee Teng-Hui (Lt. General, Pi Tan, 1992) emphasized that the Taiwanese military has long suffered the critical problem of how to attract quality officer cadets while, at the same time, more career officers retired every year than the military expects, resulting in inability to maintain officer corps at a reasonable level.

To deal with these issues, the military usually offers incentives to recruit and retain the best personnel. Depending on factors such as geo-strategic location and socio-political preference, nations emphasize a variety of incentives: intangible (e.g., patriotism, job satisfaction), tangible (e.g., payment, training programme, retirement pension), or a

combination. Of these incentives, retirement is one of the most common. Military retirement and the subsequent civilian careers in this study will be viewed within the larger context, as broad social, economic, political and cultural issues rather than a narrowly focused question of military compensation or resettlement.

The main linkages of the military retirement system to human resource management (HRM) lie in the areas of recruitment, retention and career development. Retirement is essential to the organisational well-being of the military for at least three reasons. First, quality military personnel are characterized as both aggressive and dynamic. They desire to assume positions of increased responsibility within the organisation and, if frustrated in this pursuit, may turn to better opportunities in alternative careers. Second, the rigour of a military career necessitates the involvement of younger personnel. Third, the ongoing retirement and replacement cycles inject innovation and dynamism into the military organisation.

A career of military service can entail a great variety of occupational experiences. Some career patterns can provide useful credentials for remunerative and rewarding civilian employment, such as doctor, lawyer and pilot, etc. Other officers' jobs may be of scant value in qualifying their holders for a civilian job. The most distinctively military specialism, the combat roles esteemed by the officer and soldier, would be those expected to offer the least transferability of skills to civilian jobs. From this standpoint, a training and development programme should compensate individuals differently according to the degree to which their particular service affects their second-career potential.

For example, a special warfare officer is professionally trained to manipulate lethal weapons and carry out special and dangerous missions. He has to spend most of service time to equip himself to achieve the special warfare tasks. Once he retires, there is no equivalent job in the civilian world waiting for him. However, we may argue that civilian jobs, such as mercenary, bodyguard or security, could be relevant and applicable for him.

To understand this aspect properly we should not think of today's career in military service as a separate and distinct profession, *per se*; rather, it is the bringing together of many professions as well as technical skills in an organized and coordinated effort towards common goals. It is this broad diversity of capabilities within the overall military profession which might be overlooked or overemphasized by some of Taiwan's business segments.

Huntington (1957) says:

“The modern officer corps is a professional body and the modern military officer a professional man” (in 1994 ed. p.7).

In keeping with this notion, for those officers engaged in the profession of arms, military service is more than just a job. It requires a “...special knowledge whose wellsprings are the skills of war” (Sarkesian, 1981, p.8). While it must operate within the same general value system as society as a whole, it, however, possesses its own code of conduct, performance standards, and educational, personnel and legal systems.

Owing to these attributes and conditions, career management performs a vital and valued service for those in the armed service. While each branch of Service must compete in the open market for young recruits, the military has traditionally trained officers' executive talent and leadership. Career management provides both the framework and the formula for acquiring, developing and ultimately, separating or retiring each generation of leading officers, till they (may) embark on their second careers.

This research seeks to develop a better understanding of their career development process before and after retirement, the employment situations of retired officers, and finally, the determinants of the process of transition to a successful second career. Thus, it is important to highlight the purpose, framework and significance of this research first, as follows:

1.2 The Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to identify and confirm basic relationships regarding the transfer and utility of educational attainments, skills and experience of retired military officers who have become employed in civilian occupations on a full-time basis. This will be investigated in the field research.

This research explores a body of empirical data dealing with officers' training and development for a second career based on a questionnaire survey of retired officers. Two broad lines of analysis of training and development will be pursued: (1) impact of actual career experiences, (2) determinants for the transition to civilian work. Of the

factors relating to career experience, the officers' perceptions of the utilization of their skills and experiences, and the transferability of their learning skills to civilian employment will be investigated.

More specifically, the study will concentrate on the experience of officers at the ranks of Lt. colonel and colonel retiring between 1992 to 1995 with twenty years or more of active service, and a small group of officers at the rank of major who retired from 1994 to 1995. With respect to the former, within the four-year span indicated, special attention will be given to variations in experience for each of the ranks, Lt. colonel and colonel.

Another research focus will be highlighted by those who are undergoing the resettlement training programme called 'Transitional Training Course' (TTC) and 'Business Management Course' (BMC). Those who are attending the BMC are active officers at the ranks of captain and major. One of the questions to be raised in this research is: is there any difference between those who participated in the resettlement training programme TTC and those who did not, in terms of their search for jobs and subsequent employment status after retirement?

This study will add to the body of knowledge developed thus far by specifically addressing the portability of education, managerial skills and experiences attained in the military context to civilian occupations among officer retirees, as it may have been affected by the changed and changing conditions of recent years. To the extent that formal educational attainment, training in specific skills and experimental application comprise some major segments of the overall transitional process to the second career,

this study should also add to the knowledge of educational and learning theories and practice as applied to this particular category of adults. To examine these issues, empirical research among these officers is required. In addition to the scarce historical and documentary sources available, the careers and backgrounds of 296 officers, in all of the Services, in the ranks of captain, major, Lt. colonel and colonel will be studied.

The framework of the study and its supplementary survey questions were informed by the Weberian research paradigm that has influenced the sociological analysis of complex organisations for almost a century. At the same time, this survey agenda sought to elicit information on the consequences and impacts of second careers on military officers. The questionnaires sought information on the practical utility of military experience as an asset in the civilian occupational sectors; the viability of military training and education in both military and civilian organisations; how military training and skills match with civilian job requirements; and what, if any, additional knowledge and skills have to be learned to facilitate the transition to civilian employment life.

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

officers to bridge the organisational gaps and facilitate re-entry into another work domain.

1.3 The Framework of the Research

The fundamental framework upon which the research was based rests on two pillars:

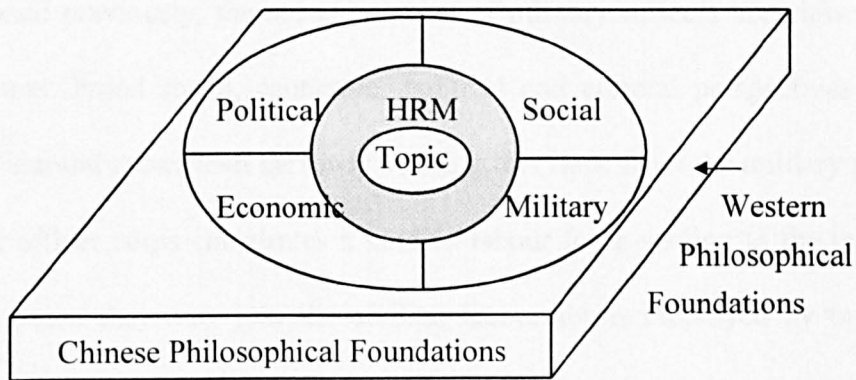
(1) Exploratory: This research seeks to make a beginning in exploring a topic which has not received attention so far in Taiwan, interviewing retired and active officers by a questionnaire survey, observing their career development patterns, and reporting on any findings that may merit consideration in reshaping the character and content of today's career management for active and retired military officers.

(2) Focus on retired officers: Retired officers, especially those at the ranks of major, lieutenant colonel and colonel, were among the elites of the military. What are their lives in civilian employment like? Are they the same as or different from lives in the military? These issues will be explored in this research. Officers with highly transferable skills, such as medical doctors, pilots, technical (hi-tech) officers, financial officers, or legal officers, are excluded from this research.

Figure 1.2 shows the framework used in developing this research. The basic foundation is philosophical and sociological thinking, in its Western and Chinese dimensions. Another four macro levels involve perceiving the research topic, 'second careers for military officers', from political, economic, sociological and military perspectives. At the focal level, we draw on career development and training and learning literature to

establish what we need to know about learning, training and development as an underpinning of effective human resource management for officers' second career development.

Figure 1.2 The Framework of the Research



The philosophical and sociological thinking applied in developing this research has two dimensions. First, the positivist approach, based upon Burrell and Morgan's (1979) paradigm, will be outlined with the ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions underlying the research. Insight into the organisation is gained through using their paradigm as an empirical frame of reference. Second, through Chinese philosophy, especially Confucianism and the theory of *Li*, the researcher will seek a synthesis to develop a dialogue between Chinese and Western philosophy and culture, or some relevant aspects of them.

Even though there are similarities between Chinese philosophy and some philosophical ideas in the West, the similarities and differences between them can be profoundly

significant and inspiring in philosophical inquiries. One may value the complex perspectives, reflected in this research, obtained by moving between two of the world's most developed philosophical frameworks for its own sake, and one may perceive, from these two philosophical and sociological foundations, a new angle of approach to human resource issues within the business and military contexts studied in this research.

As mentioned previously, the second careers of military officers are viewed within a larger context; broad social, economic, political and cultural perspectives should be taken into account rather than narrowly viewing this issue from the military perspective alone. The officer corps constitutes a kind of labour force serving in the military, and once they retire, they may join the civilian labour force, employed by business and industrial sectors. Thus, it is important to consider the relations between the military, politics and society in order to have a clear understanding of the issues of second career management of military officers in Taiwan.

These dimensions include the role and purpose of the military profession, the nature of the state and the political system served by the military profession, and civil-military relations. In addition, we need to see how Taiwan's economic conditions, its employment market and cultural factors impact on retirees' second career development and employment situations, since retired military officers are regarded as a valuable human resource for overall national economic development. Each of the components must be understood as they are interrelated and thus affect career development of military officers.

Officers develop through their life-span, achieving greater degrees of complexity, even transformation. They are, therefore, continuously engaging in learning processes as they seek a balance between the changing self and the changing environment. The theories and models of life-span and stage development have significant implications for human resource management of these military officers. Individual development interacts with the organisation and its development through the individual's career. Theories of career development, learning and training, therefore, are of significance for both individual and organisation, and for human resource management. As the topic of this research falls within the overlap of sociology, psychology, management and military theories, it is underpinned by a wide range of literature from these disciplines.

1.4 The Significance of the Study

This research is of the type that tackles a problem/issue; in this case, the employment situations and second careers of retired military officers, about which little is known, so research ideas cannot, at the beginning, be formulated very well. The problem may come from any part of the discipline; it may be a theoretical puzzle. However, the research work will need to examine what theories and concepts are appropriate, developing new ones if necessary, and whether existing methodologies can be used. It obviously involves pushing out the frontiers of knowledge in the hope that something useful and meaningful will be discovered.

Although retiree rolls are growing and the investment in pension dollars increases accordingly, there has been little or no attempt, either inside or outside the government and the military, to evaluate the transition of retired military officers to civilian life. This

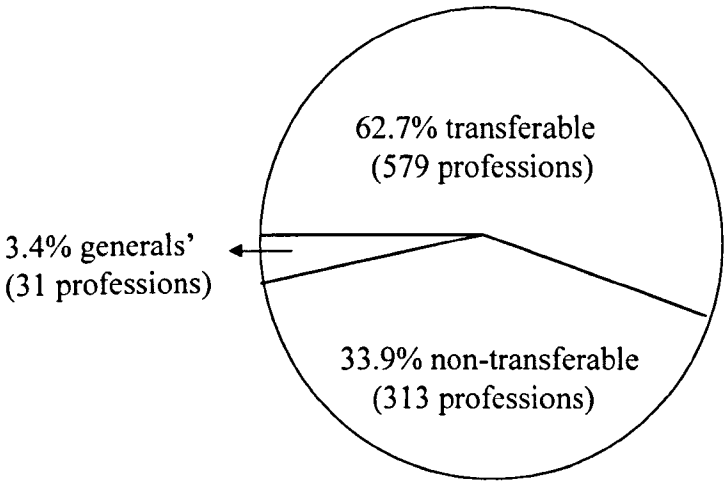
issue has long been neglected by the Taiwanese government and society, and hence very little information about it has been generated. Consequently, this research breaks new ground by trying to ascertain the basic relationships between education, training and career development and subsequent career success as they apply to retired military officers employed in civilian occupations in Taiwan.

The significance of this undertaking lies in the changing economic conditions of the period, their impact on the labour market and the compounding effect of greatly increased numbers of military officer retirees. The updated findings may be of practical use to officers on active duty but nearing retirement, as well as to officers who have already left the military service. The information may also be of use to planners in education and training institutions as well as educational and vocational counsellors. The purpose of this study will have been achieved if the frontier of knowledge in training, development and education as it applies to this distinct group of adults is advanced.

The actual degree to which retirees use their military-acquired skills in their civilian jobs is difficult to assess, given the necessarily broad job categories, military and civilian, to which complex job descriptions have to be reduced. Judging from job titles alone, close relationships between military and second-career occupational specialties apparently occur only in a small portion of the roles surveyed in this field research. Between 1992 and 1995, the Transitional Training Course (TTC) programme trained 2,239 officers at the ranks of Lt. colonel and colonel, achieving an employment rate of up to 82 % (The National Defence Report, 1996, p.195). Thus, experiences and skills acquired during military service in Taiwan have increasing transfer value in a civilian employment.

Currently, there are in total 923 professions in the job category of the officer corps in the Taiwanese armed forces (The Taiwanese Military Profession Table of the Officer Corps, 1995). 62.7% of these are at the ranks of second lieutenant to colonel, which means 579 professions can be equated and transferred to their civilian counterparts. These include financial accountant, physician, engineer, pilot, or personnel officer, etc. Another 33.9% which represents 313 military professions, are not transferable to civilian occupations. These include missile warfare officer, infantryman, special warfare officer, political warfare officer, etc. The remaining 3.4% of professions are at the ranks of general and admiral, which are outside the scope of this study (see Figure 1.3).

Figure 1.3 The Transferable Professions between Military and Civilian Sectors



Although the official report shows a high percentage 82% of employment rate for the total 2,239 officers retiring at the ranks of Lt. colonel and colonel between 1992 to 1995, and also 62.7% of the military professions can be equated and transferred to their civilian counterparts, these figures, however, do not show us the reality of their

employment lives. Did they face any difficulty in finding a job? Are they appropriately employed or under-employed, or unemployed? Are there steps that might be taken by officers already retired to improve their employment situations? To what degree are managerial skills acquired during military service flexible and applicable to civilian occupations? And what are the determinants for successful transition to a second career? All these questions still remain unanswered but need to be explored and highlighted in this research. Even if we cannot find the answers to these questions, this research may make a significant contribution in identifying what the right questions are.

Somewhat paradoxically, the line between military and non-military organisation has produced a military establishment that has increasingly come to display the characteristics typical of any large-scale organisation. Its institutional mission, war and violence in the name of national security, creates a special organisational context that influences its operations and processes, but like all large-scale organisations it displays fundamental uniformities characteristic of all social organisations (Weber, 1947).

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

However, this research seeks to carry out a pioneering work, where none has been done before in Taiwan, to probe the field, talk to retired and active officers, carry out the questionnaire survey and observe their career development patterns. It is also necessary to judge the research in terms of its contribution to managerial and sociological knowledge. And even more important, the question should be asked: “What are the long term implications of this research for managerial, sociological, or even military thinking?” These issues will be explored and addressed in Chapters 11 and 12 through the field research.

II. Underpinnings

Chapter 2: Western Philosophical Foundations

2.1 Introduction

All social scientists approach their subjects via explicit or implicit assumptions about the nature of the social world and the way in which it may be investigated. This notion has been presented in more detail elsewhere, for example, by Burrell and Morgan (1979). The insights within this research are in part based on their theories. My account of sociological theory begins with the antecedents of sociological positivism.

In this chapter I will briefly outline the ontological, epistemological and methodological assumptions underlying the research. This research programme applies a new vision stemming from Burrell and Morgan (1979), to an empirical analysis of human resource issues surrounding the second careers of retired military officers in Taiwan. Insight into the organisation is gained through using Burrell and Morgan's paradigms as empirical frames of reference. First, the researcher shall use these definitions of Burrell and Morgan (1979) to guide the discussion as follows:

Ontology : "Whether the 'reality' to be investigated is external to the individual
...or the product of individual consciousness; whether 'reality' is of
an 'objective' nature, or the product of individual cognition; whether

‘reality’ is given ‘out there’ in the world, or the product of one’s mind” (p.1).

Epistemology: “How one might begin to understand the world and communicate this as knowledge to fellow human beings...what forms of knowledge can be obtained, and how one can sort out what is to be regarded as ‘true’ from what is to be regarded as ‘false’” (p.1).

Methodology: “...the way in which one attempts to investigate and obtain knowledge” (p.2).

The term ‘ontology’ refers to what there is (from the Greek word for ‘being’) and ‘epistemology’ indicates what the theory of knowledge is (derived from the Greek word ‘episteme’) (Hollis, 1994). How can a person know the reality of the social world? How can social scientists escape from the ideological forms which distort the gaze of all human beings, including social scientists? Such questions can be seen in two groups. One group is entirely general and calls for an account of how we know anything about the world. Traditionally such ‘theory of knowledge’ starts by defining ‘knowledge’, for instance, as ‘justified, true belief’, which finds a class of facts which are beyond doubt, such as observed facts, and shows how we can justifiably build on these foundations.

Meanwhile, there is a second group, consisting of particular questions raised in making human consciousness and human action the subject of science. Does our knowledge of ourselves, our thoughts and actions, have the same character as our knowledge of the terrain at our feet and the material and social world around us?

In this chapter, the researcher will investigate sociological and philosophical issues relevant to this study, by reviewing four main areas of dispute: ontology, epistemology, methodology and the nature of human beings. Burrell and Morgan's 'paradigm' and the positivist approach will be discussed first.

2.2 Burrell and Morgan's Paradigm

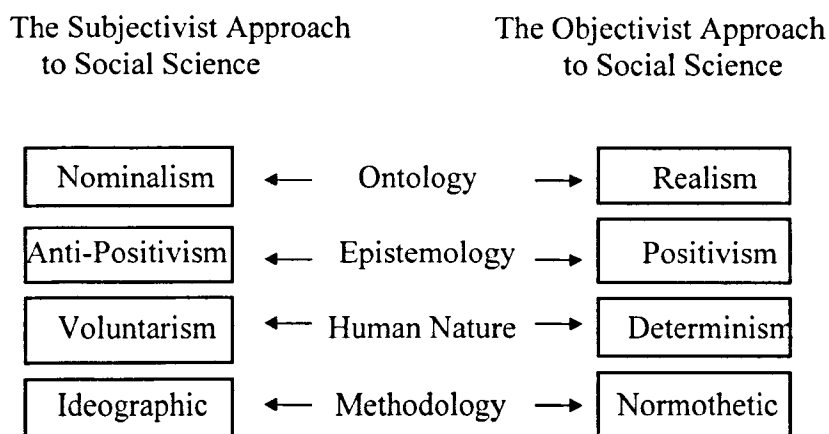
The ontological position one adopts is based upon one's beliefs about the nature of scientific knowledge, and one's views about what are, and/or are not, appropriate processes for acquiring, communicating and validating such knowledge (Whitley, 1984). Burrell and Morgan (1979) identifies two alternative epistemological positions, 'positivism' and 'anti-positivism', the distinction between the two resting on one's beliefs about whether a truly objective 'value-free' body of knowledge (that is 'fact') is capable of being created in the social sciences.

Of works that have attempted to define paradigm spaces in organisation theory, Burrell and Morgan's (1979) "Sociological Paradigms and Organisational Analysis" has attracted the most attention (see Salaman, 1981; Louis, 1983; Hopper and Powell, 1985; Clark, 1985; Holland, 1990; Jackson and Carter, 1991; Weaver and Gioia, 1994; De Cock, 1995).

As stated previously, there are four main areas of dispute in Burrell and Morgan's 'paradigms' (see Figure 2.1).

Figure 2.1

The Subjective - Objective Dimension



We can assume that each has two opposing extremes. Ontology is theory associated with what the world is or contains. The ontological debate concerns the nature of reality. The two opposing extremes of thought are as follows:

(1) Realism: Reality is external to the individual imposing itself on individual consciousness; it is given, 'out there', and is objective in nature. (2) Nominalism: Reality is a product of individual consciousness, a product of one's own mind or of individual cognition.

'Realism', postulates that the social world external to individual cognition is a real world made up of hard, tangible and relatively immutable structures. Whether or not we label and perceive these structures, the realists maintain, they still exist as empirical entities. For the realist, the social world exists independently of an individual's appreciation of it. The individual is seen as being born into and living within a social

world which has a reality of its own. It is not something which the individual creates - it exists 'out there'; ontologically it is prior to the existence and consciousness of any single human being. For the realist, the social world has an existence which is as hard and concrete as the natural world (Keat and Urry, 1975).

In contrast, the 'nominalist' position revolves around the assumption that the social world is external to individual cognition being made up of nothing more than names, concepts and labels which are used to structure reality. The nominalist does not admit to there being any 'real' structure to the world which these concepts are used to describe. The 'names' used are regarded as artificial creations whose utility is based upon their convenience as tools for describing, making sense of and negotiating the external world (Kolakowski, 1972).

An extension of this is the epistemological debate. Epistemology deals with two contrasting assumptions about the grounds of knowledge, about how one might begin to understand the world and communicate this knowledge to fellow human beings, and ideas about what forms of knowledge can be obtained. The two opposing extremes in this debate are the following:

(1) Positivism: knowledge is hard, real, and capable of being transmitted in a tangible form. (2) Anti-positivism: knowledge is soft, more subjective, spiritual, or even transcendental - based on experience, insight, and essentially of a personal nature.

So, what is positivism and anti-positivism? According to Guba (1990), positivists believe that is possible, by maintaining distance between the researcher and the

phenomenon, and by adhering strictly to precise scientific techniques, to produce objective scientific knowledge. Anti-positivists do not.

‘Positivists’ seek to explain and predict what happens in the social world by search for regularities and causal relationships between its constituent elements. Positivist epistemology is in essence based upon the traditional approaches which dominate the natural science. Burrell and Morgan (1979) maintain that both ‘verificationists’ and ‘falsificationists’ would accept that the growth of knowledge is essentially a cumulative process in which new insights are added to the existing stock of knowledge and false hypotheses eliminated.

The epistemology of ‘anti-positivism’ may take various forms but is firmly set against the utility of a search for laws or underlying regularities in the world of social affairs. For the anti-positivist, the social world is essentially relativistic and can only be understood from the point of view of the individuals who are directly involved in the activities which are to be studied.

Anti-positivists reject the standpoint of the ‘observer’, which characterizes positivist epistemology, as a valid vantage point for understanding human activities. They maintain that one can only understand by occupying the frame of reference of the participant in action. One has to understand from the inside rather than the outside. From this point of view, social science is seen as being essentially a subjective rather than an objective enterprise. Anti-positivists tend to reject the notion that science can generate objective knowledge of any kind (Douglas, 1970).

Related to these fundamental ideas is how we view the nature of human beings. The two opposing extremes of this debate are as follows:

(1) Determinism: humans are mechanistic, determined by situations in the external world; human beings and their experiences are products of their environment; they are conditioned by external circumstances. (2) Voluntarism: humans have a creative role and have free will; human beings create their environment; humans are voluntaristic.

This debate concerns the issue of what model of man is reflected in any given social-scientific theory. As regards the social science theories used to understand human activities, they must adhere implicitly or explicitly to one or other of these points of view, or adopt a median position which allows for the influence of both situational and voluntary factors in accounting for the activities of human beings.

Ontology, epistemology and our view of the nature of human beings directly influence the methodological approach that we adopt. Methodology is concerned with our attempts to investigate and obtain knowledge about the world in which we find ourselves. My position here is to follow the objective view of an external world, and the following ideas will be appropriate to guide the development of this research work.

It is appropriate to analyze relationships and regularities between the elements of which the world is composed; the concern is the identification and definition of the elements and the way relationships can be expressed. The methodological issues are concepts themselves, their measurement, and identification of underlying themes. In essence, there is a search for universal laws that govern the reality that is being observed.

Methodologies are based on systematic process and scientific technique.

Theories and methods characteristic of the functionalist paradigm will be used to generate a range of empirical data sets in this field research. An understanding of the metatheoretical principles of the Burrell and Morgan model can help the researcher to become familiar with the paradigms' cultures. In terms of the Burrell and Morgan framework, this research started in the functionalist paradigm by means of investigation: a questionnaire survey.

The functionalist paradigm rests upon the premises that society has a real, concrete existence and a systematic character and is directed towards the production of order and regulation. The paradigm advocates a research process in which the scientist is distanced from the subject matter by the rigour of the scientific method. The paradigm possesses a pragmatic orientation; it is concerned with analyzing society in a way which produces useful knowledge.

Burrell and Morgan divide social science by reference to the philosopher's theories of ontology and epistemology. They concentrate upon the metatheoretical assumptions which underpin theoretical statements. Having identified such assumptions, they plot various theoretical positions on their four-paradigm model. For analyzing the nature of social science, they suggest it is useful to conceptualize 'four sets of assumptions' related to ontology, epistemology, human nature and methodology. They argue that all social scientists, implicitly or explicitly, approach their disciplines via assumptions about the nature of the social world and how it should be researched. Assumptions are made about 'the very essence of the phenomena under study' (ontology), 'the grounds of

knowledge' (epistemology), 'the relationships between human beings' (human nature) and 'the way in which one attempts to investigate and obtain knowledge about the real world' (methodology).

In identifying these four sets of assumptions about the nature of society, Burrell and Morgan drew upon attempts by earlier social theorists (e.g., Lockwood, 1956; Dahrendorf, 1959) to distinguish between "those approaches to sociology which concentrate on explaining the nature of social order and equilibrium...and those which were more concerned with the problems of change, conflict and coercion..." (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p.10). However, Burrell and Morgan adopt the usual terms of order-conflict or consensus-coercion debates (see Figure 2.2).

Figure 2.2

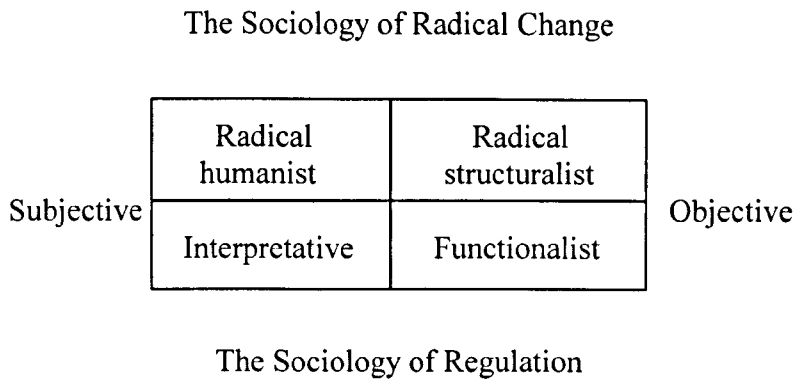
Two Theories of Society: 'Order' and 'Conflict'

The 'order' or 'integrationist' view of society emphasizes:	The 'conflict' or 'coercion' view of society emphasizes:
Stability	Change
Integration	Conflict
Functional Co-ordination	Disintegration
Consensus	Coercion

Burrell and Morgan specify four paradigms for organisational analysis by intersecting subjective-objective debates in the theory of social science with consensus-conflict debates in the theory of society. The four paradigms produced are the functionalist, the interpretive, the radical humanist and the radical structuralist (see Figure 2.3).



Figure 2.3 Four Paradigms For the Analysis of Social Theory



By polarizing these dimensions, the ‘conservative’ functionalists and interpretative paradigms are contrasted with the ‘radical’ humanist and structuralist paradigms. Conversely, with regard to the nature of social science, the functionalist and radical humanist paradigms which adopt an objectivist and scientific stance, are contrasted with the subjectivist emphases of the interpretive and radical humanist paradigms. In presenting the model, the authors argue that these paradigms should be considered “contiguous but separate - contiguous because of the shared characteristics, but separate because the differentiation is...of sufficient importance to warrant treatment of the paradigms as four distinct entities” (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p.23). As such, the four paradigms,

“...define fundamentally different perspectives for the analysis of social phenomena. They approach this endeavour from contrasting standpoints and generate quite different concepts and analytical tools” (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p.23).

Although the Burrell and Morgan model has been well received within organisational theory, those borrowing it have often done so with little regard to its internal validity. As a result, many problems have been overlooked. Pinder and Bourgeois (1982), for example, note how Burrell and Morgan's application of ontology is misplaced. They argue that Burrell and Morgan adopt the non-standard use of ontology that has been popular during the last thirty years.

Pinder and Bourgeois explain that this use refers not to ontology *per se* but to the set of 'existential pre-suppositions' of a theory, or the set of assumptions that must be made if one is to accept a theory as valid. They argue that for the past three centuries ontology has had a relatively stable meaning as "the study of being *qua* being, i.e. the study of existence in general, independent of any particular existing things" (Pinder and Bourgeois, 1982, p.13). In the strict sense of the term, therefore,

"It is not a question of ontology to ask whether organisations exist...whether organisations exist is a matter for science to deal with because it concerns the existence of particular things, not the nature of existence" (Pinder and Bourgeois, 1982, p.13).

Another issue for Burrell and Morgan is whether the inter-paradigm networks specified in their model adhere to common, or at least similar, images of the subject matter. In the same way as Friedheim (1979) criticized Ritzer (1975) for placing conflict theory and structural-functionalism within the same paradigm, it can be argued that Burrell and Morgan's location of Silverman's (1970) action theory in the same paradigm as

Skinnerian behaviourism (Skinner, 1953) is problematic. Silverman's (1970) work on the action frame of reference could be better located within the interpretive paradigm, despite the arguments Burrell and Morgan make for the metatheoretical assumptions being characteristic of the objectivist region of the functionalist paradigm. However, Silverman (1970) maintains that

“Meanings are given to men by their society. Shared orientations become institutionalised and are experienced by later generations as social facts”
(quoted by Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p.196).

Silverman argues that social scientists should try to build their theories upon foundations viewing social reality as being socially constructed, socially sustained and socially changed. In recognition of the fact that social life is a continuous process, sustained and accomplished by social regularities, Silverman advocates the action frame of reference as providing a basis for analysis. From this perspective, we may argue that Silverman is an objectivist.

Because the four paradigms are exclusive entities, we are left with problems concerning the justification for paradigm incommensurability (e.g., Jackson and Carter, 1991; Weaver and Gioia, 1994), the relativism to which this seems to lead, and ultimately of how inter-paradigm understanding can be achieved. Although Burrell and Morgan offer examples of paradigm transitions through gestalt-like leaps of faith (e.g. by Marx, 1967 and, in organisation theory by Silverman, 1970), the explanation of the change process is never developed beyond a rather superficial acceptance of the instant-paradigm thesis (Watkins, 1970; Maruyama, 1974). This means that in Burrell and Morgan references to

inter-paradigm understanding are confusing.

While initially there is the assertion that “the four paradigms are mutually exclusive...they offer different ways of seeing” (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p.25), later there is wavering between Giddens’ argument that “some inter-paradigm debate is also possible” and their own, rather equivocal, view that “relations between paradigms are better described in terms of ‘disinterested hostility’ rather than ‘debate’” (Burrell and Morgan, 1979, p.36). This equivocation invites Friedheim’s (1979) criticism about sociologists arguing for paradigm blindness and paradigm bridges, simultaneously. In organisation theory, the Burrell and Morgan model has been at the centre of this debate (Donaldson, 1985, 1991; Reed, 1985; Ackroyd, 1992; and Willmott, 1990, 1993).

2.3 Positivist Approach

The problems this research tries to identify and solve, either to satisfy my own intellectual curiosity or to develop this research, have led me to adopt views about the nature of the world and how to learn more about it. The fundamental epistemological questions for me are why do I want to know more about the world, how should I go about knowing more about it, and how can I gain confidence that I have learned more about it?

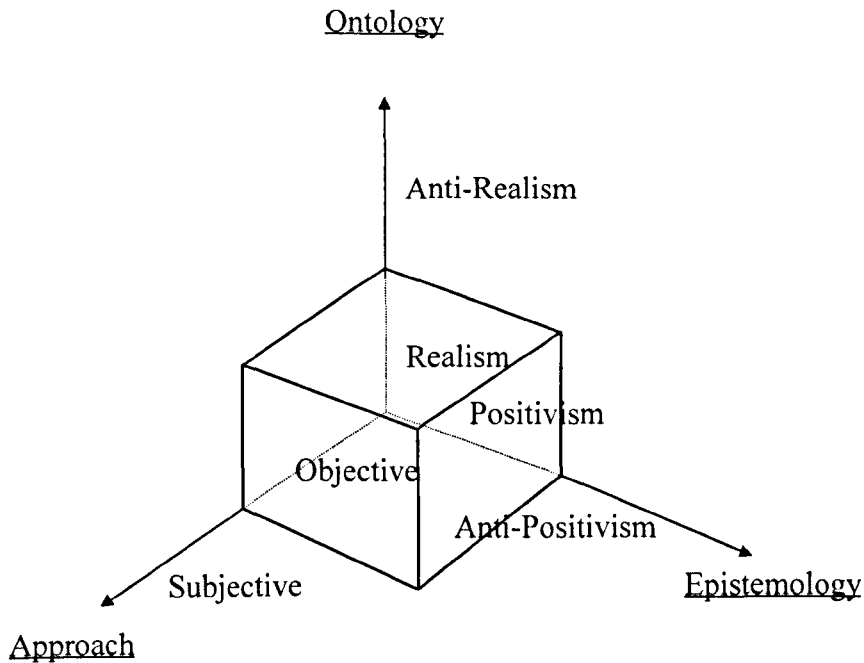
There are certainly many different ways to answer these questions. The basic belief system of positivism is rooted in a realist ontology (Burrell and Morgan, 1979), that is, the belief that there exists a reality ‘out there’, driven by unchangeable natural laws. Natural science seeks to discover the true nature of reality and how it truly works.

However, I am concerned with a paradigm that guides disciplined inquiry. Historically, there have been many such: for example, Giddens (1976), Guba and Lincoln (1989), but since Descartes (1596-1650), inquirers have tended to focus on what, in its latter-day version, came to be known as 'positivism' (Guba, 1990).

The terms 'positivism' and 'sociology' are both commonly supposed to have originated with Comte (1853), and in particular his 'The Positivist Philosophy'. Positivism in philosophy has come to be associated with epistemologies which make experience the foundation of all knowledge, and also with their complementary ontologies which propose a division between objects which are accessible to observation and objects which are not; and positivism in sociology has come to be associated with the very idea of a social science and the quest to make sociology scientific.

Once committed to a realist ontology, the positivist is constrained to practise an objectivist epistemology. Figure 2.4 shows my ontological and epistemological stance and the methodology which I will use in this research. If there is a real world operating according to the natural laws, then the inquirer must behave in ways that put questions directly to nature and allow nature to answer back directly. But how can that be done, given the possibility of inquirer bias, on the one hand, and nature's disposition to confuse, on the other? According to the positivist, it is by the use of a manipulative methodology that controls for both, and empirical methods that place the point of decision with nature rather than with the inquirer.

Figure 2.4 Ontological and Epistemological Positions and Its Methodology



A researcher cannot advance his/her knowledge about what he/she has previously accepted and used as a resource in his/her subsequent inquiries. Since a researcher can never be entirely certain of the knowledge he/she has already accepted, any new knowledge he/she gains may so undermine or impact his/her world view that it may tumble if the new knowledge seriously challenges what he/she has already accepted.

Thus, the researcher follows Dewey (1929) in assuming that knowledge is a human artefact created as a means for coming to terms with the world as well as for creating it. The knowledge we accumulate, our methods for accumulating it, and the criteria by which our methods are considered scientific are all historical products, the result of past attempts at dealing with what Dewey called 'problematic situations'. These views are mainly the accumulated product of my past work and life experiences. Dewey believed strongly that intellectual inquiry,

“in spite of the diverse subjects to which it applies, and the consequent diversity of its special techniques, has a common structure or pattern: that this common structure is applied both in common sense and science” (Dewey, 1966, p.101).

The issues and problems of this research take place within organisations and society; specifically, among retired military officers where the problem of a second career arises. Most of all, the researcher is presented with issues occurring in an existing concrete setting, military and business organisations and somewhere between them which we may call the social setting, rather than problems raised by theory that then lead the researcher to search for or create a setting or model within which to understand the problem better and more clearly.

Positivists believe that there is a real world to be observed and that accurate observation is feasible, but they are aware of the problems of doing so. A specific concern is that observer values can intrude into the inquiry process and bias the results. This concern leads them to adopt an objectivist stance, that is, the belief that it is important for all researchers to behave in ways which minimize the risk of bias by trying to be as objective as possible; by maintaining a distance between themselves and the object of study, by suppressing their own values during interpretation and obeying a series of approved inquiry techniques in, for example, sampling, observing, analyzing and reporting. By doing so, the output of the inquiry process will be as close to ‘fact’ as research technology permits.

It is my belief that if empirical tests are to be valid as arbiters of hypotheses and questions put to nature by inquirers, then it is essential that the 'facts' that are collected must be independent of theoretical statements. But philosophers of science believe that facts are facts only within some theoretical framework (Hesse, 1980). From this perspective, 'reality' exists only in the context of a mental framework for thinking about it.

There are always a large number of theories that can explain a given body of 'facts'. Observing one hundred thousand green apples does not provide indisputable evidence for the assertion, 'All apples are green'. Thus, no unquestionable explanation is ever possible. 'Reality' can be seen only through a window of theory, whether implicit or explicit. If 'reality' can be seen only through a theory window, it can be equally be seen only through a value window. Hence, we may argue that no inquiry or research can be totally value free.

In this way, through a process of assumption, scientific inquiry, test and analysis, over time, a body of scientific knowledge can be constructed which has the status of true knowledge. In this field survey, which was based on these beliefs and used postal questionnaires as inquiry methods, according to the positivist approach it is possible, by obeying certain rules, to produce objective knowing which accurately reflects the real world.

The appeal of positivist principles in the development of social theory is the most obvious expression of an enduring concern throughout the field for preferred forms of

knowledge and epistemological legitimacy (Bergner, 1981). While Giddens (1976, 1979, 1984) has a number of important proposals regarding the nature and critical intent of social scientific knowledge, he is unwilling to shape his inquiries to conform to a predetermined set of epistemological principles. Instead, he takes his bearings from central problems concerning the subject-matter of social scientific knowledge. To concentrate on epistemological issues, he argues that it:

“...draws attention away from the more ‘ontological’ concerns of social theory and it is these upon which Structuration theory primarily concentrates. Rather than becoming preoccupied with epistemological disputes and with the question of whether or not anything like ‘epistemology’ in its time-honored sense can be formulated at all, those working in social theory, I suggest, should be concerned first and foremost with reworking conceptions of human being and human doing, social reproduction and social transformation” (Giddens, 1984, p.20).

I view ‘human resource management’ (HRM) as the study of relations between groups, individuals, and personal and organisational development. HRM emphasizes the importance of integrating human resource policies with organisational objectives, and sees every individual person as a valued asset. I do not see how one can study human resource management without making the ontological assumption that people and organisations exist as relatively concrete entities. Otherwise, one can only contribute on the issue, for example, of whether and in what ways people and organisations exist, as do the interpretive theorists.

The interpretive approach stands in contrast to the positivist. It is concerned not with reality itself, but how we experience reality. Their theories are built from the standpoint of the individual actor as opposed to the observer of action; they view social reality as a human consciousness and subjective experience. An interpretive approach is that theories and concepts tend to arise from the inquiry. They come after data collection rather than before it. Because of this, it is often referred to as 'hypothesis generating' as against 'hypothesis testing' research (Stouffer, 1962). In addition, from an interpretive view, data collection and analysis are not rigidly separated.

Checkland (1981) argued that the positivist approach is characterized by "a readiness to concede primacy to the given world as known through experimental evidence" (p.316). The positivist approach provides the basis of scientific methods, and applies the rational and ordered principles of the natural sciences to human affairs generally. It presents itself in a stance for objectivity, in the construction of testable hypotheses, in the collection of empirical data, in the research for causal relationship and in quantification.

The 'scientific' approach is usually regarded as beginning with theory. A theory is a general statement by proposing a general relationship between events. And then it will cover a large number of events and predict events that have not yet occurred, or been observed. The word 'scientific' represents that there is only one, relatively rigid and narrow, view about science and the scientific methods. Medawar (1969) maintained,

"It is no use looking to scientific "papers" for they not only merely conceal but actively misrepresent the reasoning that goes into the work they

describe” (p.169).

A possible danger here relates to what Ryle (1968) called “category error”. It is all very well to question the ontological status of organisations and social reality, but it does not advance our knowledge of the way organisations are structured as the functionalist stance, the way ‘reality’ is formed or recognized, and the way individuals and groups behave. Thus, we need to clarify some basic and conceptual issues through following assumptions.

2.4 Assumptions

My view as to the nature of my thesis research is based on the following assumptions. The first concerns ‘metaphysics’. I have an *a priori* ontological belief that the world of human resource management is full of regularities and an *a priori* epistemological belief that we can manipulate our concepts so that the relevant data or facts can expose these. The data should be communicable and objective. The second assumption concerns ‘ethics’. While I accept that our values affect what we choose to study, and how we develop our concepts to study it, I believe that there is a separation between facts and values, and though facts are value-related, they are not value-determined. Researchers should try to remain as neutral in the conduct of their research as possible and, by adopting the procedures used by others of their persuasion, permit replication and comparison.

These two assumptions lead to the development of a conceptual framework of analytical constructs that will be used to focus on and analyze the regularities of the presenting

data. As far as I am concerned, Hume (1740) has convincingly demonstrated that to believe that an other exists is just as much an unquestioned assumption as to believe that an organisation exists. Those working in other paradigms may wish to make other assumptions, but the ontological status of these assumptions does not differ from that of the structural functionalist ones (Morgan, 1983). Thus, we have to reify something if we are to move from metaphysics to human resource management, and this is a matter of research objectives and strategies, not of ontology.

The third assumption must therefore concern what is to be the subject of study. As stated earlier, I defined 'human resource management' as the study of relations between groups, individuals, and personal and organisational development. It is a subdiscipline that draws on a variety of human and social science disciplines and interrelates them to illuminate the subject of this research. What I would emphasize here is my belief in the necessity of studying and theorizing, without regard to what have traditionally been considered discipline boundaries, and of adopting an interdisciplinary approach.

The society, organisation, groups and individual factors should be studied in relation to one another, by emphasizing that any entity, from a living cell to a whole society, may be looked at in its own light as an open system or as a subsystem of a larger system that then becomes its environment (e.g., von Bertalanffy, 1950; Miller, 1965).

The fourth assumption depends on a distinction that I like to draw between 'wisdom', by which I mean a stock of intelligence and foresight, and 'knowledge', as a set of substantiated findings or the state of knowing. Wisdom is much deeper and richer than knowledge is, but it is often confounded with superstition and incompatible beliefs and

ideas, and sometimes it is difficult to distinguish wisdom and knowledge in terms of the different definitions applied by different people. Knowledge is generated through systematic, comparative, replicative, scientific study of the empirical world. Our knowledge is always partial and falls behind wisdom in its claims.

However, the aim of understanding human resource issues in organisation and society is regarded as an object of study in its own light, not simply as a setting in which to apply accepted sociological and psychological knowledge. More important, the topic of this research is not limited to asking sociological, psychological and managerial research questions; it develops its own problems related to the conceptual framework.

In a hypothetical world, knowledge may be characterized as either science or non-science. The task of science, traditionally, was seen to be the discovery of law-like generalizations about the world, in the social world in a manner commensurate with the practice of science in the natural world. Jackson and Carter (1991) claim that:

“The knowledge produced by science was understood to be factual, constant and objectively true. Non-scientific knowledge was knowledge constituted by, e.g., myth, opinion, value, norms, etc. - i.e. subjectivity, and thus was outside the realm of science” (p.112).

Because of the objective and factual character of scientific knowledge, scientists were neutral agents who merely made intelligible what nature had concealed. As such, scientists obviously could not be seen as morally responsible for what was the work of nature, and hence could not be held responsible for the effects of their findings.

Traditionally, the social sciences, following the natural sciences, have in effect attempted to deal with problems by drawing a distinction between the realm of subject and object, and by presuming that scientists are able to represent the external world in objective forms of knowledge. As Rorty (1979) has shown, the traditional conception of scientific knowledge has drawn heavily on visual metaphors that favour the idea that the 'Eye of the Mind' sees knowledge in correspondence with, as a representation and a general mirroring, or reflection of, the world.

This visual conception of knowledge has favoured development of the idea that the ultimate criterion for evaluating the claims of theories must be through means of empirical tests or predictions that appear to correspond with the facts as a means of determining objective truth. The theories that contribute most to our knowledge are, from this point of view, those that are able to describe or predict what is happening in the external world.

The assumption that the subjective mind and external reality are quite separate realms fosters the idea that theories and concepts, the products of the scientist's mind, can be tested against the independent facts of objective reality in a way that allows us to decide which one is the truest explanation of that reality. This sets the basis for a science searching for a knowledge that is certain and true in a fundamental sense. Science, in effect, becomes a quest for the foundations of knowledge. The external world is used as the ultimate, independent point of reference against which the accuracy of our thoughts and ideas, expressed in terms of theories, propositions, and predictions, can be judged.

However, as soon as it is accepted that what the 'Eye of the Mind' sees in the external world may be as much a consequence of the nature of the eye as it is of the object seen, there are some problems for the view that the 'truth claims' of scientific theories can be judged in terms of a criterion of objective knowledge based on an ability to mirror or reflect the nature of external world. This line of argument opens the way to the idea that objectivity is as much a part of the observer as it is of the object studied, and that all knowledge of the world is in some degree a socially constructed knowledge, since what the 'Eye of the Mind' sees is shaped by the assumptions that frame the scientist's investigation.

Bacon (1620) distinguishes two ways of discovering truth in his "First Book of Aphorisms", and he declares:

"There are and can be only two ways of searching into and discovering truth. The one flies from the senses and particulars to the most general axioms, and from these principles, the truth of which it takes for settled and immovable, proceeds to judgment and the discovery of middle axioms. And this way is now in fashion. The other derives axioms from the senses and particulars, rising by a gradual and unbroken ascent, so that it arrives at the most general axioms last of all. This is the true way, but as yet untried" (p.2).

The truth to be searched into was truth about nature, meaning the universe had been created and furnished. Both ways were ways of discovering the true order in nature by

scientifically applying Reason. They differed sharply in their analysis of Reason and how to apply it, but they agreed on the project, that of constructing a new science based on absolutely certain truths. New ideas of Reason were accompanied by new ideas of nature and led to new ideas about human nature and society (Hollis, 1994).

The constituents of the world, and the laws which govern their movements, are discoverable through science alone, science being the only form of knowledge, although science cannot discover all the constituents of the world and all laws which govern them. Comte (1853) was assuming that the world is a structure of objects which exist independently of our conceptions of them and about which we try to obtain ever closer representations. Saint-Simon (1975) says:

“the general system of our knowledge...on the basis of the belief that the universe is ruled by a single immutable law” (p.123).

In addition, Durkheim (1938) used ‘real’ in the same way as Comte. He claimed that the real, the natural, is a world of things which exist independently of the more or less exact ideas, or ‘representations’, we have of them.

Positivism is a term with many uses in social science and philosophy. However, in the broad sense, it embraces any approach which applies scientific methods to human affairs conceived as belonging to a natural order open to objective inquiry.

2.5 Conclusion

I believe there is a real world that exists independently of me and of which I will always have imperfect and incomplete knowledge. I come closest to experiencing it directly when I tried to minimize interpreting it. If I make any pretense to knowing something about that world, that knowledge will be limited by the language and conceptual frameworks I have learned as a product of the time and place I occupy historically and culturally. In the independence of such a world, I am continuously challenging and questioning what I have researched and analyzed.

My own stance on this research is positivist; I believe that is possible to develop my research by maintaining distance between the researcher and the phenomenon, and by adhering strictly to precise scientific techniques to produce objective scientific knowledge. Anti-positivists maintain that all research is value-laden, and that this affects the whole inquiry process, from the initial choice of phenomena to study through to the angle of inquiry, together with the methodological, analytical and interpretative frameworks employed (Morgan, 1980; Hirschman, 1986).

I believe that it may be possible to tackle the effects of values by striving for neutrality, though it will not be possible to wipe them from the researcher's mind totally. It is important for all researchers to behave in ways which minimize the risk of bias by trying to be as objective as possible; by maintaining a distance between themselves and the object of study; by suppressing their own values during interpretation and obeying a series of inquiry techniques in, for example, questionnaire survey, sampling, observing, interviewing, analyzing and reporting.

Guba (1990) suggests that it is possible to approximate, but not to achieve, a state of objective knowledge by giving bounded rationality and the limitations of individual research techniques and conceptual framework. In addition, by adopting the procedures used by others which permit replication and comparison, something approximating objectivity within the social science community can be achieved although quite what the status of the 'truth' might be is debatable.

Associated with my ontology is realism coupled with objectivism. One of the reasons for this may be that an objectivist stance reflects my work experience as a personnel analyst in the Ministry of National Defence where I was trained to carry out research in order to formulate personnel policies, by means of the scientific inquiry process. In fact, in order to pursue any substantive study I would need to assume a realist, determinist, positivist approach to develop this research. I work in what Burrell and Morgan (1979) have described as the functionalist paradigm, for the very pragmatic reason that this is one of the best ways I can see of contributing to my research field - human resource management. Another important approach is from Chinese philosophical perspectives which will be discussed in next chapter.

Chapter 3: Chinese Philosophical Foundations

3.1 Introduction

Chinese philosophy and culture will be discussed with reference to the Taiwanese context in this chapter. Naess and Hannay (1972) argued that in Taiwan, the main trend of thought is Neo-Confucianism.

“Three main trends of thought are discernible: Communism on the mainland; Pragmatism-Logical Positivism, and Neo-Confucianism in so-called Free China” (Naess and Hannay, 1972, p.20).

Contemporary Chinese Neo-Confucian philosophers realize that in order to reconstruct some of the important traditional philosophical insights and make them meaningful in the present time, certain ontological, epistemological and methodological considerations must be taken into account. In addition, Neo-Confucianism plays an important role in Taiwan’s society (Naess and Hannay, 1972), and Confucianism is the most lasting legacy which persists in Taiwan, China and far-flung Chinese communities throughout the world (Reid, 1988).

More importantly, Taiwan is a mixture of Western and Chinese tradition in terms of its organisational design, management, and training and education systems of industrial and business sectors. Taiwan’s political and economic development, and military systems have been closely linked with the West, especially America. As a Chinese researcher, it

is inevitable that in developing this study, the researcher's philosophical and sociological thinking has been influenced mainly by Chinese philosophy, such as Confucianism and the theory of *Li*, in addition to the Western philosophical perspectives. Thus, it is also important to clarify the relevance of Chinese philosophy to this thesis.

First, the researcher will proceed to review the Confucianism which provides the sociological and philosophical underpinnings of this research work. And then, through analyzing the concepts of knowledge and theory of *Li*, a new vision will be highlighted. Understanding of these ideas will be facilitated by the brief outline of Confucian philosophy which begins this chapter. The terminology of Chinese philosophy is also introduced which includes the original Chinese words, or names.

3.2 Some Considerations on Studying Chinese Philosophy

A researcher who studies Chinese philosophy in English or other languages may be led into some confusion and misunderstandings concerning the true nature of Chinese philosophy. Even current Chinese researchers, with experience of studying Chinese philosophy through the medium of Chinese literature and language, cannot claim fully and precisely to understand the true nature and meaning of Chinese traditional philosophy, because, for example, we cannot fully and precisely understand the languages and words used by these ancient philosophers, which are quite different from the ones in use today.

A Western researcher, drawn by interest to the Chinese philosophical tradition, so remote from his/her own, does not expect to find ideas he/she can pick up out of their

contexts and then implant into his/her world. Even when he/she comes on an apparently familiar issue, such as how to define human nature, he/she is alert to distinctions and similarities. One may value the complex perspectives, gained in this research, from moving between two of the world's most developed philosophical pictures for its own sake. In this effort, one may be expected to perceive deeper insights when the philosophical and sociological foundations may open up a new angle of approach to the human resource issues studied in this thesis.

However, one may claim that Chinese philosophy is so radically different from Western modes of thinking that is impossible or difficult to convey Chinese philosophy in Western terms. This assumption is fallacious and misleading, because, in fact, there are salient traditions of naturalism and rationalism in Chinese philosophy and some other universal elements, which should make comparisons and contrasts between Chinese philosophy and Western philosophy possible. Certainly, even though there are similarities between Chinese philosophy and some philosophical ideas in the West, it must be pointed out that similarities and differences can be profoundly significant and inspiring in philosophical inquiries. In truth, a dialogue between Chinese and Western philosophies can be conducted and developed only when similarities and differences between them are not limited to surface observations.

To develop a dialogue between Chinese and Western philosophy, or parts of them, one has to understand, first of all, the languages of both traditions and theories, and to be able to translate properly from one language into another. To do this, it is evident that one has to have creative insights so that one can see philosophical or sociological issues presented in different ways and thus can conceptualize them in one's own thinking and

research. Hence, the researcher will try to play such a role to explore these two different philosophies as a basis for this research.

Western scholars tend to classify all social sciences and philosophies into realist, positivist, determinist or objectivist, subjectivist, etc. (for example, Burrell and Morgan, 1979, discussed in Chapter 2), but this approach towards the study and evaluation of Chinese philosophy is unacceptable and undesirable, as it is based on dogmatic premises which are not open to criticism (e.g., Tang, 1977; Ames, 1988). In addition, this kind of classification in use is too general and vague to capture the individual merits and demerits of specific schools or thinkers. It may eventually lead to a distorted picture of Chinese philosophy, rather than to a clarification of it. Thus, I do not intend to follow any such classification, but rather, to take Chinese philosophy as the other part of philosophical framework of this research.

3.3 Confucianism

From the second century B.C. onward, Chinese political and ultimately social and intellectual activities have been most strongly influenced by the precepts espoused by the Confucianist. When it came to political and intellectual ascendancy during the Han dynasty (just over 200 years prior to the Christian era), Confucianism already had a more than 300-year history. Weber (1964) maintains that Confucianism formed a political ideology of officials and intellectuals in ancient Chinese imperial times. Berger (1983) argues that Confucianism is practical ethics which he called 'vulgar Confucianism' and which Chinese people follow in daily life including a kind of belief and value of hard work, an dedication towards family, strict discipline and a frugal life.

Confucius' main concern was with human interaction and relations (*Guan Xi*, 關係, interpersonal relations). Taken as a whole, Confucianism is more in the nature of an ethical code or code of honour than a religion or school of philosophy. As such, it is necessarily worldly in outlook and rationalistic in approach. *Lun Yu*, (倫語, Analects), the *Da Xue* (大學, The Great Learning), *Zhong Yong* (中庸, The Doctrine of the Mean) and *Meng Tze* (孟子, The Doctrine of Mencius), published by Confucius and his disciples, are famous as so-called 'The Four Books'. According to these classic books, the basic principle of Confucian ethics is *jen* (仁), the dynamic principle of life, consciousness and love. The word, *jen*, has been rendered in English as 'human-heartedness', 'benevolence' and 'humanity'.

Within the Confucian school, the famous dispute on *ke wu* (格物, investigation of all things) between the school of Zhu Xi (1033-1107) and the school of Wang Yang-ming (1472-1529) may be interpreted as an epistemological dispute. But the emphasis was laid on the dispute between the different interpretations of the goal and the method of *Da Xue* (大學, The Great Learning) (Chan, 1967). The aims of 'The Great Learning' are to illustrate virtue, or good human nature, to renovate or improve the people, and to rest in the highest good. According to its doctrine, there are eight steps to realize these three aims: (1) objective investigation, (2) acquisition of knowledge, (3) sincerity of will, (4) right-heartedness, (5) cultivation of the person, (6) proper family relations, (7) orderliness in the nation, and (8) peace and equality in the world. The progression of achieving these aims is from the head to the heart, from being to doing, and from the immediate to the distant (Legge, 1971, pp.356-358).

The metaphysical aspects of Confucius' teaching find their fullest exposition in the *Zhong Yong* (The Doctrine of the Mean), said to have been written by the Master's grandson, Tzu Szu (子思), and his disciples. The basic principle stressed in this book, *Zhong Yong*, is the 'Spirit of Sincerity' (Truth), which sustains and moves the universe and everything in it. The Chinese word for it is *Ch'eng* (誠). It is absolute, eternal and intelligent. There is communion between the sincerity in people's heart and that of Heaven's Way. The implication is that people and nature are both spiritual. Therefore, people are able to influence truth. Thus one reads in *Zhong Yong* (The Doctrine of the Mean):

“Sincerity is the way of Heaven. The attainment of sincerity is the way of men....It is only he who is possessed of the most complete sincerity that can exist under heaven, who can give its full development to his nature...he can assist the transforming and nourishing powers of Heaven and Earth...he may with Heaven and Earth form a ternion...It is characteristic of the most entire sincerity to be able to foreknow...Therefore the individual possessed of the most complete sincerity is like spirit” (Legge, 1971, pp. 413-18, *Zhong Yong*, Chapters 20-25).

Confucian metaphysics approaches religion here. Its rationalism is in no sense anti-religious. In fact, Confucius was a firm believer in the moral law of Heaven. His belief may be said to agree with Christ's declaration that the kingdom of Heaven is within the person. The Confucian concept of truth lends itself to many interpretations, according to how closely the Supreme Logos is identified with human nature. Viewed externally, the

Confucian *Tao* ('Way') shares some attributes with Taoist *Tao*. To pure intellect, it approximates the spirit of modern science. Embraced in the heart, it takes possession of one's soul.

It is certainly not a foregone conclusion that the Chinese had anything like Western concepts of, for example, knowledge, but we need to demonstrate on the basis of textual evidence what kinds of notions of knowledge existed within the Chinese philosophical context, which can reflect upon my epistemological stance in this thesis. In the following sections, the conceptions of knowledge and the theory of *li* (理) in Chinese philosophy will be studied.

3.4 Conceptions of Knowledge

The distinction between the nouns 'knowledge' and 'belief' was basic for the development of Greek philosophy and for science. The task of philosophy can simply be defined as the art of the distinguishing things we know from those which we merely believe. In contrast with Western epistemological theories of the knowledge, we have to reconstruct early Chinese views of knowledge on the basis of the more fragmentary evidence provided by various Chinese philosophers in ancient times.

It is noteworthy that the ancient Chinese did not have a single noun for a belief or a piece of knowledge. 'Being knowledgeable', 'being wise' and 'knowing things' are indeed subjects of theoretical discourse in ancient China. However, there are two realms of knowing that should be distinguished for the purpose of this research: (1) knowing things, (2) knowing how.

3.4.1 Knowing Things

We turn first to the object of the verb *zhi* (知, to know), which we call ‘knowing things’. For example, the ancient Chinese commonly spoke of the importance of ‘knowing men’ (*zhi ren*, 知人). The knowing of people is more than the knowing (Liu, 1932). This ‘knowing people’ includes knowing how to handle and use people, in other words, how to establish the relationships among people (*Guan Xi*, 關係). Again, ancient Chinese thinkers frequently commended someone for ‘knowing ritual’ (*zhi li*, 知禮), and by this they certainly meant that the person in question is properly educated and ritually well trained.

Academic or theoretical knowing of ritual by itself would not, in ancient China, have qualified one as *zhi li* (knowing ritual) in every sense of the word. ‘Knowing ritual’ in ancient China is usually taken not as a purely intellectual awareness of the truth of propositions. One might plausibly argue that it is an acquired skill. When it comes to ‘knowing the Way’ (*zhi Tao*, 知道), this does not mean intellectually knowing something; rather, it is mainly understood to refer to a moral and prudent skill or attitude. Greel (1974) says: “The ruler knows the Way, the minister knows the tasks” (p.350). ‘Knowing the Way’ in ancient China does know how to go about things, or to deal with things. Consider the following philosophically fascinating passage:

“People all use their lives and live, but they do not know that whereby they live; they use their knowledge and know (*yi zhi zhi*, 已知之), but they do not

know that whereby they know. Knowing that whereby one knows is called ‘knowing the way’ (*zhi tao*, 知道). Not knowing that by which one knows is called ‘throwing away the treasure’” (Willhelm, 1922, p.58, Chinese words added).

What exactly is this thing called ‘that whereby one knows’? Is it some discursive knowing? Let us compare:

“There are many people who are not aware what they practise, who do not inquire into what they repeatedly do, who follow a way all their lives but do not understand (*zhi*, 知) it” (Lau, 1981, p.265, Chinese word added).

Notice here that the common people, in practise, do follow and know their way. In practical terms they do know what they are doing and where they are going. The crucial point made by *zhi* (to know, knowledge) is that they do not understand; thus, what is implied is that many people know things and facts but fail to understand reasons and explanations. Interestingly, the early Confucians do, in fact, speak often of ‘knowing benevolence’ (*zhi ren*, 知仁) as familiarity with the virtue of benevolence (Lau, 1983).

On the contrary, Confucius keeps complaining that he does not know whether such and such is benevolent or not (*bu zhi qi ren*, 不知即仁):

“As for you, he may be given the responsibility of managing the military levies in a state of a thousand chariots, but whether he is benevolent or not, I

do not know (*zhi*, 知)” (Lau, 1983, p.39, Chinese word added).

This is a way of saying that he did not know (*zhi*, 知) whether the statement ‘he is humane’ is true or not.

3.4.2 Knowing How

In terms of ‘knowing how’, we should consider the following two kinds of knowing:

“He knew how to harm others but he did not know that others (would) harm him” (Willhelm, 1922, p.389).

Knowing how to harm others is ‘knowing how’, whereas knowing that others might harm one is ‘knowing that’, discursive knowing. The point to notice here is that ‘knowing how’ and ‘knowing that’ are distinct in Classical Chinese. The question arises whether the ancient Chinese had the notion of propositional knowledge at all. One might suspect that when the Chinese believe something to be another thing, they really have no mental attitude with regard to a proposition.

A classical Greek scientist would look at a statement, consider what was intended by it, that is, its content, the assumption, and then perhaps believe the statement to be true, or know it to be true. The ancient Chinese might never entertain any belief concerning a statement. A person might never claim to know anything regarding a statement. One might only know about things. The only thing one might do is to learn to treat something as another thing, and if one does so successfully one will use the word *zhi*

(know) to indicate this success.

Graham (1978) drew a distinction between knowing gained by experience and knowing which does not require experience other than that concerning the language one is using. He is tempted to use the Western term '*a priori*' knowledge to describe what the Later Mohists were getting at. Here we should briefly introduce Mohism as follows.

Little is known of Mo Tzu himself or his followers. He probably was born before the death of Confucius (551-479 B.C.). Mo Tzu preached that partisanship lay at the base of the chaos prevailing in the empire, and held that the cause was a lack of universal love, a lack which applied equally to states at war, to rulers and ministers within a state, and to the common people.

He preached universal love and supported his argument with the benefits to be gained at all levels by its practise. Whereas Confucianists argued the intrinsic correctness of their ideas on grounds of righteousness, the Mohists always buttressed their arguments with the benefits to be derived from proper behaviour.

The Later Mohists thought that the logical interdependence of predicates creates a network of necessary '*a priori*' relations between things.

“From the things that follow from each other or exclude each other, it is admissible that we know '*a priori*' what it is” (Graham, 1978, p.342).

In much classical Chinese literature, we can find there are plenty of cases of *zhi* (to know, knowledge) that are neither knowing how nor knowing by acquaintance. On the other hand, a word *ming* (明, be clear about, to know further) suggests that the ancient Chinese notion of *ming* tended to be one of knowing by intellectual familiarity. Han Fei-zi (ca. 233 B.C.) recommends:

“Compare words and know/ascertain whether they are true” (Liao, 1938, p.266).

But to know and ascertain the truth, from the scientific point of view, one may claim that there must be a basis of knowledge, wisdom, proper assumptions and methods investigating and testing. However, one of the basic attitudes towards knowledge of Western researchers which is of primary interest as regards science, is concerned with accumulation and advancement of learning and knowledge. Such accumulation of knowledge was not popular among Confucian philosophers:

“The point in knowing (*zhi*) is not quantity; it is carefully examining what one knows” (Koster, 1967, p.381).

Wide knowledge is of no special concern to Confucius, and we can also find that there is a lack of desire for knowledge as Confucius defines knowing:

“Yu, shall I teach you to know (*zhi*) things properly? When you know something, consider that you know it. When you do not know something consider that you do not know it. That constitutes knowing” (Lau, 1983,

There is little room in traditional Chinese culture for knowledge for its own sake. There was no such enthusiasm for 'knowledge' or 'truth' in ancient China as was cultivated by those Western philosophers, for example, Plato and Aristotle, who continued the heritage of Socrates. For the ancient Chinese it was behaviour that was primary personal and/or political behaviours.

Chinese ancient texts often mention *zhi* (智, wisdom, knowledge) together with *bian* (辯, to argue, debate), which after all was a term for what was the pursuit of intellectual knowledge, or truth for its own sake. This kind of intellectual knowledge was attacked by the ancient traditional Confucianists (Lenk and Gergor, 1993, p.22). However, from the uses of *zhi* (to know) and *zhi* (wisdom, knowledge) in Chinese literature, I may conclude that these negative attitudes to *zhi* (wisdom, knowledge) constitute a rejection of what we today might call 'intellectual' or 'academic knowledge'.

Since such negative attitudes towards knowing and knowledge are not particularly helpful for the philosophical framework of this thesis, it is a considerable merit of the Mohists that they recognized the central importance of the concept of knowledge in their intellectual scheme of things. Thus, the researcher takes a conceptual interest in knowledge from Mohism which is different from other Chinese thinking.

In Lenk and Gergor's (1993) view, *zhi* (知, intelligence) is capability. It is the means by which one knows what one necessarily does know. *Lu* (慮, thinking) is the seeking. By means of one's intelligence one seeks something, but does not necessarily find it. Thus,

lu (thinking) can be interpreted as trying to achieve knowledge (Lenk and Gergor, 1993, p.20). *Zhi* has another meaning, 'understanding'. Graham (1978) maintains that *zhi* is illumination. By the means of one's intelligence, in discourse about a thing, one's knowing it is apparent.

According to Graham (1978), the Mohists proceeded to a fourfold classification of knowledge in terms of methods or sources of knowledge and objects of knowledge: Knowing (*zhi*) is by hearsay, by explanation, or by personal experience. Knowing something received at second hand knowing is 'knowing by hearsay'. Knowing that something square will not rotate knows by 'explanation'. Having been a witness oneself is 'knowing by personal experience'. What one knows is called by its 'name' and what is so called is the 'object'. Thus, the name and the object are related. Finally, Graham points out that to intend and to perform in order to achieve knowledge is to 'act' (Graham, 1978, p.327).

In short, the Later Mohists recognized and practised a science of names, objects, how names apply to objects, and a science of human action. Hence, Mohists' concepts of exploring knowledge are similar to the theories of *li*, and both will play an explicit scientific role in constituting the theoretical framework for this thesis.

3.5 Theory of *Li* in Neo-Confucianism

The Neo-Confucianism period consists of the Sung (960, A.D.), Ming and Ching dynasties (960-1912, A.D.) while the thinkers worked Buddhist and Taoist thought into a Confucian base. Since *li* (理) is one of the important concepts in Confucian teaching,

especially in Neo-Confucianism, it has been historically used, with other relevant concepts, to construct a wide range of philosophical category pairs, such as, *tao li* (道理), *tein li* (天理) and *ren li* (人理), which in turn were used as epistemological concepts to investigate the nature and principles of humanity and the natural world. Such construction has had the effect of bringing further richness and flexibility to the concept of *li*.

Important and rich as it is, though, *li* seems to be a word without a definite English translation. In different contexts and for different purposes, *li* may be rendered in English as a noun, which denotes line, form, pattern, essence, principle, law, order, rule, regulation, maxim, logic, truth, reason, way, etc., or as a verb, which represents to manage, run, put in order, tidy up, pay attention to, acknowledge, and so on. Thus, I will define *li* mainly as ‘principle and truth’.

Although the word *li* appeared in some of the ancient Confucian classics, *li* as a philosophical concept played no, or less, role in ancient Confucianism (Chan, 1967). Rather, the ancient Confucianists placed more emphasis on *Tao* (道, the Way). To Confucius, *tao* was the way of the ancient kings and sages, the way of conscientiousness and altruism, the way of wisdom, love, courage and other virtues. To Taoism, *tao* was the ‘Way of Nature’, invisible, inaudible, vague, elusive; while to Confucianism, *tao* is the ‘Way of Man’ (Man in Chinese word ‘人’ is ‘people’), able to be known, studied, taught and followed. Confucius said:

“*Tao* is not far from Man” (The Doctrine of the Mean, Chapter 13).

Confucius also pointed out that “It is Man that can make *tao* great and not *tao* that can make Man great” (The Analects of Confucius, Chapter 15). For an individual to become a sage in society and in the world, the most important thing is to have *tao*, Confucius contended (The Analects of Confucius, Chapters 5 and 8). Obviously, *tao* in Confucianism is basically centered on humanity and morality (from his doctrine of *jen*, which represents benevolence, kind-heartedness, mercifulness and humanity).

I present a brief introduction of the Confucian idea of *tao* here because, during the evolution of Neo-Confucianism, *tao* has come to be almost identical with *li*, to denote laws and principles of human being and nature. To know the idea of *tao* of the ancient Confucianism will help us to understand better the concept of *li* in Neo-Confucianism.

Only in Neo-Confucianism (which emerged during the Sung dynasty around the 10th century) and afterwards was *li* granted great significance. Under the impact of, and incorporating insights from, Taoism and Buddhism, the Neo-Confucianists seized upon the concept of *li*, made it their own central principle, further enriched its meaning, and built their entire doctrine on it, and this is why the main current of Neo-Confucianism is also called *Li Xue* (理學, The Learning of *Li*) or *Tao Xue* (道學, The Learning of *Tao*).

During the hundreds of years evolution of Neo-Confucianism, the Confucianist scholars in the Sung-Ming dynasties borrowed and elaborated the concept of *li* generally to express their ideas of: (1) laws or patterns according to which ‘things’ (that is, objects, events, and phenomena) actually are, shall be, or ought to be; (2) principles or ways which man’s thinking and acting should take; and sometimes even (3) the nature of

things and humans themselves.

Zhang Zai's (1020-1077) *Qi Xue* (氣學, The Learning of *Qi*). Zhang Zai believed that man and all other things are but part of one great body, the Supreme Ultimate, constitutes of one and the same primary undifferentiated material, *qi* (氣) which represents wandering gas (Fung, 1948), material force (Chan, 1957) or matter-energy (Needham, 1956). Hence, I may define *qi* as 'basic material'. According to this view, to become a sage, what a person should do is to remember the 'oneness' of him/herself and all things, and to act accordingly with sincerity and attentiveness. In Zhang Zai's words, a sage will serve *Qian* and *Kun* (乾, Heaven, and 坤, Earth) as we do our own parents, treat all men as we do our brothers, and extend and practise the virtue of filial piety through services to all things.

If the appearance and disappearance of all things are the condensation and dispersion of *qi*, as Zhang Zai claimed, then how is it possible to explain the reason for the different kinds of things? This question was studied and addressed by the Cheng-Zhu School, i.e., *Li Xue* (理學, The Learning of *Li*). Their answer was basically that the Universe as we see it is a result not only of *qi* (basic material) but also of *li* (principle, truth). Different categories of things exist because the condensation of *qi* takes place in different ways in accordance with different *lis*. In the following, I will briefly introduce the teaching of the Cheng brothers and then that of Zhu Xi (hereafter, the Cheng-Zhu School).

Both of the Cheng brothers maintained that:

“All things under heaven can be understood by their *lis*. As there are things, there must be *lis* of their being. Everything must have its *li*” (The Book of Change, Chapter 1), and that “There is *li* in everything, and one must investigate *li* to the utmost” (Ibid. Chapter 18).

We see that for the Cheng brothers, the concept of *li* came to mean an unalterable principle throughout the Universe: “it is the unchangeable principle” (Ibid. Chapter 2). Especially in Cheng Yi (1033-1107), *li* means principle which is definite and unchangeable in space and time and therefore transcends particularity or events (Chan, 1957). This idea of *li* was followed by the main Neo-Confucianists, and was established as a key principle of the whole doctrine of Neo-Confucianism.

Zhu Xi (1033-1107) built his whole thesis on the concept of *li* as principle and reason. To Zhu Xi, for everything, whether it be natural or artificial, there is its *li*. He says: “When a certain affair is done, that shows there is a certain *li*” (*Zhu Zi Yu Lu*, Chapter 101). Therefore for Zhu Xi, when an individual thing comes into existence, a certain *li* is inherent in it, which makes it what it is and constitutes its nature.

Later, *li* was further identified with the human mind which embraces the self, others, and the Universe, and was therefore eventually granted with a status of ‘Subject’. This was done by Lu Jiu-yuan (1139-1192) and Wang Yang-ming (1472-1529) (hereafter Lu-Wang), especially the latter, who contributed most to the development of *Xin Xue* (心學, The learning of Mind), another major school of Neo-Confucianism in the Sung-Ming

dynasties.

In Zhu Xi's thought, 'making the will real' is a step distinguishable, to say the least, from that of knowing *li*. But for Lu-Wang, the two are actually one. Criticizing Zhu Xi, Lu-Wang maintained that the proper understanding of *li* should be that the feeling of liking good comes no later than knowing good, and the feeling of disliking evil comes no later than knowing evil. Wang Yang-ming argues that:

“Knowledge is the chief plan for action, and action is the actual work done in knowledge; knowing is the beginning of acting and acting is the accomplishment of knowing” (The Complete Works of Wang Yang-ming, Chapter 1, p.2).

Therefore, to Lu-Wang, knowledge and action constitute one inseparable unity; that is: *Zhi Xin He Yi* (知行合一, knowledge and action are one). We see that while Zhu Xi maintained that knowledge and action require each other, Lu-Wang advocated that knowing *li* and following *li* are one. In history, Lu-Wang's theory of the unity of *Zhi* and *Xin* (knowing and doing), together with the theory of 'Mind is *Li*', taught and encouraged the Chinese to know things and to do them. Its value, it seems to me, is still significant and embedded in this thesis.

In summary, this brief introduction to Neo-Confucian teaching demonstrates on people, relationships and is therefore relevant to the notion of human resource management (HRM). It started as a philosophy of searching for *lis* of the harmonious oneness, then modified itself into a philosophy of human nature which is identical with the *li* of that

oneness, and eventually transfigured itself into a philosophy of *xin* (mind) which encourage people to realize *liang zhi* (conscientious wisdom) for the self and others.

In spite of the great differences and critical debates among different schools, there is a point of convergence among them all. That is, they are all committed to searching for and practising *li*, whether as natural principles, as people's reason, or intuitive knowledge, and this has been established as the way to become an inner sage and outer king, i.e., to actualize the self and benefit others. In HRM terms, through learning, training and development, one can maximize one's potential and develop his/her career, and eventually, in doing so, he/she will become an inner sage and outer king.

3.6 A New Vision

The whole doctrine of Neo-Confucianism, the *Li* theory and Mohists' concepts of knowledge contain many stimulating and inspiring insights for HRM, as well as management science, among which I consider that the following, although subject to disagreements and controversies, are particularly relevant and significant for the philosophical and sociological foundations of this thesis.

(1) The Relationships Between People, Organisation and Society

We see the idea of 'oneness' which embraces the self and all things in the world of Zhang Zai's *Qi* (basic material), Cheng-Zhu's *Li* (principle, truth), or Lu-Wang's *Xin* (mind). The Neo-Confucian conception of the Universe is that of a single organismic unity. All things exist in dynamic relations, and all relations follow a definite principle

according to which things are organized. In this respect, Needham (1956) concluded that Neo-Confucianism “was fundamentally a philosophy of organism” (p.458). He has also translated *li* as ‘organisation’ or ‘principle of organisation’ (Ibid., p.457). The interpersonal relationships (*Guan Xi*) among people should be extended to that of organisation and society/environment. Thus, people, organisation and society should be treated as one harmonious whole.

(2) The Desire Towards Self-Development

Particularly in Lu-Wang’s school, it is claimed that “All affairs within the Universe come within the scope of my duty; the scope of my duty includes all affairs within the Universe” (*Lu Xiang Shan Quan Ji*, Chapter 33), from which we see a highly developed self-consciousness of ethical responsibility. Furthermore, this consciousness of responsibility does not lead to overcoming or constraining the self, but encourages the self to pursue infinite creativity, self-actualization and self-development. Every person has his/her original and good mind and conscientious wisdom; therefore every person has the potential to become a sage, as long as he/she decides to do so. Moreover, every person has freedom and autonomy, and is full of great potential and creativity, in practise of ethics and morality.

(3) The Unity of Knowledge and Action

For the Cheng-Zhu School, the purpose of investigating things in searching for their utmost *li* is to follow it, while for the Lu-Wang School, to know the conscientious wisdom is to realize it. According to Zhu Xi, knowing *li* and following *li* require each

other, while for Wang Yang-ming, knowledge and action are actually one. For Neo-Confucianism as a whole, to sage the self is at the same time to king the society which implies that a person should utilize his knowledge, skills and experience in his/her work and career for the good of the individual and society.

(4) The Pursuing of Methods

Every major school formulated its own methods. Therefore we have Cheng-Zhu's 'investigation of things in searching for their utmost *li*', 'making the will real', 'rectification of mind', and Lu-wang's 'realization the conscientious wisdom' and 'rectification of affairs' (Fung, 1948). With regard to searching for different ways to apply to different *lis*, it appears to me, the following message from Cheng Yi has much significance:

“There are many ways of investigating *li* to the utmost. One way is to read about and discuss truth and principles. Another way is to talk about the people and events of the past as well as the present, and to distinguish which is right and which is wrong. Still another way is to handle (human) affairs and settle them in the proper way” (*Yi Shu*, Chapter 5, p.18).

When we put these insights together, an underlying logic is discerned and becomes clear to us. Thus, first, given the 'oneness' constituted by the unity of being, the unity of existence, the unity of life, and the unity of value (Fang, 1973), we should search for both general as well as particular *lis*; next, because to know those *lis* is to follow them, we should include all those *lis* in our plans and actions for making appropriate responses;

then, since there are particular *lis* for particular concerns and in particular situations, we need particular ways for knowing and acting respectively; and finally, it is our responsibility and we have full potential to do all the above through our conscientious wisdom and creativity. It is this logic underlying Neo-Confucian teaching as a whole that provides the principles and methods of this research.

3.7 Conclusion

From my personal point of view, Confucianism, as well as other Chinese philosophies, need to be reviewed, reconstructed, and/or renewed in different situations and times. Especially for the purpose of carrying out this research, we should review Confucianism and Chinese philosophy from a new perspective.

First, the essence of the Confucianist doctrine of harmony is basically a pursuit of ‘the natural way’ of human spiritual and moral life, rather than ‘the way of nature’. The primary idea underlying the Confucian concept of *li* embedded in its view of harmony is how to become a sage through cultivating and learning the self in a moral and ethical way. Even the ideal of ‘kingliness without’ was, for the Confucianists, the by-product of, and the way towards the ultimate goal of ‘sageliness within’. Thus, we have Confucius’s saying that “To know how to be sincere is the way of Man” (The Doctrine of Mean, p.13). Needless to say, “‘action’ in Lu-Wang’s ‘Unity of Heaven and Man’ was not to be interpreted merely in terms of work and labour; rather, it was essentially concerned with the ‘total moral performance of the individual’” (Wu, 1972, p.10).

The Confucian concept of the ‘the unity of Being, the unity of Existence, the unity of Life, and the unity of Value’ seems to lead us to perceive what is the reality. The reality is by no means static, fixed, or isolated. Rather, it is a set of interwoven manifestations of the dynamic and relational process. When we are dealing with the issue of reality, it can be viewed as constituted by *wu* (物, objective existence), *shi* (事, affairs and events), and *jen* (仁, humans with all their objectivity, subjectivity and inter-subjectivity). I would like to make it clear that such conception of reality is based on our belief, a belief we consider most informative and instructive to guide not only this research on human resource issues and practises occurred in daily life as ‘vulgar Confucianism’, but also to other research topics, rather than capable of being ‘proved’ in any ultimate sense.

According to the Confucian teaching that “every kind of things in this world has its own *li*”, we contend that everything in the world naturally has its inherent *lis*, which are different and distinct from each other, changeable in themselves, and influence each other in every concrete circumstance. Again, following the Confucian argument of different ways for investigating different *lis*, it should bring all *lis* into consideration in conducting this research work, and accordingly search for appropriate methods to study all *lis* between the retired military officers, organisations and society as well as their manifesting interrelations.

For Confucianism, knowledge was acquired not for its own sake, but for the ultimate goal of self-sageliness. I agree with what Needham said that in Zhu Xi, the investigation of things was centered on the *li* of Man, with Nature considered secondary (Needham, 1956, p.150). With its primary interest in the knowledge of ethics, Neo-Confucianism neglected and downplayed the investigation of objective things and events, and hence

those corresponding *lis*. Indeed, if 'Tao is not far from Man', as Confucius told us, then why bother to investigate things in Nature, far from Man? It was the preoccupation with moral values and human affairs that prevented those Confucian disciples and scholars from paying due attention to objective phenomena, to investigate objective things and events, to search for their *lis* and truth.

However, *lis* of the dynamic process of objective phenomena can be distinguished from, and are by no means less important than, moral and ethical values, for the purpose of improving HRM. Thus, the researcher would suggest that the imbalanced content in the Confucian view of the undifferentiated 'oneness' and the corresponding concept of *li* should be reconstructed. Accepting the importance of moral and ethical values should not lead us to ignore or downplay the investigation of objective things in searching for their utmost *lis*.

Second, an epistemological position should be outlined as follows. The imbalance of concern between the self's moral performance and external facts in the Confucian view of an undifferentiated 'oneness' was derived, it seems to me, from the conception of the so-called 'inseparability of subject and object'. In reality, an epistemology should begin only when the object and the subject are conceptually distinguished and hence separated. It is the conceptual separation between object and subject that brought human beings the knowledge of both people and nature, self and other, the internal and external world, and value and fact (Fung, 1948, p.5).

Without knowing these differences, we are bound to be imprisoned within a 'value curtain' of unreflected subjectivity which kills any possible knowledge about the object

(Ying, 1988, p.432, 467). In addition, the researcher believes that the object cannot be reduced into the subject, or vice versa. They require and condition each other. Both, related yet separable conceptually, are indispensable preconditions of our cognitive capability. Thus, the 'career' of an military officer should be regarded as an objective existence, affairs and events with all their objectivity, subjectivity and inter-subjectivity.

Unfortunately, this is not the case in Neo-Confucianism, especially in Lu-Wang, and the distinction between the subject and object is dissolved in the endless enlargement of the subject. Consequently, the other is reduced into the self, the Universe is reduced into Man, and eventually all things are reduced into Mind. Without an independent object conceptually separated from the subject, without the opposition and confrontation of the subject, the Confucianist spirit lost the possibility and basis of critique, and therefore established itself as a 'closed' system, within which the moral dimension was sophisticated while the scientific dimension was handicapped.

To penetrate the 'value curtain', to encourage the pursuit of necessary 'positive knowledge', we need an adequate epistemology, which is possible and available only when the conceptual separation between the subject and object, between human norms and primary facts, is recognized and established. Therefore, it is important to distinguish the subject and object, value and fact, and corresponding differentiated *lis*, to develop this research.

Finally, in the formulation of the philosophical and social foundations of this research, the researcher will seek mainly to promote and reinforce objective cognition, fact-based-judgment, empirical method, and positive knowledge, and will adopt some focuses of

Chinese philosophers from ethics, morality, humanity, etc. However, we should also consider what an ideal, favourable Confucianism ought to be, if we are to renew the value of Confucianism, and to employ it, along with the Western philosophy, as the underlying philosophy of a supporting methodology. The links and relevance of the two different philosophical perspectives discussed in this and the previous chapters will form part of the analysis in Chapter 11.

III. Context

Chapter 4: Political and Military Perspectives

4.1 Introduction

In order to have a clear understanding of the issues of officers' second careers in Taiwan, it is necessary to consider the relations between the military, politics and society. These should be studied based on the theories of military sociology and civil-military relations which have been well-developed in the Western world since World War II. Unfortunately, these issues are still seldom studied in Taiwan's academic arena (Cheng, 1992).

Several factors may need to be considered to understand military officers and their profession. These factors include the role and purpose of the military profession, the nature of the nation and the political system served by the military profession, and civil-military relations. Each of these components must be understood as it affects the officer career development and the military profession. First, regardless of the various views of the military profession in contemporary times and the variety of social and political forces that interact with the military, the primary purpose of the military profession remains, as it has been throughout modern history, to win or deter wars; though we may argue it also has other roles of political intervention and social control.

Second, the profession of arms must be examined in the context of the political and societal systems from which it evolves and which it is supposed to serve. There exist certain universal principles of military professionalism, but these must be moderated by the values and character of the political and societal systems. Indeed, the nation and society have an impact on the military service, the military profession, and the second career development of military officer as a whole.

Third, the first two components establish the basis for civil-military relations. There is close linkage between the military profession, the system of political control, and the role of the military within that national and social structure. The nature and character of the military profession place the military career system within the national and social systems and establish a reference point from which the civil-military relationship evolves.

Due to the lack of research on the relations between the military and society in Taiwan, it is necessary to gain a general understanding of the situation overall, before looking more deeply at a particular time and place. First, we will briefly discuss the political state, and relations between the political party and the military. Then, some problems impacting on the education, training and development of the officer corps will be highlighted. Finally, the retirement cases in Taiwan, Britain and America will be discussed.

4.2 Taiwan's Party-State and Its Military

After the nationalists exiled themselves to Taiwan in 1949, this island province operated under the system of general mobilization against 'communist insurgency'. The mass media were controlled and censored by martial law. Strict curbs were maintained against any criticism of President Chiang Kai-shek and his government. No one was permitted to speak critically of the nationalist one-party rule or to organize an effective opposition party or 'Taiwanese Independence Movement' until martial law was lifted in 1987.

The nationalist party, the Kuomintang (KMT), first organized in 1912, began as a frail organisation. Its leadership, headed by Dr. Sun Yat-sen, was helped by Russia and the Comintern (Communist International) between 1922 and 1924, to reorganize on the Soviet model as a disciplined, nationwide party. The basic organisational principle was called 'democratic centralism' (Cavendish, 1968). The party's relationship with the newly organized national army under Chiang Kai-shek also followed the Soviet pattern of nationalist party branches widely dispersed in the armed forces. The purpose of these branches, however, was more to control the military leadership than to educate and inspire the rank and file (Gittings, 1967).

With the death of Dr. Sun Yat-sen in 1925, his successor Chiang Kai-shek reorganized the military on the German model. German instructors were employed and German technical assistance was obtained (Gittings, 1967). The KMT's control of the military was, however, maintained, and all of the leading military officers were KMT members. Military officers also became an important source of political leadership (Cavendish, 1968). The KMT's civil-military member ratio has not been made public; but during the

Civil War years, according to one study, military members outnumbered their civilian counterparts in the party (Cavendish, 1968). The KMT remains an autocratic and disciplined party, organized geographically around the administrative sub-divisions of the country. It was the only legal and effective party in Taiwan, maintaining a majority in all political bodies from 1949 to 1987.

Jacobs (1978) in his 'Paradoxes in the Politics of Taiwan' points out that Taiwan has had its own national constitution since 1947, but also it was under the control of martial law a very long time after 1949. However, its ruling party, KMT, has similar characteristics with the Communist party. Taiwan was a one-party authoritarian state in the martial law era and some have classified Taiwan as a 'Leninist-style Party-state' (Jacobs, 1978; Domes, 1981; Tien, 1989).

Although Mo Tzu (ca. 5th to 4th century B.C.) was believed to be the first technological military officer in Chinese history (Wei and Liu, 1979), the so-called 'professional officer', in the modern sense, could be traced to 1958 when the Chinese Military Academy in Taiwan introduced its education system, based on the credit system of the American Military Academy at West Point. Since that time, all officers graduating from the military academies have been commissioned with a bachelor degree.

To define or classify the Taiwanese military as professional, praetorian or revolutionary military, however, is still a difficult problem. Some scholars are still arguing whether the current armed force in Taiwan is 'revolutionary military' or 'professional military' (Cheng, 1996). Taiwan claims to have engaged in democratic politics for over forty years, but it is not yet an industrialized and developed country; thus, one may argue

whether its military is a professional one.

As an independent political entity, Taiwan is a developing country in the non-Communist Third World, but its military has never played an important role in intervening in its politics. Because of the close links between the military and the KMT, there has never been the need for a military *coup d'etat*, common in many Third World countries. Nevertheless, Chiang Kai-shek's military was called the 'Revolutionary Army' in China from 1912 to 1949, but subsequently the Taiwanese military has followed the country's political system, especially from 1987 to the present time, quite different from other Communist revolutionary armies,

Since martial law was lifted in 1987, relations between the military and society have changed dramatically. Some recent issues, for example, which are of major concern regarding the military role and its relations with the society in Taiwan, are as follows:

(1) Relations Between the Military and Politics

In June 1990, the former military Chief of the General Staff, Ho Po-chung was inaugurated as the 12th Prime Minister. He was the third to have been a retired general since 1949. There was a series of nation-wide demonstrations, mainly organized by university students, against his inauguration in Taiwan. At the same time, Dr. Chen Li-an was inaugurated as the third civilian Minister of National Defence (MND) since 1949, the others all being retired senior military generals. The issues of 'governmental and civilian relationships with the military' have been of concern in Taiwan for a long time (Cheng, 1992, 1996).

(2) Debate over Military Education in University and High School

In 1954, Taiwan initiated a military training programme to be followed by all students of senior high schools, colleges and universities, and this kind of military training was legitimized by the revised 'University Law' in 1961. Since martial law was lifted, Taiwanese society has strongly debated whether the military should play any role in university campus and high schools (Lin, 1990; Ho, 1996). However, the situation has remained unchanged up to the time of writing (beginning of 1999).

(3) Increasing Tension in the Military

A report of the Ministry of National Defence shows that from 1992 to 1994, there were 84,996 requests for psychological counselling in the military. These included 16,243 claims of bullying, abuse, etc., and 2,843 intended but failed suicides (People's Daily News, 1994.12.9). According to the China Times (1995.6.22) released statistics from the Legislative Yuan (parliament) indicating that from 1990 to 1994, the total number of casualties in the military amounted to 2,355, an average death rate of 1.29 persons per day (471 deaths per year), out of a total soldier force of 320,000. This total casualties figure includes 792 accidental deaths, 245 suicides, 239 deaths from illness, and 1,079 deaths from military exercise and tasks.

There were over 200 reported cases of bullying in 1995. The United Daily News (1995.9.17) carried out a nation-wide survey of civilian people which shows that 53% of respondents were deeply concerned about bullying and abuse issues in the military.

Another report from the Free Daily News (1995.12.8) says that 87% of newly enlisted soldiers have claimed to be subjected to excessive pressure from their sergeants and officers. However, although the military has repeated that it is determined to put an end to bullying and abuse cases, the same survey indicated that 70% of soldiers still believe that it is useless to complain once bullying or abuse has occurred.

4.3 Situational Considerations

(1) Low Social Status of A Military Career

Educational attainment is the highest goal to which young Taiwanese aspire. Thus, to obtain a university diploma is the most important and almost only objective for the youngsters. According to a national survey of the Directorate General of Budget, Accounting and Statistics (DGBAS) in 1994 (Commonwealth, 1996, p.51), 98% of youngsters, from 15 to 24 years old, want to study at university level, and 64% of university graduates want to study at graduate school for a Master or Ph.D. degree.

On the contrary, however, the reality is that opportunities to enter high school and university are very limited. Each year, about 380,000 students graduate from primary school, and of these, about 20% of them can enter senior high school which means 80% of them either graduate from primary school, junior high school or vocational high school etc. From both educational channels only 38,000 students go to university. Those who do not get to senior high school (or university) may choose private vocational high school, a five-year college course (from 15 to 20 years old), or a two-year college course (from 18 to 20 years old).

From parents' point of view, the order of priority in choosing an ideal school for their children graduating from junior high school in Taiwan is: (1) public high school, (2) five-year college, (3) public vocational high school, and (4) private vocational high school (Commonwealth, 1996, p.61). This result demonstrates that few parents are keen for their sons to join the military high school or academy to pursue education to become a career officer or sergeant.

The educational certification-oriented society in Taiwan emphasizes the importance and utility of the university diploma or degree, and pays little attention to the possession of professional skills or capability. That is why up to 80% of those who graduate from the vocational high school would rather make their efforts to study at college or university than seek employment in the labour market (Commonwealth, 1996, p.52). The military academy or college has long been excluded from their dream, as can be seen the evidence in the following section.

(2) The Difficulty of Recruiting Officer Cadets

In 1983, the number of entrants for the military academies' entrance examination was 135% of the number of places to be filled. However, the entrance rate has been dropping year by year, until by 1993 it was only 42% of the actual needs of the military academies (Chen, 1995). These figures include the entrance rates of the Military High School and the Sergeant School. This recruitment problem has seriously affected on the quantity and quality of the officer corps (Chen, 1996). However, the reasons for the decline in lower recruitment have not been addressed by any relevant research conducted by the government, military or other academic institutes.

In 1987, a survey conducted by Zai focused on cadets in the military academies and young graduates from high schools who intended to take the entrance examination of the military academies. It was found that the 14.3% of military cadets indicated that studying in the military academies was their last choice. 8.8% of cadets believed that they had no bright future in military career. In addition, the survey revealed that those from comparatively low-income families were more interested in joining the military (Zai, 1987).

According to another research report sponsored by the National Science Council in 1988, 80% of military cadets wanted to transfer to civilian universities or colleges rather than staying in the military academies in all Services; 70% of cadets said they would not have chosen the military career if they had fully understood what a military career or academy was like before they enrolled. Furthermore, 80% were dissatisfied with the educational environment, course contents, and curriculum design (Global Views Monthly, 1995, pp.65-66).

The Chinese Military Academy (CMA, Army) has issued a recruitment analysis report in 1995. Some of its findings were:

(1) Only 36% of all enrolled in the military academies in all Services had passed the national university and college entrance examination; 56% had failed it; (2) around 50% of new cadets had not decided yet whether or not they would take the military profession as their long-term career, and (3) around 50% of new cadets expressed the view that high school students are not interested in joining the military, mainly, because of the lack of freedom; secondly, due to lack of understanding of the military academy, and,

finally, because of the poor social status accorded to officers.

A report issued by the MND showed that from 1974 to 1991, 1,961 cadets withdrew from the military academies (four-year system) in all Services; and 4,788 cadets were discharged, 72% of them for unwillingness to study. In addition, 530 cadets deserted and 572 cadets committed serious wrongdoing, such as theft, drug-abuse or other criminal offence, etc. (Su, 1995).

(3) Some Problems of Military Education Systems

Even though laws have been established for the national education system, there is no separate legal basis for military education (The National Defence Report, 1996, Chapter 5). However, the admission examinations of military schools, the design of military curricula, employment of lecturers, the management of student records and academic activities, etc., are carried out in accordance with the general regulations of the Ministry of Education.

All the military academies and colleges are funded by the Ministry of National Defence, not the Ministry of Education. More importantly, the latter plays no role in supervising, managing and supporting the military education system in Taiwan (Chen, 1996). The diplomas awarded to military cadets in all Services have not been formally accredited by the Ministry of Education. For example, the military diploma of Bachelor of Science (B.S.), or Bachelor of Arts (B.A.), has only been recognized as an 'equivalent' to the civilian one by the Ministry of Education, without any legal basis. This is, perhaps, one of the reasons why military cadets feel inferior to civilian university students (Chen,

1996).

One of the obstacles which hinder reform of officers' career development is the fact that military education has long been isolated from the national education system. Military education does not share the national educational resources, and is not supervised by the national educational system. For example, about 60,000 military personnel study and are trained in all 26 military schools, such as academies, branch schools, and the Armed Force University, etc., per year but they share a total budget of NT\$1.8 billion in 1995, which is less than one third of the budget of 'The National Taiwan University', just one university, for one academic year (Lim, 1995). The National Taiwan University has kept about 10,000 students per year.

In view of the relatively poor funds to support military officer education, and the relatively low social status of being a military officer (Wang, 1996), how can one expect to raise the quality of research and teaching in the military education institutes? How can a military officer be proud of his/her military profession and educational attainments, compared to those of his/her civilian counterparts? Although the military has adopted some reform measures to improve officer education and development, there has been little progress, so far (Su, 1995).

Political and ideological education is considered a very important part of military education, accounting for up to 25% of all curricula for the military academies; 15% for all branch schools, Command Staff College and War College. Even in the armed troops, the political course constitutes about 20% of all the training courses. Nearly half of the cadets have little interest in these courses. About 20-30% of the academic assessment

for the cadets and officers are based on such political courses and political performance, while other military courses account for about 70-80% of the marks awarded (Wha, 1983). Wha suggests that the balance between these two components, political and military courses, needs to be re-evaluated.

The education systems of the Chinese Military Academy, the Navy Academy, the Air Force Academy and the Political Warfare College are still on the 'general education basis' which means all military cadets must complete all the credit courses for four years and finally are awarded the Bachelor of Science (graduates of the Political Warfare College receive the Bachelor of Arts), on graduation.

Historically, the skills of officership were associated with the notions of youth, integrity, and passionate loyalty, etc. The image and, in most cases, the reality stressed qualities of loyalty to the KMT party and its leaders over intellect, the leader over the trained specialist, and ultimately, the military man over the technician. Whilst socialization and political awareness are important for every military officer, the existing courses seem to focus only on a limited aspects of these issues.

4.4 Statement of the Problem - Retirement

4.4.1 Taiwan's Case

In the years prior to 1993, commissioned military service was typically a life-time occupation in Taiwan. Retirement, or the termination of military obligation at a relatively advanced age, followed lengthy service, with little likelihood of the retiree

seeking civilian employment. The service manning level during the Cold War period was high and comparatively few officers were placed on the retired lists. As Taiwan mobilized for and then engaged in the confrontation with China, the manpower requirements of the armed forces were met through the use of conscription.

The way in which a society has handled the issues of retired officers should be in some measure related to: (1) the salience of institutionalized violence in its value structure; (2) the relations between the social and technological organisation of military forces and that of the civilian society; and (3) the nature, extent and relations of its training and development programmes among the military forces and civilian society for these retired officers. Also of particular importance has been the extent to which the officer's role was a primary or exclusive role of some members of the society, or, the degree to which the officer corps could be recognized by other members of the society as carrying a higher or lower social status.

The military calling has always been associated with physical and professional skills. This provides a fundamental rationale for the retirement of the large majority of a military force at earlier ages than is the usual case in other employment. But the unsuitability for warfare of those whose vigour has been drained by age is a relatively minor factor underlying the present retirement system, although it is still an important one in its mystique. Retirement for military officers after ten years of service became permissible by a 'Revised Service Act' of 1993 in Taiwan. This act also allows military officers to serve a longer period after ten years service in certain circumstances. See Table 4.1 for a review of service lengths allowed over recent years.

Table 4.1 Different Service Lengths - Academy 4-Year Cadets

Periods	Service
Before 1975	Service length for each rank, e.g., Major: 20 years Lt. colonel: 24 years Colonel: 28 years
From 1976 to 1987	10 to 15 years
From 1988 to 1992	Service length for each rank, e.g., Major: 20 years Lt. colonel: 24 years Colonel: 28 years
From 1993 to present	10 years

Military cadets who graduated before 1975 have to serve the maximum service length associated with each rank, for example, 20 years at the major rank. Colonel and Lt. colonel may choose to retire after 20 years of service, or go on to 28 or 24 years at their choice, and on so doing are entitled to a retirement pension. Those who graduated between 1976 to 1987 years have to serve a flexible 10 to 15 years minimum service length, which means they can decide to retire after 10 to 15 years service, or, they can continue to serve to the maximum service length in each rank, in the same way as those

who graduated before 1975.

At present, a military officer has to serve in the military for at least ten years, and then the individual, not the military, has the right to decide whether he/she shall retire up to the maximum service period. If individuals want to extend their service, they may choose to continue on a two-year renewable contract basis. The military cannot order or force these officers to leave after ten years service. However, individuals who are not promoted by the time their maximum service period expired, will be compulsorily retired. The rationale underlying this provision is to relieve stagnation in the promotion system and also, ideally, to retain the best personnel. However, under these mixed service conditions, how can the military promote and retain the best officers if there are many officers who stay in the military after ten years service? They may hold a particular position and simply not want to retire, or they may be ineligible for promotion because they do not possess the required qualifications.

The principle that is applied in accepting applications for retirement under this provision is the contribution which retirement can make to the age-rank structure of the service, rather than a view that those having completed their minimum service become surplus. Promotion opportunities and conceptions of ideal age-rank structure have provided the rationale for all subsequent modifications of the military retirement systems, through attempting to reduce the average age of serving personnel.

Since promotion to higher ranks is strongly governed by the limited number of vacancies, a flexible or incentive retirement system is needed to provide accelerated attrition. For officers, the retirement system is closely integrated with an 'up-or-out'

selective promotion system. Each officer is periodically considered for promotion and those not selected for advancement are eventually eliminated from active duty. Those officers in all Services who have served over 20 years are entitled to retirement pension plans. Those with less than 20, but more than 10 years of service are discharged with a retirement payment as a lump sum.

All officers are subject to the ‘up-or-out’ selection principle, and in recent years, most have availed themselves of the voluntary retirement option soon after completing a ten years’ minimum length career. Table 4.2 shows the retirement population, including leaves, in all Services from 1992 to 1995 (data provided by Major General, Yu, L.H. 1995.4.25).

Table 4.2 Retirement Population

	Major	Lt. colonel	Colonel
1992	840	653	379
1993	1456	896	345
1994	1199	829	409
1995	1348	801	484
Total	4,843	3,179	1,617

The study of military retirement in Taiwan in recent years has been focused almost entirely on the burgeoning costs of military pensions or lump sum payments and the related benefits, including medical care, better housing loans, discounts for transportation, etc. Little concern has been paid to the increasing number of military

retirees as a viable and valuable human resource in the working population. Similarly, scant attention has been given to the psychological and sociological impact of retirement on the retirees themselves. It seems that no one cared about retired officers but themselves, until the MND began to offer vocational training programmes for them in 1992.

When the Cold War ended, the Taiwanese military started carrying out a series of modernization programmes including a plan to reduce its total strength by 200,000 within 10 years, according to the announcement of Sun Zen, the Minister of the MND, in 1992 (United Daily News, 1992.8.28). Recruitment standards for officers were significantly increased compared with those of the Cold War era. In the officer grades, competition for promotion in the service was keen, but more and more officers are seeking to retire as soon as they have finished at least ten years' service (or twenty years' service). Moreover, maintenance of a relatively large standing military force during past decades, especially Cold War era, inevitably expanded the base for eventual retirement.

Another of the lessons of the Cold War, is the need for a young, physically and mentally vigorous officer corps, to be on active service. Therefore, with the approval of the higher authorities, legislative and administrative actions were implemented which provided for increased turnover of junior officers and new avenues of voluntary and mandatory retirement for officers in mid-career.

These steps had the effect of lowering the average age of active duty officers and reducing the number of older officers who could remain in military service. These

actions had a significant effect in expanding in the number of retired officers, most of whom would return to civilian life at a comparatively early age and would therefore need to seek gainful employment - perhaps with only a lump sum rather than a pension as such.

Starting in the 1960s, some twenty years after the beginning of the expansion for the World War II, large numbers of military personnel completed twenty or more years of active service and either were promoted or were required to leave the armed forces and enter civilian life. The number of military retirees has continued to burgeon since that time. The retired officer group represents a growing human resource of well-educated and experienced personnel, who need to take up civilian employment upon leaving the service or retirement.

These retired officers, forming the basis of this research, typically enter the labour market between about forty to fifty years of age after twenty or more years of military service. Most retired officers hold a bachelor degree from the military academies; some of them have graduated from the Command Staff College or the War College. However, they have widely diverse patterns of experience and levels of specialization in terms of seeking out, qualifying for and performing civilian employment.

The need for deliberate programmes to provide for the appropriate subsequent employment of men who complete military careers with many years of work-life still before them reflects: (1) the changing social base of recruitment in the military, (2) changes in the social and economic structure of areas from which current retirees were originally recruited, (3) the elaboration of technical specialization within the military,

and (4) the unprofitability of warfare. These points were discussed by Biderman and Sharp in 1968. The unprofitability of modern warfare, for the nation in general and for the military class in particular, has been another fundamental development complicating the problem of military retirement. Modern times are distinctive in that wars are fought for immediate and mass destruction. Even when economic goals are among the motives for war, costs tend to outweigh gains because of the nature of modern weaponry.

The sustained active-duty strength of military forces through the post-Cold War era has contributed to the swelling retirement problem of the present day. The modernization and downsizing of Taiwanese military strength have made for particularly acute retirement and second career problems in the 1990s and for the foreseeable future.

4.4.2 British and American Cases

Other countries' cases would be also helpful for policy-makers of Taiwan to improve the employment situations of retired military officers. In the UK, for example, the Ministry of Defence (MoD) introduced National Vocational Qualifications (NVQs) for all ranks in the armed forces in 1991. Over 26,000 jobs and skills at soldier and sergeant levels were recognized as equivalent to the 'basic jobs and skills' of the civilian service in the governmental organisations (Shieh, 1996, pp.60-62), which means that NVQs can provide military personnel with qualifications which are equivalent to those in the civilian sectors. Officer ranks, Lt. colonel and over, for example, are classified as being at 'the fifth level', the highest one offered through the NVQs route. Once they retire, they are fully qualified to apply for managerial jobs in private enterprises, whenever potential employers recognize the NVQs qualifications. In addition, the British Army

provides 'Pre-Retirement Training and Development Programmes' for officers with over 180 vocational training courses. The British MoD also provides officers with over 500 kinds of civilian employment services including counselling service, interviewing skills, labour market information, investment service, and housing assistance, etc.

Furthermore, the British military has set up the 'Service Employment Network' providing personal data on over 9,000 retired officers available to private enterprise who are searching for retired officers. Another famous organisation, the 'Tri-Service Resettlement Organisation', offers vocational training programmes and counselling service for over 3,000 retired officers every year. In 1994, the employment rate of British retired officers within three months of retirement was up to 80%, while 55% of them were employed on the first day of retirement (Shieh, 1996, pp.60-62).

We may also consider what the American government has done for their retired military officers in terms of their civilian employment. Since the American government has permitted retired military officers to serve in the public service in federal and state government since 1964, there are many jobs taken by retired officers including, for example, city management, police, aviation control, hospital, health insurance, law, finance, public engineering, and community service. In 1963, Congress passed the 'Omnibus Education Bill' to authorize the universities to set up postgraduate programmes for retired officers, to train them to teach in high schools or colleges.

In 1964, American government promoted so-called 'Counselling Programmes for the Retired Officers' in conjunction with the Labour Department, Employment Bureau, Department of Defence (DoD), and other organisations of retired military personnel.

Based upon the 'Defence Authorization Act' passed in 1991, the American Army established so-called 'Developmental Vocational Skills and Education Programmes' providing over 300 vocational training courses for retired military personnel in order to help them to find a good job in civilian society.

In addition, the DoD set up 'Co-operation Programmes between the Military and Society' to develop good and co-operative relationships with the society in 1995. For example, Congress granted US\$ 80 millions to assist both military technology and human resources transfer to private enterprise (Shieh, 1996, pp.60-62).

4.5 Conclusion

The research topic of 'second careers for military officers' must be viewed within the wider context which includes political, economic, cultural and sociological perspectives, rather than accounting for military points of view only. This chapter has discussed the relations between the military, politics and society in order to have a general picture of the context.

The researcher highlighted some considerations which should be taken into account in studying officers' education, training and development in Taiwan. First, along with political development, individualism and professionalism have become more significant features of social life in Taiwan and this inevitably impacts on military education and training. The military faces the challenges of improving its education and training, recruiting young people and retaining its elites, as well as dealing effects with its retirees.

As the increased number of retirees was first anticipated and then materialized, military retirement and second career development emerged as a subject of serious study. Understandably, some of the government funded research projects focused primarily on the rapidly escalating cost of retirement pensions and it is hard to find any research on the sociological impacts of large numbers of retirees entering the job market each year. Research focused on retired military officers in terms of their employment situations and career development has never before been carried out or sponsored in Taiwan.

Thus, questions may be raised such as: What can or should officers still on active duty do to improve the likelihood of their making a successful transition to a civilian career? Are there steps that might be taken by officers already retired to improve their employment situations? Is there information which should be known to educational institutes and/or post-retirement military officers? Can the knowledge and experience gained from the transition of military officers to civilian careers serve to assist non-military persons with successful mid-life career changes? To what degree are managerial skills acquired during military service flexible and applicable to civilian occupation? It is to these significant issues, along with the absence of current information regarding the transition of military officers to civilian careers, that this study is directed.

Chapter 5: Economic, Human Resource and Cultural Perspectives

5.1 Introduction

Concern with the relationship between economic activity, and culture and values is not new. It was central to the development debates of the mid-sixties (e.g., Bendix, 1964; Apter, 1965; Levy, 1966) which revolved around whether or not certain cultural values were conducive to economic development, modernization and industrialization (Levy, 1966; Inkeles and Smith, 1974).

It was argued that under the emergence of modern industrial capitalism, organisation systems and ultimately management would become similar worldwide (Webber, 1969). Early cultural studies on management values and styles contributed to this view (e.g., Harbison and Myers, 1959; Haire, et al., 1966). The thesis has lost, however, much credibility as first the Japanese and now the overseas Chinese and other Asian business systems which have presented a significant counterpoint to the Western model (Hamilton and Biggart, 1988; Clegg and Redding, 1990; Hofstede, 1991; Whitley, 1993).

An important area that has received little attention to date is the effect of Eastern and Western values on the techniques used to gain influence in an organisation (Smith and Peterson, 1988). These strategies may differ dramatically among cultures. A reasonable body of single-country, Western culture literature serves as a partial foundation for the study of cross-cultural differences (Fader, 1986; Olsen, 1990; Trompenaars, 1993; Hofstede, 1994). There is far less literature discussing HRM in East Asian countries,

however, and comparably minimal research on cross-cultural comparisons of cultural influence on HRM. Because Eastern and Western cultures differ in terms of values, norms of behaviour and general management operating philosophies, Eastern and Western managers and subordinates may clash on what is considered to be socially appropriate behaviour (Hofstede and Bond, 1984).

A study of national culture based upon Asia's 'Five Dragons', Taiwan, Japan, South Korea, Hong Kong, and Singapore, concluded that 'Confucian Dynamism' (some values selected from the Confucian teachings) is positively correlated with economic growth (Hofstede and Bond, 1988).

However, although it appears that the Japanese and Chinese cultures share common elements of Confucianism, it has also been recognized that there are major differences between the two cultures (Hall and Xu, 1990). In Japanese traditional culture, Confucianism is considered as being blended with Hinduism, Shintoism, and Buddhism (Hofstede and Bond, 1988; Hall and Xu, 1990).

Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Singapore were for many years the colonies of some Western countries such as Portugal, Holland and Britain, and thus their cultures were inevitably affected by the cultures of these countries. As island economies, all of them substantially rely on international trade. Hence, their close link to the Western world tends to have an effect on their attitudes and behaviour. Their economic systems appear to bring positive elements into play such as thrift and industriousness, and limit the level of the influence of some negative elements such as kinship relationships and '*Guan Xi*'.

The effects of certain elements in Chinese culture on management efficiency and methods in Taiwan, China, Hong Kong and elsewhere have been recognized (e.g., Redding, 1980; Fukuda, 1983; Hofstede and Bond, 1984; Alston, 1989; Chen, 1994; Luo and Chen, 1997). There has been considerable discussion about the differences between Chinese and Western cultures, and relationships between cultures and economic development among Chinese as well as Western scholars. However, little attention has directly focused on the cultural effect on employment behaviour from a HRM perspective. In this research, attention will be paid to the Chinese culture, based upon the research findings, in relation to HRM-related behaviour.

Thus, for the purpose of this research, the economic, human resource and cultural perspectives towards this research will be discussed as follows, and explored further in Chapter 11.

5.2 Economic and Human Resource Perspectives

5.2.1 Taiwan's Economic Conditions

With an area of only 14,000 square miles, a population of 20.1 million people, and limited natural resources, Taiwan has achieved spectacularly successful economic development in the past forty years, characterized by rapid growth accompanied with price stability in terms of living costs, commodities, etc. At the same time, Taiwan has maintained an economic progress and momentum which is unique in the world, in the post Cold War era.

Taiwan has one of the most successful economies in the world and is known as one of the 'Five Dragons'. Development based on manufacturing by small and medium enterprises and an aggressive export policy brought about the so-called 'Taiwan Economic Miracle' which has resulted in a sustained period of growth. Taiwan's economic grew by a moderate 6.06% in 1995, below the 6.5% achieved in 1996 and 6.25% in 1997 (The ROC Yearbook, 1997, pp.155-158).

In 1995, the total foreign trade reached US\$215.3 billion, while gross national production (GNP) growth rate was 9 percent and the unemployment rate was as low as 1.74 percent. Per capita GNP was over US\$13,000 in 1996. As a result, Taiwan's foreign exchange reserves reached US\$100 billion in 1995, the second largest in the world. This means that Taiwan has much surplus capital which is available to overseas investment. In 1994, Taiwan became the 7th largest outward investor in the world (Chien, 1995; The ROC Yearbook, 1997, pp.155-158).

Among the numerous and complex factors contributing to this economic success, the effective mobilization and utilization of labour force, undoubtedly, has been most crucial. A famous scholar and also former Minister of Finance and Economic Affairs in the 1970s and 1980s, Li, K.T. (1992) points out:

“By carefully developing and effectively utilizing its well-educated manpower, Taiwan has not only overcome many obstacles to economic development but achieved rapid economic growth, averaging 9 percent over the past 35 years” (P1).

Moreover, a low unemployment rate has been recognized worldwide as one of Taiwan's great achievements. Before 1960, Taiwan's unemployment rate ranged from 1.70% to a rather high level of 4.37%. During the last few years, the unemployment rate has remained low, but a shortage of labour has become a major concern. In 1995, when the total population was 21,217,000, the total labour force was 9,210,000, comprising 9,045,000 employed and 165,000 unemployed, an increase of 37,000 over 1994, when the unemployment rate was 1.56% (The Directorate General of Budget, Accounting and Statistics (DGBAS), 1996. 4, Tables 1 and 2).

In the 1970s, Taiwan's financial and economic policies emphasized the expansion of labour intensive industries, which manufactured exportable goods, reflecting the fact that industrialization is usually the best way to absorb surplus rural manpower and offer employment opportunities for the newly emerging work-force. Typically, Taiwan's economic achievement was accomplished by utilizing its cheap labour to pursue an export-oriented economy in the 1970s. In addition, the average skill level of Taiwanese workers increased in response to the gradual shift away from labour-intensive industries to capital- and technology-intensive industries, especially in service sectors in the 1980s. Kao (1992), the director of Council for Economic Planning and Development (CEPD) points out:

“But as technology advances rapidly, the division of work has become more specialized and the training of workers takes longer. How to coordinate education and training with economic development in order to provide greater benefits to the individual and how to supply such manpower as in need in the labour market are important issues in process of

industrialization” (p.1).

The population of Taiwan’s skilled workers, although increasing dramatically, is currently unable to keep pace with demand (Hardee and Johns, 1988). Taiwan’s labour force participation rate (labour force as a share of population) dropped to 58.71% in 1995, its lowest level since 1983 (DGBAS, 1996.4, Tables 1 and 2). Currently, the labour force supply in Taiwan is inadequate. In the absence of any possible demographic or economic solution, at least in the short term, the most effective remedy is to improve the quality of manpower supply. There is a continuing need to upgrade Taiwan’s economic structure through adopting new technology and developing newly emerging industries. Kao (1992) emphasizes:

“Labour-intensive industries had been considerably developed but the level of technology needed to be upgraded in order to be more competitive in the international market” (P.2).

If the forces which determine the supply of labour continue in the near future to work as before, it may be expected that human resources will remain a basic element of Taiwan’s economic growth. Increases in capital intensity and constant adaptation of new technology will be vital for export expansion and rapid economic growth. Any policy designed to transform a labour-intensive economy into a technology-oriented one should be coupled with consideration for the efficient utilization of human resources. Thus, utilization of retired military personnel as a supply of labour, can be one of the major contributions to tackling this issue.

5.2.2 Impact of Economic Changes on Employment Structure

The data in Table 5.1 also show that the labour force has tended to move directly from agriculture to the industrial and service sectors. Both the increasing productivity of the agriculture labour force and growing job opportunities in non-agricultural sectors have brought about a migration of additional labour force from rural areas to cities. Consequently, the percentage of agricultural workers in the total labour force dropped from 46.3% in 1960 to 10.4% in 1995.

Table 5.1 Structural Employment Percentage (Unit:%)

Item	1960s	1970s	1980s	1991	1992	1995	2000
Agriculture	46.3	29.9	17.0	12.9	11.8	10.4	9.1
Industry	22.6	34.8	42.0	40.1	39.9	38.9	39.4
Service	31.2	35.3	41.0	47.0	48.3	50.6	51.5

Source: DGBAS, Monthly Bulletin of Manpower Statistics,
Taiwan Area, R.O.C., March 1993 and April 1996, Table 7.

In the years 1960-1980, most of the increase in labour force in Taiwan was employed in the rapidly growing industrial sector. By 1980, the industrial sector had absorbed almost half of Taiwan's total labour force. During the 1980s and 1990s, the service sector grew somewhat faster than previously, as a rapid growth in Taiwan per capital income resulted in an increased demand for services.

Lin and Hwang (1987) claim the integration of Chinese economic concepts, neo-classical economic theory, and technological innovation theory are the theoretical base for the study of Taiwan's economic changes and their impacts on the employment structure. Chen, et al. (1991) suggest that an economic structural shift from labour-intensive to technology- and capital-intensive industries will take place in Taiwan, or has already done so. The growing specialization and complexity of Taiwan's economy demanded an increase in the skill level of labour. The educational attainment of the labour force rose quickly during the rapid economic and social development in Taiwan, as shown in Table 5.2.

Table 5.2

Employment Structure by Educational Attainment (Unit:%)

(manufacture, agriculture, trade, commerce, services and public service)

Item	1985	1987	1989	1991	1993	1995
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Under Junior-High	63.3	59.5	55.7	52.8	48.7	46.2
Senior-High / Vocational	24.2	26.6	28.9	30.4	32.2	33.2
Junior College/ Over	12.5	13.8	15.3	16.6	18.9	20.6

Source: Manpower Indicators, Taiwan, ROC, Council for Economic Planning and Development, April 1995.

Peng (1994) maintains that if the share of the service sector in GDP is over 50%, the country's economic structure can be viewed as developed. In Taiwan, the sectoral distribution of the total employment in 1992 was very similar to that of other developed countries - with agriculture providing a rapidly declining proportion and services expanding most largely in all job opportunities. This reveals that Taiwan has successfully transformed from a developing country into a developed one. In fact, by 1980 Taiwan achieved a labour force distribution which, if examined on the basis of its employment status, more closely resembled that of a developed country than a developing one (Kao, 1992).

The economic reconstructing will step up inter-industry or intra-industry job transfers. The change and the diffusion of technology will result in a higher demand for professionals. Modernizing countries are usually short of high-level and professional manpower (Peng, T.L. 1989), and Taiwan is no exception. According to the statistics of DGBAS (1996.4, Table 9), the total employed population in 1995 was as follows:

Table 5.3 The Total Employment Population in 1995

	Total	Percent
Employee population:	6,260,000	69.21%
civilian employees	(5,257,000	58.12%)
government employees	(1,003,000	11.09%)
Employer population	480,000	5.31%
Self-employed	1,537,000	16.99%
Unpaid family workers	767,000	8.49%
Total	9,045,000	100%

According to Major General Yu (1995.4.25), the Taiwanese labour force increases by about 300,000 people per year, of which military retired personnel account for about half, 120,000 to 150,000 including soldiers, sergeants and officers. Government vocational training programmes accommodate trainees up to 30,000 people per year; the Ministry of Economic Affairs and the Council of Labour Affairs each provides 15,000 people with such training

Thus, the government can only provide vocational training for a tenth of the 300,000 new labour force entrants each year. It is clear that the limited accommodation of these vocational training programmes cannot meet the demand for this huge labour force, especially for retired military personnel.

The Asian financial turmoil which has shocked the world began in Thailand in July in 1997. From there it spread, knocking over other nations of the region like dominoes. While Taiwan was only marginally affected by the initial turmoil, it may be hit by the after-shocks. In the wake of the disaster, what is the impact on Taiwan's labour market and economic development?

The Asian financial contagion began to spread at the beginning of last July. After more than 20 years of co-operation and relative stability among the nations of the region, from the economies of the 'Five Dragons' (Taiwan, Japan, South Korea, Hong Kong and Singapore) and the 'Four Little Tigers' (Thailand, Malaysia, the Philippines, and Indonesia), 1997 and 1998 have been a very painful experience for all.

Given that most other regional currencies have depreciated more than the New Taiwan Dollars (NTD) and given the attractiveness of cheap goods, will Taiwan lose orders from the US and Europe? Will the competitiveness of Taiwan's exports suffer? Will the supply exceed the demand in the labour market to cause serious unemployment in Taiwan?

According to a report of the DGBAS (1998.8.2), per capital GNP is expected to be US\$12,030 in 1998, compared to US\$13,198 in 1997. This is simply because of the depreciation of the NTD against the US dollar since July of 1997. The economic growth rate dropped from 6.2% in 1997 to 5.11% in 1998, and 5.32% is expected in 1999. However, if we review the Asian Economic Indicators (see Table 5.4), Taiwan's economic situation is relatively stable.

Table 5.4: Asian Economic Indicators (units in US\$100M)

Indicators	Taiwan	S. Korea	Philippines	Indonesia	Thailand	Malaysia
Trade surplus/deficit (1994-1996)	293.8	-370.2	-301.5	197.8	-371.2	-52.4
Foreign debt (1997.6)	1.1	1,168.2	165.0	606.3	989.4	328.1
Foreign currency Reserves (1997)	831.4	200.0	83.4	202.8	303.0	265.9
Overdue loans ratio (1997)	4	15	13	9	19	16

(Source: The Council for Economic Planning and Development (CEPD), quoted by 'Sinorama', March 3, 1998, P.29).

In addition to the financial turmoil in Asia recently, the rapid transformation of the labour market is presenting employees in Taiwan with unprecedented challenges. The good old days of virtually full employment seem to have gone. Unemployment rates of 2.5-3% will become commonplace (CEPD, 1998.3.3). In the second half of 1995, the unemployment rate began to rise appreciably, and in August 1998 hit almost 3.5%, the highest level in over a decade (CEPD, 1998.9.2). Over the past six months or so in 1998, with various efforts from the government, the jobless rate has gradually fallen, but the average unemployment rate for 1997 as a whole was still more than 2.7%, also a 12-year high (see Table 5.5).

Table 5.5 Unemployment Rates in Taiwan by Age Group (unit in %)

Year	20-24age	35-39age	40-44age	45-49age	50-54age	Year's Average
1985	7.12	1.21	1.13	0.91	1.25	2.91
1991	4.41	0.76	0.62	0.49	0.55	1.51
1993	4.60	0.68	0.53	0.48	0.45	1.45
1995	5.16	1.00	0.82	0.78	0.70	1.74
1996	6.72	1.65	1.49	1.37	1.20	2.60
1997	6.76	1.84	1.63	1.61	1.76	2.72

(Source: the CEPD, quoted by 'Sinorama', June 6, 1998, p.95)

What makes the present wave of unemployment more worrying than previous peaks is that it mainly affects middle-aged to older workers. Anita Liu, director of the CEPD, observes that people aged between 40 to 55 are at the zenith of their physical and mental powers, and their skills and incomes are at their peak. Their family financial responsibilities are also at their heaviest (Sinorama, 1998.6.6).

Retired officers in this age group have been found in this research to be a highly stable segment of the labour market, for example, 87.2% of employment rate, but in the last three years (1995-1997), the unemployment rate in this age group has gone up and up in Taiwan. For instance, for the 45-49 age group, the number out of work had stayed below 1% for years, but in 1996 it suddenly almost doubled, and in 1997 reached a new peak of 1.6%. In an economic booming situation with low an unemployment rate, retired officers could expect greater employment opportunities, but less favourable employment status can be expected in a stagnant economic situation.

5.2.3 Taiwan's Human Resource Development Policies

There are many factors contributing to Taiwan's economic success, but the most important one is the effective utilization of the abundant and high quality human resources. Taiwan's HRD policies, systematically established since the mid-1960s, have enabled the development, utilization and motivation of human resources to take place in accordance with the manpower requirements of economic development.

Fortunately, there was no shortage of skilled workers for the processes of transformation from agricultural to primary industrial technology in the 1970s, and from labour-intensive industries to technological and capital-intensive industries in the 1980s. Effective HRD policies not only helped to promote Taiwan's economic development but also relieved the pressures on its employment and school enrollment which resulted from the baby boom after World War II (Chou, 1991).

In Taiwan, Chen, et al. (1983) were the first scholars to define ‘manpower policy’ as related to public investments in human resources. They suggested that an effective manpower policy should aim at increasing the stock of human capital while reducing unemployment. Currently, Taiwan’s HRD policies have three objectives: (a) achieving full employment, (b) inspiring workers to develop their potential and raise their productivity, and (c) promoting co-operation between employers and employees (Chao, 1989).

Not until 1965 was the HRD policy incorporated into the national economic development project for the first time (Shen, 1988; Chang, 1994). The existing HRD policies, related to the economic policies in the past forty years, are listed in Table 5.6. Unfortunately, it is difficult to find any association between Taiwan’s economic policy and its HRD policy, for there is little evidence that economic growth in Taiwan has been affected by the HRD policies (Chang, 1994).

Table 5.6

The Economic Changes and Human Resource Development Policies

Economic Policy	HRD Policy

1950s: Labour-Intensive Industries	
1. To develop labour-intensive industries 2. To encourage exports	1. No clear HRD policy 2. HRD programme in private sectors only accounted for 8.6%

3. To stimulate investment

3. Limited capacity of vocational training offered by government

1960s Export Substitute Industries

1. To develop export industries

1. To set up HRD task force team in 'Economic Co-operation Committee'

2. To stimulate technological co-operation

2. To start first and second terms of manpower planning

3. To start 9-year compulsory education system

4. To establish 'Export Processing Zones'

3. To encourage industrial training programmes

4. To implement the skill test system

5. To set up public vocational training centres

1970s: Import Substitute Industries

1. To launch '10 Major Construction' plans

1. To promote private sector's vocational training programme

2. To promote auto, machinery, chemical, and technology

2. To enact the 'Vocational Training Fund' legislation

3. 1st and 2nd world-wide oil crisis

3. To set up the 'Employment Vocational Training Administration'

4. To establish industrial parks

4. To set up 'Special Techniques and Vocational Training Committee'

5. To promote '5-Year Vocational Training Plan'
 6. To start third and fourth terms of manpower planning
-

1980s: Capital-Intensive and Technology-Oriented Industries

- | | |
|--|--|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To develop strategic industries 2. To undertake '14 Major Construction Plans' 3. To initiate liberalization and internationalization policy 4. To stimulate R and D and automation 5. To enact 'Labour Law' | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To announce the 'Vocational Training Act' 2. To start up the 'Automation Training' programmes 3. To begin the 'Instructors Training Programmes' 4. To set up a 'Manpower Planning Division in Council for Economic Planning and Development' |
|--|--|
-

1990s Upgrading the Industry Level

- | | |
|---|---|
| <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To stimulate investment in upgrading industrial levels | <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To start a 5-year industrial workforce development plan 2. To begin training female and disadvantaged workforce 3. To revise the 'Vocational Training Act' |
|---|---|
-

Sources: 1. Hong, J.C. (1993). 'Vocational Training and Industrial Development in Taiwan', Paper Presented at the International Conference of Human Resource Strategies and National

Development, Taipei, Taiwan, pp.4-11.

2. Chang, C.H. (1994). 'Educational and Manpower Planning'.
Paper Presented at the meeting of Educational Reform.
Taipei, Taiwan.

The reason for establishing an HRD policy is to achieve an equilibrium of labour supply and demand by directing HRD activities in the labour market. In the past, the Taiwanese government did not consider the labour market as a key factor in developing an HRD policy (Chang, 1982). Not until the 1960s did the Taiwanese government engage in minor intervention in the labour market by initiating training programme mainly on social grounds rather than economic ones. However, the government became increasingly concerned with the vocational training provided by the private sector, especially since the 1970s.

Usually, the government used a nation-wide policy to control the allocation of public funds. Most HRD funding has been spent on school education, while only a small part of it was allocated to vocational training (Chang, 1990). For example, 9-year compulsory education was instituted in 1968 and the development of vocational education became a high priority in the 1950s and the 1960s (Yu, 1993). Thus, educational policy successfully supported economic restructuring, i.e., the shifts from agriculture to manufacturing in the 1960s and from labour-intensive industries to technology- and capital-intensive industries in the 1980s (Chang, 1990).

One of the ways to evaluate the quality of the technical workforce is to have a skill certificate test. In Taiwan, the skills certificate tests not only evaluate the results of

vocational education and training but also maintain the professional quality of the labour force (Hiao, 1993). Annually, the government also holds examinations for skilled workers in which examinees obtaining a pass mark will be given a qualification certificate. Such measures are intended to enhance the social status of skilled workers by upgrading their ability to make a living and to make a contribution to the development of the economy as a whole.

Clearly, the shifts in Taiwan's economic structure have triggered a wide variety of problems for the efficient functioning of labour markets. First, during the past forty years the government has taken direct control of the labour market policy by establishing a national system of employment service and providing vocational training.

Second, there is no labour market policy at the regional level, especially in the less developed regions, which urgently need intervention by the government to revitalize their economic and employment basis. Finally, the government primarily uses its medium- and long-term economic plans to lay out guidelines for investments in the public sector, to indicate where it 'thinks' the economy is going, to identify the potential problems, and to project its HRD policies (Wade, 1990; Chang, 1994).

5.2.4 HRD Policy: Some Situational Considerations

The HRD policy will continue to play an important role in responding to the socio-economic changes in the future. All policies and measures must be modified and updated according to the changes in socio-economic development. A crisis of skill obsolescence can be prevented by formulating strategies based on the economic and

technological trends that point to future changes in skill requirements (Miller, 1989).

It appears that Taiwan's labour market is a competitive market; the wage levels and the demand for labour are regulated by the market mechanism (Lin and Hwang, 1987; Wu, 1990). Taiwan has had little governmental intervention in determining wages, and the influence of the trade unions on wages has been minimal. Furthermore, large firms in Taiwan are few, and about 70% of the labour force in the private sector is employed by firms with only 1 to 9 workers (Wu, 1990).

As a result, the demand side of Taiwan's labour market seems to be highly competitive, for the only controllable factor is the supply of labour force (Lin, 1983). In 1996, the total employees and employers are 9,018,000 and 53% of them were employed in company sized from 1 to 9 persons; 14.96% were employed in company sized from 10 to 29 persons (DGBAS, 1996.4, Table 22).

There are no available data to indicate whether the extent of the mismatch between the labour supply and demand has increased or decreased lately (Hou and Hsu, 1976). Recent research, however, indicates that there is no problem of labour shortage in Taiwan's labour market; the real problem is the structural mismatch in the employment market (Wu, 1990). In general, a competitive labour market, high labour mobility, open information and better educational attainment of work-force are the factors responsible for industrial upgrading and low unemployment rates in Taiwan (Wu, 1992).

In developing an HRD policy, the following aspects of economic and social situation in Taiwan should be considered (Peng, T.L. 1989, 1990):

- (1) As the service sector becomes the mainstream of the economic structure, the demand for knowledgeable workers will be increased;
- (2) Shifts in the production structure and increasing automation strategies will result in the increase of structural unemployment;
- (3) As the people in the middle class become the main body in the employment structure, most of them will be concerned about social reforms, especially the efficiency and the equity of human capital investment; and
- (4) As leisure time is increasingly available, people will spend more time in educational, training and retraining activities.

It is believed the following obstacles could impede the effectiveness of vocational training in Taiwan (Peng, T.L. 1989; Lin, 1991):

- (1) Because of the risk and cost in the HRD programme, and the high labour turnover rates, employers are unwilling to invest in the training programme, and employees are unable to receive relevant education and training;
- (2) The defects of the HRD system, such as lack of the living allowance in the training period, inconvenience of the training location, and non-availability of the skill certificate will become major issues in promoting job transfer training;
- (3) Because of the lack of related information, labour cannot utilize the supporting functions of the employment service and training system to enhance their employability;
- (4) The partnership between business and educational institutions is still not widespread;

- (5) The public training centres serve only a small fraction of the young job-seekers; and
- (6) The training programmes funded frequently emphasize the immediate placement of workers in new jobs instead of training them for long-term job security.

In formulating Taiwan's HRD policy, the following socio-economic trends should be considered (Chang, 1989; Chang, 1990; Chou, 1991):

- (1) Industrial production moves towards high technological, service and knowledge economy;
- (2) Blue-collar workers will decrease while white-collar will increase;
- (3) The amount of structural and frictional unemployment will increase;
- (4) The quality and quantity of labour-force are the key elements in keeping high competitiveness and maintaining a good investment environment;
- (5) There is an increasing awareness of social welfare;
- (6) The number of part-time workers and employed women will increase;
- and (7) The educational attainment of the labour force will increase.

Taiwan's economy is undergoing a transition. Although there is an increase in the manufacturing industries, most new jobs come from the service industries, and some 'high tech' industries are enjoying an explosive growth. The employment shifts among sectors will inevitably change the skill requirements of the workplace. The manpower structure will become more complicated and change more rapidly than ever in the future. Therefore, the most important measures in an HRD policy are to adapt to the structural changes of the economy by adjusting the labour supplies to meet the needs of economic development.

Evidently, whether the economic structure can be shifted to the higher level of industrialization is closely related to labour mobility. Since the division of labour is highly complex, the skills required for different occupations are very specific. Therefore, the government, the employers and the employees worked together to improve labour mobility. In the face of economic restructuring, HRD is regarded as a powerful strategic measure to help the workers, civilian- and veteran-employees, adjust to new and changing jobs.

Economic development usually involves an increase in labour productivity and a commitment to change in the structure of employment. Economic development calls for labour's constant adaptation to new technologies and their movement from low productivity sectors to high ones. Such technological adaptation and structural changes concern not only new and old workers, but also veteran employees. Labour mobility and labour flexibility are the necessary conditions for an efficient labour market (Hou and Hsu, 1976).

In Taiwan, the element of manpower in forming economic and social institutions must be modified to conform to the shifts in the application of all resources from declining sectors to promising sectors. If there are any obstacles to such shifts, the consequent skill bottlenecks will reduce the economic growth rate of the country. Essentially, the structural shifts impose a number of new variables and conditions to which the working population must adapt itself. If the cost of the structural shifts is not shared by the concerned parties, and the growth rates of per capital or per worker product decrease, policy action from the government is required.

Generally ‘education’ emphasizes the long-term cultivation of basic knowledge and skills while ‘training’ is used to adjust the labour market in accordance with technological changes (Chang, 1989). Labour employment training has been used to respond to the diverse variations and to increase the labour mobility in the employment market. The principal objective of labour employment training is to enhance labour’s performance and secure labour flexibility. From this perspective, the Transitional Training Course and Business Management Course for military officers are among the labour employment training programmes provided to develop the new skills and expertise, facilitate economic structural adjustment, promote the quality among retired military officers and increase their employment opportunities.

5.2.5 Recruitment and Job Seeking Methods

(1) Recruitment Criteria for Civilian Employees:

The recruitment criteria for new employees, according to a survey of senior managers of the top 1,000 companies (manufacturing 56%, service 35%, banking 9%) in Taiwan in 1996 are (Choung, 1996):

Table 5.7 The Recruitment Criteria for New Employees

Good Working Attitude	37.5%

Professional Capability	32.4%

Character/Morality	22.1%

Educational Attainments	2.3%

Previous Working Experience	2.3%

Personality	1.0%

Others	2.4%

‘Good working attitude’, ‘professional capability’ and ‘character/morality’ are the three most important criteria for business companies to recruit new employees. It seems that most employers do not emphasize ‘educational attainments’ as an important criterion in recruiting new employees.

Another nation-wide survey (Wu, 1988) indicates that the ‘recruitment criteria for employees’ by employers in Taiwan in rank order are:

Table 5.8 The Recruitment Criteria for Employees

Worker	Staff	Manager
Character/loyalty	Character/loyalty	Expertise
Working attitude	Expertise	Character/loyalty
Performance	Working attitude	Leadership
Learning ability	Performance	Analysis ability
Health	Communication	Communication
Expertise	Learning ability	Interpersonal
Potential	Analysis ability	relations
Interpersonal relations	Potential	Expressed ability
		Performance

‘Character and loyalty’ are the most important criteria for recruiting workers and employees, and the second most important criteria for recruiting managers, which indicates that moral qualities are very important in consideration of recruiting personnel at all levels in Taiwan’s business organisations. This reflects the importance of Confucianist values in searching for employees, in contrast to other important criteria such as ‘working attitude’, ‘expertise’ and ‘performance’.

Another survey (Chang, 1988) shows that the differences between traditional and new workers are:

Table 5.9 The Comparison of Working Characteristics
Between Traditional and New Workers

Traditional (Old) Workers	New (Young) Workers
Working Hard	Working Methods
Labour-Intensive	Intelligence-Intensive
Seniority	Efficiency
Working Experience	Performance
Team Work	Personal Interests
Obedience	Self-Development
Loyalty	Ambition
Stability	Creativity

Traditional workers from the 1950s to 1970s were characterized as hard working in labour-intensive agriculture and industry. Their working status depended upon their seniority with long working experiences, and their strong loyalty towards the company. Younger employees tended to obey the senior members in the company at that time. Thus, the traditional workers placed greater emphasis on Confucianist values than the new workers.

The new workers in the capital-intensive and technology-oriented industries in 1980s and 1990s, were seeking methods to improve work performance and efficiency. They tended to seek self-development and personal interests, and had greater ambitions and creativity than were normally shown in the past. Most young employees believed that ‘work is just a means of living’, while old employees recognized that ‘through work

itself one can achieve self-actualization and self-development' (Zho, 1986).

In a nation-wide survey (Choung, 1996), the senior managers of the top 1,000 companies (manufacturing 56%, service 35%, banking 9%) in Taiwan rated their degree-level employees as follows:

Table 5.10 Evaluation for Current Employees with College/University Degrees (multiple choice)

Criteria	Good	Poor
Professional Capability	39.6%	4.1%
Creativity	21.4%	22.4%
Coping with Difficulty	10.5%	47.1%
Hard Working Attitude	10.5%	47.1%
Team Work	14.1%	20.4%
Problem Solving	13.1%	26.2%

From Table 5.10 employees with college/university degrees were rated as poor in 'coping with difficulty' and 'hard working attitudes', while most companies considered 'good working attitude' as the most important factor in recruiting employees (see Table 5.7).

Most young employees do not like to work over 8 hours a day, and like to change jobs. They focus on self-interest and do not like hard work (Huang, 1990, p.14). A nation-wide survey among graduates from 102 colleges/universities in Taiwan in 1993 (Central Daily News, 1993.7.17) shows that 35.5% were dissatisfied with their jobs, and 60.7%

expressed that they were very likely to change their jobs in the near future.

Another nation-wide survey of current employees and future employees (within one year) conducted by the Council of Labour Affairs (United Daily News, 1993.12.13) shown as follows:

Table 5.11 What Are Your Most Important Considerations in Looking for An Ideal Job?
(The top five criteria in rank order)

- Income

- Job Security

- Welfare Programmes
/Holidays

- Location

- Working Hours

In this Table, 'income', 'job security' and 'welfare' are the three most important considerations for civilian employees in looking for an ideal job.

(2) Job Search Methods by Civilian Employees:

Table 5.12 Job Search Methods for Unemployed Persons

Methods	Total Unemployment	Average Week of Unemployment
Advertisement in newspaper	73,000 (50.0%)	16
Relatives or friends	51,000 (34.9%)	16
Civil service entrance examination	12,000 (8.2%)	34
Private employment agency	4,000 (2.7%)	13
Public employment agency	4,000 (2.7%)	17
Others	2,000 (1.4%)	41

(Resource: DGBAS, 1996.4. Table 23)

In the unemployed population, 50% were searching for jobs by advertisement on newspaper, while 34.9% did so by asking friends, family or relatives. This reveals that 'interpersonal relations' are still important for these unemployed people in looking for jobs.

A survey (Gian, 1995) of the top 1,000 companies including manufacturing 52.8%, high-tech 2.8%, service 28.5%, and finance/banking 9.6%, shows their recruitment methods to be as follows:

Table 5.13 The Recruitment Methods Used by Business Companies (multiple choice)

Advertisement in newspaper	88.5%

Recommended by current employees	48.9%

Recruited from college/ university campus	24.2%

Public job agency	23.0%

Recommended by the people outside the business	18.0%

Private job agency	9.3%

Self-recommendation	9.3%

This survey identified that the most two important methods to be used in recruiting employees by the top 1,000 companies in 1995 were through advertisement in newspaper (88.5%), and recommendation by current employees and outsiders (66.9%).

Hence, there is evident that interpersonal relations (*'Guan Xi'*) play a cultural and sophisticated role in the managerial function in business organisations. However, we may argue that there are advantages and disadvantages of such a typical Confucianist culture, *'Guan Xi'*, in terms of management practice.

5.2.6 Implications for Future Manpower Policy

Since Taiwan lacks natural resources, she must remain competitive in international markets in order to keep economic growth. All of these will be reflected in manpower policy in the future. Manpower policy will continue to play an important role in economic policy in Taiwan, and will remain a major instrument for the attainment of social goals. The implications for future manpower policy will be:

(1) The use of manpower policy to control the rapid growth of population has been successful. Since 1984 the total birth rate has decreased to below the death rate (Kao, 1992). If this trend continues, population growth could possibly turn negative, and the aging of the population would be accelerated.

(2) Specialization, automation and advance in technology are bound to have an adverse impact on employment in the future. At the same time, because of the concentration of population in metropolitan areas and declining population of rural area which resulting in the decrease of production of agriculture gradually (see Table 5.1).

However, it should be carefully designed so as to minimize its negative effect on labour participation. Indeed, unemployment benefit (insurance) is not the only remedy for unemployment. There are other effective measures such as improvement of labour market mechanism, expansion of re-training facilities, and flexible work scheduling.

(3) As personal income continues to rise more and the era of knowledge worker develops, more people are interested in the pursuit of learning and self-development (Kao, 1992). The quality of education needs to be upgraded at all levels. Moreover, educational opportunities for continuing education will be provided for adults, and life-long education should be given high priority in future manpower development.

(4) Public vocational training places emphasis on pre-employment training to increase the supply of trained workers to industry. Hiao (1993) points out that training programmes undertaken by industry are mostly short-term, in-service training and vocational training for youngsters will largely be shifted to vocational education. The principal role of vocational training will be to provide training opportunities for employed adults, jobless workers for retraining, and the handicapped. Training for the upgrading of skills will be the responsibility of the business.

5.3 Cultural Perspectives

‘Traditional Chinese culture’ means the system of ultimate values which has been formalized on the basis of authoritarian economy since the Qin and Han dynasties (221 B.C. – 221 A.D.). Confucianism has predominated (discussed in Chapter 3), with the infusion of other doctrines, such as Taoism and Buddhism.

“If we were to characterize in one word the Chinese way of life for the last two thousand years, the word would be ‘Confucian’. No other individual in Chinese history has so deeply influenced the life and thought of his people, as a transmitter, teacher, and creative interpreter of the ancient culture and

literature, and as a mold of Chinese mind and character. The other ancient philosophies, the religious systems of Taoism and Buddhism, all have known their days of glory and neglect; but the doctrines of Confucianism, since their general recognition in the first century before Christ, have never ceased to exert a vital influence on the nation down to our own century” (Bary, et al., 1960, p.15).

Seemingly there are both positive and negative elements in Chinese culture. Ancient Chinese thoughts on military strategy and tactics, for example, Sun Tzu, the author of ‘The Art of War’, are considered as useful in developing modern business strategies (Min, 1987; Fan, 1987). A number of conclusions drawn from the studies on corporate culture in Western countries appear similar to some ancient philosophical views such as Confucian teachings (Fan, 1987).

The member of an organisation who is trying to manage organisational culture must be able to diagnose and understand it. A military officer who is trying to manage his/her first and second careers must be able to diagnose and understand the context of the military and business culture.

Hofstede (1984) stated that culture is:

“The collective programme of the mind which distinguishes the members of one human group from another...Culture, in this sense, includes systems of values; and values are among the building blocks of culture” (p.21).

This identifies a culture as a set of values which are shared by a group. Cultural values shared by one group may be rejected by another. The values are learned by members of the group, and hence taught by other members. A culture is passed down from one generation to the next.

To understand traditional Chinese culture and its relevance to this research (discussed some points in Chapter 3), we need to explore Chinese culture and its significance, and the relationships between Confucius, '*Guan Xi*' and human resource management.

5.3.1 Chinese Culture and Its Significance

Although there have been a multitude of successful businesses in Taiwan, as well as other South East Asian countries (except for the cases of financial crisis in 1997 and 1998), it has been evident that they are of the Chinese family type, culturally conditioned, rather than more rationally and bureaucratically organized (Huang, 1989).

In his book '*The Religion of China*', Max Weber (1964) concluded that the Chinese mentality, built on Confucianism, fell short of the dynamic motivation provided for capitalistic development which the rigid Protestant ethic in Western society had had. This had been the root cause of the failure of capitalism to develop in Chinese past history.

Business behaviour is initiated and motivated ultimately by an important incentive – profit goals. A critical element in Confucianism is that the pursuit of profit is seen as inferior conduct, and that people ought to concentrate on noble deeds and moral

behaviour (Yang, 1951; Bary, et al., 1960; Ma, 1989).

“The pursuit of profit did not coincide, but more often directly conflicted with the dictates of virtue; it was the concern only of the small and unenlightened mind. The gentleman, mindless of comfort and safety, must fix his attention upon higher things” (Bary, et al., 1960, pp.16-17).

According to the Analects, Confucius said, “The gentleman understands what is right; the inferior man understands what is profitable” (Bary, et al., 1960, p.31). Culturally, people who take the initiative in making money, no matter how, may often be subject to spite, hatred or even personal criticism. The pursuit of profitability is, for instance, often condemned as ‘money fetishism’ (Ma, 1989). This may obstruct individual entrepreneurship, but on the other hand, it may inspire the concept and practise of equality.

A salient characteristic of the culture has been the kinship system, which was fostered by authoritarian production in ancient times. A number of generations came and went, and dynasties changed, but the kinship tradition has, however, persisted almost unchanged to this day, resulting in the very ingrained mentality of the Chinese.

The effect of kinship relationship is more generally presented in an extended form – ‘*Guan Xi*, 關係’ (interpersonal relationships), which involves the connections outside the members of a family such as clan, shared surname, home village, region, education or other shared experience (Redding, 1980, cited by Lockett, 1988).

The influence of interpersonal relationships permeates through the society, being brought to bear on, for example, obtaining supplies or securing outlets for an enterprise, attaining an official position, and even judging right or wrong, and guilt or innocence. The importance of such relationships can never be over emphasized in business dealing with the Chinese, and business operating within bureaucratic organisations, such as government and the military.

Interpersonal relationships find their roots in the kinship association, specifically Confucianism concerning the five fundamental relationships: those between sovereign and subordinates, parents and children, brothers, husband and wife, and friends. Weber (1964) wrote:

“The retention of personalism is especially evident in its effect on social ethics. Hitherto in China no sense of obligation has existed toward impersonal communities, be they of political, ideological, or any other nature. All social ethics in China merely transferred the organic relations of piety to other relations considered similar to them. Within the five natural social relations the duties to master, father, husband, older brother (including the teacher), and friend comprised the sum total of the ethnically binding” (p.209).

There is a reciprocity in interpersonal relationships which has been recognized as important as written agreements in Taiwan (Saner-Yi and Saner-Yi, 1984; Huang, 1989). Similar kinship-based relationships in managing business organisations have also been

found in Hong Kong (Redding, 1980) and China (Bucknall, 1994).

Moreover, the network of interpersonal relationships could also act as a buffer against pressures and protect enterprises with poor performance. Weber (1964) suggested that substantive ethical law had handicapped formal law and therefore capitalistic development throughout Chinese history.

However, there have been other aspects, which play their part. The root causes can also produce variants, for example, respect for age and hierarchy, the importance of 'face' (Lockett, 1988), and priority for 'people' rather than 'objects' in management (Ma, 1989), all of which, can, more or less, have an effect on organisational and individual behaviours in second career development of retired military officers.

5.3.2 Confucius and Human Resource Management

The underlying assumption in the Analects of Confucius is that man is good by nature, a belief that contrast not only with the belief in original sin, but also with the Platonic concept that man needs to know the good in order to be good. It is this concept of virtue that pervades Confucius' thoughts on HRM, encompassed in the phrase, "He who rules by moral force is like the pole star which stays in position while the rest of the stars surround it" (Analects, Book 2, Section 1, in Li's trans., 1991; and the following citations in this section are from the same resource). The leader must be virtuous and then his example will produce a virtuous population. But this begs the question of what constitutes virtue.

One ingredient of virtue is lack of hypocrisy: “a gentleman does not preach... till he has practised what he preaches” (Analects, Book 2, Section 13). For ‘gentleman’ read ‘officer, manager and/or leader’ in this section. This advice is, of course, widely ignored by officers, managers and/or leaders of every sort, whose precepts are closer to ‘do as I say, not as I do’. Additionally “a gentleman should punctually observe his promises” (Analects, Book 1, Section 5), in order to stabilize his working environment through consistency of approach, and an officer-leader should also be generous, as “he who engages solely in self-interested actions will arouse continual discontent” (Analects, Book 4, Section 12).

This final point, however, needs clarification. It would be closer to the truth to say that perceived selfishness causes dissent, for, if the action appears to be altruistic, then no problem arises. Confucius sums up his conception of virtue and its benefits in Book 17:

“If you are generous, you will win all. If you are grave, you will not be treated with disrespect. If you are sincere, people will repose trust in you. If you are earnest, you will accomplish much. If you are kind, this will enable you to employ the services of others” (Analects, Book 17, Section 6).

This belief in an officer, managers and/or leaders need to show affection to his juniors and soldiers is a frequent theme of the Analects. But Confucius believed that benevolence is a matter of degree, as shown by the two phrases “if you rely on people you are on intimate terms with, you will feel safe” (Analects, Book 1, Section 13), and “the gentleman should not make friends with his inferiors” (Analects, Book 1, Section 8).

The distinction appears to be that intimacy is equated with affection, which establishes mutual trust, but that close friendship erodes authority. The command, ‘forgive minor mistakes’ (Analects, Book 13, Section 2), also seems relevant here, for mercy, gratefulness and affection are all inter-linked. This concept of benevolence may be illustrated by a passage from Book 10: “when his stable burnt down...the master asked, ‘was anybody hurt?’ He did not ask about the horses” (Analects, Book 10, Section 17). People should be regarded as more than a mere factor of production.

However, virtue and kindness do not in themselves produce good leadership, for a leader must additionally be wise, and Confucius provides many practical examples of this. An intelligent man would take care in the selection of his juniors and “would not take along (in any army) one who was ready to beard a tiger or rush a river” (Analects, Book 7, Section 11).

In other words, he would not confuse deserving courage with foolhardy rashness. He would also “take the lead and let others work hard” (Analects, Book 13, Section 1); “attend strictly to business” (Analects, Book 1, Section 5); “be cautious in word and prompt in deed” (Analects, Book 4, Section 14), and “point out good and bad points” (Analects, Book 12, Section 23). These observations implying the necessity of discipline and delegation, and the last point appears to recognize the temptation, often due to lack of time, of solely trying and changing what is wrong rather than positively encouraging what is right.

In spite of Confucius' optimistic belief that the led would follow the good example of the leader, for "if you promote the righteous and put them in charge the crooked, subordinates will be submissive" (Analects, Book 2, Section 19), he was realistic enough to value education highly. This seems to be the implication of the sentence: "Rotten wood cannot be carved, nor can a wall of dried dung be whitewashed" (Analects, Book 5, Section 10). It would be far more sensible to stop the wood from rotting in the first place, and in the human context this could best be achieved through training, education and development. Elsewhere he is more direct, commanding, "promote those who are worthy, train those who are incompetent and they will encourage each other" (Analects, Book 2, Section 20), and in Book 13 commenting that "to lead people into battle who have never been trained is to throw them away" (Analects, Section 30). It is interesting that this emphasis on education suggests the ideas of HRM.

These, then, are the Confucian fundamentals for HRM: courtesy, wisdom, benevolence, and training and leading by virtuous example. In Confucius' words:

"The gentleman in everything considers righteousness to be essential. He performs it according to the rules of propriety. He brings it forth in humility. He completes it with sincerity" (Analects, Book 12, Section 5).

All these factors help to gain the trust and respect of subordinates and thus their willingness to perform well, while training and learning provides the ability to perform well. The result is an effective and efficient workforce.

Confucius' views on human nature were echoed by such scholars as Robert Owen (1771-1858), who believed that workers could be transformed by training and good treatment. His work is of particular interest here as he has been described as one of the pioneers of personnel management.

There are also links with George Palmer (1809-1906) and Elton Mayo (1880-1949), both of whom saw the importance of non-economic satisfaction; with Abraham Maslow (1908-1970), whose hierarchy of needs stresses the significance of physiological, safety, social, ego and self-fulfillment factors in good management, and with Frederick Herzberg (1923-), who believes that job satisfaction gained from such factors as achievement, responsibility and recognition is a more powerful motivator than the 'hygiene' factors, which include working conditions, salary and job security. But perhaps the greatest similarity lies with Douglas McGregor's (1906-1964) 'Theory Y' type: an energetic and creative individual who would exercise self-direction and responsibility, if given the opportunity.

Confucianism, as well as other Chinese traditional thoughts, throws light not only on modern management theory, but also on many major schools of 20th century thought. Those who wish to make their research relevant to people familiar with the work of Confucius need to study it themselves.

In any case, looking at the narrower field of HRM, Chinese traditional culture and philosophy offer valuable insights from the distant past on the problems of managing human beings at present time. The ideas expressed in these classics have stood the test of time and are still highly relevant, even though the thinkers in the ancient time were

not themselves considering, not the world of business, but other facets of human resource management.

5.3.3 *Guan Xi* and Human Resource Management

In this section, we will find the existence and impact of '*Guan Xi*' on the organisational and individual behaviours. The Chinese word '*Guan Xi*' refers to the concept of drawing on connections or networks to secure favours in personal or business relations. It is widely recognized that '*Guan Xi*' is a significant determinant influencing organisational performance (Campbell, 1987), and has a similar effect on organisational performance in the areas of so-called the 'Chinese Commonwealth', such as Taiwan, Hong Kong, Macao, Singapore and China.

Any business in Taiwan, including business enterprise, government and military, inevitably faces '*Guan Xi*' dynamics. The operation and management of these organisations are subject to either the intervening or mediating impact of '*Guan Xi*'. However, very few systematic attempts have been made to investigate the direction and magnitude of this impact in Chinese management literature. Moreover, with the continuous development of the Taiwanese economy, both organisational behaviour and the dynamism of '*Guan Xi*' are under increasing pressure to change and adapt.

Traditional Chinese society is built around clan-like networks, with close family members constituting its core. Loyalty to the family-group is paralleled by a deep distrust of nonfamily-members. It must be understood that the concept of 'family' extends far beyond its strictly biological meaning. It could be pictured as a set of

concentric circles of contacts. Typically, it stretches from close family, to slightly distant, to more distant, eventually embracing people who are not blood relatives but who are connected to someone in one's family, such as classmates, people from the same region, and friends. In the initial stages of any business undertaking, Chinese people will look first to these links as bases for '*Guan Xi*'.

People who share a '*Guan Xi*' relationship are committed to one another by an unspoken code of reciprocity and equity. Disregarding this commitment link can seriously damage one's social reputation, leading to a humiliating loss of prestige or 'face' (*Mianzi*, 面子). The person's 'face' is a key component in the dynamics of '*Guan Xi*' as one must have a certain amount of prestige to cultivate and develop a viable network of '*Guan Xi*' connections (Reddings and Ng, 1982).

Similar to face, the humanized obligation ('*Renqing*', 人情) is also a form of social capital that can provide leverage during interpersonal exchanges. Developing '*Renqing*' is a precondition for the establishment or use of '*Guan Xi*', but the advantages run both ways. When Chinese people weave their '*Guan Xi*' networks, they also weave a web of '*Renqing*' obligations. While enjoying the benefits of a connection's network, they also take on a reciprocal obligation which must be 'repaid' in the future (Hwang, 1987).

'*Guan Xi*' seems to be the lifeblood of the Chinese business community, extending into politics, society (Kao, 1993), as well as the military. Although Taiwan has enacted thousands of laws, rules, and regulations, some of them are not well explicitly enforced since interpersonal interpretations are often used instead of legal interpretations.

Therefore, '*Guan Xi*' ties appear to be very helpful in dealing with bureaucracy in Taiwan. Rather than depending on an abstract notion of impartial justice, Taiwanese people traditionally prefer to rely on their contacts with those in power to get things done. A practical consequence of '*Guan Xi*' is that personal connections and loyalties are often more important than organisational affiliations, legal standards and personal performance.

For instance, whenever scarce resources exist, they are mainly allocated by '*Guan Xi*' rather than bureaucratic rules. In essence, while the Chinese bureaucracy often inhibits action, '*Guan Xi*' facilitates action (Alston, 1989). '*Guan Xi*' provides a balance to the awkward Chinese bureaucracy by giving individuals a way to do business and develop their careers through the activation of personal relations. Developing, cultivating and expanding one's '*Guan Xi*' has become a common preoccupation and a form of social investment (Butterfield, 1982; Wall, 1990).

There are both similarities and distinctions between the concept of networking in Western marketing and HRM literature, and Chinese '*Guan Xi*'. In fact, Western literature has increasingly viewed the management of networks as an important aspect of managerial behaviour and viewed the networking paradigm as a means of understanding the totality of relationships among firms engaged in production, distribution, and the use of goods and services (Andersson, 1992).

Networking can enhance a firm's competitive advantage by providing access to resources of other network members; this access is particularly important with respect to entry into markets that involve a firm's core technologies and competencies (Thorelli,

1986). '*Guan Xi*', as described above, also assumes these benefits of networking.

Additionally, both concepts share some common features. In particular they both emphasize that networks are not discrete events in time, in terms of its function and practise, but are continuous relationships. This continuity requires that activities undertaken by the parties in a relationship cannot be completed without the active and reciprocal involvement of both parties.

However, as stated above, '*Guan Xi*' primarily relates to personal, not corporate, relations, and exchanges that take place among members of the '*Guan Xi*' networks are not solely commercial, but also social, involving the exchange of '*Renqing*' (social or humanized obligation) and the giving of '*Mianzi*' ('face' in social activities), or social status. These features often lead '*Guan Xi*' to be called as 'social capital'.

In contrast, networking in Western marketing and HRM literature is a term primarily associated with commercially based corporation-to-corporation relations. Because of this difference, many Western business people may be often in danger of over-emphasizing the 'gift-giving' and 'wining-and-dining' components of a '*Guan Xi*' relationship, thereby coming dangerously close to bribery or to being perceived as 'meat and wine friends', a Chinese metaphor for mistrust among friends. Because of having 'meat and wine friends', one cannot make a real good friend. Indeed, '*Guan Xi*' is an investment in a relationship. It is not simply a 'fee-for-service'. '*Guan Xi*' is given to strengthen personal relationships, which may or may not be called upon in the future. However, through this research, we will try to identify the cultural and '*Guan Xi*' factors in relation to the transition to civilian employment of retired military officers.

5.4 Conclusion

In Taiwan the policies for each HRD programme have been developed in isolation from each other, thereby resulting in an anomaly in the levels of assistance among the programmes and confusions due to overlapping parameters and provisions of the programmes. The HRD programmes take the following three forms: training subsidies, skill training, and measures to help the disadvantaged.

It could be argued that the HRD strategy could be effective only if it is promoted in the context of regional economic development. The emphasis on skill formation results from the fact that employment in professional, technical and managerial positions is increasing in Taiwan, while the demand for specialized skills manifests itself by the growth of a technologically viable and diversified economy.

In other words, the system of the skill-oriented labour market has to be taken into consideration before a country decides to implement its HRD strategies, which involve supply-oriented and demand-oriented measures to compose a dynamic labour market. It is believed that there can be no long-term solutions to the problems of unemployment without considerable economic restructuring and increase in the overall skill level of the workforce.

This study implies that the industrial training programmes carried out by enterprises are no longer the most efficient or effective means of meeting the skill requirements of modern industries. It is concluded that if Taiwan's economic growth is to continue,

greater co-ordination will be required between the industrial training provided by public institutions within the framework of the formal education system, and the skills needed in modern and complex industries.

It is widely believed that changes in the economic systems and conditions will have an impact on the labour market and the employment structure. Inevitably, economic and technological changes will affect the skill and education requirements in the workplace. Thus, how retired military officers perceive and position themselves in this national economic matrix and seek their best niche is quite important.

As we mentioned, there are some 300,000 new people entering the labour force in Taiwan every year and about half of them are retired military personnel. This huge pool of labour would be expected to help to increase the performance, production and competitiveness of enterprises and overall economic development. However, one of the main HRD issues of concern to this research is how retired military officers can prepare and adapt themselves to cope with the rapid economic changes in industrial and business employment markets. However, we will explore these issues further in this thesis.

In spite of the extensive literature concerning the significance and implications of Chinese culture in general management, organisation studies, and sociology, little has directly dealt with the cultural impact on employment behaviour either in business, government or military organisation from a HRM viewpoint.

Business orientation includes a number of ingredients. Among others, innovation and profit direction are two major ones, with which the doctrines of '*Guan Xi*' and 'HRM' in Chinese culture appear to conflict. The pervasiveness of interpersonal relationships undermines the foundation of HRM orientation. As a result, the problems of introducing Western management and thus applying HRM in Taiwan, along with the economic development and democratic politics, will be further reinforced by Chinese culture.

These analytical constructs of culture also provide a framework for assessment for second career development of military officers. As shown by recent cases of, for example, low social status, internal violence, wrongdoings (discussed in Chapter 4), and '*Guan Xi*', organisational culture is not immune to dysfunction.

Using this analytical framework, researchers can conduct internal reviews of organisational culture, e.g., identify potential cultural conflicts, examine the effects of exclusion upon individuals and organisational effectiveness, emphasize the importance of training and career development at individual levels, and develop potential courses of action for change as the organisation moves towards greater cultural diversity. Such objective self-analysis would allow retired military officers to be proactive, rather than reactive, in its management of social change, and to bridge the cultural difference or conflict in the transition to civilian employment. These issues will be explored further in Chapter 11, through the field research.

Chapter 6: Military Career Management

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, we will introduce the military personnel management and its resettlement programmes. In this way, it will clarify the background to the issues of second career for military officers.

The fundamental goals of the military career management system have been described as:

“Career management is designed to develop a highly competent officer corps, to enhance their professional capability...it seeks to develop assignment patterns that will integrate the desires and qualifications of individual officers with the needs of the military and the country” (The National Defense Report, 1996, p.84).

The key tenets of the military career system, therefore, were designed to achieve the broad goals of competence and qualification balanced against the needs of the military and the desires of its officers. To ensure the system achieved its goals, the career management programme was to be administered so as to guarantee: (1) the development of the professional capacity of officers through rotation of assignment; (2) equal opportunity for selection, promotion, and assignment on the basis of demonstrated qualification, capacity and merit, and (3) the recruitment and proper allocation of

personnel in accordance with their qualifications and in proportion to the relative need for each task.

While each branch of Service must compete in the open market for young enlisted recruits, they have traditionally found it necessary to grow their own executive talent and leadership. Career management provides both the framework and the formula for acquiring, developing and ultimately separating or retiring each generation of aspiring leaders. It is career management that serves to keep the profession of arms 'professional'.

Because the armed forces tend to 'grow their own', they have to expend considerable resources in continuous development of the abilities of their officers. There is strong pressure for military personnel to learn quickly, for there is not much time to learn simply by doing. Thus, the armed forces tend to devote a great deal of their time to training and education of their officers. This ranges from initial recruit (basic) training, to short 1-2 week courses on a wide variety of subjects, to 1-2 year courses for officers at the Command Staff College or War College. Not only is training and education arranged, but great attention is paid to the proper sequence of assignments for the effective development of the service member to carry out the duties of higher graded positions.

Training is necessary and compulsory because there are no equivalent jobs in civilian life for many military professions, such as infantrymen, fighter pilots, or submarine crewmen. Most military jobs require skills that have to be learned and practised in military service in order for individuals to gain the experiences and skills necessary to

do the job correctly in combat. Although there are many jobs in military units that use civilian skills, all members of a military unit must be able to engage in combat and have a deep understanding of the military environment.

The career development systems applies particularly to officers who are required in the personnel systems to have at least one technical or managerial specialism in addition to a primary specialism of infantry, armour, artillery, engineering, transportation, or supply, etc. Career development patterns are developed for each officer branch, specifying the steps that a successful officer should take to increase performance and chances for promotion.

The military profession was traditionally viewed as a condition of living implying complete self-sacrifice and disregard for material rewards, just as those who entered the church, for example, were driven by vocation, the conscious feeling of being called, as the Latin root '*vocare*' implies. The late President Chang Kai-shek, as the first superintendent of the Chinese Military Academy (CMA) in China in 1924, identified at least three fundamental values, which he called 'Three Spirits', that serve to influence and guide the military professional: 'Sacrifice, Responsibility and Unification'. While the CMA moved to Taiwan in 1949, he specified 'Five Beliefs' as 'Principles, Leader, Country, Duty and Honour'. Nowadays, these 'Three Spirits' and 'Five Beliefs' constitute the major maxim for every military academy and school in Taiwan.

Career management systems serve to maintain the established standards of professionalism that tradition, technology and society individually and collectively demands of the officer corps. Accession standards, assignment patterns, promotion

criteria, merit test and evaluation systems, compensation benefits, education opportunities, and retirement policies combine to mould the career force. If designed and implemented properly, these critical components of the career management system work to create, promote and maintain the overall quality of the officer corps. We will review how the Taiwanese military carry on its personnel management in practise as follows.

6.2 Taiwan's Military Personnel Management

6.2.1 Strength Management

Taiwanese military personnel management includes (1) strength management (accession, retention, promotion and retirement), (2) performance evaluation, and (3) professional development. Competence and qualification remain critical attributes in the military career management system. Although accession standards are not very high, the Taiwanese military has had some difficulties in recruiting its new cadets for officer corps for the past decade (as discussed in Chapter 4), while it remains a closed system for subsequent promotion. Virtually everyone enters at the lowest commissioned officer grade (second lieutenant) and attempts to work their way up. For a long-term officership, a military academy degree has become a necessity to qualify for a commission. For officers with short-term service (two or four years), a civilian college or university degree and completion of training at a military branch school are needed for a commission.

Advancement is highly competitive for officers with long-term service and is based on merit and qualifications as reflected in the quality of job held and annual performance ratings that detail one's accomplishments while in such jobs. An 'up-or-out' philosophy dominates the career management system. Professional development, along with the better performance and advanced education opportunities, is an important part of this equation.

Much of the career management power is consolidated by and within two key organisations - the Office of Personnel at Army, Navy and Air Force Headquarters, and the Office of the Deputy of the General Staff for Personnel, MND. The size, diversity, complexity, and dynamic nature of the force, coupled with advancements in information technology have led to increased centralization of key career management functions. These functions cover the full spectrum of the HRM field, such as accession, training, retention, promotion, retirement, evaluation, and professional and career development. Collectively, these functions fit within the broad framework of the personnel management system of Taiwanese armed forces.

Military personnel systems of officer corps are designed to obtain new members as young people at the lowest grades, second lieutenant, and then train and develop them throughout the course of their careers. Military personnel systems tend to be standardized but complex. They have to be far-sighted in order to provide the right number and the best people for the force structure in the future. In addition, military personnel systems have to cope with rapid growth or decrease in strength, according to the political or economic situation of the moment. The basic principles of military personnel systems are indicated in Table 6.1.

Table 6.1 Military Personnel Systems

Basis for Rank:	Position
Accession:	Centralized
Level of Accession:	At lowest Rank
Promotion:	Centralized

Career military officers constitute a distinctive group of adults, for a number of reasons. The Taiwanese military, as an organisation, imposes a highly ordered, systematic structure upon each individual who chooses it as a career. The rank and promotion structure, which is only one aspect of the total structure imposed on military officers, represents a clearly defined and evident hierarchy that affects all career officers. Importantly, the significance and pervasiveness of this hierarchy create substantially greater levels of bureaucracy in the military than would be found in most commercial organisations.

(1) Rank. Taiwanese military personnel systems associate rank with the position rather than with the person. When an officer is a company commander or battalion commander, he is that rank in all jobs. Indeed, one function of the military personnel system is to put a position with the proper rank for each job. It sometimes happens that military personnel may serve in jobs requiring higher or lower ranks; however, there are special cases or temporary assignments. Equating the rank with the position can make it easier to assign people to jobs, but in some cases it becomes more complex because of the necessity of moving people from their present jobs simply because they do well and are

promoted.

An officer's rank not only represents his/her official status and position within the military but also influences, in large measure, his/her relationships with others in the organisation. Rank also determines the positions and responsibilities for which a military officer is qualified. Finally, a change in rank often signals a related change in organisational assignment and frequently an associated change in his/her geographical assignment for the officer and his/her family.

(2) Accession. The word 'accession' itself is not unique to the military, but neither is it commonly found in mainstream career management literature. By definition, accession means the attainment of rank, or simply, as it applies here, admittance to the corps of officers. Military personnel systems bring young people in as new recruits at the lowest ranks, second lieutenant, and they progress through the ranks over a period of service. A few Taiwanese persons who graduated from foreign military academies may be allowed to enter the officer corps at the second lieutenant rank. But the general rule is to enter the military academies and become an officer at the lowest grade and work one's way up the military ladder.

(3) Long lead time. Military personnel management faces a major challenge because of the long lead times involved in converting young civilians into skilled soldiers, sailors or airmen, as well as professional officers. It takes several years to convert raw recruits into junior combat leaders or highly skilled technicians, and as many as 15 or 20 years to convert new second lieutenants into highly professional and experienced senior officers at colonel ranks with strategic responsibilities. This is quite normal procedure and lead

time for this transition and promotion in an officer's career during the peaceful era. In war time, it may take a shorter time due to the drastic changes of operation, organisation and casualty rate.

(4) Promotion. In an 'up-or-out' system, advancement, or promotion, as it is more commonly known in the military, becomes an essential career objective. Promotion policies, programmes and standards are, therefore, among the most important aspects of the officer career management system. However, they are of equal importance to the military as an institution, since the senior leaders are not sought from outside the system, but are grown within it. Who to promote, how fast, and with what attributes, become critical questions.

Some objectives of the current promotion system are to: meet requirements; advance the best qualified; provide career incentive; and promote based on potential, not as a reward for past performance. The process, which supports achieving these objectives, involves a numbers of variables. The personnel officers establish requirements based on legislative mandates, the budget, and then mission requirements. The files of eligible officers are reviewed. Their ability to serve in the next higher grade assessed, and, finally, a recommendation produced, suggesting who is most deserving of promotion.

Military promotion policies dictate that there are predictable times during an officer's career when promotions are likely to occur, and an organisation-wide 'up-or-out' policy places considerable importance on receiving promotions at the appropriate points or abruptly terminating an officer's career. The pervasiveness of this aspect of the organisational structure in the military is such that it influences not only professional but

also personal aspects of an officer's life. Career military officers thus live their lives within a powerful institutional timetable.

Along with the various selections for promotion are corresponding selections for command positions at successively higher levels (company, battalion, brigade and division) and selections for a variety of military schools also arranged hierarchically (basic course, advanced course, the Command Staff College and War College). Each of these selections occurs, or fails to occur, within specific periods of an officer's adult life. The combined results of these numerous selection points is that officers are motivated largely by self-promotion and advancement, yet it is an integral aspect of military officer's life.

(5) Retirement. Additionally, forced and voluntary retirement policies and additional service obligations that result from particular assignments (such as attendance at military academies and schools, civilian schooling, and senior promotions) are also critical elements of the organisational structure imposed on officers. 'Staying in', 'getting out', or 'staying twenty years' for retirement-pension purposes are all dimensions of the organisational structure of the military that influence both professional and personal dimensions of an officer's adult life.

A military officer can retire from active duty after 20 years service to be entitled to retirement pension at the age of about 42 to 45, compared to the age of 50/over for serving at least 25 years as a policemen, civil servant, or a teacher in public school. Once military officers retire, they may enter the civilian employment market and seek a second career. This factor, in military service, might have a major influence on the

development of officers' lives. The transfers (location, position, timing and qualification, accommodation or treatment, etc.) to the civilian world are important elements of an occupational structure imposed upon an officer throughout his/her military career.

6.2.2 Performance Evaluation

When critical career management decisions are made, whether they relate to promotion, assignment, separation or retirement, it may be wondered what it was that most influenced the decision. In a general sense, career management decisions, particularly those that involve central selection boards, are based upon the strength of an officer's military file. Since most board members, and even branch leaders, may, or may not, be likely to know the officers they are rating personally, the content of one's file is still critical.

In general, a military file presents information in three formats. A full-length photograph in dress uniform provides a visual image of the officer, enabling judgments to be made on appearance, fitness and compliance with height and weight standards. A paper copy of the officer's record is also included listing a variety of personal data, medical profile, marital status, religion, educational background and assignment history, etc. In addition, it will include awards and decorations, letters of commendation, academic record, and various promotion and assignment orders.

However, the focal point of attention in any personnel file is the copies of the officers' performance reports. More importantly, there is a unique 'political performance report' coupled with the 'performance report' for all military personnel in Taiwan which is

more influential than the 'performance evaluation'. The key characteristics of the current system are as follows:

(1) Service Specific Systems. Each Service (Army, Navy, Air Force) maintains its own unique evaluation system because of the different missions and tasks in each Service. Thus, each Service has set up different contents and criteria of the performance evaluation for its personnel. In most instances, there are different evaluation systems for both officer and enlisted personnel. At present, the Services maintain distinctly separate evaluation systems for military and civilian personnel.

(2) Political. In view of the political warfare system and its influence of the Taiwanese military, political evaluation is too important to ignore, regarding an officer's performance and career future. There is at least one political warfare officer in every military organisation from the company, to the army corps, to take the Army as an example; and from the arsenal factory to the General Staff in the Ministry of National Defence.

They will evaluate and judge every officer's and soldier's political performance which includes, mainly, 'thinking', 'character', 'loyalty' and 'private life'. Once they have written the three-monthly political evaluation report, it will be sent to their senior political officers for further comments and, if necessary, to decide what to do if anyone's 'political performance' is not up to 'the required standard'.

In this political evaluation process none of the military officers, except for the political warfare officers themselves, are ever informed of the content of the political evaluation

report. It is very likely that an officer may lose opportunities for promotion, even though he/she is well qualified, if the political officer believes him/her to have commented adversely on the country, its politics or any senior military or political leaders, for any reasons. In short, if an officer fails in the political performance evaluation once, he/she might fail in his/her military career in the long term; in most cases, without knowing why or how.

(3) Annual. With few exceptions, ratings are completed on an annual basis. On occasion, a complete record will be needed in preparation for an upcoming selection board, in which case the next report will be due a year from that date.

(4) Rating Chain. Rating officers must be senior in grade or seniority to the officer being rated. Typically the 'rater' is the officer's direct supervisor, and that supervisor's boss is the 'senior rater'. Rating officers must have had sufficient time in a supervisory position to evaluate an officer.

(4) Appeal. If an officer is dissatisfied with his/her performance rating, an appeal may be filed. The commander is given the first opportunity to address such grievances. If the officer is still not satisfied with the appeal to his/her commander, the appeal would be sent to senior commanders first, and if unresolved, to the Ministry of National Defence.

If the commander is satisfied with that report has been prepared in good faith and is administratively correct, the report will be forwarded as written. If an error is discovered, it will be corrected on the spot. In theory, the rater should provide a balanced view of an officer's performance and potential as measured against agreed-upon performance

objectives. However, in practise the rater's performance report tends to emphasize positive performance attributes, leaving more critical comments for a private counselling session, or for the political performance data.

6.2.3 Professional Development

In the first two areas of the career management system discussed so far, strength management and performance evaluation, the military as an institution plays a leading role. Granted, officer cadets and candidates have the option of choosing to compete for a commission through a variety of accession programmes. And once successfully accessed, the vigour and professionalism with which one pursues and completes assigned duties will do much to govern the quality of one's performance report. Yet it is the military that decides the accession equation, and thereafter, a board of officers or branch personnel manager that determines one's fate concerning selection and promotion.

However, when it comes to professional development, the equation changes significantly. The individual officer must become a more active player in the process-picking and choosing the 'right assignment', applying to attend the 'right school' (and/or some might even include getting to know the 'right people') as a prerequisite to a sound and upwardly-mobile professional development plan.

Collectively, assignments and schooling form the basis for a career pattern that has a distinct beginning, middle and end. If one lets this career pattern become too much the focus of attention, one risks being labelled a 'careerist'. Yet if one operates under the assumption that this crucial career pattern will evolve on its own, without personal

direction and involvement, one risks becoming 'career-less'. Career-oriented officers serve longer periods in the military and with a sense of direction towards their career development. However, it is difficult to balance these two extremes.

The path to career success in the officer corps includes certain milestones. In general, there are four prototypical periods:

- * Phase I - Junior officer period (0-7 years);
- * Phase II - Command and staff period (8-14 years);
- * Phase III - Field grade years (15-20 years); and
- * Phase IV - War leaders (20 years and over)

The key to the career plan is the rotation of assignments, and planned education and training opportunities throughout an officer's career. Given the scope and complexity of the profession of arms, each phase of the career process is geared towards expanding one's knowledge and understanding of a wide variety of functional areas related to command, staff and leadership.

During Phase I, an officer is expected to become well grounded in small unit tactics along with entry-level branch skills and subject matter (e.g., infantry, artillery, transportation, medical). Low-level troop duty (e.g., platoon and company in the Army) is a must for ranks from second lieutenant to captain.

By Phase II, an officer is considered career material. Towards the end of Phase I or early in Phase II, all career officers attend an 'advanced' course in branch school. These

officers, to take Army as an example, would achieve ranks of battalion and brigade commanders. In this phase, some officers will attend the entrance examination of the Command Staff College at Taipei. There, their attention will be elevated from the tactical to the operational level of warfare. This phase II covers the ranks from major to lt. colonel.

Phase III marks the beginning of an officer's 'field grade' years. Such officers are utilized for many assignments in which their maturity and experience would be valuable for the military. Service on senior level staffs (e.g., division and army corps) predominates. Some will be assigned as commanders at brigade level or vice commanders at division level. Officers from senior lt. colonel to full colonel are selected to attend the entrance examination of the War College at Taipei and to study war strategic education.

By the time an officer has reached Phase IV, official branch career monitoring comes to an end. An officer's established record (reputation) with his superiors is considered sufficient to influence the nature of his future assignments. From this group of the military, the best officers come to be the future 'war leaders'. They are few in number but they are elites at the rank of general and admiral levels.

6.2.4 Resettlement Training Programmes

In 1992, the General Staff of Personnel (GSP) in the Ministry of National Defence (MND), General Chamber of Commerce (GCOC) and Chinese National Federation of Industries (CNFI) reached an agreement that GCOC and CNFI would provide the

'Transitional Training Course' (TTC) for those Lt. colonels and colonels in all Services who were to retire in six months' time. But the TTC programme can only accommodate 28% of retiring officers at the rank of Lt. colonel and colonel in all Services every year because of the financial budget constraint (or the lack of the commitment from the government and military).

The TTC programme lasts for three months, and then the course sponsors will recommend most participants for jobs' application and interview. Once they get a job, they will go to work in a form of 'apprenticeship' for another three months. During this apprenticeship period, they are still active military officers regarded as 'retiring employees' in the eyes of the military, but as 'new employees' in the civilian companies. In other words, they may have two salaries from the two organisations for this overlapping three months. 72.0% of those who did not get a place on the TTC programme may find civilian jobs by themselves, if they want to, after retirement, without the benefit of any resettlement assistance or vocational training programmes.

The GCOC and CNFI have developed specialized vocational programmes to assist in pursuing civilian careers of retired officers whose vocational experience was largely or exclusively limited to the military. The need for the vocational programme to provide for status-maintaining employment of retired officers who complete military careers with many years reflects (1) the changing social base of recruitment, (2) changes in the social and economic structure of areas from which current retirees were originally recruited, (3) the elaboration of technical specialization within the military, and (4) changing training and development concepts and practises.

Due to the success of the TTC in the first year and the need for similar training programmes, the MND opened another three-month training programme called the 'Business Management Course' (BMC) for those at the ranks of captain and major who are still on active service duty but sooner or later will retire. This BMC programme was run in conjunction with the National Association of Medium and Small Enterprise (NAMSE) in 1994. Historically, these TTC and BMC training programmes are the first efforts to be made by the Taiwanese government and military to help retired military personnel in an institutionalized and systematic way. The MND sponsors the TTC and BMC programmes financially, at a cost for each officer of NT\$85,000 (about £2,125) for every TTC course, and NT\$38,000 (about £950) for each BMC course.

(1) Transitional Training Course (TTC)

The CNFI and GCOC have been entrusted to provide lecturers and courses in: Industrial Engineering, Industrial Management, Business Management, Real Estate Management, Hotel Management and Tourism, each term. Each officer has to choose one course only. All courses last for three months. Between May 1992 and 1995, 2,223 officers in all Services took such the training courses and 82% gained full employment after completing the courses (The National Defence Report, 1996, p.204).

(2) Business Management Course (BMC)

All captains and majors who have served active duty for a certain length of time will be recommended to take the BMC programme, which are run by the National Association of Medium and Small Enterprise (NAMSE). The BMC programme is supposed to help

these officers to perform better in their military jobs, and obtain gainful employment after retirement. 250 officers completed the BMC in 1995 (see Table 6.2).

Table 6.2 Statistics for the TTC and BMC

	1992	1993	1994	1995	Total

TTC:					
Colonel	40	170	276	296	782
Lt. Colonel	60	380	537	464	1,441

BMC:					
Major				227	227
Captain				23	23

Source: The National Defense Report, 1996, p.198.

6.3 Conclusion

This chapter has focused on the military career management system of Taiwan. It began by identifying and defining the components of military personnel management. Of particular interest are those aspects of the system that relate to strength management (which includes accession, promotion and retirement), professional development, and performance evaluation. In addition, through the introduction of the resettlement training programmes designed for retired military officers, we can have a brief picture of how retired officers prepare for their civilian employment and second careers.

The military career management model represents some of the same areas of concern and interest as its civilian counterparts. Attracting quality candidates to the profession of arms begins the process. Thereafter, the system is designed to facilitate accessing and advancing those considered to be the best qualified towards positions of senior leadership in the military and throughout the defence establishment.

This system has worked reasonably well over the course of the past decades, changing somewhat to accommodate military requirements, economic conditions, political demands, and societal trends. However, the Cold War years provided considerable stability, even when this system was challenged to respond to crises in the Taiwan Straits. Today a broad range of issues have surfaced that will effect everything from accession policy and programmes (quantity, quality and cost) to advancement (rate and opportunity), and retirement (cost, resettlement, balance, and fairness).

Individual job performance is likely to remain the primary measure of merit for assessing officer calibre and potential, even though the political performance evaluation will be expected to make some changes as a fair, objective and positive evaluation. Moreover, it should concentrate almost exclusively on individual job performance, excluding from consideration on the officer's academic achievements and accomplishments, and/or interpersonal relationships.

Although military service may be 'more than just a job', it is undeniably a job; one which requires nations to maintain management systems designed to attract, develop and retain bright and able citizens to fill the ranks of their military in an increasingly competitive market environment. Moreover, they must ensure that the best of those they

do attract, remain and are able to serve as effective leaders, strategists, tacticians and administrators. This effort seeks to examine how military organisations set out to accomplish such goals.

In the whole process of career management, training and development, retirement and resettlement, and reduction-in-force are common topics for discussion among commissioned officers today. Officers, competing with civilian rivals, must prepare themselves for the challenges of acquiring and maintaining civilian employment in the knowledge- and information-based society of Taiwan. Thus, such questions are: To what extent can notions of military career management be equated and related with those of business career management? Are retired officers intended or needed to seek employment as their second careers? Can they really change through vocational training and learning process? Do cultural factors, for example, '*Guan Xi*', impact on officers' career development and employment situations? These issues will be discussed in the review of literature and through the field research that follows.

IV. Literature Basis for Study

Chapter 7: Literature Review - Career Development

7.1 Introduction

The theories and models of career development, training and learning have to be regarded as the basis for developing this research, because they can have an impact on military officers' lives, either through the frameworks used in guidance, counselling or planning. Also they have significance for second career development of military officers. In this chapter, we will discuss career development; the literature of training and learning will be reviewed in the next chapter. Perhaps we need to define first what is a retired military officer as follows:

“A retired military officer is a person who has finished his/her military duty and given up his/her military job”.

The key features of a retired military officer in Taiwan are:

- (1) He/she leaves the service and is not dismissed;
- (2) His/her retirement is set out in the ‘Service Regulations’;
- (3) He/she is in receipt of pension or lump sum payment;
- (4) He/she is still of relative youthfulness and vigour (at middle age); and
- (5) He/she starts in reserve service, according to the ‘Reserve Service Regulations’.

In Taiwan's case, a military person who is discharged on disciplinary grounds cannot be called a retired military person, simply because, according to this definition, he/she hasn't finished his/her tour of duty. He/she is forced to leave the military service due to misconduct, or he/she might leave the military after serving in jail. Normally, military personnel of this kind are not entitled to retirement pay or a service pension.

Although a retired officer has finished his/her military duty, the military duty itself continues in the country because other people take over. A retired military officer may never wear military uniform, except for some cases of mobilization for national emergency in some countries, so he/she may look and should be treated as the same as other civilian people. From this point of view, retired officers should have the same right, opportunity and choice as others, to seek employment and second career development. Military personnel are part of the national labour force, who work in the military organisations while in service, but may be employed in the civilian sectors once they retire.

Career development theories cover and interrelate with other fields. For example, Maccoby (1976) discusses different needs of the adult; Daloz (1986) draws on the developmental theories; Waskel (1991) and Storey (1993, 1995) examine the implications for human resource management; Bridges (1996) analyses the job-shift and de-jobbing issues (for example, lack of job opportunity because of advanced automation and technology), and Arnold (1997) explores how people, as individuals, can manage their own careers. In this chapter, we draw on career development literature to establish what we need to know about careers and development as an underpinning of effective

career management for officers' second careers and their mid-life transition as part of this research.

What sort of person is an officer? What sort of changes characterize an officer as he or she develops? Where do these changes come from? How do they relate to career development? Questions such as these are inevitably involved in any theoretical consideration of psychological development. Essentially, people are active rather than passive and among the changes characterizing human development are those involving the quality of psychological functioning. It is clear that in a general sense, the only sources of behaviour are a person's genetic inheritance and environmental experience, and thus, another component is that human behavioural development is derived from interaction among these two sources (Lerner, 1976).

In Chapters 2 and 3, we discussed the nature of various assumptions about social and personal reality. Positivist assumptions about individuals and the social and economic environment within which their lives are led (construed as an objective, orderly, stable framework) give rise to the view of development in terms of sequential phases or stages. Some theorists argue that their models represent universal, normative patterns of experience, that all individuals follow similar patterns of experience, and that their models, therefore, allow some degree of prediction to be made about the basic outline of individual lives (e.g., Levinson, et al., 1978).

As the topic of this research falls within the overlap of sociology, psychology, management and military theories, it is underpinned by a wide range of literature from these disciplines; there is no one main or specific body of theory and research related to

military officers' second career development and their mid-life transition. Hence, it is important to question the basic assumptions underlying this literature review and to take approaches to 'career', 'development' and 'life-span' as developing the officers' careers through sequential and normative stages. Individual development interacts with the organisation and its development throughout the individual's career. The theories and models of career development, therefore, are of significance for both individual and organisation, and human resource development.

In this chapter, the researcher sets the scene by starting with definitions of key terms. It is important to be clear that careers embrace a wide range of sequences of occupational experiences, not just conventional ones. It could be argued that careers do not necessarily involve promotion, and they may well cross occupational and organisational boundaries. Careers are subjective as well as objective, meaning that they include people's interpretation of what happens to them as well as what can be observed objectively. Career management consists of attempts to influence the way the careers of one or more people develop. This can include managing one's first career, and/or following different careers.

Retired military officers now seek civilian employment and it will need to be clarified at a broader level, how they, as well as their careers, are to be managed and developed. In addition to political, economic, social and cultural issues discussed in previous chapters, this also involves integrated perspectives regarding education, training, employment, and career development between officers, organisations and society.

To consider theory building across social science disciplines, we need to establish a joint frame of reference. A fundamental task is to define 'career' and 'development' and the meaning they convey. Related to this is a need to appreciate why the concepts of career and development stemming from the definitions should be viewed from a range of disciplinary perspectives.

Hence, the concepts of career and development will also be defined first in this chapter. Second, career theories and models, especially life-span models including Levinson's theory of adult development will be discussed. Finally, second career development for military officers and measurement considerations on second career success will be explored.

7.2 The Concepts of Career and Development

At the first stage of developing this research, the proposed topic was 'second careers for military officers' and the original plans were formulated with scant knowledge of research methods, and of the relevant literature on this specific topic.

The early stages of the research were given to a thorough exploration of the literature in order to increase the researcher's knowledge of the area, clarify his thinking and refine the objectives of the study. To avoid the narrow perspective of a particular discipline and to allow consideration of the context of 'career change', the researcher explored 'career development', 'middle age', 'transition' and 'mid-career change' in sociological, psychological, counselling, vocational guidance, management and military literature.

Much of the career literature was geared to the needs of vocational guidance and was concerned with both career choice and development. For example, Sonnenfeld and Kotter (1982) identify four types of career theory. The first type is sociological and concerned with social class determinants of career outcomes (e.g., Chinoy, 1955; Blau and Duncan, 1967).

The second type is psychological and concerned with static dispositional differences and their occupational implications (e.g., Strong, 1943; Holland, 1973). The third type is of mixed psychological-sociological origins, focusing on the career stages that surround occupational choice and development (Super, 1957; Crites, 1981; Dalton and Thompson, 1986). The final type is principally psychological and focuses on the broader notion of the adult life course and the relation of the career to other major life activities (e.g., Vaillant, 1977; Levinson, et al., 1978).

Some major theories of career development focused on life-span development (Ginzberg, et al., 1951; Super, 1963), implementation of the self concept (Super, 1957), social learning (Krumboltz, et al., 1976) and decision-making (Tiedman and O'Hara, 1963). The research into 'career change' followed the dominant theories and regarded it as a significant deviation from normal career development, seeking to explain it mainly in terms of the nature of the individuals concerned.

There are several concepts of change in the literature on both 'career' and 'middle age' such as growth, maturation, development, adaptation, adjustment, transformation and transition. Although the concept of development was clearly crucial in both fields, forming the basis of the frequently used notions of developmental stages and tasks, and

of 'vocational maturity', there was little discussion of what it meant and of the assumptions underlying it (Reese and Overton, 1970).

The absence of adequate definitions or even sustained discussion of such crucial concepts as 'career' or 'development' created ambiguity. Robbins (1977), for example, in one of the few studies of 'career change' hypothesized that reasons for 'career change' would be associated with 'mid-life crisis', itself a concept which has been found to have dubious validity (Collin, 1979).

However, we may ask: what is a 'career'? The word is used a lot, but in different ways by different people. Solomon (1968) describes career as "...always consists of a sequence of roles" (p.5). Hughes (1937) makes the distinction between objective and the subjective career.

"A career consists, objectively, of a series of status and clearly defined offices...subjectively, a career is the moving perspective in which the person sees his life as a whole and interprets the meaning of his various attributes, actions and the things which happen to him" (Hughes, 1937, p.413).

Goffman (1961) defined career,

"Traditionally the term career has been reserved for those expect to enjoy rises laid out within a respectable profession" (p.127).

Although the term 'career' is well understood in everyday language, the concept is a complex one with several levels of meaning. This is shown in the following definition, which also implies the concept of development as part of the process:

“...a succession of related jobs, arranged in a hierarchy of prestige, through which persons move in an ordered, predictable sequence” (Wilensky, 1960, p.554).

It could be argued that a career may involve works within these organisations in, for example, a travel agency or food-manufacturing, but a career is an attribute of each person. Travel agency or food-manufacturing is simply the context within which a career takes place, and also can change employment contexts or organisation.

A career could be the evolving sequence of a person's work experience over time. Hughes (1958) provides a 'moving perspective' on the unfolding interaction between a person and society. This moving perspective implies a link between an individual's initial identity and the final integrity of his or her whole life.

Careers may involve a sequence and process of employment-related positions, roles, activities, etc. In this research, the term is used in relation to how a retired officer's employment-related roles, activities, experiences and meanings unfold over time, change in predictable or unpredictable ways, match his/her changing skills and interests, and enable him/her to use and develop his/her skills and/or realize his/her potential.

Thus, the definition of 'career' for a military officer should be defined as follows as for the purpose of this research:

“A career is the process, progress and sequence of a military officer's employment life which embraces different roles, activities, experiences and meanings encountered by him/her”.

But it has always been questioned whether one has a career or has a job (McCall and Lawler, 1976). The very concept of career is rooted in sociocultural factors. Schein (1984) points out that in most cultures, it is felt that careers apply only to the upper and professional classes. The difference between a job or career orientation is a matter of time perspective and planned direction (London, 1983). In other words, career-oriented people have longer time perspectives and a sense of direction (Hall, 1971; Gould, 1979). This is reflected in the discussion of a military officer as a career officer in Chapter 6. However, it could be argued that a person may show different career patterns, such as career-oriented, job-oriented, achievement-oriented, or mixed, in different periods of his or her employment life.

What is meant by 'development'? A number of different definitions exist (e.g., Harris, 1957; Overton and Reese, 1973; Baltes, et al., 1980; Pedler, et al., 1990; Megginson, et al., 1993; Sparrow and Hiltrop, 1994; Storey, 1995; Arnold, 1997). In vocational or career theory (Osipow, 1983), explicit use has been made of some developmental notions such as 'stages' (e.g., Ginzerberg, et al., 1951; Super, 1953, 1957), the 'life cycle' (e.g., Levinson, et al., 1978), or the 'life-span' (Super, 1980). The existence of the debate is itself indicative of a key feature of the meaning of the term; that is,

development is not an empirical concept, rather it is a theoretical concept or, as Kaplan (1966) has put, it is a concept of postulation.

Reese and Overton (1970) maintain:

“In an organisation, greater complexity and differentiation among its parts leads to changes in the structure of the whole and in the way in which the whole functions” (p.126).

In the individual, this greater complexity opens up the potential for new ways of acting and responding to the environment. This leads to the opportunity for even further learning, and so on.

Development is a significant topic, for it contributes to the understanding of how people change through life, an understanding needed in many areas of policy and practise. Social and psychological development are studied by developmental psychologists (e.g., Baltes, et al., 1980) and sociologists interested in the life course and the interaction between individual lives and the social structures of which they are a part (Hareven and Adams, 1982). However, development is a complicated area to study, embracing as it does both the individual’s inner life and the changing nature of a complex world, with the life-span as the time dimension.

We should note that the concept of career or development is not the property of any one theoretical or disciplinary view. The diversity of social science perspectives that can engage in the study of careers suggests that the career concept provides a space for

transdisciplinary debate. From psychology, Holland (1985) views a career as a vocation; Levinson (1984) believes a career is a vehicle for self-realization. In social psychology, a career may be regarded as an individually mediated response to outside role messages (Schneider and Hall, 1972); or the unfolding of social roles (van Maanen and Barley, 1984); and a career is a response to market forces (Becker, 1963), from an economic point of view. The career concept is shared among a diversity of perspectives. Thus, the purpose is to review the importance of this shared view of the career concept and to examine the process by which a transdisciplinary approach may help this research.

In the following sections, we will examine theories of career development. If these materials have validity, they should offer insights into the following issues pertinent to this research and will be addressed in Chapters 11 and 12: (1) What key development tasks affecting careers and lives do retired officers encounter? (2) Do they encounter these at specific ages, and why, or why not? (3) What are the implications for how retired officers manage their own second careers?

7.3 Career Theories and Models

Career theories provide a view of work and employment situations that encourages study of both individuals and organisations. For the individual, work can provide a potent influence on both personal adjustment (Evans and Bartolme, 1981) and development in life (Levinson, 1984). Thus, the significance of career theories is to focus on the whole person as he or she related to the employment situations. The notion of the career, on the other hand, considers and concerns the whole person, organisation and the society for which work is being performed and life is being unfolded.

The interaction of individuals and organisations is often captured through sets of concepts of psychological and sociological ideas. For example, personal identity and role provide one set of individual-organisation concepts. Identity refers to how a person sees him/herself and incorporates how work is viewed by the organisation (Katz and Kahn, 1978). It could be argued that identity might incorporate how work is viewed by the individual him/herself. These concepts are related closely to other sets of individual-organisational concepts, for example, the subjective (individually perceived) and objective (organisationally prescribed) views of career (van Maanen and Schein, 1977), and this latter could also infer the societal views of career.

The phrase 'human resource development' (HRD) is now widely used, but others still prefer 'employee development', 'management development', 'development of people' or just 'training and development', etc. However, Harrison (1993) using 'human resource development' refers to the planned learning and development of people as individuals and groups to the benefit of the business as well as themselves:

“Developing people as part of an overall human resources strategy means the skillful provision and organisation of learning experiences in the workplace in order that business goals can be achieved. It must be aligned with the organisation’s mission and strategic goals in order that, through enhancing the skills, knowledge, learning ability and enthusiasm of people at every level, there will be continuous organisational as well as individual growth” (p.15).

Career development and/or human resource development programmes are not only widely accepted but also seen as critical to both individuals and organisations. Such programmes encompass a wide range of issues, from individual jobs, careers, etc., to policy and strategic concerns such as the aging of the work force, adaptation to new technology, and organisational productivity (Mills, 1985; Gutteridge, 1986). However, these trends mean that much of the practise of managing careers has come close to catching up with the body of theory that inspired it (Hall, 1986).

Career development programmes refer to specific human resource activities that are designed to help match employee interests and capabilities with organisational opportunities (Gutteridge, 1986). Such formalized programmes essentially involve the readiness activities necessary for skill and knowledge fully to prepare an individual to pursue and obtain jobs of greater authority and responsibility (Gray, et al., 1990). Career development programmes identified in the literature include mentoring, career counselling, career pathing, and training and assessment (e.g., Mabey and Iles, 1994). Overall, career development needs to provide an environment in which the capacity to learn, adapt and develop can be harnessed to benefit both the individual and organisation.

Organisations that promote the careers of their employees are likely to provide learning and development opportunities for them. Similarly, we may argue these organisations that did not provide learning and development opportunities for employees are less likely to promote their careers. Stamp (1989) emphasizes the relationship between decision-making capabilities and the challenges that exist for both the individual and the

organisation. It involves career path planning, whereby both individual and organisation are responsible for the development path, ensuring that learning and development will benefit both. On the other hand, if individual or organisation, or both, does not take responsibility for development, both will be likely to fail in their objectives.

However, we should examine the theorists who have attempted to conceptualize careers from a developmental perspective - developmental in the sense that they see the individual's experiences, roles, and relationships in work-related organisations as having the possibility of developing along some courses. The focus of this research is not only to look at the retired officers as individuals but also take into account the military and business organisations as well as the society, which usually constitute the work setting and have an impact on careers of retired officers.

Hence we may ask: How does the nature of the military organisation and its professions shape or influence officers' individual career development, including their second careers? How do organisational or societal factors inhibit or facilitate officers' career development? In what ways do organisational or societal factors offer career opportunities or foster officers' growth and development? After we have reviewed the developmental life-span models and Levinson's theory, we shall discuss the issues of second career development for retired military officers.

7.3.1 Developmental Models of Careers - Life-Span Models

Developmental models of careers differ on a number of different dimensions. Some models focus initially on properties of individuals, such as life span or individual

differences; others start with properties of organisations. Some models postulate stages and transitions, while others assume that development occurs in a much more continuous fashion.

The major two life-span models we shall examine here come from quite different disciplines: sociology (Miller and Form, 1951) and vocational development (Super, 1957). Both models were looking at quite different variables and attributed shifts and transitions during the life span to different causes, but they shared some similarities. These two life-span models, because they are built around the biological life cycle, have a great deal of similarity.

They each postulate developmental stages, and they each focus on the interaction between the individual and the organisation/environment, whether the focus is on the society forcing the individual to adapt to its needs or on the individual forming an identity based on the choices and responses received from the organisation/environment. Life-span models provide such a broad framework that they accommodate a great diversity of empirical findings and points of view.

Each life-span model also makes clear that work-related organisations provide the possibility for an individual to find a role or establish an identity as a competent productive member of society. These models also point out that some individuals, especially those that have reached the midpoint in their careers, have difficulty in maintaining a viable place for themselves in organisations.

Life-span developmental psychology inherently emphasizes the modification of developmental processes through intervention. This emphasis is related to both the generation and application of knowledge. Thus, the approach of life-span developmental psychology has been explored in the area of cognitive and especially intellectual development (Baltes and Labouvie, 1973).

The concept of life-span development has been an important influence on career theories. For example, Cytrynbaum and Crites (1989), and Dalton and Thompson (1986) relate career development to adult development, as does Evans (1986), writing about career management in organisations. His model of the stages in career management is divided into three stages: exploration, establishment and the third one, growth, maintenance or stagnation.

According to the life-span perspectives, the individual, historical and cultural conditions that individuals encounter during their lives modify the course of their psychological development. Thus, what is learned about one set of individuals, in one culture, at one historical time may not be generalizable to other sets of individuals, in other cultures, at other times. For example, employment of retired military officers may be an asset for a business company in one country, but a disadvantage in another; or even different situations are in different businesses in the same country. Thus, this research takes major social, political, cultural and economic perspectives into account when describing the career development of military officers over the life-span in Taiwan's context.

Super (1957, 1983, 1990) developed a life stage theory of career development to explain how career identify development over time and to determine a person's readiness to

make a career choice. Super (1957) used the 'self-concept' as the construct for examining career management. Career development, for him, involved implementing a self-concept and testing this self-concept against reality. He describes five career stages, which he originally associated with different development periods: growth (age 0-14), exploration (age 15-24), establishment (age 25-44), maintenance (age 45-64) and decline (age 65+). In 1981, Super suggested that people recycle through each of these stages, several times during their lives.

People may differ in their rate of progression through the stages, in how fast they develop. It may take one individual a shorter time and another individual a longer time to pass through the same stage, but we may argue that all people pass through the same stages in the same order. People may differ in how fast they develop and in how far they develop.

Erikson (1959, 1980) attempted to map out eight stages of psychological development. One of the stages is from 'generativity' to 'stagnation'. This stage typically occupies much of a person's adulthood. It could be argued that generativity vs. stagnation contains some important insights which may too easily be overlooked in eras of rapid change. People in the mid-career and beyond often have a deep understanding of the world of work to pass on. They may have as great a desire to learn and develop in their mid-careers as younger people do. However, this does not necessarily mean that younger people do not have a deeper comprehension of the world of work than the older people do.

To understand better how adults try to gain maturity, Gould (1978) generated a theory of adult growth that is reported in his work "Transitions". Gould contends that there are four developmental periods in adult life up through middle age, similar to Erikson and Levinson, each with its own assumptions, developmental tasks and conflicts. Gould's phases are: (1) leaving our parents' world, ages 16-22, (2) I am nobody's baby now, ages 22-28, (3) opening up to what's inside, ages 28-34, and (4) mid-life decade, ages 35-45. What happens to people as they progress through the various stages within a particular sequence? Specifically, what happens to the qualitatively distinct characteristics of a first stage when the person passes into a qualitative different second stage?

It could be argued that when a person completes a transition from one stage of development into the next, the characteristics of the first stage may, or may not, be completely displaced. When transition is complete, the person will be completely newly organized and the characteristics of the previous stage may be lost. In another situation of completed transition, the later stage becomes the dominant level of functioning, but the behavioural characteristics of the previous stage are still seen. However, when the new stage has fully emerged, the behavioural characteristics of the earlier stage may not typically occur.

There is more to the development of career theory than the testing of new ideas. New ideas, as established social science viewpoints, will vary in their assumptions about how knowledge is formed and how it should be applied. It is the belief that 'development' and 'progress' in life-span career theory, representing a variety of meanings, is both possible and desirable to guide the development of this research. In addition, when

discussing the life-span career theory, Levinson's theory also plays an important role in forming a theoretical framework in this research. We will discuss Levinson's theory in the next section.

7.3.2 Levinson's Theory - Adult Development

The key to Levinson's (1986) theory of adult development is the notion of 'life course'. Life refers to all aspects of living - everything that has significance in a life. Course refers to the flow or unfolding of an individual's life. The life course theory, therefore, looks at the complexity of life as it evolves over time.

Equally important to Levinson's theory is the notion of 'life cycle' (Levinson, et al., 1978). The life cycle is a general pattern of adult development, while the life course is the unique embodiment of the life cycle by an individual. Building on the findings of his research, Levinson (1986) proposes that there is

“an underlying order in the human life course; although each individual life is unique, everyone goes through the same basic sequence” (p.4).

Through his studies, Levinson further defines parts of the life cycle. He defines the life cycle as a sequence of eras. Each era is biopsychosocial in character: it is composed of the interaction of the individual, complete with his own biological and psychological makeup, with social environment. Each era is important in itself and in its contribution to the whole of life cycle. A new era begins as the previous era approaches its end. That in-between time is characterized as a 'transition'.

The intricacies of Levinson's theory of adult life course and life cycle are further elaborated by his concept of the adult life structure. Life structure is the underlying pattern or design of a person's life at a given time. Levinson (1986) notes that,

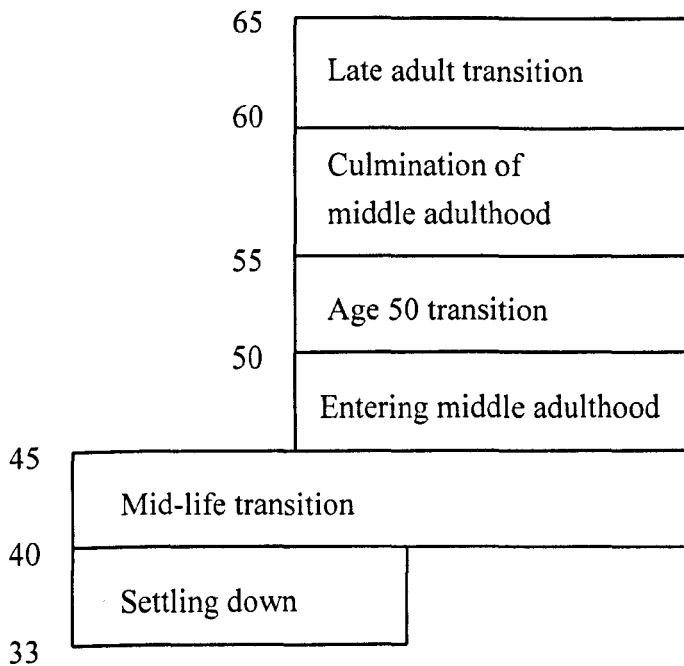
“A theory of life is a way of conceptualizing answers to a different question: ‘What is my life now?’” (p.6).

The primary components of the life structure are a person's relations with the various components of that comprise his life structure during a particular period of time. This research, therefore, seeks to understand these relationships, and their interweaving, over the transition between the military retirement and civilian employment of retired military officers.

A key theoretical contribution of Levinson's work is the idea that adult life structures develop along a relatively ordered sequence of age-linked periods during the adult years, and the suggestion that all people experience a similar sequence of developmental periods. Levinson's theory posits that all people experience an alternating series of structure-building and then structure-changing developmental periods during the course of adult life. Associated with each of these periods are particular developmental tasks, and it is these tasks that define the developmental periods of adulthood.

Each era begins and ends at a defined modal age, with a range of approximately two years above and below this average, as shown in Figure 7.1.

Figure 7.1 Levinson's Theory - Middle Age



The 'Seasons of A Man's Life', as Levinson's theory has been called, are a series of adult stages, bridged by five-year long transitions that merge with the stages before and after them. Between the ages of about 40 and 50, Levinson, et al. (1978) suggested, a man navigates the sometimes rocky transition to middle age. As he evaluates his life to this point, he is likely to feel that reality has not lived up to all he had hoped for.

Among the men whom Levinson interviewed, four out of five had experienced a mid-life transition 'crisis'. Mid-life crisis is a developmental state of physical and psychological distress that arises when developmental issues threaten to outstrip a person's resources for dealing with them (Cytrynbaum, 1980). For the men in Levinson's study, old conflicts resurfaced, and emotional turmoil tossed them about. For

the first time, the men felt physical decline - waning energy and strength - and saw in themselves the first signs of aging.

Each type of career may have its crisis or opportunity periods during which decisions to move or stay are particularly crucial. Whether or not crisis or opportunity in each type of career exists, or is encountered by people, is, however, questionable. Not all developmental psychologists are convinced of the existence of a mid-life crisis. The research on the question of its existence has produced mixed results. Vaillant (1977), for example, suggests that although some men do divorce, change jobs, and suffer depression at mid-life, the frequency of these occurrences is essentially the same throughout of adulthood. In his study, Vaillant argues that experiencing an actual crisis at mid-life is the exception, not the rule.

Perhaps it has appeared in some studies as an artifact of people in therapy (Gould, 1975, 1978) or of introspective middle-class people with strong needs for self-fulfillment. Perhaps, too, the normative 'seasons' of life do lead to changes in people's identity and self-concept. But when these normative events, marriage, parenthood, entering and leaving jobs, or retirement, are on schedule, they should rarely lead to crisis, because people have had time to prepare themselves and to work through the associated problems intact. In other words, there may be a mid-life transition, even if not a crisis. Costa and McCrae (1980) found that among a different group, men who went through a mid-life crisis before age 40 or after age 45 tended to suffer from long-term emotional problems. Thus, mid-life crisis seems neither universal nor clear-cut.

Furthermore, it is argued that because middle-aged adults have such strong tendency to deny the experience of crises of any kind, it is difficult to confirm or deny the existence of a mid-life crisis simply by taking adults' responses at face value (Costa and McCrae, 1980). When interviewed or when completing questionnaires, adults may consciously or unconsciously give the socially desirable responses. Hence, to get a true understanding of second career development in this research, it may be necessary to look beyond the answers and narratives given by the officers sampled.

In contrast to the findings of other theorists, Farrell (1981), and Rosenberg and Turner (1981) do not suggest the existence of a universal mid-life crisis, *per se*. They suggest, instead, that there are universal stresses at mid-life, and thus each man must create a buffer from, or resolution of, those stressors.

It could be argued that it is not necessarily to say that most people feel a sense of crisis at that time. It is important to be clear that the phases Levinson refers to concern the internal, psychological issues facing people, not the observable events that happen to them. His theory is not confined to lives where everything happens right on cue. Indeed that was not the case for all of the 40 men in his survey.

Some implications for careers follow if Levinson is correct. First, attempts to manage careers should be very closely linked to age. Opportunities to achieve should be available in 'stable' periods, and opportunities to review and rethink should be targeted at 'transitional' periods.

Second, the implication of Levinson's theory is that optimal match between individuals and labour markets can be achieved only if there are opportunities for people to change direction at mid-life and perhaps later too. This may be somewhat unpopular because, for example, it implies considerable retraining costs for organisations, or because of the lack of institutionalized and systematic ways to assist and help those mid-aged people undergoing transition.

In this research, the life-span models as well as Levinson's theory of adult development will be used as a theoretical overlay on the employment lives of retired officers. With an understanding of the nature and character of the transitional period in the life structure theory of adult development, this research is trying to investigate first whether this transitional period exists in the second careers of retired officers.

For example, did these officers work to fashion a life structure as they moved from the military into the civilian world? Did they experience, towards the end of this time, a separate developmental period that served as a transition between the military life structure and the civilian life structure that would follow? Did they encounter 'mid-life crises', and if so, of what kind?

Once these questions have been answered, with an understanding of the theoretical indications of the beginning and ending points of this transitional period, it will be interesting to note whether these military officers began and ended this period at ages generally consistent with Levinson's theory of adult development. First, however, in the focus on officers' second careers and its transitional changes, we need to observe and measure their second career development as follows.

7.4 Second Career Development for Military Officers

Military officers develop through their life-span, achieving greater degrees of complexity, even transformation. They are, therefore, continuously engaging in developmental processes as they seek a balance between the changing self and changing environment. The theories and models of life-span have several implications for human resource development, for the organisation is one of the major arenas in which adult development takes place, and where individuals create and dominate their own careers.

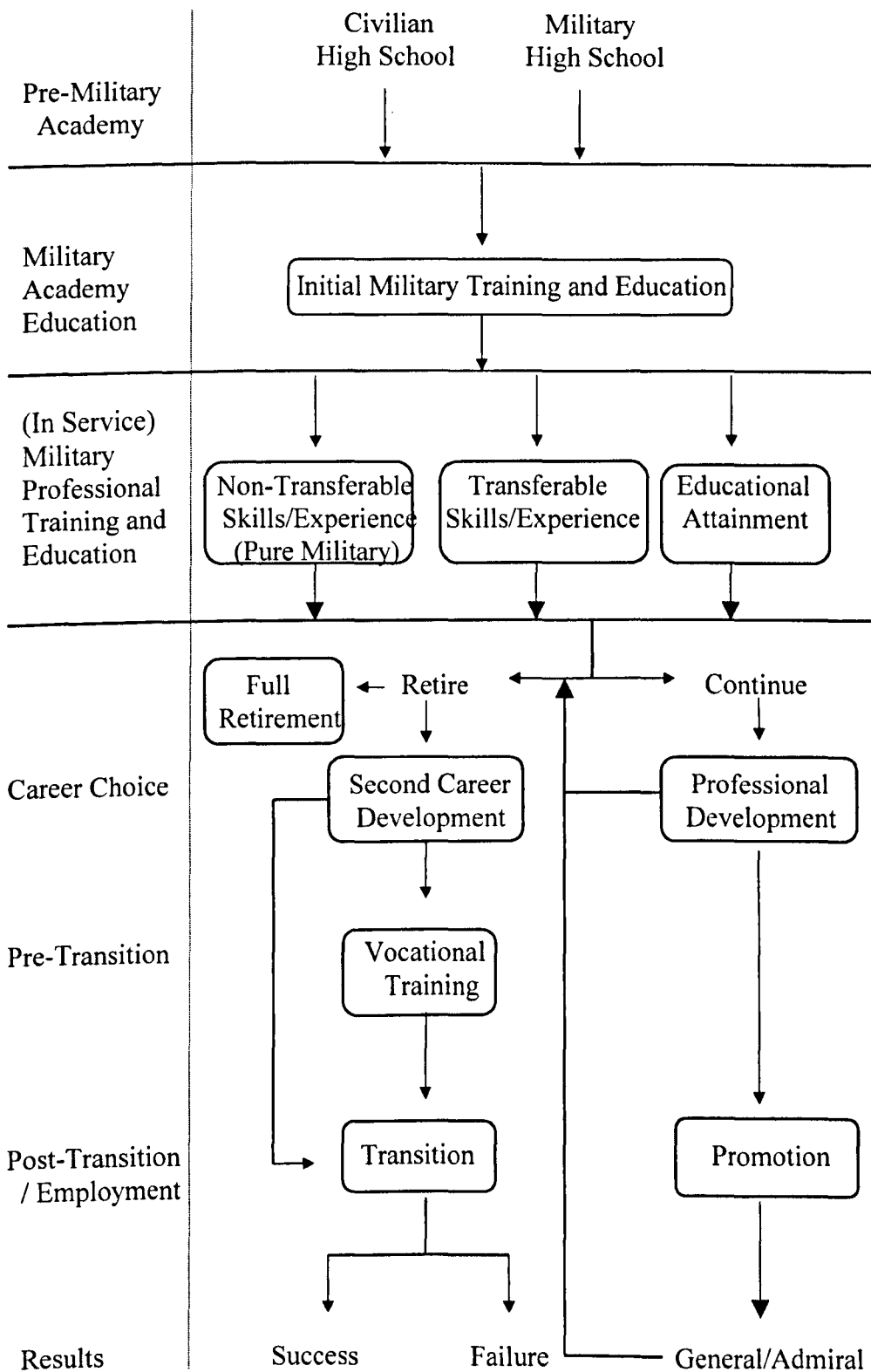
Opportunities for second career employment, the mid-career crisis, learning and training to ensure continuous development, or lack of learning and adaptive ability, or cutbacks in training, or cultural factors, etc., may influence the choice between generativity and stagnation in their career development. The result of this process may influence the way in which employers relate to their veteran-employees, or vice versa. Human resource development needs to harness the generativity and combat the potential stagnation of military officers by, for example, providing them with career development programmes.

Figure 7.2 shows the process flow of career development for military officers in Taiwan. Whenever officers face a turning point, they have to be prepared to make career choices. Options include to retire altogether, or to seek second career development, or to continue their professional development in military service, if they are eligible for promotion. Some of the latter may retire at the midpoint of professional development and then start their second careers, or they may choose full retirement. In practise, because Taiwan's military cannot afford vocational training programmes to accommodate all retired officers (discussed in Chapter 6), most retirees go through the

transition to a second career without attending any vocational training or assistance programmes.

The process of assimilation of personnel into the military is seen as a cycle involving recruitment, selection and allocation of personnel, training and retention, and finally preparation for retirement and/or a second career. However, the main theme of the military personnel system is influenced by the new requirements of warfare in which the armed forces must be composed of highly trained personnel ready for immediate operations.

Figure 7.2 A Process Flow of Career Development for Military Officers



The possibility of middle-aged men or women pursuing second careers after having spent a major segment of their adult lives in one occupation, can, at least in part, be attributed to the increased length of life. Increased life expectancy, as well as mid-life career change, are fundamentally an outgrowth of socio-cultural change, a complex set of physical, psychological, scientific, technological, economic and political changes.

The military profession is a particular illustration of an occupational group in which individuals had a 'first career'. In this research, officers' retirement from the uniformed services generally occurs at between forty and fifty years of age, when most individuals seem relatively healthy and productive. Psychologically, socially and economically, full retirement at this stage is not feasible for the majority (Platte, 1974). Movement into second careers is a life cycle transition (e.g., Gould, 1978; Levinson, et al., 1978; Levinson, 1986) that can profitably be conceptualized at a higher level of abstraction as an instance of social mobility.

Most military organisations maintain a rank distribution which is approximately pyramidal in shape, keeping limited opportunities open for upward mobility within the organisation, and providing a relatively young and healthy pool of human resources for carrying out national defence activities. In this research, most careerists choose to retire shortly after twenty years for the pension benefits. Consequently, from an individual standpoint, the vast majority of military officers are eligible to, and do, retire during what are generally seen as their most productive working years, as Platte (1974) suggested.

However, it may be questioned why these military officers have to retire while they are still productive and capable of military performance and tasks. There are a number of implications of this including:

- (1) The military pyramidal hierarchy provides only limited opportunities for those who are qualified to be promoted to attain senior leading positions. If officers who have reached the peak of their career and have no further hope of promotion, do not retire after but remain in their posts for an extended period, the promotion opportunities of younger officers are blocked.
- (2) The nature of the military task is quite different from those of the civil service, or business professions. It needs vigour, youth, dynamism, and risk of life. Once officers cannot meet the promotion requirements for a higher rank, they will eventually retire while the military has little difficulty in meeting the demand for the limited number of senior positions.
- (3) The Taiwanese military provides incentives to retirement, in the form of retirement pay, or a pension after 20 years service, compared to 25 years in civil service. The purpose of this is to attract young people to join the officer corps. However, in reality, this is not working well as it should be, as we discussed the problems of recruitment in Chapter 4.

In this regard, Janowitz (1960) commented, in a U.S. context, that, given the limitations of retirement pay or a pension as the sole source of income, the relative youth of the retiree, and the normatively prescribed value of work in society, it is not surprising that

a second career in the civilian labour market has become the 'preferred pattern'. Second career efforts and outcomes, however, may be problematic. For example, it has been suggested that the entry of military professionals into civilian pursuits would lead the militarization of civilian institutions. (Biderman and Sharp, 1968; Biderman, 1972).

Several earlier professionals in the mental health fields have been interested in the more pervasive ramifications of military retirement. For example, McNeil and Giffen (1967) discuss the 'retirement syndrome', an ill-defined but popularized term used to describe a variety of reactive disorders observed among some individuals who have retired or are preparing to retire from active-duty military service. The basic difficulty of the transition from military to civilian life for most retired officers appears to revolve around the radical change in life-style, of which occupational change is one facet.

'Retirement syndrome' may refer to the desire to avoid the social stigma associated with career withdrawal or unemployment and fears that age and skill-specificity will limit employability. However, it could be argued that the values of a person's career cannot be judged by career withdrawal, age or specific skills relating to the employment or employability, but rather by the person's self-perceptions on what it all means for the person's career and life. For example, a middle-aged retired officer may not seek any job attached to any company, perhaps because of the mid-age, the lack of skills, or the lack of interests. He/she may rather seek self-employment by creating his/her own business, such as to run a restaurant, shop, or nursery school, etc., regardless of his/her age, specific skills, social and educational background, or previous work experiences.

Cutright (1964) identified a number of barriers facing retired officers seeking to find a job or to work in a private company in the U.S. since World War II. For example, few assistance programmes, negative civilian attitudes, lack of transferable skills and inadequate information about employment opportunities. Bellino (1969) suggested that a constellation of 'situational dilemmas' confront the retirees. Among such attitudinal and behavioural situations are: (1) a need for civilian employment and new financial arrangements, (2) adjustment to the loss of military occupational role and social position, (3) adapting to a civilian way of life, (4) integration into a permanent community after a life of transience, and (5) adjustment to a new and perhaps more intense pattern of family interaction.

McNeil and Giffen (1967) conceived of a 'three-phase transition model' of the retirement process which rests on the assumption that reactions to military retirement vary in relation to the specific situational forces impacting upon the individual and his/her basic personality characteristics. The first phase begins in pre-retirement. By actively preparing for anticipated changes, the prospective retiree can reduce his/her level of anxiety. Next, irrespective of previous actions, the period immediately following retirement constitutes a phase of 'role confusion' which lasts approximately one year. Third, the period of 'role confusion' is a levelling-off phase, characteristically dominated by equilibrium or disequilibrium; the retiree ultimately establishes either a pattern indicative of positive adjustment or one of chronic maladjustment.

Retirement has been defined in various ways, and not all the definitions adequately reflect the complexity of the second career transition of retired military officers. For a start it is possible to distinguish between retirement as a transition (becoming retired)

and as a status (being retired). Atchley (1982) defines “substantial reduction in employment accompanied by income from a retirement pension or personal savings” (p.264), which may not coincide with a person’s subjective opinion of his/her employment status, or with his/her financial position.

Satisfaction with retirement tends to be higher among people who engage in a number of activities and roles. Indeed, a person may already be fulfilling some of them before retirement and the continuity of the process itself provides contributes to adjustment after retirement (Atchley, 1976).

However, it could be argued that the ‘problem’ of the transition into retirement and/or from the retirement into employment is not a real ‘problem’, *per se*. It may be a kind of personal psychological complex due to the lack of confidence in one’s ability and adaptability, the lack of understanding about oneself and the new environment, or the loss of courage to face and meet the challenges of a new career.

The importance of having positive reasons for retirement has been emphasized by Hanisch (1994). She found in a sample of 150 retirees that most of their stated reasons for retirement fell into three categories: (poor) health; personal reasons such as wanting to travel or spend more time with family; and work reasons such as job dissatisfaction or being tired of working. Not surprisingly, the second group reported having done more planning for retirement and engaging in more activities in post-retirement than the other two groups.

The importance of planning for retirement is another consistent theme. It illustrates how the preparation stage of the transition cycle can be used to good effect. It is difficult to evaluate the impact of pre-retirement plans due to all the other things that happen in people's lives that might obscure that impact, and because of the lack of such a comparison to compare people who have pre-retirement plans with similar people who do not. However, Kamouri and Cavanaugh (1986) did a similar comparison and found that people who attended a pre-retirement programme tended to remain satisfied with their retirement for longer than those who did not.

However, we may argue that having pre-retirement plans does not necessarily result in good effect. For example, how can a retired officer without any transferable expertise and skills, compete with those who have expertise and skills which a business company needs, even if the former has more pre-retirement plans than the latter does?

The transition between retirement and second career is increasingly ambiguous and complex. Sometimes through choice and sometimes through necessity, many military officers retire gradually from service. Thus, how they enter a new civilian life and start to develop a second career is an important issue to study.

7.5 Measurement Considerations on Second Career Success

Industrialized society and its military organisations have witnessed a process of increasing complexity of technology. With regard to the question of convergence of military and business and industrial occupational structures, the crucial consequence of this increasing technology is one of the important factors to help the transition of retired

military personnel into the civilian labour force. As Lang (1964) concludes,

“...the decline of occupations with no civilian-military counterparts...suggests increasing overlap between skills required in the two sectors. As a result, experience acquired during military service has increasing transfer value in a civilian career” (p.47).

It could be argued that the successful transition depends not only on whether long-term officers possess transferable knowledge and skills, but also on their individual learning abilities to utilize such knowledge and skills into civilian employment. In addition, there are at least two personality factors which are components of the theoretical construct ‘learning skills’: (1) the achievement orientation which may facilitate successful transition, and (2) the motivation to their second careers which may help the successful integration of retired military officers. We may assume that strength of achievement motive is one of the important factors contributing to career development. Starting from this standpoint, the achievement orientation of the sampled officers will be assessed in terms of their second career success in this research.

What does ‘career success’ mean? As the present study is concerned to analyze the career transition among the retired officers, it is important to construct a theoretical framework in which the ‘transition’ and ‘second career’ can be viewed dynamically.

The concept of ‘career success’ in life-span career theories can be important to clarifying the perceived career success in this research. Stages in careers relate to different life tasks and the development of the self-concept (Levinson, 1986). Thus,

different life tasks and the self-concept have implications for people's attitudes, satisfaction and attainment. People play different roles in their lives while at certain stages, people may just play only one role (Super, 1980).

It could be argued that a person could play different roles at the same time or stage. A line manager, for example, is the 'boss' of his/her employees, the 'subordinate' of his/her bosses, and the 'colleague' of his/her other line managers. When a person is not working in his/her main company, he/she might be an owner running another business, for example, a pub or restaurant in the evenings or at weekends. Thus, the multiple jobs and roles one can hold at the same stage give multiple perspectives from which to perceive individual career development.

Thus, a career may be viewed differently in this research as a sequence of positions occupied by an officer during his/her military and civilian careers and the course of a lifetime; as a decision to be made by an officer going through retirement and transition into the second employment; and as a series of life stages in which different life tasks, work, experiences, roles, and experiences are encountered, as shown in previous definition of career.

Korman, et al. (1981) found that an individual whose career success was evaluated highly, based on pay and job status, might perceive his/her career success as low. Collin (1984) found that the subjective experience of change did not parallel the objective change. In other words, the difference between the two variables could depend on what each variable meant to the individual.

We may argue that if people are very satisfied with their jobs and payment, and/or are very happy in doing the jobs, with a sense of achievement, they will be likely to have a higher perceived career success. Having satisfaction with a job, the right role to play, a sense of achievement, and a mid-life change are significant factors in different perceptions and evaluation of individuals' career success.

A less clear relationship can be found between how to evaluate career success and job satisfaction. Studies indicate that criteria such as income, job autonomy, responsibility, and supervisory status have all been found to have positive associations with job satisfaction (Kahn, 1972; Martin and Hanson, 1986; Poole, et al., 1993).

However, job satisfaction has often been described as an intrinsic and motivational factor in a job. Locke (1969) described job satisfaction as:

“a function of the perceived relation between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it as offering” (p.309).

This has relevance for an individual's perceptions on career success. The most common definition views job satisfaction as depending on an evaluation the person makes of the job and the environment surrounding the job. Being satisfied with one's job also encompasses the notion of personal well-being. This is especially so at a time when many workers who have attained high professional status are facing problems with health and stress. Hence, the need to construct a broader notion of career success has become of increased value and complexity.

Gattiker and Larwood (1989) agreed that external measures such as job position and type of business also have an influence on individuals' perceptions of their career success. For example, an individual working during an economic boom with low unemployment rate could perceive greater employment opportunities and thus have higher perceptions of career success than an individual in a stagnant economic situation. Thus, there is a mutual relationship between the intrinsic and extrinsic processes, which is mediated by an individual's personal attitudes.

Individuals may be satisfied with the nature of the job, but feel that their career has not advanced. This logic is developed in by Gattiker and Larwood's (1989) definition of career satisfaction. They define it as an overall affective orientation of individuals towards their careers or job roles.

In this research, the internal criteria will include 'intrinsic' variables such as desire, attitudes, goal-setting and achievement motive which enhance an individual's 'feeling good about themselves', satisfaction with jobs and their perceived success. The external criteria include those variables which can be assessed externally to the individual, for example, employment status, income and position.

Two other major sources of influence on career success are background factors such as military experiences, professions, skills, ranks, career plans and educational attainments, etc., and the military and business's assistance and support programmes for facilitating the transition for retired officers, and the perceptions and attitudes towards these retired officers from the employers and the society as a whole.

While traditional incentives of money, status and power are generally considered to account for only part of human motivation, the highly regarded motivational hierarchy of Maslow (1954) also provides an incomplete and misleading picture of human nature (Bolman and Deal, 1984). The work desire is rather a desire to pursue self-development through work. In social science theory, values underlie human motivation. Although money, power and status certainly motivate people to work, values inspire the way in which a person does work and how a person develops him/herself.

Perception may also influence an individual's motivation to develop his/her career. People high in perceived self-control view difficulties as challenges; those who doubt their own capabilities tend not to follow through on projects (Rodin, 1980). If they perceive a situation as one in which chance or luck determines success, Rotter (1982) feels that they are less likely to raise expectancies for future success. Perceptions of locus of control, work values orientation, and past experience or training, etc., all may play a significant role in how a person views current and future career, and whether the goals will be achieved.

Studies by Newell (1988) also show that workers who have higher educational levels are more likely to want to contribute to their own self-development. It could be argued that the higher education level of the workforce might result in better career development and/or work performance. Do the educational attainments, along with the rank achieved, of the military have a positive correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers in their second careers? These issues will also be investigated in this research.

Most adults give practical, pragmatic reasons for developing and learning. They strive for understanding and mastery, and tend to be motivated when effectively learning something they personally value (Wlodkowski, 1985). Individuals are motivated to become involved in learning to the extent that they feel a need to gain knowledge and perceive a personal goal that will help them to achieve something in their lives (Knowles, 1980).

The need for achievement has been investigated by McClelland, et al. (1953). Rotter (1982) claims that people high in the need for achievement probably have some belief in their own skill or ability to determine the outcome of their own efforts. However, the relationship does not necessarily have to be linear. A person may have a high motivation for achievement but not an equally high belief in their internal locus of control. Also, there may be those with a low need for achievement who believe their own behaviour controls their destiny.

Growth-motivated individuals are not dependent for their main satisfactions on other people, culture, or external satisfaction. The determinants of satisfaction for the growth motivated are within the individual and not social (Maslow, 1971). Motivation is a driving force that makes an individual wants to know, to understand, to believe, to act, and to gain a skill (Warren, 1964). Any theory of motivation must take account of the fact that the environment plus cultural determination play a large part when viewing motivations of the individual (Maslow, 1971). Moreover, motivation is a driving force that making an individual want to win, to succeed, and making an individual to believe that he/she can make it.

Raynor's (1982) theory of 'personality functioning and change' hypothesizes that personal and important goals are of much greater motivational significance than non-personal and important goals, and therefore can involve more than the attainment of a difficult goal, even if this might mean greater financial reward, power, higher status and so on. But it could be argued that a person may just have a only goal which is nothing more than to get a job and to make a living. Such a person might not need a concept of career, or career development, and/or a personal goal. In this situation, achievement of motivation, or career development, could be of less significance for him/her. Thus, it is argued that personalized goals and perceptions of success in achieving career goals affect the different outcomes, success or failure, in people's career development.

Using goal-setting theory, researchers suggested that people are more likely to apply new learning when they are presented with a skill utilization objective. Hence, leaving aside the controversy as to whether or not participation is important in goal setting, Anderson and Wexley (1983) and Locke and Latham (1984) report that the setting of behavioural targets does in fact lead to higher transfer levels. This may be the case, as demonstrated by Frayne and Latham (1989), because goal setting provides cues useful for enhancing perceived self-efficacy.

Thus, in an effort to investigate how retired officers perceive and develop their second careers, it is necessary and important to understanding the concepts and theories of career development, and to identify what criteria should be set up to evaluate their second career success, transitions and employment status.

7.6 Conclusion

In this chapter we have defined the concepts of career and development. More importantly, the stage and life-span theories, and Levinson's theory of adult development were presented as a theoretical overlay on the employment lives of retired military officers. With an understanding of the nature and character of transitional period in the life structure theory of adult development, we may assume that this transitional period exists in second careers of retired military officers, and recognize what we need to know about the issues of second career development of military officers.

Career change for a civilian or military person may, for example, refer to, most visibly, the severance of professional ties, the loss of relations from moving to a new position, and the orientation and socialization in one's new career field. A career change may cause a different life style for a person, and/or his/her family, and may even cause negative feelings towards oneself or one's society. Career-oriented people take a longer time perspective on their work than do people who merely hold jobs. Such careerists generally expect their work to occupy a more central place in their lives by providing at least partial satisfaction of various needs, including affiliation, social esteem, competence, power, and achievement. A career can fulfill one's highest aspiration, as well as satisfy one's financial and material needs.

Retired officers who seek civilian employment and career development are part of the overall labour force. The concept of second career development needs to be clarified in relation to the issues of how these retired officers and their careers are to be managed

and developed. Thus, second career management for military officers is very necessary and important. On the one hand, the uncertainty increases the need for better second career management and on the other, it makes it increasingly difficult. On balance, it appears that individuals should make their own career development plans and goals, and become less willing to rely on their employers and/or organisations. Hence, retired military officers must assume the main responsibility for managing their own second careers.

The career plan, educational attainments, training, learning, skills, work desires and job opportunities, organisational culture, etc. offered in military officers' second careers would be an answer to both the success or failure of second career development and aspirations of a civilian employee/manager. At the same time, the transfer value of military experience and skills to civilian employment may be responsible for many retention, retirement and employment problems. In short, it will be worthwhile to find out how those military officers developed and managed their second careers in this research.

Chapter 8: Literature Review - Adult Training and Learning

8.1 Introduction

No organisation can remain static and continue to flourish. Both society and the economy are characterized by change which demands growth in people to meet challenges (Quick, 1980). Every aspect of our way of living can be characterized in terms of growth (Falberg, 1968). Indeed, without change there would be no growth. Consequently, organisations spend considerable amounts of time and efforts on developing and training their human resources (Anthony and Nicholson, 1977; Harrison, 1993; Storey, 1993; Hagan, 1996).

“Employee...training activities are among the most common and costly methods of achieving human resource objectives” (Milkovich and Boudreau, 1988, p.14).

Legge (1995, p.78) points out that this change has several important effects: (1) the workforce has split into two types: one undertakes jobs requiring high levels of skills and knowledge, and consequently high levels of education and training; the other performs routine and low skill frequently based jobs; (2) the workforce will become increasingly ‘middle-aged’ in the 1990s.

Training has become a key element in the modern personnel activity of government (Sylvia and Meyer, 1990). Employee training is important for many reasons. Training

employees for the use of new technology can reduce equipment maintenance, cost, waste, personnel turnover, and accidents. Training can increase production, upgrade the quality of output, and improve employees' self-esteem. Successful organisations recognize the importance of training programmes that give employees the necessary confidence and knowledge to strive for higher achievement (Rodgers, 1987).

In both business and non-business (e.g., military and government) organisations, any incompetent or ineffective member can cost an organisation much in reduced efficiency, productivity and morale. Ideally, organisations respond to these individuals by providing them with supportive feedback, appropriate training and career development programmes in the expectation of better results. In many cases, some combination of these approaches is successful, but often, organisations ignore these issues which leads to failure of the organisation or termination of the employees (McCall and Lombardo, 1983; Howard and Bray, 1989; Kaplan, et al., 1991; Bridges, 1996).

In this study, several questions will be raised and addressed: Will pre-military training programmes, military training in the service and/or vocational training before or after retirement, lead to subsequent behaviour change in positive ways after retirement? If so, will training programmes give retired officers the necessary confidence to seek and skills to obtain higher achievement in subsequent civilian employment? Will strong desires to pursue career development goals lead to better career achievement and employment status in military service and/or in subsequent civilian careers? How do these retired officers transfer what they have learned in military/vocational training programmes into their new civilian employment? Will learning and adaptive ability be important to facilitate the transition to a second career for retired officers? And finally,

will the age factor facilitate or hinder their subsequent employment and second career development?

Thus, in this chapter, we will discuss what defines learning and behaviour change? Then training and learning issues relating of mid-aged people will be highlighted. Subsequently hypotheses will be developed, based upon the reviewed literature in Chapters 7 and 8.

8.2 Learning and Behaviour Change

When certain observable changes in human behaviour take place, learning may, or may not, be inferred. It is therefore to seek appropriate answers to the questions: what is learning and what is behaviour change? These issues will be discussed as follows:

Gagne (1970) defined learning as:

“a change in human disposition or capability, which can be retained, and which is not simply ascribable to the process of growth” (p3).

Friedlander (1983) discussed the definition of learning and the notion of behaviour change, and said:

“Learning is the process that underlies and gives birth to change” (p.194).

The kind of change called learning thus exhibits its itself as a change in behaviour, and the inference of learning is made by comparing what behaviours were possible before the individual was placed in a 'learning situation' and what behaviours can be exhibited after such 'learning treatment'. The change may be, and often is, an increased capability for some types of performance. It may also be an altered disposition of the sort called 'attitude', 'interest' or 'value'.

This change must have more than momentary performance; it must be capable of being retained over some periods of time. Furthermore, particular problems could occur in the case of managerial behaviour because of the role model, authority, control and power connotations in managers' activities and responsibilities. The term 'behaviour' when used in an organisation context embraces more than physical actions. Learning by adults could be expected to have a marked impact on the patterns of a second career, for instance, by increasing their capability, skills, and academic attainment.

Thus, it is important to understand the basic question "what do we actually mean by learning?". Van Rossum, et al. (1985) emphasize the centrality of the concept of learning, arguing that:

"It seems to be possible to use it (learning) as the key concept: the learning concept gives us a clear picture of qualitatively different views on learning and moreover seems to be strongly connected with qualitatively different ways of thinking and acting, e.g., different study strategies" (p.618).

Defining 'learning' in a wider context may help to respond to some of the questions and issues raised above. Learning has often been defined in surprisingly prescriptive ways and much of this theory has also assumed that what can be stated about organisational learning also describes individual learning characteristics (Argyris, 1964; Argyris and Schon, 1978; Mumford, 1994). As some researchers observe, learning has too often been contained within organisational learning theory rather than group, adult and individual learning theories (Leyman, 1989; Senge, 1993; Mabey and Iles, 1994).

Adult learning has usually been considered purely in the context of production processes - that is, learning tends to be limited to training needs arising out of an organisation's need to have employees do a job properly as defined by management within the narrow economic and political systems. Even a focus on self-development, and the creation of better working environment, tends to assume an unchanging context in patterns of work behaviour and notion about how organisations should operate. This limits learning and our perceptions of how it is acquired, nurtured and expanded.

Learning is not only about extracting meaning; it is also about change. In addition, learning has moved out of the study situation at the level of abstraction of learning, to include a broader context. At this point, the researcher would suggest that the above concepts of learning are compatible with the needs for adult learning. However, adults may stand between often-conflicting dimensions: internal and external environments demanding simultaneous stability and change. Mediating between the demands of organisation and environment is one of management's most difficult challenges (Leifer and Delbecq, 1978).

The consequences of behaviour determine behaviour through a process known as operant or instrumental conditioning (Skinner, 1961). Reinforcers, as Skinner implies, can be positive or negative. In both positive and negative reinforcement, a consequence follows some behaviours. A relationship is built between the behaviour and the consequence. The consequence is conditioned on the occurrence of the behaviour; the behaviour operates on the environment, producing the consequence. Most training and development theories focus on the individual change with the assumption that the learning will enable the individual to become more effective in performance.

An attitude can be described as a tendency to behave in certain ways in particular situations, whereas a skill is an ability to perform a task well. Yet both attitude and skill can influence behaviour changes. The concept of cognitive dissonance (Festinger, 1962) provides an explanation of this. We normally like our attitudes and behaviour to be in harmony with each other. Attitude and behaviour change through training is one way to make this happen.

Attitudes, perhaps, can be measured directly but are usually inferred from what people say or are seen to do. In practise, however, changing attitudes is not easy. Changing someone's attitude to something may well change their behaviours but this will not automatically follow, and conversely, changing behaviour does not necessarily change the underlying attitudes. A number of writers have demonstrated that having desirable attitudes may be expected to lead to improvement in terms of learning, performance, and/or employability (e.g., Maslow, 1954; Rodin, 1980; Rotter, 1982; Bolman and Deal, 1984; Frayne and Latham, 1989).

Another method of bringing about attitude and behaviour change in adults is by providing new or correct information. For example, attitudes toward vocational training programmes can change radically if it is known that such a training programme may result in a certain employment opportunity. This is assuming that the expected outcome is 'valued' by the individual.

Poole and Mansfield (1992) maintain that skill formation is regarded as a key component of human resource management initiatives to train employees with the positive attitudes of commitment and motivation. Training is seen as important to the teamwork and multi-skilled employees in the production processes (Blyton and Morris, 1992). In addition, it could be argued that training increases the extent to which employees feel valued by the company (Storey and Sisson, 1993). Hence, training is vital to harness employee commitment in the pursuit of organisational and operational goals (Keep, 1991). Training is also essential for individuals to pursue their personal career goals. Conversely, a lack of training or ineffective/inappropriate training programmes provided for organisational members will be very likely to reduce their commitment in the pursuit of individual and organisational goals.

One of the most profound and seductive causes of resistance to change and technological innovation is experience and past success (Sagie and Elizur, 1985). Such success leads most adults to be satisfied with what exists. Therefore, attitudinal and behavioural change begins with the premise that dissatisfaction must precede change (Greiner, 1967). Such dissatisfaction will produce a desire to change that will allow the sequential phases of unfreezing, conversion and refreezing to unfold (Lewin, 1958). However, unfreezing is a somewhat misleading term because most people are not totally

frozen in their behaviours; rather, people are changing a little at a time almost all the time (Miller and Friesen, 1982). With regard to subsequent career choices in this study, it is assumed that dissatisfaction in the first career will produce a desire for a second career with the intention of providing higher.

If an individual can create a need or desire for improvement and change, the probability for changed knowledge or skill is very likely. Simply sitting in lectures or discussion groups is unlikely to change the attitude and behaviour of a basically satisfied person with the *status quo*, however. Whether the new knowledge and skills will be applied by the individual depends on whether they meet the needs of the learner, and also that organisations need to demonstrate support the individual change (Powell and Davis, 1973). It could be argued that only if the new knowledge and skills meet the needs of the individual and the organisation, and are favoured with the support of the organisation, could this application and transfer of the new knowledge and skills into the work environment occur.

Most adults are trained through programmes composed of participants from the same organisation. Some programmes are conducted full time for several days or weeks; some take place, perhaps, one day a week for several months. Management may explicitly define its change intentions and thus create a precondition for change, but in general, the acceptance of change depends on the individual's degree of satisfaction, attitudes and motivation of learning, and the discipline of training. We may argue that to make such a change happen, may need time and for many other conditions to be met.

Each trainee enters training with certain desires, demographic characteristics, and different levels of expectations, ability and motivation. These variables are temporally antecedent to the post-training variables. There is evidence to suggest that pre-training experiences, expectations, ability and motivation, as well as trainee demographics, can be directly related to post-training expectations, employment status and performance. Therefore, the researcher will control for these individual variables before testing the hypothesized relationships. In this study, the rank, educational level, transferable skills, vocational training, career plan, and self-desire are hypothesized to be significantly associated with employment status. We will discuss this later in the 'hypotheses' section of this chapter.

8.3 Training and Learning of Mid-Aged People

When discussing adult learning, issues relating to middle-aged people should not be neglected, especially in view of the ages of retired military officers to be studied in this research. In this field research, most retired officers were aged from 40 to 50 years, which can also fit the range between the 'mid-life transition' (age 40-45) and 'age 50 transition' of Levinson's (1978) theory of adult development (discussed in Chapter 7). Thus, I define 'mid-aged people' here as the people aged from around 40 to 50 years.

Aging is not such a simple phenomenon as we thought. It may cause anxieties, weakness, or fear. But we may argue that some older people may be happy, confident, or competent regardless of aging. To study the work and management issues of older employees has been of some academic concern (e.g., Welford, 1958; Rabbitt, 1965; Birren and Schaie, 1985; Warr and Pennington, 1994).

It is not fully understood why and how people get old as time goes by but there seem to be no exceptions. We may argue that the decline in performance with age is commonly explained by simple decay of neurons in the brain which occurs with chronological age. Is there deterioration in physical and psychological capabilities with increasing age that might affect the efficiency of learning new skills or capability of a person? Is it more difficult for older people to find a job? Can vocational training, or other methods, be designed for them to help them find appropriate post-retirement jobs? This research is going to identify and explore these issues through the analysis and investigation of second career development of the mid-aged retired officers.

Birren and Schaie (1985) suggest that basic cognitive capacities do deteriorate with age. Other research has shown that older people have less ability and weak memory (e.g., Welford, 1958; Rabbitt, 1965; Talland, 1968; Salthouse, et al., 1988). The limitations of older people are likely to slow their learning in some tasks. Welford (1958) explains that the slowing of response reduces older people's performance of complex tasks.

Therefore, in this research we need to find age-related factors or difficulties associated with examining this assumption that mid-aged retired officers find it more difficult to find jobs. There are a considerable number of studies concerned with age-related problems in training (e.g., Belbin, 1964; Belbin and Belbin, 1972; Salthouse, 1989). Trinder, et al. (1992) also note that performance is influenced as much by experience and skill as by age. Important to people's cognitive functioning at any age is their familiarity with the material to be learned and surrounding context and material (Perlmutter, et al., 1988).

Skill development in earlier years will encourage adaptability in later life. Older people appear to be “at a disadvantage with speedy and novel (unexpected) forms of presentation” (Coleman and Bond, 1990, pp.70-71). They also report little or no decline with age in memory and learning, particularly if older people have been doing a particular job required for a long time and they are fully familiar with the skills. In this situation, age is supposed not to affect the memory and learning ability of these older people.

Hogarth and Barth (1991) report that the B&Q Company in the U.K. staffed one store solely with people over the age of 50. It was “an overwhelming success... In commercial terms the store has surpassed its trading targets” (p.15). This trial found these older workers provide an evident example of older workers’ skills, flexibility and ability to learn to adapt to the new situation and to do their jobs well. This case implies that older people have something valuable to offer a company. It seems that negative perceptions of older people tend to be exaggerated. Older people may have superior experience and their capacity to perform jobs may be great if they are given the opportunity to do so.

But in most cases, older people have been widely discriminated against when seeking employment and when employed (Naylor, 1987; Dennis, 1988; Laslett, 1989; Waskel, 1991). They are commonly stereotyped as having failing cognitive and physical abilities, as being inflexible, unwilling and unable to learn new ways. However, Trinder, et al. (1992) report a different view:

“...there does seem to be a decline in performance with age...but such deterioration as there is, is less than the popular stereotype...Except where such abilities as muscular strength are of predominant importance, age is not a good discriminator of ability to work; nor of the ability to learn” (p.20).

Many mature people feel that they are subject to discrimination on the grounds of age (e.g., McCauley, 1977), and a recent survey of British personnel managers indicated that 80 percent believed that a problem of age discrimination exists (Warr and Pennington, 1993). It is regularly found that older employees receive substantially less training than younger ones (e.g., Turner, et al., 1992).

We may question that younger employees receive more training as an ‘investment’. A successful organisation should be aware that an assessment of organisation needs can highlight problems revealing a variety of job-related training needs for specific groups. Thus, how to assess the existing competence and potential of both older and younger employees, against job and work requirements, is quite important.

The rate and extent of physical changes in adulthood vary greatly from one person to another and from one nation to another. Therefore as people get older, their development becomes more differentiated. In other words, there are more individual variations among older adults than among young people. Throughout life, individuals differ widely in their energy levels, capacity for work, general health and behaviours. Hence, we may argue that as people age, these individual differences get larger.

Belbin and Belbin (1972) claimed that older people tend to rely on accuracy more than speed, and older people bring a greater range of both general and specific skills to a training situation. We may argue that this may facilitate or hinder the acquisition of new skills depending upon the circumstances. In many respects, therefore, older employees should be considered to be as valuable as younger ones. In this research, employers' attitudes towards older retired military officers, and the relationship with retirees' employment status will be investigated.

Unemployment later in 'working' life can actually mean premature retirement, since it may signal the end of a working career of continuous employment. One may choose to retire earlier whilst still of working age. On the other hand, one may be effectively 'unemployed', if willing and able to work but having failed to find a job.

For many people, any employment that is subsequently found is of lower security, status and pay than that which obtained previously, and hence the probability of re-entering the unemployment cycle may be increased. On the other hand, unemployment or underemployment may motivate a person to prepare for and seek better employment. From this point of view, unemployment or underemployment represents not necessarily a crisis but rather an opportunity. It depends on the extent of discrimination, the job opportunities available, and on the individual together with their circumstances. Against this background of movement from a stable environment through the first career to retirement, and then to subsequent careers, it is surprising that we know little about the factors involved and the associated relationships.

Those older people who give up work reluctantly are often forced into not-working through redundancy, in order to care for someone, or through ill-health (Taylor and Walker, 1994). They also tend to live on much reduced incomes relative to their previous employment. For many in this group, the experience of not-working and the loss of status was very distressing, although some become resigned to their fate and adapted to their new situation (Warr and Jackson, 1987). Most feel discouraged from seeking employment and consider that they have already retired. By contrast, those individuals for whom the transition into retirement was a positive one were often relieved to give up employment. We may also argue that those who do not wish to fully retire will continue to seek employment.

Having financial security was also found to be a factor in easing the transition into retirement. In another study, McGoldrick and Cooper (1980) looked at a group of people who retired early from among higher socio-economic groups and found that the most frequently given reason for taking early retirement was that 'the finances were right'. Other reasons included the feeling that they had worked long enough and deserved retirement, and a desire for more free time and better health. Financial security seems, therefore, to be important in allowing individuals below the national retirement age to think of themselves as retired rather than as unemployed.

What are the factors associated with the way in which older employees move from considering themselves to be employed to considering themselves retired? One view is that of Beehr (1986) who argues that there is no personal decision-making involved when retirement is involuntary. While this is true in the sense that one cannot control whether one will leave on being dismissed or reaching the mandatory retirement age, it

overlooks the personal decision to begin a job-search, or to cease job-search after a period without success. In other words whether to accept that one is effectively retired in a hostile labour market, or whether to continue to seek re-employment.

8.4 Hypotheses

The reviewed literature in Chapters 7 and 8 points to the usefulness a range of concepts associated with pre- and post-retirement career development, adult training and learning, which could provide the basis for developing hypotheses to be tested. This could lead to the development of a model of second career success for military officers in Taiwan.

Some economists consider active military service as an alternative to civilian education, training, or experience and hence call it an investment in general human capital that can readily transferred to the civilian sector (Little and Fredland, 1979; Magnum and Ball, 1987). An increase in this human capital investment is expected to influence returns in increased employment earnings of veterans relative to that of non-veterans.

In contrast, other economists consider this human capital to be firm-specific capital, which is useful only to the military and cannot be transferred to the civilian sector. In this view, military service is a disruption of the civilian life cycle with negative economic consequences such as loss of civilian labour market experience or schooling during the important formative years of life, bringing about a decrease in the overall employment earnings of veterans relative to the earnings of non-veterans (e.g., Angrist, 1990; Angrist and Krueger, 1994).

Sociologists point to the impact of military service on important future career development, such as higher educational attainment associated with subsequent higher occupational attainment (Teachman and Call, 1996). It is argued that military service provides “an environment in which the individual may acquire new skills and abilities which, after military service, could help him in his civilian career” (Browning, et al., 1973, p.74).

Retirement effectively means no employment based income, other than pension or savings, during the individual’s remaining lifetime. The availability of resources plays an important part in the individual’s retirement and need for choice of subsequent employment. Officers who have worked for a lengthy period in a military organisation are likely to have accrued more resources subsequently than employees in a commercial organisation. They should be in a better financial position with a higher income on retirement and therefore not need to engage in second employment, or to engage in subsequent employment with a relatively lower position and income, or for the interest and value of the work itself.

Most retired military officers, surveyed in this research, have been serving for at least 20 years. As part of their concerns they will have acquired a considerable range of skills and experience together with managerial ability. In addition, their financial security can be assured through retirement pension, or pay. These retired officers may, or may not, intend to seek subsequent employment. It is worthwhile for the individuals, the military and subsequent employers to find out the reasons the officers might need a job after retirement, and career development as a basis for the development of appropriate HRM strategies.

Officers who were trained and functioned at a senior level in military service should be able to secure a better income and position in civilian employment, and should have less difficulty in finding an appropriate job. Those officers with higher rank and educational attainment may also want to remain economically active since full retirement at relatively young age would waste their training, education and status. Therefore, senior officers approaching retirement may be more likely to seek subsequent employment and enjoy improved employment opportunities and status, as a consequence.

Individuals' interpretation of the circumstances facing themselves may also affect their retirement and any second career choice. First, officers' perceptions of the age-health (or age-performance) relationship may play a crucial part in their retirement and any subsequent employment. Research on older workers suggests that those affected by poor health and serious illness tend to have greater desire for early and full retirement (Anderson and Burkhauser, 1985). Other research suggests that older workers may perform less well than younger workers, especially in occupations that demand physical stamina, reaction and abstract thinking (Feldman, 1994).

Individuals who perceive themselves to be older or less physically active, are more likely to have difficulty in finding jobs, or to be discriminated against by employing organisations. Extending these arguments to subsequent employment, these retired officers should be less likely to intend to seek second employment after retirement. They may face more difficulties in finding jobs if they want to seek employment, or be less likely to seek a successful second career.

Individuals may be affected in retirement and subsequent career decision-making by their perceived level of financial readiness for retirement. This includes level of savings, retirement pension or pay, spouse's income, etc. Individuals may expect different standards of living after retirement, and so they may regard different amounts of resources as adequate. Thus, perceived financial readiness should be a better correlate of early retirement and second employment. Consistent with the resource perspective discussed above, officers perceiving themselves to be financially ready to retire are more likely to seek to do so and may not intend to seek subsequent employment. However, these are issues that emerge from the foregoing discussion and while form the basis of hypotheses to be tested.

It is argued that individuals who have a plan for their activities before/after retirement should be more able to manage their subsequent lives and careers (e.g., McNeil and Giffen, 1967; Atchley, 1976; Kamouri and Cavanaugh, 1986). Individuals who receive pre-retirement counselling should also be more able to sustain their self-image when they retire. Hence, officers who demonstrated that they are psychologically ready for retirement by making a career development plan and seeking appropriate support will be less likely to go into full retirement.

Individuals may take environmental pressures into consideration when making retirement and subsequent employment decisions. In a declining organisation, for example, employees may perceive less chance of promotion and even perceive a high risk of redundancy. These employees may be encouraged to retire or resign. Similarly, adverse environmental or economic conditions may reduce employment opportunities for older workers, causing them to give up hope of securing subsequent employment.

Officers may be very likely to retire early and to seek out a second career, if they perceive greater uncertainty in the military environment and greater opportunity in the civilian employment. Adverse environmental conditions, for example, poor training and career development programmes in the military organisation, may motivate individuals to retire early and seek second employment.

Finally, the attitude of subsequent employing organisations towards its retired military personnel may affect individuals' retirement plans and/or subsequent employment status. If older retired officers are generally believed to be more costly and may be more prone to health problems, weak adaptability, lower physical stamina, and so be rejected, employers may also operate under financial constraints and therefore reject retired officers through a concern with organisational effectiveness and efficiency.

If commercial employing organisations are generally favourable towards military officers, having more respect towards them, greater number of older military retirees are likely to opt for early retirement to take up subsequent employment opportunities. The positive attitudes of business and military organisations towards active and retired officers may also serve as an effective motivator for officers/veterans to remain with their current military/business organisations. Positive organisational attitudes may also encourage actions and policies to accommodate older veteran-employees. These arguments imply that retired officers who perceive employers as more favourable towards them, are more likely to have better transition and employment status.

Individuals' affective attachment to work, family, and the organisation, as well as their job satisfaction, may also influence their retirement decisions and subsequent

employment status. Officers who are able to work and wish to continue in the military may perceive that retirement could create a vast vacuum in their lives. The threat of feeling emptiness after retirement should prompt individuals with higher work desire to avoid full retirement and to plan to seek a second career after retirement from the military.

Job satisfaction should also play an important role in individuals' retirement and subsequent employment status. Classic motivational theories suggest that intrinsic motivators are instrumental to subsequent efforts (Herzberg, 1968). Individuals who have derived job satisfaction from their work, are likely to take actions to maintain the positive affective state. Hence, officers who are not satisfied with their jobs in military service will be more likely to seek to retire early and to seek fulfilling subsequent employment.

Thus, from the questions and issues that emerged from the foregoing discussion in relation to retirement and subsequent employment activity, eight hypotheses will be proposed. The field research will be conducted to test these hypotheses initially for the purpose of questionnaire development and subsequently to carry out an investigation of the relations between the variables and the employment status of retired military officers. Hypotheses and test criteria will be further discussed in Chapter 9.

Hypothesis 1. Retired officers intend to make successful second careers.

Hypothesis 2. Mid-aged retired officers find it more difficult to find jobs.

Hypothesis 3. The desire to pursue second career goals has a correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Hypothesis 4. Vocational training has a correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Hypothesis 5. Military rank has a correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officer.

Hypothesis 6. Educational attainments in the military have a correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Hypothesis 7. Multiple skills have a correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Hypothesis 8. Having a career plan before retirement has a correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

8.5 Conclusion

This chapter discussed the topics of training, learning and behaviour change, and training and learning of mid-aged people. Training, learning and development forms an important part of an organisation's overall human resource management strategy. It implies transition - in skills, knowledge, attitudes or social behaviours. It also involves the analysis, design, implementation and evaluation of activities relevant to this

transition. The discussion so far has already suggested some ways in which transfer is important to training. Indeed, training, learning and transfer are inseparably linked, as to be investigated through the field research on the second career process for retired military officers.

The literature review provided theoretical perspectives on training and learning to demonstrate how they affect the transition and employment status, and improve the efficiency of work and individual performance. Understanding adult training and learning is important in being able to identify the training and learning requirements of successful career choice and development for military officers.

The literature review indicated that past experiences, individuals' desires to learn and develop, age, ability, transferable skills and work value orientations may have an influence on the results of the training programmes, future career prospects and employment status. But there is no explanation for how the interacting variables may affect an officer's perceptions on training programmes, or how past training and learning (in military service), and/or external factors, may influence military officers' subsequent career choice and development, together with their employment status. Thus, there is a need for the identification of how variables interact with the demographic characteristics in order to explore the employment situation and identify the determinants of success in a second career.

It is assumed that learning, training and behaviour change can all help in the fulfillment and review of organisational objectives. But each of these may also misdirect and weaken performance if inappropriately targeted or applied. This research will seek to

identify the links between behaviour change and vocational/military training programmes, also the extent that military education and training can help or hinder the transition and civilian employment of retired officers. Also investigated is the degree to which age or rank affects the employment prospects of retired military officers.

A better understanding of the concepts of adult learning and its relationship with behaviour change and performance is helpful to find ways to make individuals learn effectively so that they can achieve their career objectives. It may be argued that those keen to pursue second careers would be expected to learn when placed in an appropriate training environment, and then to perform better or be appropriately employed after training programmes than those who have not attended training programmes. In the light of these assumptions, this study would be incomplete without exploring some of the applicable theories regarding adult training and learning, and more importantly, it helps to develop appropriate hypotheses and explore these issues through the field research.

It is difficult but still important to measure changes in the way that retired officers think, or the ways in which they act, and how these changes might result in greater effectiveness in their transition to civilian employment. Actually the changes achieved will be multifaceted. Learning through the first and second careers affecting the whole person, and increasing knowledge and/or skills, will usually result in different attitudes to some aspects of work. Transitional change occurs at many levels and takes many forms. Consequently, developing criteria by which changes can be evaluated may result in a wide range of applications and future research. We will explore these issues and test the proposed hypotheses in the following 'field research' chapters.

V. Research

Chapter 9: Field Research

9.1 Introduction

This chapter aims to give a description of the procedures that were followed in this research in order to collect the data related to the thesis. The chapter discusses the research questions, design of the study, hypotheses and test criteria, the survey population and sample, statistical approach, key players in the survey and methods of collecting data.

A questionnaire survey was undertaken, from 24th March 1995 to 16th May 1995, of second careers for the four groups of military officers: (1) those retired officers who had attended the Transitional Training Course (TTC) programme, (2) those retired officers who had not; and (3) retiring officers who were taking the TTC programme; and (4) active officers who were taking the Business Management Course (BMC) programme. The co-operating organisations in this field research are:

- (1) The Office of the Deputy Chiefs of the General Staff for Personnel (GSP), The Ministry of National Defence (MND), Taipei, Taiwan.
- (2) The Chinese National Federation of Industries (CNFI), Taipei, Taiwan.
- (3) The General Chamber of Commerce (GCOC), Taipei, Taiwan.

(4) The National Association of Medium/Small Enterprise (NAMSE), Taipei, Taiwan.

In addition to analyzing the data collected from the field study, findings will then be presented on the real employment situation of retired military officers. The information obtained will provide insights into employment accessibility and post-employment treatment and help us to identify what problems the retirees have faced in the transitional period, and explore what are the determinants to a successful second career development.

9.2 Design of the Study

The trend towards second careers for military officers has developed rapidly in Taiwan since 1992. The opportunities for such careers in the business and industrial sectors are a function of the bureaucratic and organisational parallels, and professional convergence between military organisations and civilian firms. This survey was designed to generate information on officers' experiences, educational backgrounds, ranks, age, service and retirement occupational specialties, their expectations on career development, and evaluations of their civilian work lives in terms of personal satisfaction and achievement measures.

In this study, officers in four different categories were asked to indicate their perceptions on the vocational training courses, value of work, career development, past and current military training and development in which they had participated in their military careers, and their perceptions on the mid-career transition in civilian employment. The four different sample groups, designated: Groups A, B, C and D, will be introduced

later.

The basic vehicle of this study was a questionnaire survey which was designed to elicit the data necessary to test hypotheses which evolved from the literature review, research questions and from personal experience with military officers.

This study is exploratory in nature and purposes, and the variables were designated primarily for purposes of identification, and no experimental manipulation was involved. The independent variables included such characteristics as age, rank, educational level, transferable skills, and other demographic data. Furthermore, they included responses, many of which may, or may not, have had a bearing on the efficacy of officers' transition from military retirement to full-time civilian employment.

9.3 Research Questions

In the light of the research aims and the issues regarding career success and failure, particularly in the transition period between military retirement to civilian employment, and the literature reviewed in the previous chapters, the empirical survey was designed to collect data that might provide answers to following questions or that might show how far these issues affect the training, learning and career development for retired officers.

This field study explored the assumptions that patterns of social mobility associated with mid-life career change are related to personal motivation, preparation, adjustment and learning ability, and the organisational and societal support systems. It did so by

attempting to answer the following questions, which are linked to hypotheses formulated in Chapter 8.

- (1) Are retired officers viewed as a human resource, and/or labour force, to be employed and developed in the commercial and/or industrial sectors?
- (2) Do middle-aged retired officers find it difficult or easy to find jobs?
- (3) To what extent can notions of military profession/management be equated and/or related with those of business profession/management?
- (4) How can training and qualifications in the military profession be made attractive and more easily acceptable to the business world?
- (5) Can people really change through learning and training process through military training and/or vocational training programmes?
- (6) Do second career development models of retired officers exist in theory and practise? Do retired officers intend to seek employment as their second careers?
- (7) What are the determinants of a successful second career?
- (8) Do military experience, skills, ranks and educational attainments correlate with successful civilian employment?

9.4 Hypotheses and Test Criteria

We may be more likely to find that a hypothesis, which relates to a limited facet of the theory, will be deduced from the theory and submitted to a searching inquiry. Bryman and Cramer (1990) point out:

“Although hypotheses have the advantage that they force researchers to think systematically about what they want to study and to structure their research plans accordingly, they exhibit a potential disadvantage in that they may divert a researcher’s attention too far away from other interesting facets of the data he or she has amassed” (p.4).

Although considering the need to maximize retired officers’ learning and transfer of knowledge, skills and experiences gained in the military organisations, and vocational training programmes in transitional period, and to develop their successful careers, this study attempted to consider the various factors that may affect the training and learning process for these retired military officers, and their subsequent employment status. These factors included officers’ intrinsic and extrinsic perceptions on training and development and work value orientations, their multiple skills, their perceptions of past military training, their desires and plans for the future career development, and the influence of age, rank, educational and cultural level.

‘Employment status’ used in the hypotheses refers to employed or unemployed status, the level of the employment income, difficulty retirees had faced in seeking jobs, and satisfaction with jobs and pay. The data presented are based on both the perceptions and employment status of randomly selected retired officers from Groups B and C as accurate interpretations of personal work situations and values, and current and past training experiences. These respondents co-operatively completed the survey and answered the questions to best of their abilities. The hypotheses were tested as shown in Table 9.1, using the Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) to carry out the analytical procedures.

Table 9.1 Hypotheses and Tested Criteria

Hypotheses	Tested Criteria
1. Retired officers intend to make successful second careers.	<p><u>Subjective criteria:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) The desire to pursue second career goals (2) The need for training/education from the company (3) Satisfaction with job/pay <p><u>Objective criteria:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Transition index (2) Employment/unemployment (3) Employment income
2. Mid-aged retired officers find it more difficult to find jobs.	<p><u>Subjective criteria:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) The desire to pursue second career goals (2) The perception that ‘mid-aged retired officers find it more difficult to find jobs’ (3) The perception of employers’ acceptance of retirees (4) Satisfaction with job/pay <p><u>Objective criteria:</u></p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> (1) Transition index (2) Employment/unemployment (3) Employment income (4) Number of jobs since retirement

3. The desire to pursue second career goals has a correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Subjective criteria:

- (1) The desire to pursue second career goals
- (2) Satisfaction with job/pay

Objective criteria:

- (1) Transition index
 - (2) Employment/unemployment
 - (3) Employment income
-

4. Vocational training has a correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Subjective criteria:

- (1) The desire to pursue second career goals
- (2) Satisfaction with job/pay

Objective criteria:

- (1) Transition index
 - (2) Employment/unemployment
 - (3) Employment income
 - (4) With or without vocational training
-

5. Military rank has a correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Subjective criteria:

- (1) The desire to pursue second career goals
- (2) Perceptions on military career achievement
- (3) Satisfaction with job/pay

Objective criteria:

- (1) Transition index
 - (2) Employment/unemployment
 - (3) Employment income
 - (4) Military rank
-

6. Educational attainments in the military have a correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Subjective criteria:

- (1) Satisfaction with job/pay

Objective criteria:

- (1) Transition index
 - (2) Employment/unemployment
 - (3) Employment income
 - (4) Educational level
 - (5) Military training level
-

7. Multiple skills have a correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Subjective criteria:

- (1) Satisfaction with job/pay
- (2) Perception on the transferability of military skills/expertise and management/experience

Objective criteria:

- (1) Transition index
 - (2) Employment/unemployment
 - (3) Employment income
 - (4) Number of jobs since retirement
 - (5) With or without multiple skills
-

- | | |
|---|--|
| 8. Having a career plan
before retirement
has a correlation
with the subsequent
employment status
of retired officers. | <p><u>Subjective criteria:</u></p> <p>(1) Satisfaction with job/pay</p> <p><u>Objective criteria:</u></p> <p>(1) Transition index</p> <p>(2) Employment/unemployment</p> <p>(3) Employment income</p> <p>(4) With or without career plan</p> |
|---|--|

Coupled with the research questions listed previously, these hypotheses provide the foundation upon which a greater understanding of second career management will be developed. This study is concerned to test the correlation between civilian income and job satisfaction on the one hand, success in the military career measured by service in the more highly regarded military specialties, rank achieved, educational attainments and subjective perceptions on one's military career, on the other.

It may also be possible to find out, through this study, whether or not there is any tension between identification with the military organisation and profession, and adjustment to civilian employment after retirement. On the basis of the outcome of testing these hypotheses, it may be possible to develop a theoretical model to enable retired officers to fulfill their potential in pursuit of a civilian career.

9.5 The Population and Sample

The exploratory nature of this research requires a heavy reliance on the knowledge and information of retiring and retired officers. To facilitate a comprehensive, yet consistent approach to collecting data, four research questionnaires were created (this will be introduced later in this section). This survey covered all Services of the armed forces including the Army, Air Force, Navy, Political Warfare (PW), Military Police (MP) and Logistics.

The retired population of the armed forces is shown as Table 9.2. Of the 9,639 officers who retired from 1992 to 1995, the Army had the greatest number, with 4,352, followed by the Air Force with 2,901, the Navy with 1,605. In addition, 296 were from the Military Police and 485 from the Logistics Headquarters. Political Warfare officers are located within each Service and are not shown as a separate category in this Table.

Table 9.2 Retired Population by Grade and Service (1992-1995)

	Major	Lt. Colonel	Colonel	Total
Total	N=4,843	N=3,179	N=1,617	N= 9,639
Army (N=4,352)	2,543 (52.5%)	1,315 (41.4%)	494 (30.5%)	4,352
Navy (N=1,605)	737 (15.2%)	505 (15.9%)	363 (22.4%)	1,605
Air Force (N=2,901)	1,210 (24.9%)	1,124 (35.4%)	567 (35.1%)	2,901
M.P. (N=296)	209 (4.3%)	56 (1.8%)	31 (1.9%)	296
Logistics HQ (N=485)	144 (2.9%)	179 (5.6%)	162 (10.0%)	485

Source: data provided by Major General L.H. Yu, 1996.2.12.

In Groups A, B, C and D, the proportion of each sample to the population was as follows:

Group A: This group consisted of 160 colonels and lt. colonels who attended the Transitional Training Course (TTC). 160 questionnaires were distributed in the TTC classroom to be retrieved by post. 81 responses were received out of a total of 160 attendants of the TTC. The 81 responding officers had not yet retired at the time of answering the questionnaires, but were expected to retire soon after the TTC programmes.

Group B: This group consisted of retired officers who had attended the TTC and then retired at the ranks of Lt. colonel and colonel from 1992 to 1995. The whole retirement population of colonels and Lt. colonels from 1992 to 1995 was 4,796, of whom 1,285 retired in 1995. In this survey, the latest information available was up to May 1995, so an estimated half of 1,285 might have retired in the part of 1995 covered by this survey (officers may retire in any month of the year). Thus, in rough figures, the retirement population, from 1992 up to May 1995 was some 4,200. Thus, 250 questionnaires were sent by post, from which 93 responses were received. The survey in this group covered overall 23 counties in Taiwan.

Group C: This group consisted of retired colonels, Lt. colonels and majors who had not attended TTC or any other vocational programmes but retired between 1994 and 1995. The total retired population at the ranks of major, Lt. colonel and colonel from 1994 to 1995 was 5,070. They had never attended any transitional or vocational training courses before or after retirement. 250 questionnaires were sent by post from which 87 responses were received. The survey area covered 23 counties in Taiwan.

Group D: In this group, 160 officers attended the Business Management Course (BMC) between January 1994 and May 1995 at the ranks of captain and major who were still active officers but would retire after a further period of service (who would retire between 1996 and 2002). 160 questionnaires were sent in the BMC classroom and retrieved by post. Again, all 23 counties in Taiwan were covered. As a result, 76 responses were received.

This study dealt mainly with retired officers in Groups B and C who were gainfully employed on a full-time basis, and compared those who had or had not attended the TTC to investigate the employment situations among the two groups. Officers approaching retirement in Group A and active officers in Group D were included to investigate their perceptions on their current and future career development, and the policy and practise of military training and development as a background data of analysis. In the former, the number of subjects in the population of concern to this study was a small sample of the total retired population. Those who attended the TTC programme between 1992 and 1995 numbered 2,223 (see Table 9.3).

Table 9.3 The Transitional Training Course (TTC) Statistics

	Lt. Colonel	Colonel	Total
1992	60	40	100
1993	380	170	550
1994	537	276	813
1995	464	296	760
Total	1,441	782	2,223

Source: The National Defence Report, Taiwan,
1996, p.204.

9,639 military officers retired with ranks from major to colonel between 1992 and 1995, as indicated in Table 9.2. Since it was difficult to gain access to the correspondence address of all 9,639 retired officers those who would fall into the Groups B and C in particular, it was necessary to ask the General Staff of Personnel (GSP) to provide a

random sampled list of correspondence addresses which amounted total 500 in the Groups B and C.

In the GSP, there are six divisions: the 1st division is responsible for the personnel policy- making including the officers' career development. The 6th division is the 'Computer and Information Centre' (CIC) which stores all military active and retired personnel information. The researcher asked the CIC to provide a sampled list of the Groups B and C, specifying that the list of correspondence addresses must be: (1) random, and 250 lists for each group, (2) focused on Group B, those who retired and had attended the TTC between 1992 to 1995, and Group C, those who retired and without attending the TTC from 1992 to 1995, and (3) cover all Services, and all 23 counties in Taiwan. The request could not be made directly to the CIC, but had to be made via Major General Yu, who subsequently confirmed that a random selection had been made. Moreover, for Group C, the list provided by the CIC was of those who retired from 1994 to 1995.

The GSP offered a simple random sampling which requires a clear definition of a population to be sampled, a complete listing of all its elements, and the assumption that all such elements are statistically independent of one another. For social scientists, the requirement of statistical independence means that the elements can engage in only a very small amount of interaction. The variables being measured must relate to each other very much like the successive outcomes obtained by flipping a coin.

In Groups A and D, the sampling size covered all attendants of the TTC and BMC at that time which was 160 in the TTC and 160 in the BMC. The use of special

populations may sometimes be a powerful tool for testing a theory. Thus, in this study of Groups A and D, samples of the class attendants are highly appropriate.

In Group B, questionnaires were sent to 250 of the 2,223 retired officers at the ranks of Lt. colonel and colonel who had attended the TTC and retired from 1992 to 1995. In Group C, questionnaires were sent to 250 out of the 5,070 population who retired between 1994 to 1995. These 2,223 and 5,070 figures of retired population overlapped to a small degree between 1994 to 1995.

In fact, we could not include all 2,223 officers retired between 1992 to 1995 and 5,070 officers retired between 1994 to 1995 as the targeted population in this survey. Their inclusion would not have been feasible, due to time and financial constraints, particularly since this field research was conducted without other financial support from governmental, military or other academic organisations. Thus, sending 250 questionnaires to each retired group is believed appropriate under such conditions.

9.6 Survey Questionnaires

According to Moser and Kalton (1983), methods of collecting data are not very developed or systematized. Every surveyor may use his/her ideas or whatever means is available to collect data. The only difference is in the degree of validity and reliability of the resulting information. Gray (1957) described how a mail questionnaire survey was complemented by interviewing to increase the response rate.

Mail questionnaires are widely criticized because of the difficulty of securing an adequate response. According to Borg and Gall (1983), and Harper (1991), questionnaires are often shallow, and they may not dig deeply enough to provide a true picture of respondents' opinions and feelings. There are also the problems of non-return and the possibility of the misinterpretation of the questions. Despite these limitations, the merits of the questionnaire may be strong enough to weigh the balance in its favour.

Fowler (1984) explains that questionnaires have been devised to collect information when it is available from no other source. The foundation of good questionnaire design is understanding what a good and/or right question is, and how to use questions as measures. To maximize the response rate of survey questionnaires, Dillman (1978) says a positive image must be created. Sudman and Bradburn (1982) agree and go on to explain that the format of self-administered questionnaire can have an effect because respondents do not have a high degree of motivation to complete a survey. Since rate of response is an important issue in obtaining accurate information, salience of the questionnaire content to the respondents has a significant influence on study outcome (Borg and Gall, 1983).

Therefore, a recommendation from Dillman (1978) is not to begin with innocuous questions, personal or otherwise. Icebreaking questions of this type are unnecessary. When respondents open the questionnaire to page one, they need to be faced with questions that conform to what the cover letter says will be elicited. Another important consideration in leading the respondent through the questionnaire is vertical flow.

Dillman (1978, p.137) points out that vertical flow in questionnaires is necessary for several reasons: (1) to prevent omissions that could occur when a respondent is required to move back and forth across a page. He provides findings to support this notion in surveys of general public with non-response rates of well under 2%; (2) to prevent the respondent from “...checking the space on the wrong side of the answers when answer categories are placed beside one another rather than underneath”, and (3) to enhance a feeling of accomplishment as the respondent completes each question.

In survey questionnaire research, the goals are good design and practise in order to yield accurate, credible and replicable results (Fowler, 1984). Dillman (1978) adds that surveys must be conducted carefully, responsibly and ethically or questionnaire research could end as “an unfortunate and regrettable boondoggle” (p.295).

Four questionnaires were devised for the four different groups of officers, in order to obtain the desired data (see Appendix E). These specific questions were designed not only to support this research project but also to produce data which might be useful to governmental, military and academic institutes for further research. Both objective and subjective questions were included, and while distributed throughout the questionnaire in such a manner as to minimize patterned responses, fell into the following categories:

- (1) Demographic and base data
- (2) Employment data
- (3) Career development after retirement
- (4) Military training and development
- (5) Comparison between the military and business organisations

(6) Evaluating the TTC and BBC

As it was hoped that the questionnaire would be completed by all respondents of the targeted population, it was stated on the covering letter (see Appendix D) sent to survey subjects in Groups B and C that a set of British stamps would be sent to all who returned the completed questionnaire. This was a marketing strategy designed to increase the response rate, but this strategy was not applied to the Groups A and D, to whom the questionnaires were sent in the training classroom. The opportunity to collect the British stamps which they had rarely seen in Taiwan was thought to be an incentive which would encourage the officers to respond. Retired military officers might have been reluctant to answer this kind of questionnaire, which might have been viewed as sensitive. However, this strategy attracted more responses than expected.

9.7 The Pre-Test of Questionnaires

An experiment or survey can and should be piloted on a small scale in virtually all circumstances. Some methods and techniques necessarily involve piloting in their use (e.g. in the development of a structured questionnaire or a direct observation instrument). The effort needed in gaining access and building up acceptance and trust is often such that one would be reluctant to regard any field study simply as a pilot. Of course, if things go seriously wrong for whatever reason, or it appears that the research is not going to deliver in relation to the research questions, then it is better to abort and transfer researchers' efforts elsewhere.

However, there is a great deal in favour of piloting any empirical research. Advance planning and preparation are all very well but there is no complete substitute for involvement with the 'real' situation, when the feasibility of what is proposed in terms of time, effort and resources can be assessed.

However, whereas a strong case can be made for every experiment or survey being thoroughly piloted, there are aspects of field research which can make piloting both more difficult to set up, and fortunately, less crucially important. It may be that there is only one field research to be considered, or that there are particular features of the field research selected (such as geographical or temporal accessibility, or the researchers' own knowledge of the case), such that there is no sensible equivalent which could act as the pilot.

However, in order to use the computer systems to design and print the questionnaire, the Information Centre of the Navy Headquarters in Taipei City provided the services available for the researcher in April 1995. The Director of the Information Centre, Lt. Colonel Chin Meiu, and his team members had tried to answer the questionnaires in order to convert the design into reality in the early stage. In addition, his team members are professional officers specializing in the research survey and methods. Thus, the pre-test of questionnaires by his team aimed to allow us together to observe different phenomena from different angles and try different approaches on a trial basis.

In addition, before designing the questionnaire, the researcher spent approximately one month making contact with some of the senior leadership in the Ministry of National Defence (MND) and union organisations such as: the CNFI, GCOC and NAMSE,

talking some retiring and retired officers, and visiting the two courses of TTC and BMC, in order to clarify the research issues and problems, and have a better understanding of the whole situation.

The researcher is not only to find the right answers but, more importantly, to struggle to find out what the right questions might be. Thus, the design of the questionnaire could be expected to be sound and appropriate to reflect the true situations and to elicit the information desired to assess the transition of retired officers to civilian employment.

9.8 Statistical Approach

The Statistical Package for the Social Science (SPSS) was used to analyze the response. The SPSS is designed to weight and linearly combine the discriminating variables in some fashion so that groups are forced to be as statistically distinct as possible (Nei, et al., 1986). It was expected that the SPSS programmes would produce useful results and give rise to the potential for further research into the predictability of an effective transition to civilian career of retired military officers.

Two quite distinct approaches are used in opinion and attitude inquiries. One of the most common in opinion polls attempts simply to estimate what proportion of the survey population say they agree with a given opinion statement; the second goes further by including the respondents' answers to the set of questions as a whole.

From the variety of nonparametric tests, the researcher chose the 'chi-square test'. The rationale for choosing this test is that the researcher desired to find out about the

responses that fall into various categories and how they were distributed, and chi-square is suitable for analyzing data like this (Siegel, 1956; Blalock, 1984). Thus, the chi-square was used to test whether significant differences existed between the observed number of responses falling in each category and the expected number based on the null hypothesis. The researcher also decided to use 'crosstabulation', because it gives more information about the respondents than tables of frequencies.

In the following we will explain briefly the types of variables used in this analysis and the statistical techniques applied, namely, Frequency Distribution, Crosstabulation, Compare Means, and Significance Level.

When dealing with two variables it is important to know which is the independent variable and which is dependent. According to Harper (1991):

“The independent variable is the variable which is not affected by changes in the other. The dependent variable is the variable which is affected by changes in the other” (p.153).

As Norusis (1991) puts it:

“The dependent variable depends on the other. The independent variable doesn't depend on the other; it goes its own way, independently” (p.123).

In this study, independent variables included group, age, rank, educational level, income, and other demographic data, and the dependent variables included the desire to pursue

career goals, perceptions on career achievement, satisfaction with job and pay, etc.

9.8.1 Frequency Distribution

As described earlier, the sample of this study was 153 retired officers which means that a large amount of data was gathered; therefore a frequency distribution was used. Frequency distribution refers to the number of times that something occurred.

According to Bryman and Cramer (1990),

“One of the most important ways of summarizing a distribution of values for a variable is to establish its central tendency; the typical value in a distribution” (p.82).

This means calculating the average. In this respect, three measures are usually used, the Mean, Median and Mode. These measures will be explained when needed in this study. The data to be analyzed are categorical data; therefore, it is only possible to use a non-parametric test (Bryman and Cramer, 1990, p.115) to calculate the significance for those variables with two or more categories.

9.8.2 Crosstabulation - Chi-Square

Having examined the distribution of values for particular variables through the use of frequency tables, frequency distribution, and associated statistics, a major strand in the analysis of a set of data is likely to be bivariate analysis - how two variables are related

to each other. Crosstabulation is one of the simplest and most frequently used ways of demonstrating the presence or absence of a relationship. To illustrate its use, for example, we want to know how many of 153 retired officers who found that middle-age factor makes it difficult to find jobs were in Group B and how many in Group C. To answer these questions, just use the Crosstabs command: *Crosstabs 'mid-age' by 'group'*.

As an example, Table 9.4 shows that 132 people who answered the question about the middle-age factor are subdivided by two groups.

Table 9.4 Groups by Mid-Aged Retirees (Groups B and C)

Group	Mid-Aged Retirees			Total	Chi-Square Value = 2.29189
	Not Agree	Agree	Most Agree		
Group B	29.3%	44.0%	26.7%	51.4%	Missing Cases = 21 Valid Cases = 132
Group C	22.5%	39.4%	38.0%	48.6%	
Column					
Total	26.0%	41.8%	32.2%		

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

Every percentage in the big box is called a 'cell'; these are arranged in rows and columns. To the right and at the bottom of the table are totals - often called 'marginal totals' because they are in the table's margins. Because the categories of the two variables are 'crossed' with each other, this kind of table is called 'Crosstabulation'. Norusis (1991) explains:

“A Crosstabulation contains a cell for every combination of categories of the two variables. Inside the cell is a number showing how many people had that combination of responses” (p.120).

‘Mid-aged retirees’ here represents the statement, “middle-aged retired officers find it more difficult to find jobs”. Now we compare the observed number of cases in each of the cells to the number that would be expected if the null hypothesis is true. These two sets of numbers are called the ‘observed frequencies’ and ‘expected frequencies’ (Norusis, 1991, p.267). Based on differences between the observed and expected frequencies, we will be able to estimate the likelihood of seeing a difference at least as large as the one observed in the sample if the null hypothesis is true. Chi-square test is used for evaluating the discrepancy between a set of observed frequencies and a set of expected frequencies.

9.8.3 Compare Means: Paired-Samples *T*-test

Testing the hypotheses involved two distinct groups of cases: those who had attended the vocational training and those who had not. In this survey, the hypotheses to be tested concerned the difference in employment income between these two groups, Groups B and C. Any individual case would be a member of either one group or the other; it is not possible to belong to both. In such situations, the two groups are called ‘independent’ and the *t* tests are sometimes called ‘independent-sample *t* tests’. Designs in which the same subject is observed under two different conditions or the members of two groups are matched in some way are called ‘paired-sample’ designs (Norusis, 1991, p.245). By using the paired-samples *t*-test, it is possible to explain when the difference between two

sample means is statistically significant. One obvious reason is that there is a difference between the population means. Another possible reason is that the people in the two samples are different.

9.8.4 Significance Level

The observed significance level is the probability that the sample could show a difference at least as large as the one that is observed, if such groups or means, etc. are equal. Since this analysis depends on producing differences, then the procedure is to reject the null hypothesis in favour of the alternative hypothesis if the probability of occurrence under the null hypothesis is equal to or less than the level of significance of 5%. The confidence level is the range within which a sample population is likely to lie as the result of an experiment including sampling. Then confidence level = 1 - significance level = 95%. The relationship between the two is that if we take any value within a 95% confidence interval and test the null hypothesis, that it is the sample value, then we will not reject the null hypothesis. Then the observed significance level will be greater than 0.05. If the value is outside of the 95% confidence interval, and the hypothesis test rejects the null hypothesis, that it is likely to be the sample value. The observed significance level will be less than or equal to 0.05.

9.9 Survey Limitations

While restricting the mailing to the ranks of colonel, lt. colonel and major served as a screening device, there was no way to divide mailing lists along proportional lines for the Army, Navy, Air Force, Military Police, or Logistics HQ, etc. and certainly no way

to eliminate those employed less than half-time or unemployed.

This study included retired officers (Groups B and C) and retiring officers (Group A) and active officers (Group D). In retired officers of the Groups B and C, these randomly selected officers were chosen because this population is representative of the employment occupation categories and educational levels. In Groups A and D, those who answered the questionnaires were the current participants in the vocational training programmes.

The findings would be reliable when applied to both of the overall retired officers' workforce in employment (or unemployment) and the overall trainees who attended these training courses. In the retired officers' groups, those officers with special expertise and professions, such as fighter pilot, doctor, dentist, lawyer, accountant, hi-tech expert, and those who have a Ph.D. degree, etc. were excluded from the targeted population. There was only one female officer corps in the Political Warfare service, and no more than 20 to 30 female officers are commissioned from the Political Warfare College each year in Taiwan. The mailing list which the General Staff Personnel (GSP) provided in random to this survey included these few female officers, but none of the responses received were from female officers.

Within clearly specified limits, only Major General Yu of the GSP expressed an interest in and willingness to provide some information for this research. With the assurance that the access provided to the mailing list would not be improperly used, provisions were made for the researcher to be given random mailing lists, 250 each in Groups B and C. While there are disadvantages in using official envelopes, a significant advantage

was the ability to obtain a list limited to members at colonel, lt. colonel and major ranks. The questionnaires were then sent throughout 23 counties of Taiwan by using business envelopes.

As mentioned, the GSP of the MND is responsible for the TTC and BMC vocational training programmes and Major General Yu who is the senior officer in charge of these programmes. Due to his interest and at his request, the prepaid return envelopes enclosed with the questionnaire were addressed to the researcher via the P.O. Box used for General Yu's office correspondence. Since it was clearly stated in the covering letter (see Appendixes C and D), that the survey was carried out with the co-operation of the GSP and other unions, it was appropriate to put General Yu's P.O. Box on the prepaid envelopes. The General Yu's office acted as an assistance unit to collect responded questionnaires and then pass them to the researcher intact.

In reality, on every prepaid return envelope, the return address was given as "P.O. Box 90014, Taipei" and the addressee was "Mr. Guor-Rung Shieh" (the researcher). In addition, all officers who received and answered the questionnaire, and read 'the covering letter to the respondent' were aware that the prepaid envelope was for return to the researcher himself.

As mentioned in Chapter 4, the employment situations and second career issues have long been neglected by the military and government in Taiwan. General Yu (1995) admitted that this survey had not attracted attention and interest among the leadership of the GSP except in the case of himself and few other staff. In this situation, it could not be regarded as limiting but rather beneficial in developing the field research by not

attracting attention of the 'Political Warfare' department.

Considering the overall size of the population and the sample selected, the access only to senior officers in the GSP and those few retired officers who have worked for these union organisations, such as the CNFI, GCOC and NAMSE should not be considered a major deficiency in terms of the credibility of the study. Indeed, use of the mailing list and work with the GSP and other unionized organisations constituted the only feasible means of gaining broad-based exposure to the retired officer population, for a private research activity.

9.10 Data Collection and Result of the Mailings

The co-operation of the GSP, GCOC, CNFI and NAMSE was crucial in the data collection phase of the study because post-retirement tends to disperse officers and assimilate them into civilian society (Groups B and C) and pre-retirement officers have been trained by them (Groups A and D). These professional associations operate in the area of interest to this study. They are private and business associations and therefore not directly subject to formal military control. In effect, it is a contract-based programme between them and the MND which is designed to take a broad perspectives of retiring/active officers and meet their needs by providing training programmes, TTC and BMC, and job opportunities.

While there were 337 responses to 820 questionnaires in the four groups, for a response rate of 41.1 percent, only 296 of the returned questionnaires were suitable for use in this study (see Table 9.5).

Table 9.5 Questionnaire Response

Responses	Questionnaires (820)
Usable	296 (36.10%)
Not Usable	41 (5%)
Not Returned	483 (58.90%)

Out of 41 returned questionnaires that were not usable: 24 were rejected because they were incomplete, and 16 because they represented special professions, such as doctor, dentist, lawyer, pilot, etc., and one respondent with a Ph.D. degree. The 41.1% response rate may perhaps be attributed to either the pride and commitment of the respondents in their careers, or their interest in the purpose and meaning of this survey. The promise to send British stamps to the respondents may also have helped to increase the response rate.

Finally, the base data analysis will be presented in Appendix A.

9.11 Conclusion

This chapter has outlined the methods used by the researcher in carrying out empirical survey in Taiwan. The main survey instrument was a questionnaire, designed to provide basic quantitative data, to be complemented by qualitative information derived from analysis and observation. The questions covered a variety of issues, and the analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data, will make possible an assessment of the situations

of retirees' employment and second career development, learning and training in the transitional periods, and factors affecting it. They should also give an indication of the effectiveness of vocational training, transition, determinants of a career success, and individuals' satisfaction with their jobs and pay.

Thoughtful planning of the physical design of the study, careful selection and phrasing of the questions, and appropriate statistical methods will affect not only the number of the returns but also the meaning and accuracy of the findings. This field research was useful in understanding the actual situations and the problems that have accompanied the retired officers' employment lives and career development. In the next chapter, the results and findings of the statistical analysis will be presented.

Chapter 10: Analysis of the Findings

10.1 Introduction

This chapter reports the SPSS analysis for the sample relating the independent variables represented in the survey questions to the dependent variables. Throughout this chapter, each hypothesis will be tested and analyzed by several crosstabulations because of the different but relevant criteria set. There are instances in which a single indicator will suffice in the measurement of a concept or hypothesis, but in many cases this will not be so.

Thus, for example, it is not sufficient to measure 'successful transition from military retirement to civilian employment' by conducting a survey in which retired officers are asked 'are you employed or unemployed?' Such a simplistic measure does not cover issues relevant to the question such as personal satisfaction with their jobs and payment, nor whether they have faced any difficulties in finding jobs. This confirms that more than one indicator is likely to be required to measure one concept or many concepts if the findings are to avoid being open to the argument that they only have tapped one facet of the concept in question. Thus, both explanatory and conjectural observations are included in this chapter in an effort to provide greater substance and meaning to the findings.

The statistical analysis of the findings is included in Appendix B. Each hypothesis is tested by several crosstabulations and a brief conclusion is presented at the end of each

test. The more detailed analysis and summary are presented in the following Section 10.2. Finally, a comparison of policy and practise of human resource management between the military and business organisations is drawn.

10.2 Summary of the Findings

This study introduced the ‘transition index’ (discussed in Section A.2, Appendix A) as one of the major tools for the measurement of the effectiveness with which retired military officers have transferred to civilian occupations on a full-time basis. This transition index for Groups B and C is based on the difficulties retirees had faced while seeking jobs, and the subjective perceptions of the individuals as to their comparative civilian and military career achievements, satisfaction with their retirement jobs and reported earning levels from their civilian jobs, compared to those of others in the sample. As mentioned in Appendix A, the transition index was also analyzed in relation to variables such as age, rank, educational level, the existence of career plans, attendance at vocational training programmes, the holding of multiple skills, and the desire to pursue a second career.

By testing whether or not crosstabulations are statistically significant, and using the accepted techniques for such an evaluation, a basis was developed for the aggregation and then comparison of an extended variety of factors among the data reported by the respondents. A further innovation was the classification of the four groups of respondents, especially the division between the group who had experienced vocational training programmes and another group who had not. This permitted a simultaneous assessment of the differing experiences of the groups. The use of the transition index

and the groups has thus given new dimensions to the study.

The testing of hypotheses 1 and 2 were more complicated because several indicators were needed to measure the concepts and test hypotheses, while for hypotheses 3 to 8, several major criteria had to be set and tested, such as the transition index, employment rate and income, and satisfaction with jobs and pay (see Table 9.1 in Chapter 9). Before we summarize the results of testing each hypothesis, we should ask first,

Did the Retired Officers Surveyed Achieve Successful Second Careers?

There are several major criteria to measure whether they made successful second careers or not. They are as follows (some tables listed here, for example, Table B.1 represents Table 1 in Appendix B; Table A.1 as Table 1 in Appendix A):

- (1) 82% of retired officers had faced a number of difficulties in finding jobs and/or employment following their retirement (Table B.1);
- (2) 43.7% of retired officers were dissatisfied with the jobs that they were able to find and 54.8% were dissatisfied with their pay levels (Tables B.6 and B.7);
- (3) 75.4% of retired officers expressed the opinions that employers demonstrated a low acceptance of retirees' status, responsibility and skills, while 26.8% claimed to have been directly discriminated against (Tables B.28 and Figure A.25);
- (4) 53.7% of retired officers were assigned to low-pay jobs as basic level employees (Figure A.18); and
- (5) 61.8% of retired officers did not have career plans (Figure A.7).

Although employment rate among retired officers reached 87.2%, the results listed above indicate that we may conclude that, **most retired officers did not achieve successful second careers.**

The following Table 10.1 summarizes the outcomes of testing each hypothesis. These findings will be further analyzed and discussed in later sections and in the following chapters.

Table 10.1 The Results of Testing Hypotheses

Null Hypothesis 1: Retired officers do not intend to make successful second careers.

Subjective Criteria:

- (1) The desire to pursue second career goals
- (2) The need for training/education from the company
- (3) Satisfaction with job/pay

Test Results:

- (1) 85% had a high desire to pursue second career goals (Table B.3).
- (2) 95% needed training/education from the company (Table B.5).
- (3) 43.7% were dissatisfied with job; 54.8% were dissatisfied with pay (Tables B.6 and B.7).

Objective Criteria:

- (1) Transition index data
- (2) Employment/unemployment

- (1) 82% had faced certain difficulty in obtaining jobs (Table B.1).
- (2) 87.2% of employment rate (Table B.2).

Conclusion: Reject the null hypothesis. Most retired officers intended to make successful second careers.

Null Hypothesis 2: Middle-aged retired officers do not find it difficult to
find jobs.

Subjective Criteria:

- (1) The desire to pursue second career goals
- (2) The perception that ‘mid-aged retired officers find it more difficult to find jobs’
- (3) The perception on employers’ acceptance of retirees

Test Results :

- (1) Age was not associated with the desire to pursue second career goals (Table B.12).
- (2) Those who didn’t agree that ‘middle-aged retirees find it more difficult to find jobs’ experienced less difficulty in finding jobs (Table B.14).
- (3) 75.4% expressed the opinion that employers’ had a low acceptance of retirees (Table B.28).

Objective Criteria:

- (1) Transition index data (1) Retirees at younger age experienced less difficulty in finding jobs (Table B.8).
- (2) Employment/unemployment (2) Age was not associated with the employment rate (Table B.9).
- (3) Employment income (3) Age was not associated with the level of employment income (Table B.10).
- (4) Number of jobs since retirement (4) The older the retirees the more jobs that they had held (Table B.11).

Conclusion: Reject the null hypothesis. Most middle-aged retired officers found it more difficult to find jobs.

Null Hypothesis 3: The desire to pursue second career goals has no correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Subjective Criteria:

- (1) The desire to pursue second career goals
- (2) Satisfaction with job and pay

Test Results:

- (1) The desire was not associated with the transition index (Table B.30).
- (2) The desire was associated with the level of satisfaction with both job and pay (Tables B.33 and B.34).

Objective Criteria:

- (1) Transition index data
- (2) Employment/unemployment
- (3) Employment income

- (1) The desire was not associated with the transition index (Table B.30).
- (2) The desire was not associated with the employment rate (Table B.31).
- (3) The desire was associated with the level of employment income (Table B.32).

Conclusion: Reject the null hypothesis. In terms of employment income and satisfaction with jobs and pay, the desire to pursue second career goals has a correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Null Hypothesis 4: Vocational training has no correlation with the
subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Subjective Criteria:

(1) Satisfaction with job and pay

Test Results:

(1) Vocational training was not associated with the level of satisfaction with either job or pay (Tables B.38 and B.39).

Objective Criteria:

(1) Transition index data

(1) Vocational training was not associated with the transition index (Table B.35).

(2) Employment/unemployment

(2) Vocational training was not associated with subsequent employment rate (Table B.36).

(3) Employment income

(3) Vocational training was not associated with subsequent employment income (Table B.37).

Conclusion: Accept the null hypothesis. Vocational training has no correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Null Hypothesis 5: Military rank has no correlation with the subsequent
employment status of retired officers.

Subjective Criteria:

(1) Perceptions on military career achievement

Test Results:

(1) Military career achievement was not associated with rank, transition index, satisfaction with job and pay (Tables B.46 to B.48).

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| (2) Satisfaction with job and pay | (2) Rank was not associated with the level of satisfaction with job and pay (Tables B.43 and B.44). |
|-----------------------------------|---|

Objective Criteria: (with rank achieved)

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| (1) Transition index data | (1) Rank was not associated with the transition index (Table B.40). |
| (2) Employment/unemployment | (2) Rank was not associated with the employment rate (Table B.41). |
| (3) Employment income | (3) Rank was not associated with the level of employment income (Table B.42). |

Conclusion: Accept the null hypothesis. Military rank has no correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Null Hypothesis 6: Educational attainments have no correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Subjective Criteria:

- (1) Satisfaction with job and pay

Test Results:

- (1) Educational levels were not associated with satisfaction with job and pay (Tables B.55 to B.58).

Objective Criteria: (with educational and military levels)

- | | |
|---------------------------|--|
| (1) Transition index data | (1) Educational levels were not associated with the transition index (Tables B.49 and B.50). |
|---------------------------|--|

- | | |
|-----------------------------|--|
| (2) Employment/unemployment | (2) Educational levels were not associated with subsequent employment rate (Tables B.51 and B.52). |
| (3) Employment income | (3) Educational levels were not associated with subsequent employment income (Tables B.53 and B.54). |

Conclusion: Accept the null hypothesis. Educational levels have no correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Null Hypothesis 7: Multiple skills have no correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Subjective Criteria:

- (1) Satisfaction with job and pay
- (2) Perceptions on the transferability of military skills and expertise.

Test Results:

- (1) Skills were not associated with the level of satisfaction with job and pay (Table B.62).
- (2) Perceptions on the transferability of expertise and skills were associated with the transition index (Table B.68).

Objective Criteria: (with multiple skills)

- | | |
|-----------------------------|--|
| (1) Transition index data | (1) Skills were not associated with the transition index (Table B.59). |
| (2) Employment/unemployment | (2) Skills were not associated with subsequent employment rate (Table B.60). |

- | | |
|-------------------------------------|---|
| (3) Employment income | (3) Skills were not associated with subsequent employment income (Table B.61). |
| (4) Number of jobs since retirement | (4) Skills were associated with the number of jobs since retirement (Table B.64). |

Conclusion: Accept the null hypothesis. Multiple skills have no correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

 Null Hypothesis 8: Having a career plan before retirement has no correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Subjective Criteria:

Test Results:

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|---|
| (1) Satisfaction with job and pay | (1) Having a career plan was associated with the level of satisfaction with job and pay (Table B.74). |
|-----------------------------------|---|

Objective Criteria: (with career plan)

- | | |
|-----------------------------|---|
| (1) Transition index data | (1) Having a career plan was associated with the transition index (Table B.71). |
| (2) Employment/unemployment | (2) Having a career plan was not associated with subsequent employment rate (Table B.72). |
| (3) Employment income | (3) Having a career plan was not associated with subsequent employment income (Table B.73). |

Conclusion: Reject the null hypothesis. In terms of transition index and satisfaction with jobs and pay, having a career plan before retirement has a correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Eight hypotheses were tested in the light of research findings (see Appendix B). Following is a summary of the analysis. Some tables and figures in Appendix A have also been used to compare or contrast to the findings in this Chapter.

Hypothesis 1: Retired Officers Intend To Make Successful Second Careers.

Among the retired population in Groups B and C, 87.2% of retirees were employed and the employment rate was high (see Table B.2). Although the unemployment rate was 12.8%, it is not known whether these unemployed retired officers failed to find jobs, resigned having found work, or were simply not willing to be employed. Some of them left the questions on 'employment status' in the questionnaire unanswered. However, from this survey, we found that 38.1% of retirees had faced three or even more major difficulties in seeking jobs and/or employment, while 43.9% of retirees had faced one or two major difficulties. In total, 82% of retirees had faced certain difficulties in seeking jobs. Only 18% of them had not experienced difficulties (see Table B.1). In addition, among the employed population, 43.7% of them were not satisfied with their jobs, while 54.8% were not satisfied with their pay (see Figures A.21 and A.22).

93.4% of respondents across all four groups expressed 'positive' and 'very positive' attitudes towards the need for training and education from the company once they were employed, compared to that of 91.1% of retirees in Groups B and C (see Table A.4). Thus, most retirees recognized the need for training and education to be provided by the business and industry sectors, to which they were new employees.

88.6% of respondents in all four groups showed 'high' or 'very high' desires to pursue second career goals. This included that of 84.5% of Group B and 85.5% of Group C, the retired population (see Table B.3). These 84.5% and 85.5% figures are higher than those of retirees who were 'satisfied' with their civilian jobs (56.3%), and 'satisfied' with pay (45.2%) (see Figures A.21 and A.22). This clearly indicates that most retired officers had a strong desire to develop a second career and tried to achieve more career success through their employment in the long term, but were comparatively less satisfied with their current jobs and pay.

The findings from the crosstabulations and data above show that retired officers intended to make successful second careers in the longer term, although about half of them were not satisfied with their current jobs and income, and most of them had experienced some difficulties in obtaining jobs. Because most of them wanted to be employed and expressed high desires to pursue the goals of second career development, they also wanted to have training and education programmes provided by the company in order to enhance their abilities and performance.

Hypothesis 2: Middle-Aged Retired Officers Find It More Difficult To Find Jobs.

Below are listed in rank order, the factors identified by four groups as the most important in obtaining their retirement occupations (see Table A.25):

- (1) Managerial skills
- (2) Technical skills
- (3) Computer skills

- (4) Language skills
- (5) Marketing skills
- (6) Administrative skills

With regard to the qualities most important in carrying out their civilian second career occupations, respondents identified the following, in rank order of importance (see Table A.38):

- (1) A strong sense of responsibility
- (2) High loyalty and enthusiasm
- (3) Transferable civilian expertise and skills
- (4) Military managerial skills and experience
- (5) Hard working attitudes
- (6) Good learning attitudes

The definition and use of 'transition index' were discussed in Section A.2 in Appendix A. Although there were variations between the H-T and L-T retirees, the following, in rank order were the types of civilian occupations in which respondents (Groups B and C) were engaged (see Figure A.18):

- (1) Managerial
- (2) Administrative
- (3) Employee, Worker
- (4) Technical
- (5) Public Service, Teacher

The findings showed a significant 83.3% of active officers in Group D did not agree that 'middle-aged retired officers find it more difficult to find jobs'. This perception could have resulted from the lack of experience of the civilian jobs market among this group. In addition, they were optimistic about getting work after retirement due to their relatively younger age. Because these officers are still on active service, their perceptions about the prospects of getting appropriate jobs once they have retired, is perhaps an example of Festinger's (1962) concept of 'cognitive dissonance'.

This compares to 74.0% of retirees in Groups B and C who 'agreed' and 'strongly agreed' that 'middle-aged retired officers find it more difficult to find jobs' (see Tables B.15 and B.16), having experienced the reality of seeking employment. Within that attitudes 45.7% of retirees admitted that age itself was one of the major difficulties in finding a job (see Table A.35), the others being lack of skills and devaluated military degree and qualifications, etc.

Listed in rank order, the following are the factors designated by the group as creating the most difficulty in seeking jobs, and in employment (see Table A.35):

- (1) Lack of skills
- (2) Older age
- (3) Devaluated military degrees and qualifications
- (4) Cannot fit into company's management and culture
- (5) Low pay and position

Using the transition index for Groups B and C, 18.0% of retirees had a more favourable transition with few difficulties in transferring to civilian occupations (H-T), while 43.9% were in the M-T and 38.1% in the L-T categories (see Table B.1). This suggests that most retirees had some difficulties in seeking jobs and in the transition to civilian occupations.

About half of the retirees were not satisfied with their jobs and pay, so we may argue that the high employment rate (87.2%) does not necessarily bring appropriate jobs, high pay, or greater satisfaction with jobs and pay, or indicate that seeking jobs was easy. In Chapter 4, it was seen that the economic situation and employment market in Taiwan has produced a long period of low unemployment (for example, 1.74% in 1995) and high demand for human capital, which may have contributed positively to the employment rate of these retired officers. In order to fill gaps that might otherwise remain vacant, but not to the exclusion of those whose careers have been in commercial organisations.

Although 55.9% of retirees were satisfied with their civilian occupations, H-T retirees were more so than L-T retirees. 33.1% of retirees perceived higher career achievement in military service (see Tables A.13 and B.45). This could imply that most officers were more satisfied with their civilian jobs than they were with their military service.

From a sociological perspective, employers' attitudes towards retired officers may reflect those of society as a whole, and may facilitate or hinder the employment status of retired officers. In this survey, 71.7% of respondents in four groups indicated that employers' acceptance towards them was 'slightly positive' and 11.3% found it

'negative'. For Groups B and C, the figures were 63.4% for 'slightly positive' and 12.0% for 'negative' (see Tables B.27 and B.28). Interestingly, 10.3% officers across all four groups decided to retire because of their 'low social status' (see Table A.23). However, most of the sampled active and retired officers recognized that they might not be perceived as highly useful and valuable employees in the eyes of potential employers.

Furthermore, 29.5% of retired officers in Groups B and C gave the general status of their military degrees and qualifications as one of major difficulties that they faced while they were seeking employment, while 26.8% of retirees claimed to have been directly discriminated against in the field (see Table A.35 and Figure A.25).

21.9% of employed retirees in Groups B and C found their inability to adjust to the company's management and culture to be one of major problems especially in their subsequent employment. 31.9% in Groups A (officers approaching retirement) and D (active officers) indicated they might face the same problem (see Tables A.35 and A.36). Furthermore, 14.1% of employed retirees found that they were not satisfied with their current jobs because they could not adjust to their new work role (Table A.37).

Although the middle age was not found to be significantly associated with employment income or the level of employment among retired officers, those retirees in the younger age category, Groups B and C, indicated significantly less difficulty in obtaining jobs. In addition, 97.8% of younger respondents expressed a 'higher' level of desire to pursue second career goals, compared with 83.4% of older officers across all four groups (see Tables B.8 and B.12). The younger age category was significantly correlated with a high desire to pursue second career goals.

It was also found that the younger age groups were more likely than older respondents to be in their first job since retirement from the military, which may imply that the younger age groups experience a favourable transition to subsequent employment and intend to seek job stability. The older age groups, on the other hand, may have experienced a less favourable transition and thus have moved on their second, third or more civilian jobs after military retirement (see Table B.11). This is perhaps one of the issues emerging that would require subsequent research.

63.3% of respondents across all four groups 'agreed' that 'middle-aged retired officers find it more difficult to find jobs', also 74.0 % of retirees in Groups B and C 'agreed' with this statement (see Tables B.15 and B.16). Although it is evident that the employment rate among retired officers was high, most of them still considered themselves as in an unfavourable position to seek jobs compared to career civilian counterparts, mainly because of their middle age and military background. However, educational attainments, military training levels, ranks, skills, and vocational training all failed to produce significant correlation with respect to the aspects of seeking employment and employment status. All these factors are likely to impact on retirees' decision to retire and seek employment.

In sum, although younger retirees experienced less difficulty in obtaining jobs, most retirees experienced degrees of difficulty in seeking jobs, and were not satisfied with either their jobs or pay. In addition, most respondents expressed employers' low acceptance towards them, undervaluing of their military degrees and qualifications, and low social status, which could be the major reasons why most retirees admitted that 'middle-aged retired officers find it more difficult to find jobs'.

Hypothesis 3: The Desire To Pursue Second Career Goals Has A Correlation With the Subsequent Employment Status of Retired Officers.

The findings identified that differences in desire to pursue second career goals among Groups B and C were significantly correlated with the level of employment income and the satisfaction with both jobs and pay, but it failed to produce a significant correlation with the employment rate and transition index. In Table B.32, retirees showing a 'very high' desire to pursue second career goals had much higher incomes than other groups, while the converse was also the case.

The higher the desires to pursue second career goals, the greater the satisfaction with both jobs and pay. The group with the greatest desire to pursue a second career was significantly more satisfied with jobs and pay. 70.7% of retirees showing 'very high' desires to pursue a second career were 'satisfied' with their jobs, compared with 45.0% of retirees with 'low' desires. In respect of pay, 60.3% of those with 'very high' desires were 'satisfied', compared with only 20.0% of those with 'low' desires (see Tables B.33 and B.34).

Hypothesis 4: Vocational Training Has A Correlation With the Subsequent Employment Status of Retired Officers.

Participation in pre-retirement vocational training programmes provided by the Ministry of National Defence and the Unions, was not found to be significantly associated with the employment status in terms of the employment rate, employment income, transition

index, and satisfaction with jobs and pay. No significant difference in employment status was found between retired officers in Group B who had attended a three-month TTC, and Group C, who had not. The two groups also shared very similar employment and unemployment rates (see Table B.36).

In order to test the difference in employment income between the two groups, the 'paired-samples t-test' method was used (see Table B.37). It tested the difference of income between Groups B and C but failed to produce a significant correlation with attendance on the vocational training course. In addition, the two groups were similarly distributed among the H-T, M-T and L-T categories (see Table B.35). Thus, vocational training, as currently practised, appeared not to achieve a significant correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Hypothesis 5: Military Rank Has A Correlation With the Subsequent Employment Status of Retired Officers.

Military rank was not found to be significantly associated with aspects of employment such as employment rate and income, transition index and satisfaction with jobs and pay (see Tables B.40 to B.44). In military organisations, rank represents an officer's power and authority, as well as his/her position. A higher rank in military service symbolizes higher military achievement. It was also not found to be significantly associated with transition index or satisfaction with the civilian job or pay (see Tables B.45 to B.48).

However, an interesting comparison between Tables A.13 and B.6 revealed that only 44.0% of those in the in H-T group reported 'high' career achievement in military

service, whereas a much higher figure of 84% in H-T groups reported that they were ‘satisfied’ with their civilian jobs, and about 85% of retirees expressed higher desires to pursue second career goals. This may imply that retired officers were more satisfied with their civilian jobs and had stronger desires to achieve development in their second careers, than when they were in military service.

Hypothesis 6: Educational Attainments In The Military Have A Correlation With the Subsequent Employment Status of Retired Officers.

Educational attainments and military training levels were not found to be significantly associated with employment rate and income, transition index, satisfaction with jobs and pay (see Tables B.49 to B.58).

With regard to education and training, the findings suggest that retired military officers (in Groups B and C) were well-educated, 52.3% at two-year military college level and 47.7% at four-year military academy level (including 3.9% at the master degree level). However, formal education failed to make a significant difference to the effectiveness of the transition to civilian occupations, and the subsequent employment status. It is also evident that respondents generally did not find their formal military training (57.3% of retirees were trained at branch school level and 42.7% at the Command Staff and/or War College level) to have been supportive of their transition to civilian occupations, and/or subsequent employment status.

This finding is consistent with that presented earlier, in relation to Hypothesis 2, that 29.5% of retired officers in Groups B and C felt that their military academic degrees and

training qualifications were devalued by the civilian sectors while they were seeking jobs and/or after they found employment. In addition, 75.4% of retirees felt that employers' acceptance of them was low.

Hypothesis 7: Multiple Skills Have A Correlation With the Subsequent Employment Status of Retired Officers.

As with educational attainments, the possession of multiple skills failed to produce any significant correlation with the aspects of employment status such as employment rate and income, transition index, or satisfaction with both jobs and pay (see Tables B.59 to B.63). Those who believed that military expertise and skills are likely to be transferable had less difficulty in obtaining jobs (see Table B.68), and both variables were found to be statistically significant.

Having transferable skills was significantly associated with the number of jobs since retirement. Those with transferable skills were more likely to be in their second, third or subsequent job, while those who did not have transferable skills were more likely to be holding the first job (see Table B.64). This could imply that the latter were less able or willing to change jobs, because of the lack of transferable skills. It may also be argued that job stability is high for those who don't have transferable skills, because they are happy (or perhaps to accept) whatever job they can get.

Figure A.18 showed that 38.4% of retirees held managerial jobs, 27.7% were in administrative jobs, and 25% were employees and workers. Only 7.1% were in technical jobs. In the four groups, 56.9% of respondents believed that they should have

'managerial' skills in order to apply for an ideal job. 45.1% of retirees in Groups B and C expressed that it is important to have 'military managerial skills and experience' in order to seek an ideal job (see Tables A.25 and A.38). However, 52.7% of respondents across all four groups had 'positive' attitudes towards the idea that military expertise and skills could be possibly transferred and applied to civilian jobs, while 70.8% of officers believed that it is possible that military management and experience can be transferred to civilian work (see Figures A.14 and A.15).

50.5% of retirees in Groups B and C viewed 'lack of transferable skills and expertise' as the main difficulty in finding a job, compared to evenly the same percentage, 48.4% of officers who don't have transferable skills (according to the 'Taiwanese Military Profession Table of the Officer Corps, 1995'). In addition, 20.5% of retirees were not satisfied with their jobs because of lack of transferable skills and expertise (see Tables A.32 and A.35 to A.37).

Although having transferable skills was not found to be significantly associated with the employment status, those who believed that military expertise and skills could be transferred and applied to civilian work experienced less difficulty in finding jobs.

Hypothesis 8: Having A Career Plan Before Retirement Has A Correlation With the Subsequent Employment Status of Retired Officers.

Having a career plan before retirement was found to be significantly associated with the transition index and also satisfaction with jobs and pay, but failed to produce a significant correlation with employment rate and income (see Tables B.71 to B.75). The

findings revealed that those in the H-T category (those having no difficulty in obtaining jobs), contained a significantly higher percentage of retirees with career plans than retirees without such plans.

Approximately 32.1% of all retirees who had personal career plans were among the H-T category and 34.0% in the L-T category. In contrast, among retirees without career plans only 9.3% were in the H-T category, while 40.7% were in the L-T category (see Table B.71). It was also found that the H-T group contained a higher percentage of retirees with a strong desire to pursue second career goals, than the L-T group (see Table B.30), though neither variable was statistically significant.

In Groups B and C, only 38.1% of retirees had career plans while they were in military service. And 79.0% of those who had career plans in the military were 'satisfied' with their civilian jobs, compared with only 46.8% of those who not have career plans. Similarly, 59.6% of those who had career plans were 'satisfied' with pay, compared with only 34.7% who had no such plans. These differences are statistically significant (see Tables B.74 and B.75).

However, whether or not retirees had a career plan was not found to be significantly associated with employment rate or income. In the four groups, 61.8% of respondents answered that they did not have a career plan while in military service. This includes 25% of them who did not know how to make such a career plan (see Figure A.7). Approximately two-fifths of retirees in Groups B and C entered into some planning and preparation for their retirement. As a result, 32.1% of these with a career plan were in the H-T group, while only 9.3% of retirees without a career plan were in the H-T group

(see Table B.71).

Respondents in the four groups set forth the following in rank order as views of 'military career development' (see Table A.21):

- (1) It depends on your senior officers;
- (2) It depends on your performance and ability;
- (3) It depends on educational attainments and service records; and
- (4) If I cannot get promotion, I will retire and develop a second career.

56.6% of officers in the four groups thought that military career development 'depends on their senior officers', compared to 14.6% who thought it 'depends on their performance and ability' and 14.6% who believed it 'depends on educational attainments and service records' (see Table A.21). Nevertheless, 93.6% of them claimed that senior officers 'do not care' about their subordinates' career development, while 78.7% respondents thought these senior officers 'do not care' about subordinates' learning, education and training (Figures A.5 and A.6).

In this regard we may recall that 55.8% of officers in the four groups expressed their dissatisfaction with military education and training, while 71.7% of them pointed out that the learning opportunities and environment in the military are 'poor' or 'very bad' (see Figures A.1 and A.3).

These could be the reasons why 39.2% of respondents in the four groups decided to retire because they had 'no promising future'. Other reasons given for retirement were

'poor senior leadership' (23.3%), 'unfair personnel policies and practises' (21.2%), 'poor practises of promotion and evaluation' (16.6%), and 'cannot learn expertise and skills' (17.7%) (see Table A.23).

92.2% of all respondents believed that it is necessary for officers to have a career development plan in the military. 30.6% said that a career plan should start from the recruitment period; 25.2% answered that it should start from being commissioned as an officer while only 7.8% expressed that it should start before retirement. Nevertheless, 61.8% officers in the four groups admitted that they did not have a career development plan while they were in military service (see Figures A.7, A.8 and Table A.22). It was also found that 88.5% of respondents in the four groups believed that the military did not provide sufficient information for them to make a career development plan, while 94.3% complained that the military did not provide resettlement assistance or vocational training programmes for them (see Figures A.9 and A.10).

Hence, it may not be surprising that 38.4% of officers in Groups A (officers approaching retirement) and D (active officers) answered that they did not know how would find a job when they retire in the near future (see Table A.36).

Below are summarized the factors contributing to a more favourable transition to civilian employment, together with some criteria with which they were found to be significantly associated.

1. Less Difficulty In Obtaining Jobs (Transition Index):

- (a) Age: younger rather than older.
- (b) Career plan: with career plan rather than without career plan.
- (c) Attitudes towards the view that 'military expertise and skills can be transferred and applied to civilian work': positive rather than negative.
- (d) Attitudes towards the view that 'middle-age retired officers find it more difficult to find jobs': disagree rather than agree.

2. Higher Employment Rate: None

- ### **3. Higher Employment Income: The desire to pursue second career goals: higher rather than lower.**

4. Greater Satisfaction With Jobs:

- (a) The desire to pursue second career goals: higher rather than lower.
- (b) Career plan: with career plan rather than without career plan.

5. Greater Satisfaction With Pay:

- (a) The desire to pursue second career goals: higher rather than lower.
- (b) Career plan: with career plan rather than without career plan.
- (c) Military training level: lower rather than higher.

The officers evaluated as having had a more effective transition understandably reported less difficulty in obtaining jobs, higher income and employment rate, greater satisfaction with jobs and pay, greater desires to pursue second career goals, younger age, more negative attitudes towards the statement that ‘middle-aged retired officers find it more difficult to find jobs’, and more positive attitudes on the transferability of military expertise and skills to civilian occupations.

Other factors such as vocational training programmes, military ranks, educational attainments, and multiple skills were not found, in this survey, to be statistically associated with the employment status of retired officers.

Turning to the more favourable satisfaction with jobs and pay. This was significantly associated with two important factors: the higher desire to pursue second career goals and having a career plans before retirement.

The findings indicated that the H-T group tended to report more significantly ‘positive’ attitudes towards the transferability of military expertise and skills to civilian occupations than did the L-T group (see Table B.68). Across the four groups, 52.7% believed that military expertise and skills can be transferred and applied to civilian work (51.7% in Groups B and C), and 70.8% were convinced that military management and experience can be transferred and applied to civilian work (68.4% in Groups B and C) (Figures A.14 and A.15; Tables B.65 and B.66).

With regard to rank level, respondents of lower rank, at major level, had less positive attitudes towards the transferability of military management and experience to civilian

occupations than those at the rank of colonel (see Table B.69). In their evaluation of the transition from military ranks to civilian occupations, the groups as a whole reported the rank was irrelevant to transition.

In Groups B and C, 85.0% of employed retirees considered themselves to be in a career in their civilian occupations by showing a high desire to pursue second career development goals, while 56.3% were satisfied with their jobs. In contrast, only 33.1% of them reported high military career achievement (see Table B.45). In addition, 55.8% of all respondents across the four groups expressed dissatisfaction with military education and training, and 71.7% of them claimed that the learning opportunity and environment in the military are poor or very bad (including 5.5% said that there is not any learning opportunity or environment at all in the military) (see Figures A.1 and A.3).

Hence, when asked whether the military can become a learning organisation, 32.7% of respondents in the four groups thought it was unlikely and 10.9% said it was impossible (see Figure A.4), although 98.6% of respondents believed that learning multiple skills and expertise in military service is quite important (see Figure A.2).

Educational attainments (including military training levels), multiple skills, age, rank, vocational training, and career plan were found not to be associated with employment rate or income. This finding confirmed previous observations that military retired officers have relatively low social status, as a result of which employers do not offer appropriate pay and/or job positions commensurate with retirees' educational attainments, experience, skills, rank, or other military qualifications.

Finally, a comparison of policy and practise of human resource management between the military and business organisations can be drawn based on the results of questionnaires in Groups B and C who, 87.2% of them, are employed and working in civilian organisations since retirement from the military (see Figures A.29 to A.41), and the findings presented above:

(1) Military Pay Level and Welfare Programmes Are Better Than Business Ones.

Retirees agreed that 'military pay level' and 'military welfare programmes' are better than business ones (85.6% and 66% respectively). As indicated in Section A.3 in Appendix A the average income of the employed retirees was \$36,062, which is higher than the highest starting pay, \$32,000, of an university graduate working in a semi-conductor company. In addition, most retirees have an extra \$49,772 in monthly retirement pension. Other income, for example, spouse's income was not included in this figure. Furthermore, retirees still receive other fringe benefits associated with the military status such as free medical treatment, and discount on water and electricity bills, etc.

(2) Business Management Places More Emphasis On Personal Training and Development Than the Military.

65.9% of retirees agreed that business management places emphasis on personal training and development than the military. 61.9% of retirees did not have career plans while they were in military service. Furthermore, 55.8% of respondents in the four groups expressed their dissatisfaction with military training and education, and 93.6% of them

felt that their senior officers 'don't care' about their subordinates' career development, and 78.7% thought they 'don't care' about subordinates' learning, education and training.

(3) Business Promotion Policy and Practise Are Fairer Than The Military Ones.

70.8% of retirees agreed with this statement. Thus, 66.6% of retirees believed that they would have more chance of being promoted in business organisations than military ones, and 52.2% of retirees believed that they would be more likely to be paid according to their ability and performance in business organisations than in the military.

(4) Individuals Can Learn More Skills and Experiences In Business Organisations Than Military Ones.

86.9% of retirees agreed with this statement. 71.7% of respondents in the four groups expressed that learning opportunities and environment in the military are poor or very bad. 50.8% of retirees admitted that lack of transferable expertise and skills was the main difficulty in seeking a job after retirement. Thus, 73.3% of retirees believed that they could use and apply more of their skills and expertise in business jobs than military ones

(5) Individuals Are More Motivated By Business Reward Policy and Practise Than Military Ones.

78.7% of retirees agreed with this statement. In military management, almost every officer and soldier is on a fixed salary based on rank. Only very few cases can be found in which military personnel have been granted some monetary rewards. This occurrence is limited because of the financial constraints in a non-profit military organisation.

(6) Performance Evaluation Policy and Practise In Business Organisations Are Better Than In Military Ones.

64.9% of retirees agreed with this statement, while only 14.6% believed that the best career development in military service depends on personal performance and ability. Thus, similar to the conclusion reached in relation to 'comparison (3)', 66.6% of retirees believed that they would have more chance of being promoted in business organisations than military ones, and 52.2% of retirees believed that they would be more likely to be paid according to their ability and performance in business organisations than in the military.

(7) Individuals Who Are Incompetent In Their Work Are More Likely To Get Fired In Business Organisations Than In The Military.

92.1% of retirees recognized that if they didn't perform their jobs well, their employers would discharge them sooner than the military does. In military service, every officer has to serve a minimum period according to the applicable service regulations, so no one will fire them, even they do not perform well while in military service.

(8) Business Management Has More Care and Considerations For Human Factors Than Military Management Does.

72.1% of retirees agreed with this statement. The main objectives of the military organisation are to train officers and soldiers to deter war, to engage war if necessary, and to protect the national security. The military is concerned more with how to train the troops ready to fight, and how these tasks be carried out successfully, than with the individuals' needs and human factors. Thus, business organisations pay more attention to human factors and individuals' needs than the military does.

10.3 Conclusion

The following stages are particularly important given that the survey design is influential in the quality of the resultant data. First, the research questions were constructed to reflect the theoretical propositions, and the questionnaire was designed after the researcher had conducted the necessary reading of literature around the topic. Second, the aims of the survey have been clarified, and the sample groups have been chosen. Third, analysis was undertaken using statistical techniques, and it was possible to generalize from a sample, to the population as a whole.

Evaluation of the success or failure of retired officers in transitional periods depends not only on their employment status, satisfaction and adjustment but also their personality and motivation. Personal desires and attitudes are the aspects of the self most central to their second career development. In this field research, observation and questionnaires are used to help clarify aspects of the self and its relations with the employment status of

retired officers.

The results of the research using the questionnaire survey and SPSS statistical analysis are then said to produce a set of relationships between variables (remembering that correlation does not necessarily produce causation) in relation to human behaviour. Hence, we are able to generalize from our observations on social phenomena to make statements about the behaviour of the sample population as a whole.

These findings revealed that a career plan and the desire to pursue second career goals are significantly associated with employment status. The transferability of military expertise and skill utilization are also important in the transition to civilian employment for retired officers. Those who retired at a younger age found it less difficulty in finding jobs than older officers.

From the employment rate, income, job satisfaction, job seeking difficulties, age, skills, and the desire to pursue second career goals, the implications for retired officers are threefold. First, the time needed to obtain employment may increase. Second, military retirees are likely to accept employment in less well-paid positions, but hope this will lead to more desirable employment status later on. Third, retirees rely on the financial security provided by military retirement pay or pension. They perhaps anticipate that they can, over time, make up the initial income shortfall, and so they are more willing to accept lower salaries than comparably qualified civilian job-seekers. However, the major conclusions are summarized as follows:

(1) Most Middle-Aged Retired Officers Found It More Difficult To Find Jobs

It is evident that being an active officer in military service or a retired officer after retirement was not regarded as an advantage in finding a civilian job let alone an ideal one. Most active and retired officers clearly expressed their anxiety and concern about the poor attitudes of employers towards retired officers seeking jobs and then subsequently when in employment. Thus, most retirees faced some difficulties in obtaining jobs and a number moved jobs frequently. Military ranks and educational attainments, which are highly regarded as a great achievement in military service, failed to produce any significant association with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

About 30% of retirees believed that military academic degrees and training qualifications were undervalued by civilian sectors, while a quarter of retirees claimed to have been discriminated against while in employment, especially for those who retired at the higher ranks of Lt. colonel or colonel. In addition, older age is another disadvantage in seeking jobs for most retired officers. Hence, inevitably, about half of retirees were not satisfied with their current jobs and/or pay.

(2) Most Retired Officers Intended To Make A Successful Second Career

Although most middle-aged retired officers found it more difficult to find jobs, it is surprising that about 85% of retirees manifested a strong desire to pursue their second career goals. This implies that most retired military officers still want to achieve more through their second career development, and want to seek any opportunity to develop

in order to demonstrate their abilities and performance to gain promotion, and contribute effectively to their new employing organisations.

About 90% of retirees wanted to have training and education programmes provided by the company in order to enhance their abilities and performance. This clearly indicates that most middle-aged retired officers were not afraid of difficulties in seeking job. Neither were they put off by the dissatisfaction with their jobs and pay. Rather, their achievement desires were strong. They believed that they would succeed by their efforts and better performance in the long term.

(3) Importance of Second Career Plans and Desire To Pursue Second Career Goals

The career plan and strong desires to pursue second career goals were consistently found to be important correlates of most measures of second career success:

- (1) Less difficulty in obtaining jobs (at younger age and with career plan),
- (2) Higher income (with higher desires to pursue second career goals), and
- (3) Greater job/pay satisfaction (with career plan and higher desires to pursue second career goals).

Among the consequences of these points are: (1) those officers who were able to achieve higher rank in military service on the basis of demonstrated ability and performance were not able to match this in their civilian jobs; (2) similarly, their formal academic attainments and military training qualifications failed to produce significant correlation with their subsequent employment status; (3) whether the retirees had

transferable skills was not associated with their employment status as well, and (4) the vocational training for retired officers provided by the military and unions appeared not to give any significant support to their subsequent employment status.

(4) Military Expertise and Skill Utilization

This study reached the conclusion that the military expertise and skills of retired officers are among the dominant elements in their successful transition to a civilian career. In analyzing the considerations that entered into retirees' perceptions of the qualities most important to performing in their civilian occupations, such as responsibility, loyalty and enthusiasm, transferable skills, military managerial skills and experience, hard working and learning attitudes, were given uppermost consideration. The lack of expertise/skills was the main difficulty in seeking appropriate jobs and/or in employment among retirees.

Although 82% of retirees were in the M-T and L-T groups, which means that most retirees had some difficulties in the transition to civilian occupations, 68.4% of retirees believed that the transferability of military management and experience to civilian occupations is possible, while 51.7% of retirees had the same attitudes towards the transferability of military expertise and skills to civilian occupations. From the findings, those who believed that military expertise and skills can be positively transferred and applied to civilian works have less difficulty in obtaining jobs. The reverse is true in the L-T group. Both variables were statistically significant.

Although many retirees believed that their military managerial experiences and skills could be transferred and utilized in their civilian jobs, the fact that these military specialisms were not being utilized, did not involve a reassessment of their views on contact with the world of civilian work. However, it is difficult to assess to what extent military expertise and skills can be transferred and utilized in civilian employment. In addition, it is not easy to compare respondents before and after retirement, even if doing identical jobs, and still less so if their jobs are different.

However, in this survey, 52.2% of retirees believed that they could earn more pay by their performance and ability in civilian jobs than in military ones, while 66.6% of retirees believed that they could get more chance to be promoted in civilian sectors than in military organisations. This could imply that over half of the retirees in Groups B and C considered themselves better qualified in civilian employment than in military service, after experiencing civilian jobs.

Those who held higher ranks and reported significant achievement in their military careers were not necessarily more successful in their second careers. Second career jobs held by retired officers showed no significant correlation between civilian income and job satisfaction on the one hand, and success in the military career, on the other. This will continue to be the case if military career success is always measured by military service in the more highly regarded military specialties, rank achieved, educational attainments, and/or subjective perceptions on military career achievement.

Chapter 11: Discussion and Implications

11.1 Introduction

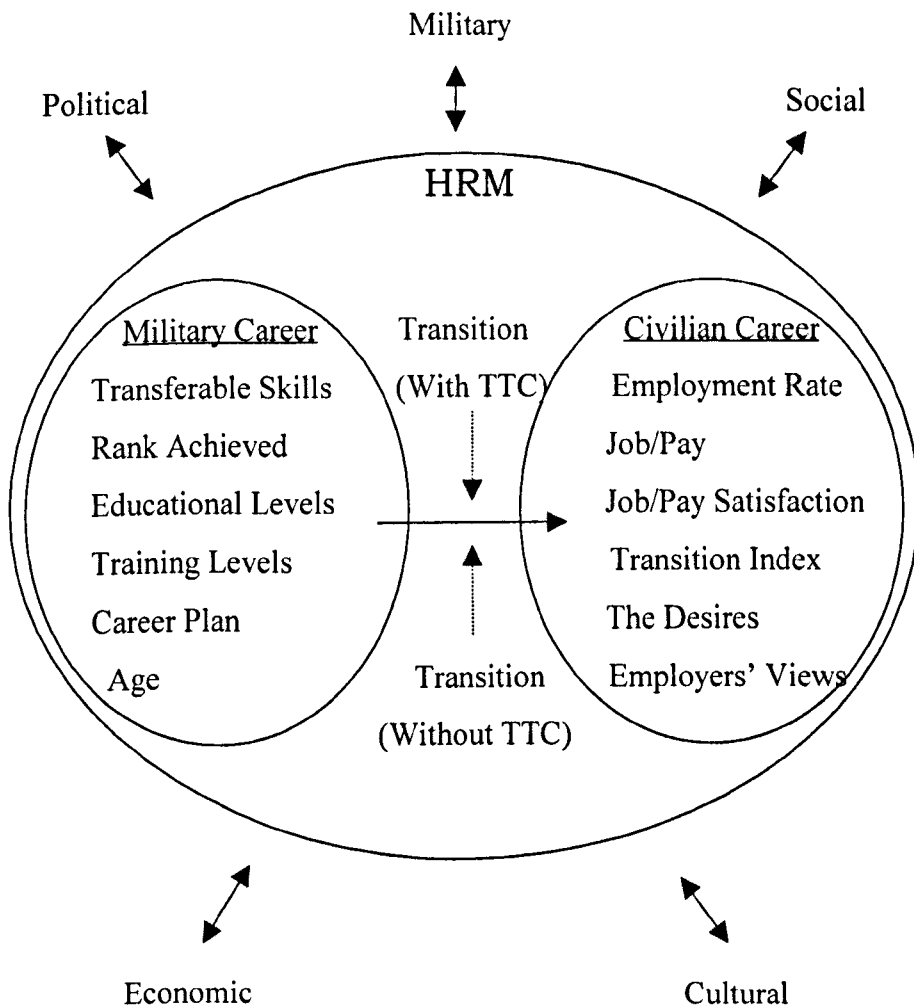
This research has sought to shed light on the problems and issues that have arisen in the area of employment and second career development of retired military officers in Taiwan. The purpose of this study is to determine and confirm basic relationships regarding the transfer and utility of educational attainments, skills and experiences of retired military officers who have subsequently sought employment in civilian sectors on a full-time basis. This research explored a body of empirical data dealing with officers' training and development for a second career based on a questionnaire survey.

The assessment of the existing situation and examination of how retired officers were employed and developed, will provide a basis for improving current policies in relation to retired military personnel, and increasing the efficiency of the transition from military retirement to civilian employment. Thus, considerations about career planning, career development, training and learning, as well as other related issues such as assistance from the government, military, business, and society as a whole, must be taken into account in preparing recommendations and policies for developing and utilizing retired military officers.

As a means of exploring the research issues, this study used the following approaches: First, relevant literature was reviewed and up-to-date information in the field was collected. Secondly, a field study was carried out in Taiwan. Thirdly, responses to questionnaires sent to active and retired officers were analyzed. The questionnaire

responses were used mainly to obtain data on how retirees were employed and developed, their employment situations, level of job satisfaction, and how retirees sought subsequent career success. However, since the research is exploratory in nature, it will undoubtedly serve as a basis for new research. These findings can help to identify the problems facing retired officers, and to develop strategies and policies of human resource to deal with the issues raised. In this chapter, the framework of discussion shown as Figure 11.1 will be used to explore the issues and implications of the research.

Figure 11.1 The Framework of Discussion



The focus of this research was to investigate the career development issues associated with retirement from the military, but also taking into account aspects of both military and business organisations as well as society. These latter dimensions constitute the employment setting, with the consequential impact on officers' careers. This is why the researcher investigated the career development of retirees by using material from several disciplines: sociology (e.g., Miller and Form, 1951), vocational development (e.g., Super, 1957, 1983; Holland, 1985), and psychology (e.g., Schneider and Hall, 1972; Erikson, 1980).

Sociologists' interest in people's work, occupations and second careers is of long standing. In much sociological writing, one finds both implicit and explicit reference to work, occupations and professions. Division of labour is an important notion in occupational sociology (Durkheim, 1947). Weber (1947) explored the understanding of occupations in his emphasis on political, scientific and professional work. Thus, this research focused on the issues of retired officers' work, occupations and second careers from political, sociological, economic, cultural, managerial and military perspectives.

Schein (1984) pointed out that careers apply only to the upper and professional classes. In Taiwan's case, officers' careers in military service, especially at higher ranks with good levels of salary, could be regarded as falling within the broad definition of 'the upper and professional classes'. However, from the research findings, these officers' second careers in civilian society were more like those of the low/middle and non-professional classes (For example, 52.7% of retirees were basic level workers; most retirees were at low employment income, and 75.4% of retirees indicated that employers' acceptance towards them was low. See Figure A.18, Table A.15, Tables

B.27 and B.28).

The aims of the research were described as an attempt to understand something about what retired officers in civilian employment were thinking and feeling as they engaged in the process of seeking a successful second career, and to elicit information on the reasoning behind their actions and treatment, not merely to observe these phenomena as employment evolved.

The research sought data from the parties involved, including officers (active, approaching retirement and retired), and organisations (military, business, unions, government and society), and from macro perspectives (philosophical, sociological, cultural, economic, managerial and military), to build an account of relationship quality. In the context of the present research, where the interacting parties were being drawn from very different backgrounds, it was reasonable to assume that the likelihood of different perceptions in relation to the research topic, 'second careers for military officers', could be significant.

The researcher breaks apart problems and fragments of the world by examining the parts separately from their political, military, business, cultural and social contexts and from one another. Referring to the framework (see Figure 11.1), this research explored the issues related to the retirees' second career development such as: (1) the education, training and career development in military service, as well as its approach to recruitment and retirement, (2) philosophical and cultural perspectives, (3) economic and human resource perspectives, (4) political and social perspectives, (5) human resource management, and (6) the employment situation in business organisations.

The inquiry concerned real people (retired officers), and real events (their transition, employment situations and second careers) in a concrete setting (business and military organisations). The issues and problems that form focus of this research took place within organisational and societal contexts; specifically, among officers for whom the need for subsequent employment arises. Most of all, the research was presented with issues occurring in an existing situation in the military and business organisations, rather than a problem arising from theory. This stance accords with the positivist approach, as discussed in Chapter 2.

The survey area covered overall 23 counties in Taiwan from metropolitan cities to rural areas. The employing organisations of retired officers ranged from business, industry to service sectors, as well as public service and educational settings (see Figure A.18). This approach made it easier to make sense of what was happening to these retired officers and their perceptions and attitudes, as well as those from other involved parties.

It is important that the researcher demonstrated the absence of bias and validity of the research: the data collected and analyzed, the methodology used, and the outcome of the survey itself were natural and neutral, and the findings and conclusions of the research were based upon the results of the statistical analysis.

As has already been seen in this research, in line with the positivist stance, the research sought distance and observational clarity, and took the form of a questionnaire survey for active, retiring and retired officers. Theories and methods characteristic of the functionalist paradigm were used to generate a range of empirical data sets in this field

research. In terms of Burrell and Morgan's (1979) framework, the questionnaire investigation started in the functionalist paradigm.

While the aims of a questionnaire survey are to encourage the respondents to give their free ideas and opinions, and elicit the desired data and facts as results, it is possible that how a question is asked (e.g., whether it is meaningful or ambiguous, or concerns positive feelings), could have profound consequences for the personal response to the questionnaire survey. This has been confirmed through the field research. As a result, once the questionnaire has been tested, amended and sent out the researcher has little control over the completion of the survey. A covering letter explaining the purpose of the questionnaire stressing the need for co-operation and the anonymity of replies was therefore required (see Appendixes C and D). May (1993) argues that unless people have an incentive, either through an interest in the subject which the survey is covering or some other, then response rates will be low and the figure of 40 percent is not uncommon. Interest and incentive in this survey were relatively high, resulting in a 41.1 percent response rate (see Table 9.5).

It was assumed that older retired officers would have more difficulties in finding jobs. In this instance, a questionnaire was devised which measured this orientation to their employment status and the extent to which such attitudes were caused by different ages of the respondents. The parallels with positivism are also evident in the use of theoretical ideas which find their outlet in the survey questions. We can see the results of testing the hypotheses and so confidence in its explanatory potential is enhanced if it confirms the theory. On the other hand, when the research results do not support the theory, then it is subject to rejection.

One of the characteristics of the questionnaires involved the relationships between variables, one example used in this research being that between age and employment status. The questionnaire analysis examined patterns among replies to questions and explored the relations between variables by correlative analysis using the SPSS (see Appendix B).

The questionnaire survey used in this research aimed to measure a number of issues relevant to retired officers' employment situations and to find out their opinions in terms of training, learning and development. Depending upon its aims, the procedures adopted and the number of respondents who answered, generalization can then be made from the sample of the respondents answered to the population as a whole. In order to justify this procedure, the sample was based upon statistical probability theory (see Sections 9.5 and 9.8). By employing such techniques, the researcher was able to ascertain the extent to which the sample in this survey was representative of the wider population. In this research, the questionnaire sought to examine how, for example, the possession of certain characteristics (age, rank, skills, educational level, career plan, etc.) or reaction to particular employment situations.

The findings of the hypothesis tests from this research can be summarized as follows (see Section 10.2):

- (1) Most retired officers intended to make successful second careers.
- (2) Most middle-aged retired officers found it more difficult to find jobs.
- (3) The desire to pursue second career goals correlates positively with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

- (4) Vocational training does not correlate with the subsequent employment status of retiree officers.
- (5) Military rank does not correlate with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.
- (6) Educational attainments do not correlate with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.
- (7) The possession of multiple skills does not correlate with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.
- (8) Having a career plan before retirement does positively correlate with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

This chapter will discuss the following major issues and implications of the findings. The notion of an officer being equivalent to a manager could also be useful explored in the discussion (some tables listed in the following sections, for example, Table B.1 represents Table 1 in Appendix B; Table A.1 as Table 1 in Appendix A).

- (1) Implications for employment opportunity issues
- (2) Implications for HRM:
 - Career management
 - Individual career planning
 - Civilian career changers
- (3) Implications for the military and government
- (4) Implications for business organisations and society
- (5) Economic implications

(6) Philosophical and cultural perspectives

- Field research findings

- New insights between East and West

(7) A model of second career success

11.2 Implications For Employment Opportunity Issues

11.2.1 Transitional Training Course (TTC)

This research has accepted the null hypothesis: vocational training has no correlation with the subsequent employment status of retirees (See Section 10.2). The experiences of Group B who participated in the TTC are broadly the same as those of Group C (without TTC), with regard to obtaining and holding civilian occupations and employment. Considering the generally favourable economic climate prevailing at the time of the survey, and the similarities in background and qualifications of the retirees in the two groups, this is perhaps not unexpected. A high percentage of the members of each of two groups attained employment, and both groups had shared similar distributions of 'transition index' categories. Nor was there any significant difference between them in average income.

Although the retirees viewed past military training and education as unsatisfactory, the findings also revealed that it was irrelevant to their subsequent employment status. Three months of vocational training cannot hope to address all the future needs of retired officers, as demonstrated by the research findings. Thus, an improvement in military education and training to provide officers with transferable skills is likely to be

more important than three months of vocational training immediately before retirement. Legge (1995, p.78) points out that there are two categories of workforce: one undertakes jobs requiring high levels of skills and knowledge, and another one is performing routinized, low skill service jobs. In this research, it was found that most retired officers were in such latter areas of work. As a consequence they could not acquire the skills associated with knowledge in order to achieve appropriate and satisfying work of high status. As Milkovich and Boudreau (1988) argued, "...training activities are the most common and costly methods of achieving human resource objectives" (p.14). However, the research findings suggest that the military provides unsatisfactory training and education for military officers. This seems the main reason why transferable skills, educational levels, military ranks and three-month TTC were found not to be significantly correlated to the subsequent employment status of retirees.

In terms of the limited proportion of officers allowed to attend the TTC programme, General Yu admitted (1995.4.2) that this gave rise to a lot of complaints and dissatisfaction among the 72% of retired Lt. colonels and colonels in this position every year. Moreover, serving officers approaching retirement perceived this problem as one of the uncertainties of their future because of the 'unequal treatment' the military gave to its members. We may also argue that the possible problems of the 'unequal treatment' are not obvious in terms of impact on second career success of retired officers. However, the TTC needs to be reviewed and improved in terms of its content, programme and accommodation. For example, the TTC should accommodate all retired (or retiring) military officers, and the three-month TTC training programmes can be incorporated with the military training programmes provided for the active officers.

11.2.2 Older Age

The research findings (see Section 10.2, pp.271-72) indicated that younger age retirees experienced less difficulty in finding jobs. Age in this context was at the time of the survey. Younger age was found to be significantly associated with greater desire to pursue second career goals. It was also found that the younger age groups were more likely than older respondents to be in their first job. This implies that younger retirees may have an advantage in finding better jobs and pay, or that they simply have not had time to move on yet. On the other hand, retired officers at an older age should be aware that unless they have valuable skills, and/or professional capability, they will need to be more flexible in the job market, compared with younger retirees or younger employees.

Older people are commonly stereotyped as having diminishing cognitive and physical abilities, as being inflexible, unwilling and unable to learn and adapt new ways. Thus, they have been widely discriminated against when seeking employment and when employed (e.g., Dennis, 1988; Waskel, 1991). The claim of Trinder, et al. (1992) is that

“Except where such abilities as muscular strength are of predominant importance, age is not a good discriminator of ability to work; nor of the ability to learn” (p.20).

Coleman and Bond (1990) report little or no decline in memory and learning with age, so older military officers should remain their levels of competency. However, from this research findings, 82% of retirees had encountered some difficulties in finding

employment in a new civilian work environment, and 45.7% respondents expressed 'older age' as one of their major difficulties (see Table A.30). In this study, the question arises: do officers accurately perceive an age barrier? Those who believe that the age barrier was prominent in transition among respondents were of an older age, while age barriers were denied by younger respondents (see Tables B.8 and B.15). As one might expect, these age barriers are most likely to be seen by older retirees. Thus, we may argue that it could be that 'flexibility' is the real issue and that age is seen as a 'question' by younger people - why older people are not more flexible?

There are, however, other possibilities. For example, some retirees who may have passed the age of promotion in the military may be limited by their skills and qualifications in their choice of second career and yet still expect promotion and/or higher pay. In addition, there are limited opportunities for promotion for retired officers in the 'family businesses' that make up a significant part of the economy in Taiwan. This could produce a restriction on their desires to pursue a successful second career. Among active officers (Group D), the lack of work experience in business organisations, rather than age barriers, may to account for the situation.

11.2.3 Jobs and Pay

The findings (see Section A.6 in Appendix A) suggest that most retired military officers seeking civilian positions found a job, although in many cases significantly below the level at which they thought they should be employed. As a result, 52.7% were basic level employees or workers (see Figure A.18). The salary level paid was also a matter of concern among retirees (54.8% were dissatisfied with their pay, Figure A.22).

75.4% of retirees indicated that employers' demonstrated low acceptance of them, while over a quarter of retirees claimed to have been directly discriminated against (see Figures A.24 and A.25). This research also demonstrates that, in addition to a military background, military academic degrees and qualifications were undervalued by civilian society, as it was identified by nearly 30% of respondents (see Table A.30).

Most retirees reported a lower salary in civilian employment than in their military service, which implies that retired officers have some flexibility in the salary and jobs they are willing and can afford to accept, by virtue of their retirement pension or payment. However, compared to the average monthly income in the service and industry sectors, retirees' average monthly total income is slightly higher (see Tables A.11 and A.13). This implies that most retired officers recognize that their post military income is not as low as they thought, given that they also have retirement pension or pay, they might be more satisfied with their 'total' income.

For many retired officers, subsequent employment is of lower security, status and payment than that which obtained in military service, and hence the possibility of dissatisfaction with the employment security and the possibility of having to re-enter the labour market may be increased. Taylor and Walker (1994) reported that older people who gave up work were often forced into not-working and tended to live on much reduced incomes relative to their previous employment. This research demonstrates that older retired officers who didn't want to give up work recognized that they would have to seek employment with a lower position and income than in the military.

As identified in the research findings, 'income and welfare' were listed as fourth in order of importance when looking for a subsequent job (see Table A.25), presumably because most retired officers have a retirement pension. Having financial security eases the transition from the first career to a second career. It is also very likely that retired officers would experience significantly more difficulties in seeking employment without the financial security of a pension. This point has been identified by McGoldrick and Cooper (1980) who studied a group of people who retired from the higher socio-economic groups and found that the most frequently given reason for the decision to retire was that 'the finances were right'.

The important methods of determining pay in business organisations rely on output or skills related to individual work performance. The pay of the individual is tied to certain production and employment criteria. Business organisations emphasize the components of the job and their measurement, the relationship between job and performance, being very different from that in military organisation. Higher-ranking retired officers do not necessarily get higher-paid jobs in business organisations, as the findings suggested (see Hypothesis 5 in Appendix B). Thus, we may claim that a success in the first career does not guarantee a success in subsequent careers.

11.2.4 Skill Transferability

Transferable skills failed to produce any significant correlation with the employment status of retired officers in this research (see Section 10.2, pp.276-77). But this classification of 'transferable' or 'non-transferable' skill was based upon the 'Taiwanese Military Profession Table of the Officer Corps, 1995' in terms of the job titles of

surveyed officers before retirement. For example, a 'personnel officer' in the military is regarded as equivalent to the civilian counterpart, and a 'mechanic officer' who repairs military vehicles is viewed as equivalent to an 'automobile mechanic' or a 'manager' in a car garage.

However, the two professions will be different to some degrees. The position of those who do not have transferable skills, according to this classification table, for example, Special Forces officers, Political Warfare officers, or missile officers, is even more in doubt. However, it is difficult to make a valid assessment of the actual availability of skills transfer, given the necessarily broad job categories, both military and civilian, to which complex job descriptions and job requirements have to be reduced. Job titles alone, are not a sufficiently precise indicator of the nature of work, in either military or civilian context. There are a number of implications from this for the interpretation of this research: (1) a need for more research on skills transfer for retired military personnel in their civilian employment; (2) senior retired officers have gained more generalized skills of management and leadership than technical and specific skills; (3) retired officers' working attitude, managerial experience, methods and ideas, etc. acquired in military service will be required to meet the need of business organisations. More importantly, they need opportunities and time to prove that they have transferable skills and/or they know how to transfer what they have acquired in military service into the civilian employment if they are to become valuable assets to business organisations.

Some of the skills required for the effective career management of one's career can be learned relatively easily, but many require a substantial change in mindset. For example, in the Transitional Training Courses (TTC) undertaken by some respondents in this

study, listening to talks about 'management principles' or 'marketing strategies' in the classroom, does not enable retirees to engage in the learning process. As Hall and Mirvis (1994) put it, to earn a living a person must also learn a living. The increasing pace of behaviour change will increase both the requirements for and the rewards from learning among older retired officers. The requirements for a career change reflect the need for individuals to stay employable in a changing and competitive labour market.

Whereas many officers will leave the military in order to seek civilian employment, many other officers will decide to stay. As a result, the military may wonder whether or not it retains the best quality personnel. However, it is important that the armed forces balance: (1) a rewarding career structure for their personnel, sufficient to retain the most able, and in the meantime, (2) providing a retired human resource from the military able to meet the need and requirement of business organisations.

Taiwan's military services will need to be able to demonstrate that they are providing value to the society. This will encourage the military to provide a first-rate training in skills that are of direct benefit to society once military personnel resettle in civilian careers. An effort should be made both to raise public awareness of the resettlement of retired officers and to ensure that the transferability of skills between military and civilian worlds can be eased through training, learning and development provided by all parties.

11.3 Implications For Human Resource Management

11.3.1 Career Management

The 87.2% employment rate among surveyed retired officers indicates that managerial skills and experience in the military have something valuable to transfer to civilian employment. This perspective is quite different from what Angrist and Krueger (1994) claim that military human capital is useful only to the military and cannot be transferred to the civilian sectors. However, it could be suggested that it could also simply reflect the labour shortage and economic conditions in Taiwan (see further discussion in Section 11.6 'Economic Implications').

The present study concentrates on the process of career transition and looks at the personal change and adjustment undertaken by retired officers as they enter subsequent employment, and identifies the determinants of their search for a successful outcome. A career has been viewed in this research as a sequence of positions, both military and civilian, occupied by an officer during the course of a working lifetime, and as a series of life stages in which different life tasks, work, experiences, roles, and/or cultures are encountered.

It is evident from this research that the two major influences on the subsequent career development of officers are a retired officer's personal characteristics (e.g., attitude, desire and motivation) and environmental experiences (e.g., military and civilian working experiences, career development experiences, and cultural impact). Another component is that the process of second career development is derived from an interaction between these two influences.

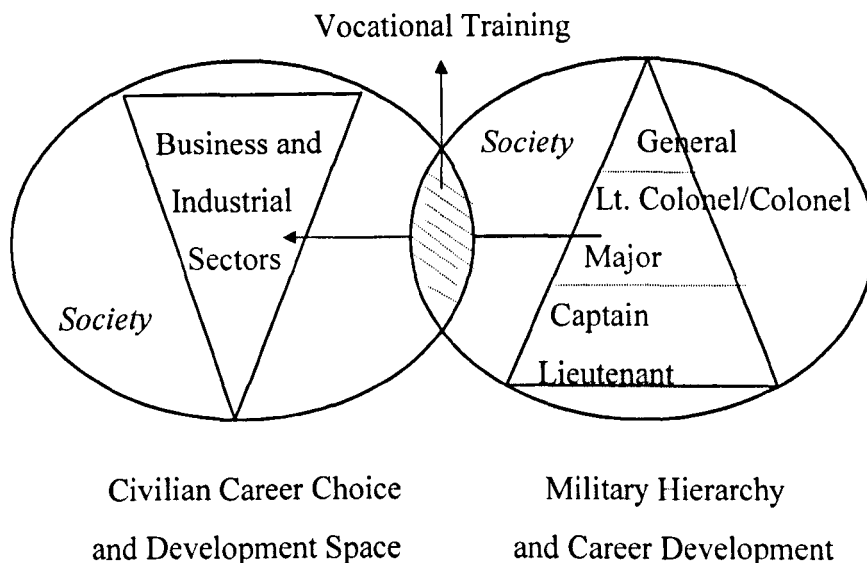
Positivist assumptions about individuals, and the social and economic environment within which retired officers' lives are led and their second careers are developed, give a view of career development in terms of sequential phases or stages. Thus, it may be argued that this career model allows some degrees of prediction to be made about the basic patterns and modes of individual lives. In this research, career development for post-military officers concerns a process of employment-related positions, roles and activities, etc. Over time, this matches retirees' changing skills and interests, and enables them to use and develop their skills, and realize their potential. Individual career development is not complete by the end of first career, but must be understood as a process that spans the entire life course of an officer in military service and in subsequent civilian careers. This 'moving perspective' implies a link between a military officer's initial identity and the final integrity of subsequent employment life. Thus, movement into second careers is regarded as a life cycle transition, as explored in this research.

We may argue that officers have shown, in this survey, not a fixed career pattern but rather different career patterns, such as career-oriented, job-oriented, or mixed, in their first and/or subsequent career stages of employment life. This is somewhat different and complex compared with what Hall (1971), Gould (1979) and London (1983) describe as the difference between a job and career orientation in terms of time perspectives and planned direction. However, in this research we found that some retired officers had a sense of direction with a career plan while others did not have one for subsequent civilian employment. Some retirees have a strong desire to pursue second career goals while some lack ambition to develop their career success. Individual differences tend to determine both the choices of career and subsequent development. Thus, the second

career for a retired officer also reflects an officer's own perceptions on his/her work life which will follow or lead such a career change.

In this research, it is evident that most respondents changed their life structure after retirement by changing jobs and going into different career stages. Officers' careers should be viewed in the context of both present and previous work situations within which careers develop. Furthermore, careers should be viewed dynamically since needs and orientations change over a person's life-span in response to changing personal and organisational circumstances. In general, life structure between the first career in military service and second career in civilian employment should be regarded as career continuity. The second career pattern for military officers is as shown in Figure 11.2 (originally introduced as Figure 1.1):

Figure 11.2 The Second Career Pattern for Military Officers



The military hierarchy provides very limited opportunities in senior positions available for those who are qualified to be promoted within the military organisation. Those who

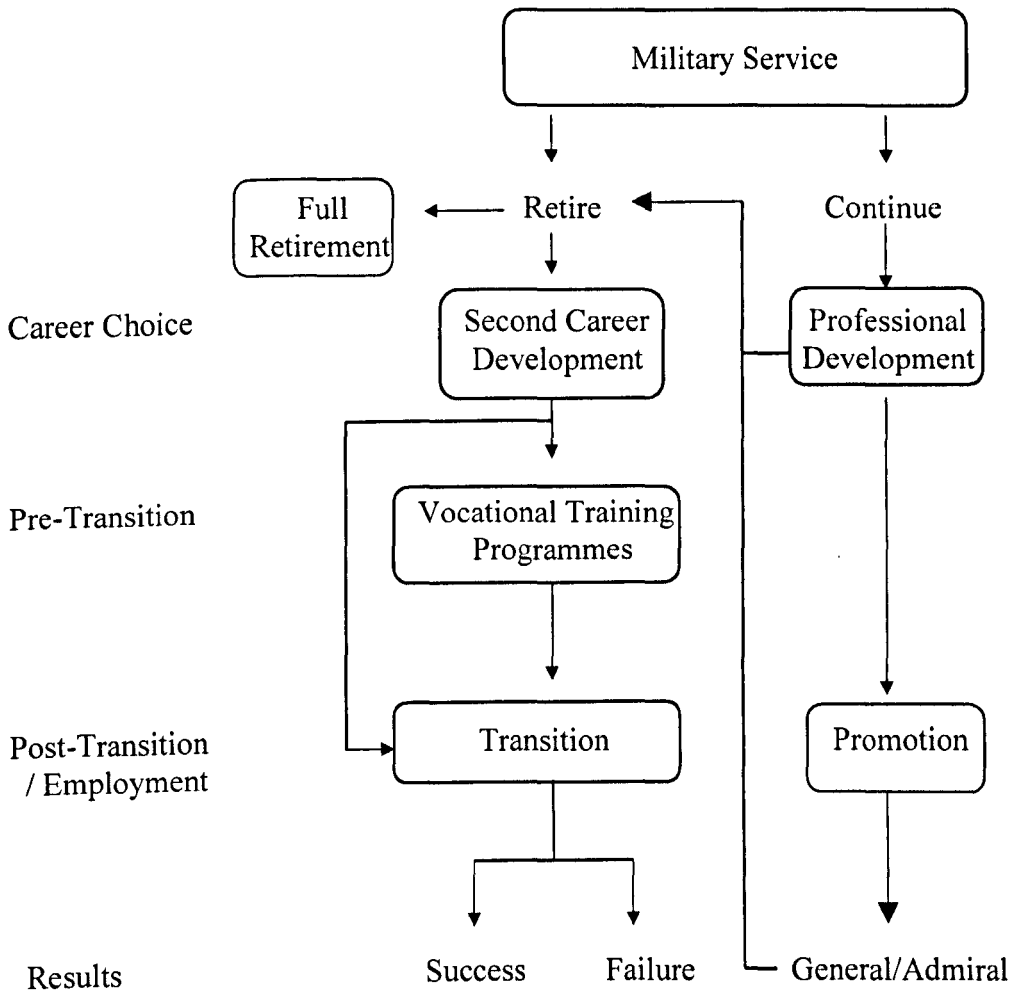
retire from military service may find that there are more opportunities from which they can choose and develop than those are available in military service. For example, choices might be made from managerial, administrative, technical, teaching, business service positions, the manufacturing sector, or public service, etc (see Figure A.18). Work for retired officers can provide a potent influence on both personal adjustment and development in life. Thus, from the research it is manifest that the notion of second career development should not only consider the whole person and the organisation, but also the society for which work and life are being performed.

This research identified a transitional period between retirement from military service and civilian employment. Older retired officers found, in this survey, a more difficult transition than the younger retirees. They found it difficult to fashion a new life structure as they moved from the military into the civilian world. They experienced a separate developmental period that served as a transition between the military life structure and the civilian life structure. In addition, they encountered changes in career and work-role.

Applying the life-span model to retired military officers, it can be said that organisations provide the possibility for them to continue in a role or establish an identity as a competent productive member of society. Those who have reached a major turning point through their mid-career change might be expected to experience difficulty in adjusting their new circumstance and in maintaining a viable place for themselves in a new employing organisation. We may also argue that retired officers who are seeking second careers may differ in their rate of progression through the stage in the process, and in how fast they develop, but all retired officers pass through the same stages in the same order. The process flow of career development for military officers is shown in the

following Figure 11.3 (originally introduced as Figure 7.2):

Figure 11.3 A Process Flow of Career Development For Military Officers



It has been argued in this research, based on the findings, that subsequent unemployment or underemployment among retired officers is related to middle age, skill-specificity, military background, lack of career plan, weak desires to pursue second career success, and/or 'Guan Xi'. From this research, we found that by actively preparing for anticipated changes, the prospective retired officers can reduce the difficulty in obtaining jobs, the level of anxiety, and increase the possibility of successful second career development. Indeed, an officer who had already been engaged

in preparatory activities before retirement and during the process of transition will face fewer difficulties in subsequent adjustment and employment status. Thus, this research suggests that those who change careers in mid-life may be worthy of further study for an enhanced understanding of adult development. Second career processes may be part of different career change models and part of the upheaval associated with the mid-life transition.

Opportunities for employment, the difficulty in seeking employment, learning and training undertaken, or lack of learning and adaptive ability, or cutbacks in training, etc. all influence the employment status and career development of retired military officers. The result of the interaction of these forces may significantly influence the way in which employers relate to veteran-employees, or vice versa. Hence, HRM needs to help these retired officers and combat the problems they face by, for example, providing them with appropriate and timely career development programmes, or improved TTC programmes, as the research suggested.

The analysis in this research also suggests that HRM programmes could help these middle-aged retired officers (see Section 9.4 'Hypotheses') in, at least, three ways: improving (1) military education and training, (2) general vocational training, and (3) career planning. In this research there are at least three categories of HRM activity: (1) within the military (military education and training, vocational training and career planning); (2) transition to civilian life (vocational training and career planning); and (3) post retirement (military education and training, vocational training, career planning and new training updated, etc.). Overall, HRM for officers in the first and subsequent career paths needs to provide an environment in which their capacity to learn, adapt and

develop can be harnessed to benefit both individuals and organisations.

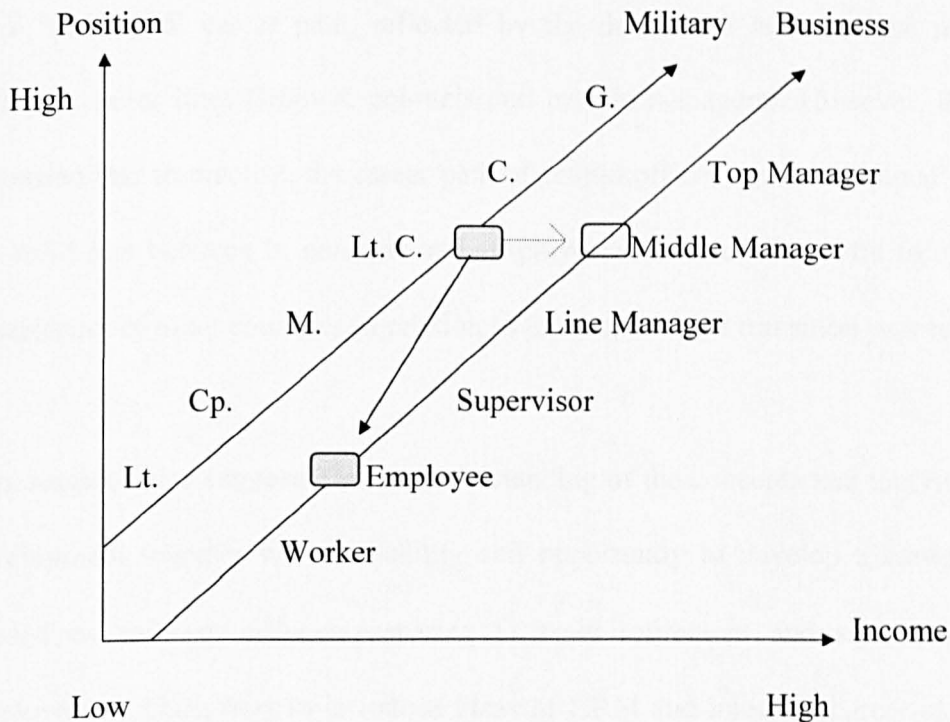
Retired military officers who are seeking civilian employment will go through the different transitional stages as Nicholson (1990) identified preparation (before retirement), encounter (transition), adjustment (early-employment) and stabilization (post-employment). Retirees will need different learning skills at the different stages in order continuously to prepare, change and adjust themselves in the mid-life transition.

Murphy (1977) reviewed the literature in regard to mid-life transition, and concluded that:

“The studies reviewed indicate that mid-life is a time of major change or even crisis in self-concept. It follows, therefore...that at mid-life one’s career may no longer be an accurate expression of that change self-concept and that a change or adjustment may have to be made. The mid-life career development stage is characterized, then, by the theme of a reevaluation of one’s self-concept leading to a readjustment...in one’ s career” (p.110).

We may argue that different expectations and/or requirements exist between officers seeking civilian jobs and employers offering opportunities. For example, high-ranking retired officers failed to find civilian employment at a level appropriate to their educational attainments and their military ranks. This non-parallel career transfer of retirees from the military service to the business employment is reflected in Figure 11.4.

Figure 11.4 Two Parallel Career Development Models



(Lt. Lieutenant; Cp. Captain; M. Major; Lt. C. Lieutenant Colonel;
C. Colonel; G. General)

52.7% of retired officers were assigned to administrative or manual work as basic level employees (see Figure A.18). Retirees' average monthly income from their civilian employment was \$36,062, which was slightly higher than the average monthly income of all employees in the service and industry sectors in Taiwan (see Tables A.10 and A.11). However the pay level of \$36,062 for retired Lt. colonels and colonels was equivalent to the lowest income at the rank of second lieutenant in military service. This reflects a significant drop in job related income (although pension is not included in this figure) and links them to the 'average' in the service sector. This also shows that

perhaps military officers could be overpaid compared to the commercial sectors.

The move from the first career to the second career was identified in this research and shown in Figure 11.4. The expected and desired (by officers themselves) model would be a 'H-Shaped' career path, reflected by the dotted line between the military and business career lines (from Lt. colonels and middle managers). However, the research identified that in practise, the career path of retired officers was 'N-Shaped' (shown by the solid line between Lt. colonels and employees). It would be useful to examine the experiences of other countries in relation to the shape of this transition process.

This research also suggests that an understanding of the concepts and theories of career development together with the ability and opportunity to develop a career plan, are needed by military officers preparing to enter retirement and subsequent civilian employment. Thus, how to introduce ideas of HRM and integrate career planning into military training programmes is necessary and quite important.

Some of the implications arising from this research for the career development activities of retired officers are as follows. First, attempts to achieve a successful second career were very closely linked to the age of retirement in the first career. Opportunities to prepare for second careers and seek a job should be available in the pre-retirement period. Support in dealing with the challenges or difficulties in the transitional and early employment periods should also be available. Second, optimal matches between retired military officers and labour markets can be achieved only if specific provision is made for retirees to match the skills available with appropriate job opportunity in commercial organisations. However, this may be somewhat unpopular because, for example,

considerable retraining costs for both military and commercial organisations are implied, and equally, because of the lack of institutionalized ways to help officers make an effective transition. This may be difficult to achieve in practise because of the limited availability of the resources of training and development from the military and business organisations (especially 'family business'), as identified in this research.

Discriminatory treatment against military retirees and results in fewer second career than would be warranted by actual job performance and merit. This could result in a range of negative consequences such as fewer training opportunities, slower rates of promotion, dead-end positions, unchallenging assignments, and biased attitudes from employers, etc. However, it may also be argued that discrimination against older employees reflects a universal phenomenon (e.g., Naylor, 1987; Greenhaus, et al., 1990; and Waskel, 1991), and is not restricted to military personnel. Taiwan has no laws to prohibit employment discrimination of persons with a military background, regarding access to or terms and conditions of work. However, such discrimination was found in this study. For these retired military officers, and for others in the future, treatment or access discrimination must be addressed or the pervasive employment problems for retired military officers will continue.

With regard to the limited advancement opportunities for retired officers in business organisations (notably in 'family business'), employers should provide access to opportunities for veteran employees equal to those available to civilian employees. As the research found (see Section A.6), 52.7% of high ranking retired officers were assigned to administrative or manual work as basic level employees; 75.4% of retirees believed that the employers' acceptance of them was low, and 26.8% claimed to have

been discriminated against. In addition, 35.9% of employed retirees felt that there was no hope of promotion in their civilian careers. Another example shows that the fifth largest industry in Taiwan, the Far Eastern Textiles Ltd., refused to hire any retired military officers at any rank (this will be discussed later in this chapter). Although over half retired officers were basic level employees or workers, 85% of them showed a strong desire to pursue second career goals. Thus, retirees need to be offered challenging assignments and opportunities for which they are eligible, as the research suggested. The successful completion of challenging assignments appears to be important for career advancement of these retired military officers.

Thus, it is important that employers should,

- (1) base decisions upon qualifications and performance of retired officers, not on assumptions or stereotypes associated with their military background;
- (2) provide reasonable accommodations for retired officers that permit the individual officers to be equally qualified for advancement opportunities; and
- (3) not treat a person with a military background any differently than a civilian person in the same situation.

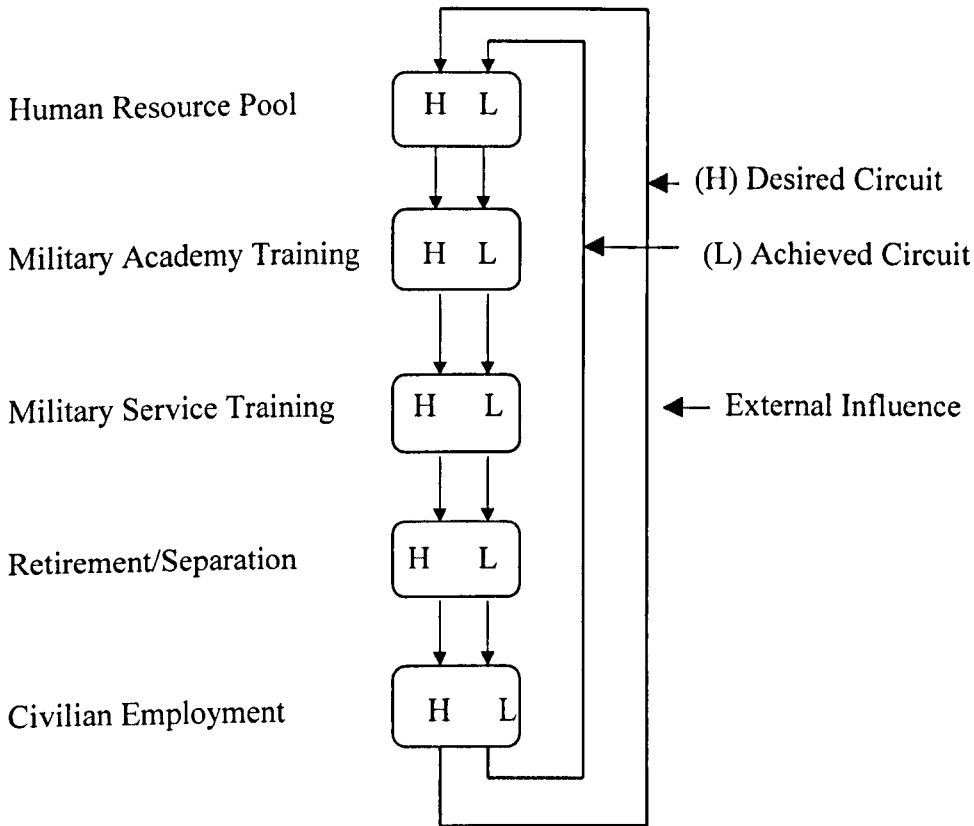
In doing so, the business organisation can create equal treatment and opportunity for all employees in which, veteran-employees may have a fair environment to work and develop their careers. This would also help organisations succeed, as they would be making better, more effective use of the human resource available to them.

Employees with a military background face even greater challenges than other group members in terms of their own feelings of self-worth and competence. In this research, we found that most retirees had encountered difficulties in seeking jobs and in employment. So far, they had retained their aspirations to career advancement, but over time the discriminatory situation may cause self-limiting behaviours. In other words, because of stereotypes, misperceptions from employers, lack of proper accommodation, lack of career plan, and other factors, veteran-employees often do not receive the same outcomes (e.g., promotions, pay increase, training opportunities, and job opportunities) as other employees, and in turn may come to devalue those outcomes and thus not pursue them.

Officers high in the need for achievement are very likely to have a strong belief in their own skills, ability and potential to determine the outcome of their career development based on their own efforts. Although McClelland, et al. (1953) and Rotter (1982) expressed similar views, the relationship does not necessarily have to be linear. For example, great achievement as a colonel in military service does not automatically lead a senior position or higher-paid job in the subsequent civilian employment, as identified in this research.

The following Figure 11.5, it shows the interrelations among the major factors of human resource management for military officers.

Figure 11.5 Human Resource Management In Operation



In Figure 11.5, 'H' represents high quality provision in human resource provision or capability, education and training, resettlement assistance programmes, and civilian employment. At each stage, 'L' represents the opposite meaning. Taiwanese military academies, especially the Army, have recruited their human resources from senior high schools at a relatively low quality and quantity, as discussed in Chapter 4. The research findings also reveal that the military academies offered unsatisfactory education and training for the cadets, and most officers surveyed were concerned about the poor training and learning in military service in which they found it difficult to learn and acquire useful and transferable skills and expertise.

In the absence of such a favourable culture (see Section A.4): 55.8% of respondents were dissatisfied with military education and training; 71.7% believed that the learning environment and opportunity in military service were poor; 93.6% expressed that their senior officers did not care about subordinates' career development while 78.7% did not care about learning, education and training; and 61.8% of retirees did not have career plans. And in the absence of high recognition of military officership and professionalism, any society is likely to develop a military officer corps 'under class'. For example, from this research, 71.7% of retired officers believed that employers had a low or negative perception towards them; 29.5% claimed that their military educational degrees and qualifications were undervalued by civilian employers, and 26.8% claimed that they had been discriminated against; and/or in the absence of a willingness to be concerned about the employment situations of military retirees (discussed in Chapter 4). The research findings suggested that such is the situation in Taiwan.

Consequently, most retired officers did not have career plans and multiple skills to prepare for their subsequent employment and second career development. It is inevitable that these retirees faced difficulty in finding jobs and were assigned to lower jobs and pay in a competitive employment market. In Figure 11.5, the factors in one stage correlate to the other in the next stage, and they may affect each other. Eventually, the whole society would be aware of the impact of any deficiency in human resource management for military officers.

The military faces problems in recruiting new entrants to the officer corps while more officers retire every year than expected (discussed in Chapters 1 and 4). In addition,

most retired officers had experienced difficulty in seeking jobs and were not satisfied with their civilian jobs. In this situation, many of the policies governing recruitment, promotion, development, retirement and resettlement will be called into question. For example, should the examination for enrollment in the military academies be made easier to increase the recruitment rate and to meet the demand of the officer corps? Or, should standardized educational and aptitude requirements be raised to increase recruit quality, regardless of the fact that Taiwanese military has faced a decreased intake of entrants in recent years?

If the military cannot meet its recruitment goals with well-qualified people, efforts should be made to enhance the education, training and development of prospective officers, and to improve military performance of active officers. Furthermore, we may argue that doing so may encourage officers to remain in the military and so increase the retention rate of officers in military service. Equally of course the length of service requirement for officers could simply be extended, so preventing retirement. However, this would not encourage recruitment or high performance once an officer was in post.

It could be argued that improved education and training during military service, given that this covers 20 years or more, could compensate for any shortfall at recruitment level and improve officers' quality. However, judged and observed from the findings of this research, HRM for officers in the Taiwanese military could be classified as the 'L' circuit in this Figure 11.5, so this opportunity is being missed. This HRM model could also be tested against different or similar countries' situations. The researcher will highlight the relations and significance of this 'HRM in Operation' further in the following discussion.

As pointed out in Chapter 5, the world of work is changing drastically in Taiwan. Education and training provision for active and retired military officers needs to expand and improve in order to meet the changing skill requirements of work. But that provision can pay off only if there is a general support for the high quality of training, learning and development for military active and retired officers within the military, business organisations and society.

To overcome the difficulties and challenges posed by second career development of retired military officers, for both the individuals and organisations, involves skill training, career planning, and a supportive mechanism whereby individuals, and both military and business organisations share responsibility for the development path, ensuring that learning and development will benefit all parties. As discussed earlier, there are three categories of HRM activity: (1) within the military; (2) transition to civilian life; and (3) post retirement, which would be useful to provide a framework to ensure this happen effectively.

11.3.2 Individual Career Planning

The changing role of non-military employers in human resource management, their perceptions on the recruitment of retired military officers, and the situational and cultural constraints, mean that each military officer must take major responsibility for, and initiative in, looking after his/her own career. Although the Taiwanese military provides unsatisfactory training and education for officers, the smart person does not wait for organisational human resource systems to deliver what he/she wants. But the rules of HRM have changed significantly, and many people are more on their own than

has been the case in the past. In this research, those who had their own career plans before retirement found less difficulty in obtaining jobs, and greater satisfaction with jobs and pay (see Section 10.2). Kamouri and Cavanaugh (1986) found that people who attended a pre-retirement programme tended to remain satisfied with their retirement for longer than who did not. Thus, career planning is necessary and important for military officers in their first and subsequent career development. The importance of career planning illustrated how the preparation stage before retirement and of the transition cycle can be used to significant effect

Hall (1984, pp.176-181) points out that career development must be part of business planning and strategy at corporate level. However, from the research in this thesis, we may argue that career development must also be part of planning and strategy at the individual level, where it must be the direct and major responsibility of officers themselves, not merely of the senior management.

Some of the implications for what a person should actually do to manage his/her career have been discussed in Chapter 7. If an officer serves in the military, he/she should take advantage of whatever is offered in terms of career management and use it to his/her benefit. Examples include advanced study programmes in civilian universities, foreign languages study programmes, vocational training programmes (provided by government and/or military), and career development plans. Support for career management may also come from other sources, such as professional associations, community groups, local careers/jobs services, local vocational training organisations, libraries, or even computer information networks.

Decisions about what work opportunities to take up should be made in the planning process. It is not only a question of taking a job because one needs it. There are also issues to do with what skills and qualifications retired officers need in order to remain readily employable in the long term, and how retirees can fit their work behaviours and lifestyle into a new civilian work environment.

All these require a perceptive appreciation of current and future employment market trends, and preparation. Retirees should keep asking themselves, 'what skills, qualifications, and/or advantages do I have in looking for a better job?' We discussed 'career success' in Chapter 7, but the external indicators of career success may be elusive, so retired officers should be aware what matters to them and what they regard as constituting satisfactory career achievement.

The questions which military officers, in their preparation for a second career, should ask themselves include:

- (1) Where and when should I start?
- (2) Where should I find a job or better job?
- (3) What are the employers' expectations of me?
- (4) What skills and expertise do I have? and/or
- (5) What skills and expertise do I need?

From the research findings, military officers and the military should prepare for a second career earlier, by:

- (1) Clarifying personal goals, making a plan for civilian employment and second career development before retirement, and then taking actions and making efforts for it in the preparatory and transitional stages;
- (2) Taking every opportunity to learn and acquire multiple, valuable skills over their service periods;
- (3) Acquiring the vocational certificates, higher degrees from civilian university, and/or civil service qualifications;
- (4) Making contact with the job and labour markets, collecting employment information, and establishing interpersonal relations (*'Guan Xi'*) with business sectors, before and after retirement; and
- (5) In the transitional stage, making employers aware that retired officers are well prepared and qualified for civilian jobs, by letting employers know what they are doing, and what working experiences and skills they have acquired in military service, using civilian terms as far as possible.

In the points of (5) this is more of an organisational issue than for individual officers although they also have a part to play.

11.3.3 Civilian Career Practises and Their Parallels with Military Personnel

Retired military officers seeking civilian employment and career development could be of concern and perhaps even a threat to those already working in commercial organisation and who would vie for the same process and positions. While no specific relationships have been drawn between retired military officers and business managers or employees who may undergo mid-life career changes, the generalized experience of

retired military officers may be relevant to some degrees. The desirability of pursuing second career goals and having career development plans, the recognition that it is important to have transferable skills and that time may be required after the change is made before success of second career development can be achieved, and establishing a good '*Guan Xi*' network, may all be relevant to civilian career changers, as well.

Certainly, there are many similarities between the career experiences of military officers and business managers or employees. For example, a common career development pattern for officers is to move to civilian activities of a kind associated with military activities, such as the defence industry. A similar phenomenon exists among business managers or employees who, for example, leave one computer company to join another computer company.

On the other hand, military or civilian career changers may move to careers which are totally different from their original activity. In many cases, military and civilian career changers may have similar and related experiences and for that reason, with appropriate qualifications, the findings in this research may have a significant relationship with the experiences of business managers or employees who may change careers, as retired military officers did, under similar circumstances. This research could also usefully contribute to a further exploration of these links and common themes.

11.4 Implications For the Military and Government

A key issue in this study is the apparent lack of concern among most senior officers for the training, education and career development of their subordinates. The findings (see

Sections A.4 to A.6) revealed the facts that:

- (1) 93.6% of respondents perceived that their senior officers do not care about their subordinates' career development, while 78.7% of senior officers do not care about learning, training and education at all. This is perhaps why:
- (2) 88.5% of respondents claimed that the military did not provide information that would allow officers to develop a career plan, while 94.3% of respondents thought that the military did not offer resettlement and assistance programmes for officers approaching retirement or retired which would help them to develop second career plan, or find a job.
- (3) Retirees' satisfaction with civilian jobs (56.3%) was higher than that of their military jobs (32.2% showing high military career achievement; 42.8% satisfying military training and education). In addition, 85% of retired officers expressed that they have a strong desire to pursue second career success.

Hence, there are some implications here. First, on an organisational level, a lack of concern about training, education and career development may present a leadership problem within the military that may potentially threaten its own effectiveness. Second, if training, education and career development continue at a low level, the military is liable to lose quality officers who are likely to get tired of trying to pursue a successful career in military service.

Third, and perhaps most significantly, if most officers are not satisfied with military training and education, and the programmes for career development and resettlement assistance, they may face difficulty in finding jobs after retirement, and then they may develop a dissatisfaction with the society and/or the country. Moreover, they may feel that they have been abandoned by the military and the society, which in its pursuit of 'a national security' or 'a safeguard of the people', sacrificed job security, career progression, learning opportunity, and quality of life in military service. Such changes in attitudes may result in an increasing alienation of military officers and difficulties for the society it serves. Inevitably, such changes will have an impact on retirees' employment status and their second career development (the interrelations demonstrated in Figure 11.5).

Educational attainments including military training levels were not significantly associated with the subsequent employment status of retirees, as identified in this research (see Section 10.2). This is contrary to the argument that higher educational level is likely to result in better employment and/or work performance. Newell (1988) claimed that workers who have higher educational levels are more likely to contribute to their own self-development. However, the findings of the present research do not support Newell's statement, and the hypothesis in this research. There are several implications here: (1) higher educational levels of military officers do not necessarily create higher capability and performance in their first or subsequent careers; (2) higher educational levels of military officers do not automatically lead to a higher-paid job or senior position in their civilian careers.

As mentioned in Chapter 4, an overwhelming majority of youngsters in Taiwan choose to study in civilian universities/colleges. The military has long experienced problems in recruiting new entrants to the officer corps, and more officers retire every year than the military expected. If youngsters and their parents are aware that retired military officers face employment problems, it will be very likely to deepen the existing problems of recruitment, retention and retirement in the military.

Examining the reasons why officers decided to retire from military service, and their attitudes towards military training and education (see Sections A.4 and A.5), the research found concern voiced by officers that the military was about to violate its 'informal contract' with the officer corps. They felt that this contract, the implicit agreement as to what the military and the officer corps expect from each other, was already severely strained. This feeling is corroborated by the signs of strain uncovered in this study.

In this survey, officers questioned both the military and the military's commitment to help its military retirees during the transition to civilian employment. They also expressed concerns about the equality and fairness of HRM in the face of performance and promotion evaluation. Furthermore, they worried about whether, given the poor training and education in the military, there would be sufficient learning resources available for continued career success either in the military or civilian organisations (see Sections A.6 and A.7).

Additionally, for those leaving the military, whether voluntarily or involuntarily, the military should offer pre-retirement counselling that would provide details of all

retirement and resettlement plans and job information. In addition to financial compensation for those who retired from the military, the military offers only a little assistance in making the transition for them. As identified in this research, transition assistance for retired officers did not consist of programmes such as job counselling, vocational training (available only for 28% of retirees at Lt. colonel and colonel ranks), career planning, and relocation assistance, etc.

In terms of the limited accommodation of the TTC programme, what about the remaining, 72% of retirees at the ranks of Lt. colonel and colonel? And other retirees at the ranks of major and captain every year? It seems that these retired officers are looking for civilian jobs without any institutionalized assistance. As emphasized by Hall (1984), it is essential to ensure that a policy of career development is implemented effectively, and only the top management of the organisation can do that. With a clear organisational policy and assistance, together with individual efforts, retired military officers can make greater progress in their second career development. Active officers would probably view these organisational programmes as a form of compensation for retirees, and their attitudes should be affected by the perceived adequacy of this example of how the military and government, acting as a big family, take care of their service members.

Incentives and transition assistance are significant not only to officers who are leaving the military and to those who choose to stay, but also to those who might join the military in the future. The majority of the respondents to this survey expressed the view that the military provided insufficient assistance for their resettlement and subsequent employment, so policy-makers should be aware of the need to improve resettlement assistance programmes. Active officers who are aware of the adequacy of this assistance,

even though the assistance is for those who are approaching retirement, will be very likely to have a closer bond with the military. More publicity about the value of the transition assistance programmes to both active and retired officers would also be beneficial in terms of commitment and morale.

There is an apparent contradiction between the human resource policy of recruiting and training young people to serve the country as military officers and those HRM policies in relation to their second careers, as presented here. This needs to be resolved if employment access and treatment difficulty at the transition phases, which may eventually lead to the diminishing and downgrading of the officer corps, and its relevance to the national defence strength are to be avoided.

Most respondents expressed in this survey that the Taiwanese military needs to improve not only its human resource policies but also the quality of training and education, if it is to recruit and retain high quality officers. Improved training, education and career development are necessary not only for high retention, but also for efficient HRM of the Taiwanese military. As described earlier, the Taiwanese military needs to address a significant problem in HRM, which is the shortage of manpower in the officer corps.

As the recruitment of officer cadets becomes more difficult, the Taiwanese military should strive to improve the efficiency of its HRM system in order to positively impact on all aspects of its manpower needs. The military should manage to obtain the effect of increasing officers' satisfaction relative to job security, so that the officer corps can serve in the military with high commitment and morale. Only, thus, the military can sustain high levels of combat readiness. In this survey, the majority of the respondents

said that they had decided to leave the military and seek to find a civilian job because of their dissatisfaction with training, education, performance evaluation, and career management in military service (see Sections A.4 and A.5).

In view of the relatively limited funds allocated to support military officers' education, and the relatively low social status of being a military officer, indicated in Chapter 4 and the research findings in Chapter 10, we may not be surprised that most retired and active officers were not satisfied with military education and training. In most cases, little concern was paid to officers' learning needs and career development while they were in military service. The implications of poor training and education, deficient learning environment, and the lack of career development planning in the military are:

- (1) Officers cannot learn and acquire sufficient transferable skills, in addition to the military professional skills, to equip them for other jobs;
- (2) Officers' military qualifications and academic degrees may be undervalued by civilian employers;
- (3) Officers lack ability and opportunity to develop personal career plans while in military service;
- (4) Retirees' civilian jobs and pay may be unsatisfactory;
- (8) Retirees have to struggle to find appropriate jobs, and to cope with employment or unemployment problems by themselves; and
- (9) It is very likely that there will be problems regarding the quality of officership and the demand for an officer corps.
- (10) It will increase underemployment, job dissatisfaction and/or drastic personal/family changes among retirees.

(11) The weakness in officer cadet recruitment will not be overcome through basic or subsequent training.

However, it must be recognized that the major objective of the armed forces is to maintain both a well-trained officer corps and a force to prevent, deter or engage in combat. It is not the purpose of the armed forces to train its long-term personnel for a more effective assumption of civilian employment. On the contrary, undue emphasis on preparation of officers for civilian occupations would be counter-productive to the development of officers for the continuing mission of the armed forces. However, as a result of its negative impact on individuals as identified in this research it is an issue which cannot be ignored.

While many officers have acquired expertise and skills, and generalized managerial skills and leadership through training and education which are transferable to civilian occupations, this is clearly a by-product of the maintenance of competency in the armed forces. However, individual officer's service and performance record is an important prerequisite for promotion in military service, and it should be regarded as a reference for a civilian employer when considering in recruitment or promotion.

And yet, as long as it is necessary to maintain a substantial standing military force, it will continue to be necessary to transfer large numbers of military personnel to civilian occupations in order to maintain a youthful and physically vigorous officer corps. Furthermore, if at any time there is war or a quasi-war situation, such as has occurred between Taiwan and China during past few decades, the situation will be further complicated.

In 1994, the Minister of the Ministry of National Defence (MND), Chiang, Chung-Ling (retired general), had been considering abolition of the TTC programme founded by the former civilian Minister Dr. Cheng in 1992, because Chiang believed that the MND has no obligations to offer such a vocational training for retiring officers (an interview with Major General Yu, 1995. 4. 2). However, this TTC programme remains unchanged at present. This also confirms the research findings that the Taiwanese military, especially the senior leadership, lacks a strong commitment to take long-term care of its members. Perhaps they do not know how to take care of their members, or they are not aware of the importance of training, education and development for the officer corps, or perhaps they do not know what the problems really are. Thus, no one can guarantee how long the TTC, serving only 28% of retired officers, will last in such an organisational culture. Therefore the finding in this research that attendance at the TTC made no significant impact is particularly unfortunate (see Section 10.2). If the TTC is to survive and grow it needs to become much more relevant to the needs of retiring officers and to be able to demonstrate a positive role in the transition process. Hence, the government should set up a legitimated organisation to offer initiatives designed to provide relocation, resettlement and employment assistance for retired military officers, as well as other retired military personnel, and their families, and more importantly, to assist 'all', not just a few, retired military officers to seek an appropriate job. These initiatives would be designed to help officers in their transition from the military retirement to subsequent civilian employment, as well as address the related issues of recruitment, retention and social status.

11.5 Implications For Business Organisations and Society

The failure to find significant effects of veteran status on employment-related actions, despite significant effects on career planning and a desire to pursue second career goals, may be attributable to attitude strength, social constraints, cultural factors and/or situational relevance. The attitude literature (e.g., Fiske and Taylor, 1984), for example, suggests that when attitudes do not predict behaviour it may be because the attitude was weak, or changeable. Situational relevance, cultural and social constraints, such as perceptions or misperceptions towards retired military officers from employers, the social status of being an officer, the existence or lack of organisational support and assistance, or lack or weak of '*Guan Xi*', may also detract from a relationship between these factors and the employment status of retirees.

In this survey, we found that many retired officers were not satisfied with their subsequent jobs and pay, and half of the retirees were assigned to administrative or manual jobs as basic level employees. Among the major reasons for such treatment could be the employers' misperceptions towards these retired officers, and the low social status of being an officer.

The findings suggest that low perceptions towards retired officers are so apparent as to be detected among the retirees who participated in this survey (see Sections A.5 and A.6). Of course, it is not out of the question that actual employment difficulty experienced by retirees could be grounded in valid, job-relevant experiential differences. It is also worth considering whether bias exists only in the minds of retirees. That is, jobs may be hard to come by for middle-aged retirees or civilian employees alike, but

perhaps retirees attribute their lack of success or dissatisfaction to employer bias.

The reception of retired military officers by civilian employers may differ considerably. Some employers have diligently avoided military retirees while others have sought them out. As an example of the former, the Far Eastern Textiles Ltd., the fifth largest company in Taiwan with total annual sales NT\$ 202,870 million in 1994, refused to hire any retired officer at any rank (information from General Yu, 1995.4.2). An example of the latter is the Lien Hwa Ind. Corp. with total sales NT\$ 9,390 million in 1994, who hired 26 retired officers at Lt. colonel and colonel ranks as middle or line managers in their factories between 1992 to 1995 (an interview with the vice manager, Shuai, 1995.5.9). One of the major reasons why these differ so much is due to their senior managers' personal preference towards retired military officers (based upon the interview with Yu and Shuai). However, many writers indicate that older employees are subject to discrimination (e.g., McCauley, 1977; Warr and Pennington, 1993).

Nevertheless, to change society and employers' perceptions towards active or retired military officers from 'negative' to 'positive' is a complicated issue with multiple dimensions. From a sociological point of view, it needs all parties, including the government, society, business and industrial sectors, family, media, education, and the military itself to review and re-evaluate the roles of the officer corps, its military profession, and the relationships among them. This needs to be carried out in the cultural and historical context of Taiwan. It may take a long time for this change to occur.

If the military profession, and officer performance and qualifications were well recognized by and embedded in society, employers would view retired military officers more favourably. In this situation, the military could make it easier to recruit new officer cadets. An officer who has achieved the rank of colonel and completed the highest level of military training at the War College has well demonstrated an excellent performance and ability in military service. He could be a Brigade Commander leading eight hundred soldiers in the Army, or a Captain of a battleship in the Navy, and would have high status in the military. However, these military elites currently fail to find civilian employment at a level commensurate with their education and achievement levels. There are a number of implications of this:

- (1) The lack of subsequent appropriate employment assignments corresponding to an officer educational attainments, rank and achievements raises the possibility that social constraints, situational relevance, cultural factors, training and educational issues should be taken into account in research on second career development of military officers.
- (2) The unemployment, underemployment and second career problems facing retired officers are very likely to affect adversely the morale, motivation and performance of active officers in military service, and discourage young people from joining the officer corps.
- (3) Military professionalism, officers' performance and qualifications are not well recognized and understood by the commercial organisations, as well as the society. Hence, mutual understanding, communication and support, or even co-operation are

important and beneficial for both.

- (4) Those subsequent employers will need to provide training and support for veteran-employees to compensate for the lack of provision provided by the military.

Nevertheless, the high employment rate 87.2% of retirees surveyed in this study may imply that retirees at middle age have something valuable to offer the commercial sectors and general economic development. It seems that perceptions towards older military retirees across society and organisations may be different and even controversial. Middle-aged retired officers may have good experience and leadership qualities, and their capacity to perform jobs may be high if they are given the opportunity and time to demonstrate it. But on the other hand, to assign them to high level posts may disrupt promotion paths inside the organisation, and it may be likely to create ill-feeling among current employees.

However, it could be argued that unemployment or underemployment, which may cause dissatisfaction among retirees, might motivate them to prepare for their transition to civilian employment more thoroughly. From this point of view, unemployment or underemployment represents not necessarily a crisis but rather an opportunity. Sagie and Elizur (1985) believed that past success leads most adults to be satisfied with what they have achieved. Therefore, attitudinal and behavioural changes begin with the premise that dissatisfaction must precede change (Greiner, 1967). However, from this research, judged as a crisis or an opportunity for retirees, second career success depends, to a significant extent, on the level of discrimination and the job opportunities available. Sustained unemployment or poor job opportunities among retired military officers might

also trigger social unrest in extreme circumstances.

In terms of the needs for the training and education of these new veteran-employees, only 53.8% of employing companies were found to offer training and educational resources. This is insufficient to meet the demand from the 91.1% of employed retirees who wish to have such training (see Section A.5). Employers should recognize that meeting veteran-employees' needs for training and education is beneficial for achieving individual and organisational goals, as well as a necessity if the military does not provide it.

This research identified that most retirees were eager to learn and develop in their second careers (see Figures A.16 and A.17). Thus, business organisations should not treat these employees as a controllable cost, but rather an asset to be developed. This should build a foundation upon which the veteran-employees not only work for the company but also 'belong' to the company, as a family.

Whether or not military service provides advantages in subsequent civilian employment depends on at least two factors: the place given to military activities in the social order, and the relationship between military and civilian skills. It seems that Taiwan's society, emphasizing the importance of military strength and efficiency, has to solve the problems of appropriate social status and rewards attached to the professional officer corps. Military elites usually need to be encouraged, developed and contained, and the civilian population must be made safe from its protectors, legitimately supplied with arms and trained in their use. How to prevent retired military officers from becoming a burden or charge on the nation and society, or from a discouraging example for the

active and retiring officers, and future cadets, is an important concern for the whole society in Taiwan.

11.6 Economic Implications

The total military retired personnel at officer, sergeant and soldier levels is about 120,000 to 150,000 every year, including 12,000 retired officers of long-term service (an unpublished report 'An Analysis of Planning and Developing Military Human Resource', the MND, 1996, p.7). If we estimate the employment rate for the total retired military personnel as 90% (based upon 98.6% employment rate in Taiwan in 1995, and 87.2% employment rate for retired officers in this survey), there are a estimated 108,000 to 135,000 people from military service who find employment in the business and industrial sectors every year.

As discussed in Chapter 5, the labour force receives 300,000 entrants every year including graduates from junior and senior high schools, college or university, and retirees from military service. Because 150,000 military retired personnel make up about half of the new labour force in Taiwan every year, their significance and contribution to the human resource development objectives and the overall economic development of Taiwan should not be neglected. This huge labour force serving in the employment market is essential to help increase the performance, production and competitiveness of enterprise and overall economic development in Taiwan.

Furthermore, many middle-aged retired officers have elderly parents to support, and below them their adolescent children who may be of college age or younger. They are

the breadwinners for the whole family, so if they lose, or cannot find, jobs it will strike at the very fabric of society. This is of far greater consequence than the long-standing high levels of unemployment, for example, 6.76% in 1997, among young people under the age of 24 (see Table 5.5). As discussed in Chapter 5, Anita Liu, director of the CEPD, points out that although people aged between 40 to 55 are at the zenith of their physical and mental powers, their family financial burden is also at their heaviest (Sinorama, 1998.6.6).

Retired officers in this research have achieved a high 87.2% employment rate, but in the last three years, the unemployment rate in the 45-49 age group has gone up and up in Taiwan (see Table 5.5). In an economic booming situation with a low unemployment rate, retired officers could gain greater employment status, but less favourable employment status can be achieved in a stagnant economic situation, especially since 1997 to the present (due to mainly Asian financial crisis as discussed in Chapter 5).

However, in this research, we may argue that many retired officers may prefer to say that they were 'not in a hurry to find jobs' rather than admitting to being unemployed. Chinese people in Taiwan would lose 'face' if they admit to their real situation in being unemployed. This leads to the bizarre situation of 'a large percentage of people without work, but very low unemployment figures'. The introduction of unemployment insurance, employment counselling, career planning and vocational training for these retired officers, as well as other civilian people, should enable the government to get a better handle on the nation's real employment and unemployment situations.

One of the implications of Levinson's theory (discussed in Chapter 7) is that optimal matches between retired officers and the labour market can be achieved only if there are job opportunities available for them to change direction in mid-career and perhaps later. This may be difficult because of the poor economic and employment situation in recent years, especially following the Asian financial crisis during 1997 and 1998 (as discussed in Chapter 5).

The government and military have to define and set up an appropriate human resource planning process so that the human resources available from the military can be matched with the demand from the labour market. The matching process means that the government and military have to be aware of human resources in terms of retired personnel numbers, age, location, the skills and expertise they possess, and the demands of the labour and job market.

Business organisations seek to foster long-term employment relations, as indicated in our discussion of recruitment criteria (see Section 5.2.5). In this regard, the business company will expect to lower rates of turnover and mobility of labour, and the cost of training. In this situation, it may become a challenge for retired military officers at middle age to compete with those already in work, and/or those who are at a younger age because, for example, the fixed costs that employers incur in recruiting new employees from outside. This in turn means that it is very likely that such military retirees may face difficulties in obtaining appropriate jobs, and will not be satisfied with their civilian jobs and pay once employed. On the other hand, when the economic situation is booming and the demand for labour rises, employers will be likely to raise the pay level for veteran-employees, and the employment rate of these retirees would be

expected to be high. Perhaps 87.2% the employment rate of retired officers identified in this research is partly a reflection of this economic balance in practise.

The emphasis on skill acquisition results from the fact that employment in professional, technical and managerial positions is increasing in Taiwan along with the demand for specialized skills manifested by the growth of a technology and service-oriented economy (discussed in Chapter 5). It is suggested in this research that there can be no long-term economic development and reduction in unemployment without a significant increase in the training and developing of the huge labour force potential from the military service.

Clearly, the impact of retired military officers on the civilian economy reaches far beyond their numbers in view of the status that many have attained with respect to their civilian occupations. The tax and sales dollars that are required for their job incomes and pensions, the number of dependents, merchants and others who rely on the income generated from retired military officers are all important economically. On the other hand, if most retired officers with middle ages are underemployed or unemployed, it may not only cause social problems, but also impact on the economic development of a country.

Retired officers should be aware that, as the service and industry sectors become the mainstream of the economic structure in Taiwan, the demand for knowledge based workers would increase. The implications of economic changes for retired military officers are:

- (1) There will be a trend away from industrial production towards high technology, service and knowledge sectors;
- (2) White-collar workers will increase;
- (3) Structural unemployment will increase too;
- (4) Employability, multiple and high-valued skills will be of advantage;
- (5) The educational attainments of the labour force will increase; and
- (6) The pursuit of learning and self-development will be increasingly important.

Inevitably, economic and technological changes will affect the skill and educational requirements in the workplace. Thus, how a smart retired officer perceives and positions him/herself in the national economic matrix, and prepares and seeks the best stance for second career development is quite important.

11.7 Philosophical and Cultural Perspectives

11.7.1 Introduction

Chinese culture is also primarily concerned, at the very start of any action, with moral considerations of the consequences of social interactions. The impact of Confucianism is that in social life, people extend greater respect to elders, the better educated, and officials in positions of authority. This is how the cultures of the business and military organisations are formed and developed in Taiwan. The following subsections will explore the research findings in relation to the Chinese culture and vulgar Confucianism.

Also, Western philosophical perspectives will be brought into the picture as appropriate. Along with the functionalist stance, this research focused on general employment situation and career development among retired officers within civilian organisations, and concluded that factors such as age, rank achieved, educational level, skills, military background, vocational training, career plans, desire to achieve career success, job satisfaction, social, political and cultural factors, could all have an influence upon retirees' employment status and career development. This was followed by an empirical study focusing upon specific variables. The methods of analysis adopted in this study were to measure the variables involved and study the statistical correlations.

The summarized findings in Section 10.2 demonstrated the absence of a clear relationship between variables which inevitably led the researcher to focus upon cultural, social and other factors. The attempt to identify and define what constitutes the employment situation and career development has carried with it a need to understand the nature and characteristics of the culture and society in Taiwan.

The research findings contained many insights for culture and HRM, as well as management science in general. The research topic, 'second careers for military officers', has been regarded as '*Li*' as a way of life, pattern of work, process of transition, and change. As we discussed in Chapter 3, 'career' could also be referred to '*Tao*' which is the way of conscientiousness and altruism, and the way of wisdom, love and courage. In order to search for the utmost '*Li*', principle and truth, the researcher investigated the process, progress and sequence through officers' employment lives in military service and subsequent civilian careers which embrace different roles, activities, experiences and meanings encountered by them.

The research identified the relationships between ‘*Qi*, basic material’ (e.g., active, approaching retirement and retired officers, military and business organisations, and jobs), ‘*Li*, principle and truth’ (e.g., employment status, work behaviours, career patterns, ‘*Guan Xi*’, cause and effect), and ‘*Xin*, mind’ (e.g., personal attitude and values, satisfaction with job and pay, desire of career development). All things exist in the dynamic relations of the transitional process and all relations follow a regular pattern and principle according to which the career development and employment status of retired officers are organized. This is particularly evident in the desire to pursue second career success. We see a highly developed self-actualization and self-development among those retired military officers who demonstrate the positive characteristics of military culture, such as aggressiveness, responsibility, honour and bravery.

For the Lu-Wang School, to know the conscious wisdom is to realize it, while for the Cheng-Zhu School, to investigate things in searching for ‘*li*’ is to follow it. According to the research findings in this thesis, to acquire the expertise, experience and skills in military service, and to utilize this in a new civilian work environment are equally important for second career development. However, in Confucianism, to use and utilize people has two different meanings based upon the purpose behind it. People may be used and utilized for the good of the organisation and the whole of society, or alternatively of someone else. Of course, Confucius espoused the former purpose, as suggested in Chapter 3.

In short, the Confucian concepts of the ‘the unity of Being, the unity of Existence, the unity of Life, and the unity of Value’ seem to lead us to perceive what is reality. By using the positivist approach, Confucianism and theory of *Li* Neo-Confucianism, the

reality of second careers for retired military officers becomes a set of interwoven manifestations of a dynamic and relational process.

‘Culture’, like ‘philosophy’, is an elusive and complicated concept to define. Triandis, et al. (1986, p.257) call it “a fuzzy, difficult-to-define construct”, capturing the essence of the problems many have had in trying to definitively explain culture. Culture may be viewed as “those beliefs and values that are widely shared in a specific society at a particular point in time” (Ralston, et al., 1993, p.249).

The researcher discussed the relations between ‘*Guan Xi*’ and HRM in Chapter 5. Compared with their Western counterparts, the Chinese uphold a cultural tradition which focuses more on ‘*Guan Xi*’, which may be among members of a family, within or between organisations, and within society as a whole. Family relations are the most basic and important concept in the whole of the Confucianism. This is in contrast to Western thinking, which focuses more on relations between humankind and the material world.

In essence, this research has sought to observe and measure organisational and individual behaviour patterns, its relations with culture, and the context in which they are set, with a view to examining the relationships between them through the perspectives of Chinese and Western philosophy. The empirical data generated through the field research has permitted a brief, not overall, comparison of Chinese and Western philosophy in which new insights may be created and which will be explored more fully in the following discussion.

11.7.2 In the Military Service

56% of the 295 respondents in this research believed that effective career development depended upon their senior officers while only 14.6% believed that career development was based upon performance and capability, and 14.6% on educational attainments and service records (see Table A.16). This implies that good interpersonal relations (*'Guan Xi'*) with senior officers dominated an officer's promotion and future career in practise, while personal performance and educational attainments are of less importance. Hence, 'senior officers' should be regarded as very important people dominating an officer's career development in the military.

The research findings also reveal that 93.6% respondents expressed that their senior military officers do not care about subordinates' career development, while 78.7% of them do not care about learning, training and education, and furthermore, 70.8% of respondents believed that promotion policy and practise in business are fairer than military ones (see Figures A.5, A.6 and A.31). In such an organisational culture, it is clear that at least in the minds of officers, training, learning and career development are of much less importance in their career development in military service. Because of the prevalence of the value of *'Guan Xi'* among Chinese people and organisations, most officers believed that their career development and promotion are based significantly upon good interpersonal relations with their superiors. Thus fewer efforts were made towards their own training, learning and career development, as this research identified.

As most officers were convinced of the usefulness and effectiveness of *'Guan Xi'* in terms of their career development, it is understandable that the importance of training,

learning and career planning will be less recognized, as the results of this research indicated (see Section A.6). For example, 55.8% of respondents were not satisfied with military education and training; 72.7% believed the learning environment and opportunity in the military were poor; 55.6% complained that personnel policy and practises (promotion and evaluation) were unfair; and 61.8% of retired officers did not have personal career plans while in military service.

However, while the majority of retired officers accused their senior officers of not caring about training, education and career development, they themselves were among these 'senior officers'. From the 'accomplice' perspective, we may argue that they should take the major responsibility for the poor training and education, and their own lack of personal career plans, while they were in military service for such a long time, 20 years or more.

Cheng (1984) maintains that one of the disadvantages of the Chinese philosophy in terms of management practise is that the standard of personal self-development is low. This research confirms this because most retired officers did not make efforts and prepare well for their second career development. This could be explained in part by the greater importance attached to interpersonal relations ('*Guan Xi*') than individual performance and capability, and the low standard of personal self-development. This may imply that individuals emphasize looking after their own interests by pursuing and establishing interpersonal relationships with their superiors, rather than directing personal efforts towards performance and capability, and their career development. In short, from the individual and organisational perspectives, training, learning and career development are not regarded as a significant matter, but interpersonal relations ('*Guan*

Xi') with the senior superiors are something valuable in terms of individual promotion and career success.

There might have other implications in relation to '*Guan Xi*'. For example, the best-qualified person cannot acquire the desired position compared to those who have good interpersonal relations. Thus it could lead the incompetence among leading officers or managers. In order to get promotion, a person who depends on '*Guan Xi*' with superiors will be very likely to 'invest' in building up this relationship. In doing so, corruption or bribery would be the side-effect of '*Guan Xi*'.

11.7.3 In the Employing Company

In total, 46.2% respondents expressed that their companies do not have training and development units and programmes (see Figure A.20). This may imply that 46.2% of all retired officers who were employed in the business companies did not receive any training and development programme.

This research found that 47.1% of employing companies were 'family' companies (see Figure A.19). Among 'family' companies, 50% respondents indicated that their companies that had no training and development programmes, compared to 39.6% of 'non-family' companies who had not such programmes (see Table A.23). This means that 50% of retired officers in total who were working in the 'family' company had no training and development programmes, while 39.6% retirees who were working in 'non-family' companies had the same treatment.

In Taiwan, 90% of all enterprises are run by the family, and 67.9% of all companies hire 1 to 29 employees (The Directorate General of Budget, Accounting and Statistics (DGBAS), 1996.4, Table 22). This may imply that these small enterprises are not likely or able to provide training and development programmes for their employees (including retired officers) because of the limited scale of the organisation and financial constraints.

However, Huang (1990, p.52), in his survey, points out that family-run businesses prefer to use relatives and families as middle and senior staff and managers, and so training and development might be thought less relevant. In his survey, only 68% of total enterprises (family and non-family) had 'human resource planning practices'; 32% did not. There is also the concept of '*Guan Xi*' to take into account in this context.

Typical characteristics of the family-run business are: (1) employment of relatives and families, especial at the middle and senior staff, and management levels; (2) autocratic leadership (Hung, 1984, pp.33-35). From this research, we may add (3) less training and development programmes for employees mainly because of '*Guan Xi*'. The finding that half of the family-run businesses do not have training and development units and programmes can be explained by family businesses, tendency to use and promote their 'own' people as middle or senior staff and managers, without concerning themselves with recruitment, or procedures for recruiting, training and development.

It could be argued that family-run businesses know well what is necessary to effectively use their own family members. In addition, the limited scale of such companies, financial constraints and '*Guan Xi*' could be the major reasons why half of the family-

run businesses in this research have no training and development resources set up for their employees.

According to Hung's (1984) survey it indicates that family-run business does lack a fair personnel policy and system. 'Personal relations' ('*Guan Xi*') and 'face value' dominate management function in relation to aspects of vulgar Confucianism: (1) respect for traditional authority, and (2) strong and complicated relation ties. Non-relatives or non-family employees will find it difficult to get promotion to middle or senior staff or management posts. This difficulty could be even worse for middle-aged retired military officers who are looking for a job and entering the family business. As a result, this research found that (see Section A.6):

- (1) 52.7% of retired officers were assigned to administrative or manual work as basic level employees, hence
- (2) 43.7% of retired officers were not satisfied with civilian jobs;
- (3) 54.8% of retired officers were not satisfied with civilian pay, and
- (5) 35.9% of retired officers felt that there was no hope for promotion in the commercial sectors.

There are, at least, three disadvantages of the Chinese philosophy in terms of management practise, according to Cheng (1984, p.181), (1) there is a lack of team working experience, (2) obedience senior officials, and authoritarianism is deep rooted in people's daily life, and (3) the standard of personal self-achievement is low. However, from this research, we may argue that the 'group emphasis', in Chinese culture, will be manifested in 'family relations', rather than in 'work experience'.

Officers, especially high-ranking officers, in military service have enjoyed power endowed by their ranks and positions. Once they retire, that power vanishes. Cheng (1984) argues that in a Chinese society, people lose independence, self-pride, dignity and freedom of personal thinking if they lose their power. Thus, in this research we can see the changes of status for high-ranking officers, and imbalance between a job seeker (retired officer) without power and an employer with power.

This could imply that a compromise of the power imbalance to be made between them is manifested through the flexibility of high-ranking retired officers who accepted lower jobs and pay temporarily, hoping to gain power and achievements in the future by demonstrating their abilities and performance in the long run, as suggested in this research. This may indicate that a large and growing body of disaffected people might go through a similar process in changing career when leaving the military.

11.7.4 The Comparison Between Retired Officers and Civilian Employees

(1) Self-Perceived Criteria For Seeking Jobs By Retired Officers:

From the findings, we may compare the most appropriate qualifications and skills of retired officers in seeking an ideal job to those of their civilian counterparts. The best qualifications for retired officers to seek an ideal job (Table A.33) compared to the 'recruitment criteria for new employees' (Table 5.7). In this research, retired officers were employed by civilian companies. Thus, comparison between key skills for attaining civilian jobs as perceived by retired officers and for civilian employees as suggested by senior management is important for this research.

Table 11.1 Comparison Between Key Skills for Attaining Civilian Jobs As Perceived by Retired Officers and for Civilian Employees As Suggested by Senior Management

Retired Officers (Table A.33)	Civilian Employees (Table 5.7)
Responsibility 56.2%	Good Working Attitude 37.5%
-----	-----
Loyalty and Enthusiasm 49.7%	Professional Capability 32.4%
-----	-----
Civilian Expertise and Skills 45.1%	Character/Morality 22.1%
-----	-----
Military Management Skills and Experience 45.1%	Educational Attainments 2.3%
-----	-----
Hard Working Attitude 29.4%	Previous Working Experience 2.3%
-----	-----
Good Learning Ability and Attitude 22.2%	Personality 1.0%
-----	-----
Good Adaptability 21.6%	Others 2.4%
-----	-----
(multiple choice)	(single choice)

From the retired officers' perspectives, the strong sense of 'responsibility' is the most important quality in seeking an ideal job. 'Loyalty' towards the employing company and 'enthusiasm' for work are also more important than expertise and skills in seeking an

ideal job. These qualities are inherited from the military professionalism and reflect the ‘Three Spirits’ (Sacrifice, Responsibility and Unification), and the ‘Five Beliefs’ (Principles, Leader, Country, Duty and Honour) that serve to influence and guide military professionals (discussed in Chapter 6). ‘Good working attitude’, ‘professional capability’ and ‘character/morality’ are the three most important criteria that business companies use to recruit new employees.

Although the ‘terms’ in both tables (Tables A.33 and 5.7) above are different, the meaning and implications are not different accordingly. For example, ‘good working attitude’ would be equivalent to ‘hard working attitude’. Chinese words for both terms, ‘敬業態度’ and ‘工作努力’, carry almost the same meaning. Thus, ‘responsibility’, ‘loyalty and enthusiasm’ and ‘hard working attitude’ for retired officers are necessary components associated with ‘good working attitude’ for civilian employees.

Table 11.2 The Most Important Considerations In Looking For An Ideal Job (multiple choice, originally referred to as Table A.25)

Job Nature (can fit with my interests)	60.8%

Good Working Environment	53.6%

That Expertise and Skills	
Can Be Used Effectively	38.6%

Good Income/Welfare Provision	32.7%

Appropriate Working Hours	12.4%

Good Colleagues/Bosses	10.5%

Promotion Opportunities	7.2%

Company Reputation	3.3%

Training Opportunities	2.6%

The most important consideration for retired officers in looking for an ideal job is ‘the job can fit with my interests’ (job nature) which implies ‘a job I like to do’. The second one is a ‘good working environment’ in which retired officers would enjoy working. The first two most important factors are more psychological considerations for retired officers in looking for an ideal job. Military retirees may expect that the company can assign an appropriate job for them so that their managerial experiences and skills can be used and developed efficiently as their third important consideration. ‘Good income and welfare’ is the fourth consideration, probably because retired officers had retirement pensions or pay, so they did not need to put ‘income/welfare’ as their first priority in seeking a job.

From the previous tables and the research findings, retired officers did not understand business careers and job requirements, and did not make a career plan and take some actions before retirement for subsequent careers, as a result of the mismatch in perceptions towards the business needs. This also reinforces the need for good preparation activities, vocational training and career development planning for the transfer process.

From Table 5.10, employees with college/university degrees were rated as poor in ‘coping with difficulty’ and ‘hard working attitude’, while most companies considered ‘good working attitude’ as the most important factor in recruiting employees (see Table 5.7). Thus, the strong sense of ‘responsibility’ and ‘loyalty and enthusiasm’ in working attitude, plus ‘managerial skills and expertise’ (see Table A.33) among retired military officers, should meet civilian companies’ main needs, as their advantages in seeking second careers.

(2) Job Search Methods By Retired Officers:

In this research, retired officers in Groups B and C were already working in the civilian companies. Hence, it is important to find out how they looked for their jobs, and then compare them with civilian employees as follows:

Table 11.3 Job Search Methods Among Retired Officers: Group B and C (originally referred to as Tables A.34 and A.35)

	Group B	Group C
Friend/Family/Relative	32.9%	44.1%
Advertisement in Newspaper	25.0%	10.3%
By Yourself	7.9%	8.8%
Recommended by Unions	28.9%	5.9%
Civil Service Examination	-	7.4%
Public Job Agency	1.3%	2.9%
Private Job Agency	-	1.5%
Others	3.9%	19.1%

Retired officers in Group B were recommended for a job interview by the commercial and industrial unions after attending the TTC programme, but as Table 11.3 shows, we found that even more retirees (32.9%) were helped in looking for a job by their friends, family or relatives. Similarly, in Group C, the main sources of jobs were friends, family or relatives. Retirees in Group C did not join any vocational training programmes. These results indicate that interpersonal relations (*'Guan Xi'*) were regarded as the most useful method to find jobs for retired military officers. This may imply that 'interpersonal relations' used in searching for jobs are much more important and practical than self-recommendation or personal working experience and capability. It also shows general similarities between the two groups and reinforces the view that the TTC does not deliver real benefits and needs to be reviewed.

In Table 5.11, 'income', 'job security' and 'welfare' are the three most important considerations for civilian employees in looking for an ideal job, whereas this study found that for retired officers the important considerations were: 'job nature', 'good working environment' and 'that expertise and skills can be used effectively'. The middle-aged retired officers place more emphasis on a pleasant job and good work environment, and their skills and ability being well used and recognized by the employers. 'Good income and welfare provision' are the fourth place for retired officers in looking for an ideal job. This implies that with financial security retirees' considerations in seeking jobs are quite different from those civilian employees.

From the research findings in Chapter 10 and Table 11.1, military officers might have the traditional and important qualities that business organisations should be searching for, and the high income to which the young people should be attracted. However, the research found that most retired officers experienced some difficulties in finding jobs,

and were assigned to administrative or manual tasks as employees and workers, and were not satisfied with their jobs and pay, because of, old age, military background, lack of transferable skills, low social status, discrimination or misperceptions from employers, lack of self-development efforts on their own part, or disadvantaged '*Guan Xi*'. In this research, retired officers using '*Guan Xi*' in attaining jobs or positions has advantaged and disadvantaged perspectives. This research confirms a long-standing tendency in Taiwanese society to accord low status to military officers, and the prevalence of '*Guan Xi*', which seems to military officers to offset any advantages gained from training, education and development in the military. However, it needs further research to explore the implications on its impact of second career for retired officers.

The military itself has faced serious problems in recruiting young people to join the officer corps, and to retain the best personnel (discussed in Chapters 4 and 10). This could result from (1) the lack of a fair and sound career management and planning for these professional officers, and (2) lack of awareness of the disadvantages facing such personnel in an organisational culture, such as '*Guan Xi*', and/or a low standard of self-development, as this research suggested.

However, this research indicates that the more valuable skills and professional ability one has, the less one depends upon '*Guan Xi*'. Tables 11.3 show that 67.1% of retired officers in Group B found their jobs by means other than '*Guan Xi*', compared to 55.9% in Group C. They applied for civilian jobs with their own qualifications through advertisement, unions, job agency or self-recommendation, etc. This could indicate that these retired officers do not have, or do not want to depend on, 'interpersonal relations'

in looking for a job. As Table 11.1 clearly indicates, 'good working attitudes', 'professional capability' and 'character/morality' were the most important criteria for recruiting new employees by top 1,000 companies in Taiwan in 1996, while 'interpersonal relations' ('*Guan Xi*') was not regarded explicitly as a criterion.

'*Guan Xi*' among Chinese people, as discussed in Chapter 5, is a cultural and sophisticated term, used it in an implicit and indirect way. The thinking seems to be, 'people use it but cannot speak out about it', especially in terms of managerial activity. For example, if a CEO appoints a family member to a senior staff or management position, this fact will be kept secret and not publicized in the company. Similarly, if a retired officer used '*Guan Xi*' to get a job, they will not tell anyone in the company. If the use of '*Guan Xi*' is exposed, the people involved may lose 'face'. Thus, the survey design (as shown in Table 5.13) would not have listed '*Guan Xi*' as one of the possible criteria answered by the 1,000 companies. In such a questionnaire design in a Chinese society, like Taiwan, no one would ask or answer questions directed towards the existence for use of '*Guan Xi*'. This is why in this questionnaire survey, an indirect question: "Are you searching for jobs through 'friend, family or relative'?" (instead of by '*Guan Xi*'), was used to illicit a more meaningful response. However, using '*Guan Xi*' in searching for jobs will be regarded as the most important method for retired military officers, based on its general significance in Chinese culture.

In this research (see Sections A.4 to A.6), while 92.2% of all respondents believed that it was very important to have a career plan, 61.8% of them did not have one. Similarly, while 98.6% of all respondents believed that it was very important to acquire transferable skills whilst in military service, nearly half of the retirees (48.4%) had not

done so. The value of transferable skills was reinforced among employed officers, where 50.5% retirees viewed the lack of them as their major difficulty in finding a job. Thus, 'words more than actions' may be characterized as one of components of the military culture in Taiwan.

However, in this study, possession or non-possession of multiple skills was not found to be significantly associated with employment status (see Section 10.2). The retirees who had multiple skills were no different in employment status than those who had not. This implies that these multiple skills have little occupational value in terms of getting better jobs and pay. It seems that these multiple skills acquired by these surveyed groups of officers in military service, such as managerial experience and leadership, may be too general, for business organisations. It is the transferability of particular skills that one of importance in achieving second career success.

From a cultural perspective, most officers 'know' that career planning, and learning multiple skills are most important for second career success, but failed to act accordingly. Another finding was that most officers (active, retiring and retired) attributed the provision of poor training, education and career development within the military to their senior officers and the military organisation. However, they themselves were high-ranking officers, leading in the military service, who are and should be responsible for the quality of training, education and career development provided for themselves and more junior officers.

In such a military culture, it seems that officers do not need, or are not willing, to learn more skills and expertise, as suggested in this research. Part of the reasons could be that

no matter whether they learn or not, or how much work they do everyday, every officer at the same rank level receives the same payment, and generally, officers have security of tenure until retirement, and also '*Guan Xi*' influences promotion and positioning to some extent. Interestingly, in the business organisational culture, 86.9% of employed officers expressed that they 'can' learn more skills and expertise, because 92.1% believed that if their performance and capability were poor, they could easily be fired, as the research identified (see Section A.7). So the perception and attitudes of retired officers can be changed.

Generally speaking, this research suggests that the poor quality of education and training in military academies and the length of active service are unlikely to produce officers with a high quality of knowledge, skills and performance. We may justify this assumption by the fact that most surveyed officers do not have, or do not know how to make, career plans and were strongly critical of existing provision within the military. This may also imply that they lack the knowledge and managerial ability to make a career plan and then take appropriate actions before entering civilian employment. Conversely it may also be argued that they might have been capable of making a career plan, but simply failed to do so. This is another issue that would benefit from further research.

The research found that officers did not prepare themselves well by taking appropriate actions and making plans for civilian employment either before or after retirement. If during active military service over some 20 years, officers did not, or could not, acquire valuable transferable skills, how can a three-month TTC programme just before retirement to create any substantial changes for these officers? In terms of the

unsatisfactory employment status of most retired officers in this research, it could be argued that except for themselves, who else could be blamed? This of course raises the fundamental question about the relative responsibilities of the key stakeholders to provide for an effective transfer to civilian employment and life for military officers.

In addition, retired officers did not learn and acquire useful and valuable skills, and were not aware of collecting and analyzing the information of job and labor markets, while in such a long military service. Thus, they failed to achieve a successful transition and satisfactory civilian employment. Lack of methods, steps, plans and actions for officers' career development, and lack of concern about individual training, learning and development from both military and business organisations, and the society, are disadvantages arising from the prevalence of Chinese philosophy and culture in Taiwan.

11.7.5 New Insights Between East and West

This section considers the implications of Taiwanese culture and management which distinguish them from many of those in Western countries. We will discuss further how these have affected officers' subsequent employment and career development after retirement, within this research context. However, a comprehensive comparative analysis of philosophy and culture between East and West is beyond the scope of this research.

From the Western and Confucian perspectives, as a Taiwanese begins to shift his/her focus from traditional Confucian learning to the maximization of economic profit, he/she can unleash tremendous energy. The research findings indicate that 32.9% in

Group B and 44.1% in Group C used the '*Guan Xi*' approach to apply for a job (see Table 11.3). In addition, 90% of all enterprises are owned and run by a family (see Section 11.7.3). Taiwanese people will not only maximize their own inner energy but also try to mobilize their '*Guan Xi*' among company members, family, relatives and trusted friends. This collective strength provides a comparative advantage for retired officers within businesses or society in seeking to develop their careers, or in competing with their counterparts. It also provides an advantage for business in competing with others, particularly from Western countries.

Hamilton (1989) called the Chinese type of capitalism in Taiwan, '*Guan Xi* capitalism'. It is crucial to point out that '*Guan Xi*' is extremely important not only in business ownership and management (Peng, H.J., 1989), but also, from this research, in personal career development. However, if we want to understand the career development and employment situations of retired military officers, then we must understand the underlying mechanism that allows the interpersonal relationships to work. In this research, it has been identified that '*Guan Xi*' is one of the key mechanisms upon which career and employment are based (see Sections 5.3 and 11.7). Without understanding these values and the processes associated with them, that have come out Confucian tradition, an adequate analysis of second career development of retired officers is impossible.

The East Asian alternative has attained particular sharpness within the frantic economic success of certain economies, though most Asian countries suffered in the economic crisis that began late of 1997 (as discussed in Chapter 5). A culturally based explanation of that success has been termed the 'Post-Confucian Hypotheses' (Kahn,

1979; Hofstede and Bond, 1988, 1990; Bond and Hofstede, 1989; Redding, 1990; Hofstede, 1994) which asserts that values associated with a common Confucian heritage have facilitated effective economic action on the part of the peoples in the East Asian regional of these economies. Such work reflects expanded interest in the relationships between cultural values and economic behaviour in the East Asian context and repositions the old arguments on the contribution of traditional (non-Western) values to economic development and modernization. In this research, we identified that cultural factors, such as '*Guan Xi*', 'family-run businesses', 'lack of appropriate training and development', 'words more than actions', etc. in the military and business organisations impact, positively or negatively, on the success of second careers for retired military officers.

Hofstede (1980) in his book '*Culture's Consequences*' studied the relations between culture and organisation across a large number of countries including Taiwan, Hong Kong and Singapore. He maintained that the relations between individuals and the organisation were based upon moral relations. Individuals of these countries expected the organisation to provide care and support for them, creating the environment of a large family. Therefore, the loyalty and responsibility shown by individuals towards the organisation depend on the way that the organisation treats its members.

Tight social networks in which members identify closely with their organisations characterize collectivist cultures (Hofstede, 1980). The needs of the organisation heavily influence the individual's private life and choice of friends. Membership also serves as an ideal relationship. The organisation or community to which the individual belongs determines his/her notions of social order. A high premium is placed on group loyalty,

and this may be valued above efficiency by both members and the group (organisation).

Individualist cultures control and motivate their members by internal pressures, by inducing guilt and developing opportunities for self-achievement. Collectivist cultures exert control through shame at stepping outside group norms and motivated by pride in the group's achievement (Benedict, 1974).

According to the Hofstede (1980) classification, the Anglo countries rank among the most individualist, whereas Pakistan and Central and South American countries including Guatemala, Equador and Panama rank among the most collectivist. Taiwan demonstrates collectivists industrial values which are being modified under the pressure of radical economic growth.

As Hofstede (1983) recognizes, questionnaire respondents represent

“...an extremely narrow and specific sample of their countries' populations. They belong to the middle class of their society rather than to the upper, working, or peasant class” (pp.55-56).

In addition, the questionnaire respondents were all members of single multinational, and a single industry. Hofstede's research demonstrated that management values are not the same across the world. A policy appropriate to one culture may be quite inappropriate if applied to another. Thus, by comparing the Chinese social system with Western ones as discussed in this research, it can be argued that Chinese society is neither individualist nor collectivist, but 'relationalist' (*'Guan Xinist'*). This perspective is different from

Hofstede's (1980) classification of Taiwan as 'collectivist'. As most Taiwanese family businesses are small and managed by core family members, they are heavily dependent on business opportunities and credit lines provided by their relationships networks. Therefore as already indicated.

Although the term 'bureaucracy' has come to have negative connotations, Weber and other early sociologists used it in a neutral sense to describe how modern organisations operate. And it seems that no organisation can work efficiently without some bureaucratic division of labour, responsibilities and cultural dimensions. Personnel bureaucracies occur in collectivist cultures where power distances are wide, and Hofstede (1984) relates them to the Oriental family. However, from this research, both military and business organisations are typically built around a strong leader, as a family head, who controls by direct supervision. Authority is associated with the individual rather than with their rank or the organisation. This is demonstrated by the research finding that the most important determinant of a successful career development for active and retired military officers lies with their superiors and the interpersonal relationships ('*Guan Xi*') with them.

People living in Taiwan have enjoyed a free market and capitalist economic system since 1950s. The Taiwanese management systems in business and military organisations have three major sources of influence. The first is Confucianism, which was the major philosophy of Taiwan for more than three hundred years (since Taiwan was first populated). The profound influence of Confucianism on the values, attitude and behavioural patterns of the Taiwanese people has naturally spilled over to the management systems within the country.

The second and third sources, Japanese and American influences, are more recent. Comparatively speaking, Japanese influence on Taiwan's management style came earlier than the American influence, as Taiwan was a Japanese colony from 1895 to 1945. After the Korean War in 1950, the American influences outweighed that of the Japanese, as American military and economic aid helped development in Taiwan. Since then, many Taiwanese companies have developed close business ties with America, as did the military. Taiwan depends on the United States as the key market for its exports while relying on Japan as a source of manufacturing equipment needed to produce those exports. Taiwan's military weapons, organisation and personnel systems originate in America. Based upon these three sources of influence and Taiwan's own historical traditions and experiences, both business and military organisations have developed their own approaches to management.

From the research findings, many retired officers were employed by family business firms, and in early Section 11.5, we discussed the implications for business organisation. Taiwanese family businesses, consisting of informal networks based on *ad hoc* arrangement, joint ventures, financial assistance, etc., do not constitute the primary units of economic action. They are more accurately regarded as informal coalitions of partnerships than authoritatively integrated managerial hierarchies (Hamilton, et al., 1990). Because each family business retains considerable freedom of action and remains the primary locus of authoritative decision-making and control within Taiwan, it is the family firm that functions as the dominant economic agent there, rather than the business group (Huang, 1990).

The importance of the highly personal, particularistic and diffuse ties between family firms in Taiwan, and other Chinese business communities, demonstrates the variable nature of market relationships and the limited generality of the Anglo-Saxon model of firms and markets (Futatsugi, 1986). The distinctive characteristics of the Taiwanese family business developed from, and continue to be effective in, particular institutional environment. The relatively high level of ethnic and cultural homogeneity within Taiwan has generated strongly distinctive types of management system which can be directly related to particular institutional features of a nation.

The spirit of capitalism that Weber (Gerth, 1968; Andreski, 1983) identified with the characteristics of individualism, mastery over the world, *laissez-faire* economy and market mechanism, and the quest for specialized knowledge all represent a type of capitalism. This one type has proved useful in the formation of capital in the West. The Protestant ethic views the individual as an isolated entity and as a force reshaping society, while the Confucian ethic regards the self as the centre of a network of human relationships. This forms a sharp contrast to the notion of the individual as an isolated entity that should sever all roots and ties in order to promote independence. From this research, individual officer him/herself is a relation centre, realizing its dignity by taking advantage of human interaction as Confucianism advocates personal relationship as the centre of social harmony.

Tu (1984) believed that the Protestant ethic is highly rights-conscious; the individual is keenly aware of his/her rights within a given legal framework, knowing full-well where his/her self-interests lie, should a defence be necessary. The Confucian ethic, by contrast, has a strong sense of duty. A Confucian person should first and foremost know his/her

social responsibilities and duties. He/she should be group or family oriented, and is not encouraged to ask for his/her own rights. If a person fails to do his/her social duty, he/she will be criticized by others in the community. This could be one of the reasons why, in this research, active, retiring and retired officers did not, or were not willing to, claim their rights to have better or appropriate training and career development programmes from military or business organisations, or ask for these organisations to improve it.

Anyone who has had experience in dealing with the Chinese could hardly fail to observe that Chinese people attach great importance to cultivating, maintaining and developing '*Guan Xi*'. It is kind of social exchange that involves friendly interpersonal relationships with a continued exchange of favours (as discussed in Section 5.3). The central goal of Confucianism is to achieve social harmony, which depends not only on the maintenance of interpersonal relationships among individuals but also on the protection of an individual's 'face' (identity). Without the premise of good '*Guan Xi*' networks, a person like a military officer is unlikely to achieve his/her first or subsequent career success, as this research demonstrated.

The family business is the kind of organisation adopted by the Taiwanese enterprise in their vigorous entrepreneurial pursuit of wealth. The Chinese, known for their hard working ethic, maintain close family ties and through networking dynamics have prospered in the booming economies of Taiwan. Their competitive edge lies in their ability to forge sophisticated business and personal relations, and maintain a high degree of flexibility, allowing them to transcend the limits of small organisation size.

While the significance of family membership and kinship organisation is particularly marked in the case of the Taiwanese family business, it is much greater in the societies of Japan, Korea and China than in Western ones and has limited the spread of individualism (Vogel, 1987). The importance of the family in the developing East Asian societies has encouraged managers and owners to harness this connection of hierarchy and obedience to buttress their own authority to a greater extent than in most Western forms of paternalism.

These features of Confucianism have also meant that many long-term relationships between people in Taiwan are organized in kinship and family-like ways, often around obedience and deference, and based on interpersonal relationships. Interest groups, such as occupational and/or professional groups, are not easily established. Understandably, the Western emphasis on individual rights and duties, and personal growth and career development, has not developed to a notable extent in Taiwanese society, as the research demonstrated clearly. For example, 72% of retired Lt. colonels and colonels have no rights to receive the TTC programmes; 61.8% of retired officers did not have career plans before retirement; 47.1% of employing companies were 'family' companies and 46.2% of all retired officers who were employed in the business companies did not receive any training and development programme. 56% of the 295 respondents in this research believed that effective career development depended upon their senior officers ('*Guan Xi*') while only 14.6% believed that career development was based upon personal performance and capability (see Sections 11.7.2 and 11.7.3).

Due to the lack of structure and rules, the authority and responsibility of each position in the family business are not clearly defined. Given the family ownership, the

organisational and personal goals of key managers from the family are identical, thus providing for strong motivations to achieve organisational goals. Effective control over employees is retained at the top of family organisation. However, it may be argued that family business tends to limit the creativity and talents of veteran-employees, or other lower level of managers, who are not closely associated with the family.

The prominent features of the family business are the inability to separate power from ownership, its small size, its simple and informal structure, and authoritarian leadership and control mechanisms. It can be argued that these features will negatively impact on the management training and development adopted within family organisations. For example, from this research, half of the family organisations surveyed had no training and development programmes available for either their veteran-employees or other employees (see Table A.23).

Hence, many Western managerial techniques in the area of HRM may be very difficult to transfer to the context of the family business. Examples such as the notion of personal career development, training, self-actualization, and individual competitiveness. These notions clash with the prevalent perceptions and feelings about 'interpersonal relationships' (*Guan Xi*) in both business and military organisations in Taiwan, as the findings of this research identified. Taiwanese management is a subtle art of weaving and balancing relationship networks. Individually measured performance is hardly a major concern in assessment unless it takes place, in a family business, for example. Similarly, personal career development focusing on individual growth and performance in the Western society does not receive proper attention in Taiwan. As this research identified, both military and business organisations did not place great emphasis on

employee's training and development (see Sections A.4 to A.6). The lack of training and development for civilian employees and military officers, however, is not in conformity with traditional Confucian cultural values, which attach great importance to education.

This may be because of Confucian values of education are seen as exemplified in the school education systems. Once students graduate from school and enter the employment market, the employing organisation believes that these graduates have already finished 'education', and they should do their jobs and make profit for the organisation. Thus, training, education and development for employees are considered unnecessary, or less important for most Taiwanese business organisations, especially the family ones.

However, the lack of an objective assessment mechanism enhances the role of personalism. To reduce uncertainty and unpredictability, civilian employees and military officers tend to spend a great deal of time developing their 'interpersonal relations' within the organisations. Subsequently, informal sub-organisations (or '*Guan Xi*' groups) become very important. However, it may be argued that various factions tend to rival each other within the larger organisation. Thus, Confucian emphasis on social harmony conceals the internal problems within the organisation. From this research, we identified the existence of '*Guan Xi*' networks, family core membership, and discrimination against military retirees.

Fukuyama (1995) recognized that the network organisation as a community based on reciprocal moral obligation is full developed in, for example, Taiwan, Japan and Hong Kong. He said that "Chinese societies like Taiwan and Hong Kong have family-based

network organisations” (p.197). From his perspectives, Taiwan is regarded as one of the ‘high-trust’ societies. Thus, trust and loyalty are the key factors among the family core members.

The trust and loyalty that the family business seeks to build is difficult to accomplish. Non-family members, like veteran-employees, often feel as if they are outsiders, and thus have a low degree of loyalty and a low level of responsibility. Even those holding high positions in a family business feel loyal to a specific superior in the business rather than to the business itself. This is reflected in the relatively high employee turnover rate among family businesses. In Taiwan, the turnover rates in small and mid-sized companies reach as high as 50 percent each year (Hall and Xu, 1990, p.573).

The leadership of family business tends to repress professional talents. The narrowly defined family business, which emphasizes blood relations (Hsu, 1985, p.35), tends to exclude professional talent from the inner circles of company management that have access to key company information and ownership. In this situation, those retired officers with professional talent can change their employment status in one of several ways:

- (1) They may marry family-business members, thus gaining quick promotion;
- (2) They may control the kind of skills that the family business depends on, to an extent that the owner must cultivate a special relationship with them and promote them to key positions after being convinced of their loyalty to the company;
- (3) They may endure long-term repression of their talents until eventually they win the status of family members, and thereby obtain a promotion; or

(4) They may change to another job in a different department or company.

The limited commitment to employees and weak extent of mutual dependence between business owners and employees found in most family businesses reflect the personal nature of authority and control in these enterprises, and the unwillingness of owners to undertake broad, long-term commitment (Whitley, 1993). From this research, these negative impacts have worked to restrict the growth of the veteran-employees (see Section A.6).

The disadvantages to both military and family business are reflected in the trends of career development and subsequent employment status of military officers, because both military organisations share the same characteristics of the traditional culture and society. For bureaucracy in the military organisation, '*Guan Xi*' may obstruct the implementation of institutional rule based on instrumental rationality, leading to low efficiency and greater confusion. If career management in business and military organisations is well organized and developed, its members will be able to use their abilities effectively. Otherwise, they will feel frustrated and alienated. This of course ignores the role of political behaviour within Western organisations.

However, both business and military organisations seem to be doing things different to mainstream management in the West. In Taiwan, business companies perform the best when they stay small without formalized and regular training and career development. In contrast in the West, larger firms are more competitive, because they can profit from economies of scale (Huang, 1990). Thus, we may argue that training and development is the key to raising company effectiveness in the West. Taiwan's military has an advanced

military personnel system copied from the United States, but it seems, from this research, that there are problems, in terms of the education, training and career development of military officers. This implies that although the personnel systems and procedures exist they fail to operate in practise. This also forms another area of possible research in the future.

The new insights gained from further research should stimulate the kind of change that is aimed at narrowing the gap between the Western and Taiwanese management and organisations. With the upgrading of their technological levels, and understanding of officership and military professionalism, many family businesses would be forced to readjust their traditional distrust of professional veteran-employees and allow them to display their loyalty, ability and creativity. Taiwanese family businesses should extend their 'high-trust' networks to those veteran-employees so as to form a bigger family network, as Fukuyama (1995) suggested and confirmed by this research.

Nevertheless, '*Guan Xi*' is a deep-rooted socio-cultural phenomenon, which cannot be changed overnight. The fact that Taiwan's modernization has not fundamentally changed the role of '*Guan Xi*', has clearly proved this point. In spite of various abuses, '*Guan Xi*' remains a major and dynamic force in Taiwanese society. With the rapid economic development and modernization in Taiwan, Confucianism is under increasing pressure to change and adapt. Both military and business organisations will have to gradually combine Confucianism with the increasing pressure of management rationality. In this respect, in dealing with the second career issues for military officers, all parties should acquire a basic understanding of Confucianism dynamics.

It may be argued that Confucianism may be responsible for the lack of career development in both military and business organisations, because Confucianism did not afford the incentives that capitalism provided to produce dynamic entrepreneurs. However, contrary to this idea, we may also argue that Confucianism can make people dynamic entrepreneurs, but in different ways. What the family businesses really need to do is to expand the cohesiveness within the core family members to include veteran-employees (and other professionals) by institutionalizing the organisation and the managerial style. With clear-cut organisational structures and rules, civilian and veteran employees will be able to identify themselves with the family business. In a sense, this is to apply the concept of 'family' to all employees so that they feel emotionally attached to the organisation.

The role of personalized management should be restricted so that everyone will have real incentives to work for the goals of individual and organisation. Only in an institutionalized organisation will such Confucian ethics as loyalty (group identification), diligence (work initiatives), sincerity (open atmosphere), self-actualization (career development), and harmony (good interpersonal relationships), be given full display.

11.7.6 Summary

Having briefly analyzed the comparative philosophical and cultural perspectives in this research context: East and West, it may be concluded that both have complementary advantages which can help in the training and career development of members of organisations, while at the same time minimizing the disadvantages. For example, an over-emphasis on, or over-use of, '*Guan Xi*', can lead to a lack of commitment to

training and development on the part of organisations, and a lack of initiative in self development on the part of individuals.

For a relatively long period in the future, some aspects of the management process in Taiwan will continue to be heavily influenced by Chinese cultural tradition. The authoritarian style of leadership, for example, will remain the dominant mode of leadership for both business and military organisations. The importance of personal training and development still needs to be addressed in both organisations, however. '*Guan Xi*' will continue to play an important role both within organisations and between them. Any successful modernization will be an inevitable compromise or mixture of traditional Chinese management and modern or Western management techniques.

This research suggests that both military and business organisations work within the same social institutional framework. Since the principle of interpersonal relationships still prevails in most spheres of everyday life in Taiwan, both organisations are embedded in this order too. '*Guan Xi*' is a matter of necessity, not of choice, for businessmen seeking to do business, and for military officers to develop their careers. Only by investigating the phenomenon from a cultural perspective are we able to discover the structure of, and influences on, the employment life of retired officers together with the mechanisms underlying it.

By interpreting Taiwan's military and business organisations from this perspective, we are able to see how traditional and cultural factors actually shape the ways they function. It also allows for the ways that careers are developed and to be explored. It is argued that if Taiwan is to modernize both military and business organisations, it should adopt

Western management rules; personal rules are simply too arbitrary, irrational and emotional. When using Western standards to evaluate management of military and business organisations, or vice versa, it should be considered that these standards have grown out of very different institutional and cultural contexts. The understanding gained from this research shows that the reality of Chinese business culture is rather different from what Westerners might imagine.

11.8 A Model of Second Career Success

The research questions explored whether formal educational attainments, military training qualifications, rank achieved, and acquired military along with transferable skills, had any significant association with retired officers' abilities to obtain, hold and effectively perform civilian work. None of these factors were found to be closely and positively related to success in the transition from military retirement to civilian occupations and employment status.

For officers approaching retirement, to make a decision or take an action before or during a mid-life career transition is not easy to do in practise. The success or failure of retired officers in the transitional period depends not only on their employment status, satisfaction and adjustment but also their personality and motivation. Personal values, attitudes, desires and motivation are aspects of the self most central to their second career development. In this field research, observation and questionnaires were used to help clarify aspects of these variables and their relationship with the employment status of retired officers.

There are at least four main forces facilitating the integration of long-term officers into civilian life. The first is a structural one which depends on the military organisation and the general occupational structure of society; the second is an individual one which depends on individual acquired and learning skills, and career plan and the desire to pursue second career goals. The third is the need for labour resource. However, we may add the fourth force – the cultural impact such as '*Guan Xi*', personal attitudes, and bias against towards military retirees, etc. which has been discussed earlier in this chapter. Obviously, the distinction between these determinants is mainly an analytical one; that is to say, there will be different relative strength between each at any point in time creating patterns but no pure types in reality.

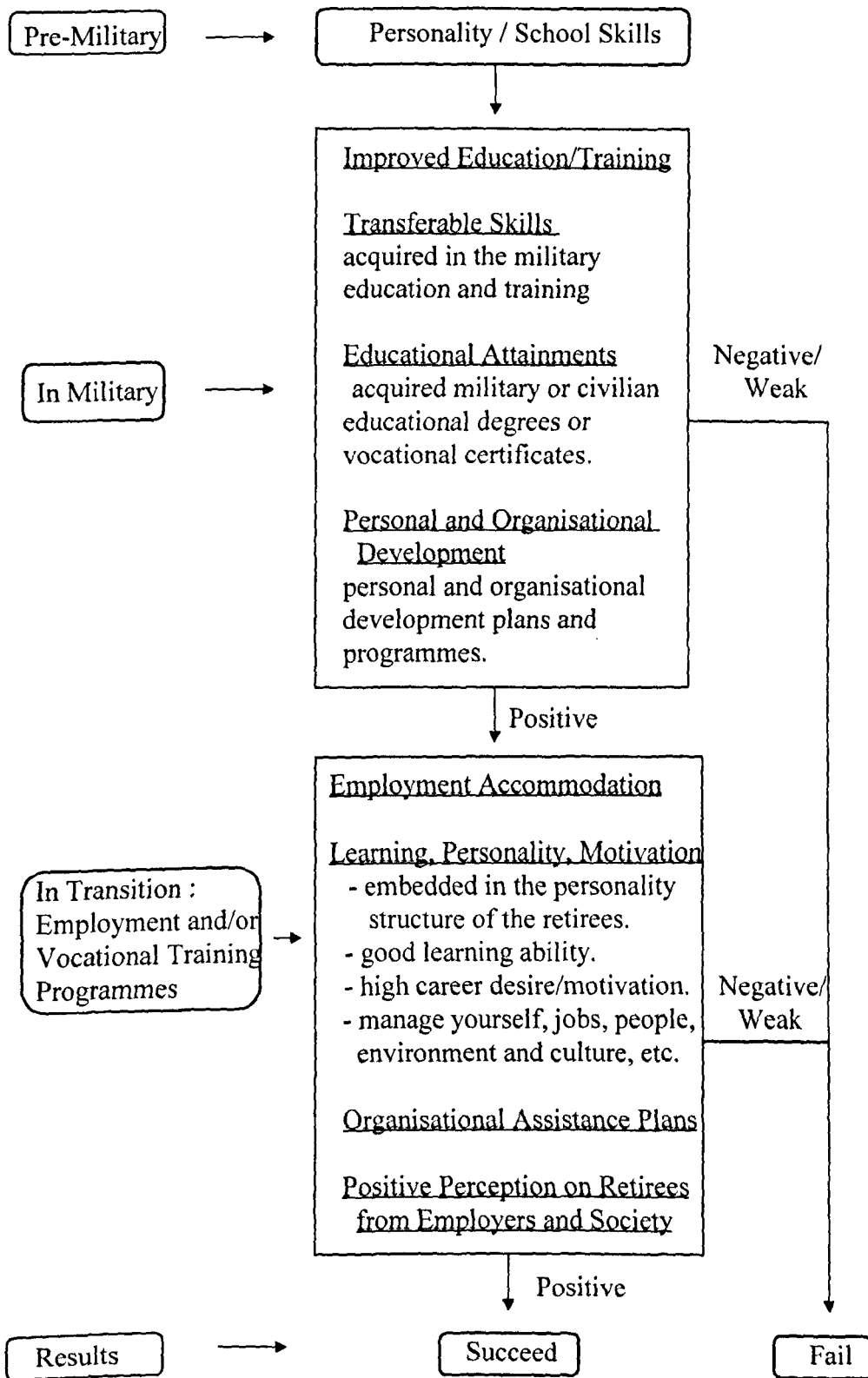
The first of the determinants refers to the structural similarities of the occupational activities in the military and the civilian sectors of the society and to the interdependence of these structures. In the case of officers on limited engagements, the salient point is the question of whether knowledge and skills acquired in the military setting are, or can be, transferable into civilian life. The answer to this question depends mainly on the occupational experiences of military officer during his/her time of service. These experiences are of two different kinds: (1) knowledge and skills acquired through daily work, and education and training in military service, and (2) knowledge and skills gained through participation in special vocational training programmes carried out by the military, government and/or business organisations. Other salient factors are individual attitudes, personal desires and motivation towards second career development.

This research suggests that it is not necessarily the retiree whose background was 'more military', rather than 'more civilianized', who has the greatest problems of transition. Moreover, it is not so much the absence of marketable skills which is problematic in this connection, but rather the difficulty of translating individual skills and experience gained in the military setting into civilian ones so that they can be matched up with employers' needs. Therefore, the individual's readiness and learning ability to utilize his/her occupational knowledge and skills seems to be an additional and important determinant of successful transition. Appropriate resettlement may fail if both are absent or weak; the lack of readiness and learning ability may operate as a mental or physical obstruction preventing such transfer. On the other hand, it could be argued that 'learning skills' can make up for the absence of marketable or business knowledge and skills. One of the reasons for this may be that businesses tend to seek the right people, ready to get the job done the right way, rather than to recruit a novice and train him/her to fit the job. Obviously assessing that a good supply of potential labour is available. Labour and skill shortages have a tendency to force employers to be more flexible in their approach to such problems.

Once retired officers have been employed, the ability to continue and to perform efficiently in civilian organisations invites critical evaluation. Despite structural and organisational advantages or disadvantages, retired officers face some difficulties in obtaining jobs and performing work in a new, complex and different organisation, as we identified in this research. Tasks such as resource allocation, the provision of specialized skills, the need to respond to civilian problems, or the adjustment to the new work-role may create cross-pressures for retired officers as new employees. It may be possible for military as well as business organisations to respond to the problems that retired officers

encounter through, for example, enhanced training and development programmes so that they may prepare themselves and clarify their goals for career development. Figure 11.6 shows these relationships.

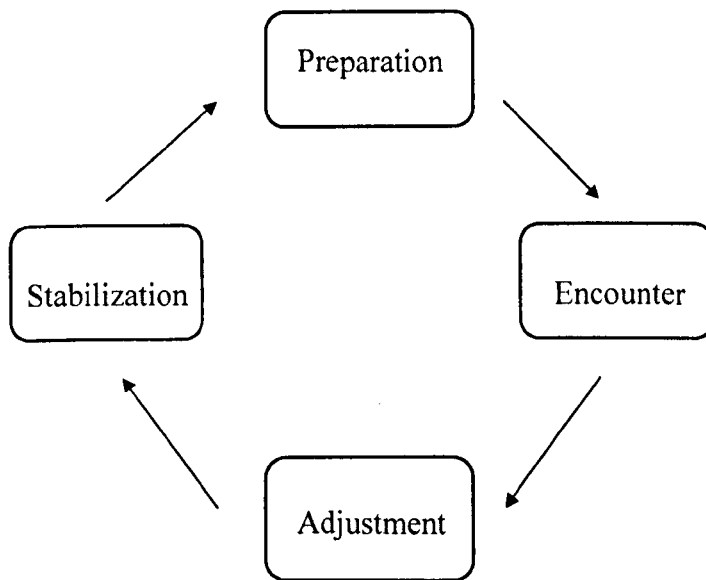
Figure 11.6 A Model of Second Career Success



From Figure 11.6, those officers who have not learned or acquired transferable skills or lack career development plans whilst in the military are likely to be at a disadvantage when they enter the transition stage, while the converse may also be true. Those who have the advantages of transferable skills, higher educational degrees, stronger career desires, or career development plans, may experience two opposite results in or after transition: success or failure, due, mainly, to how they prepare for, encounter, adjust to and manage their transitions. ‘*Guan Xi*’ has also been playing a significant role in managing cultural diversity and/or conflict for retired military officers in their subsequent careers.

Nicholson (1990) proposes a ‘transition cycle’ with four phases: preparation, encounter, adjustment, and stabilization (see Figure 11.7).

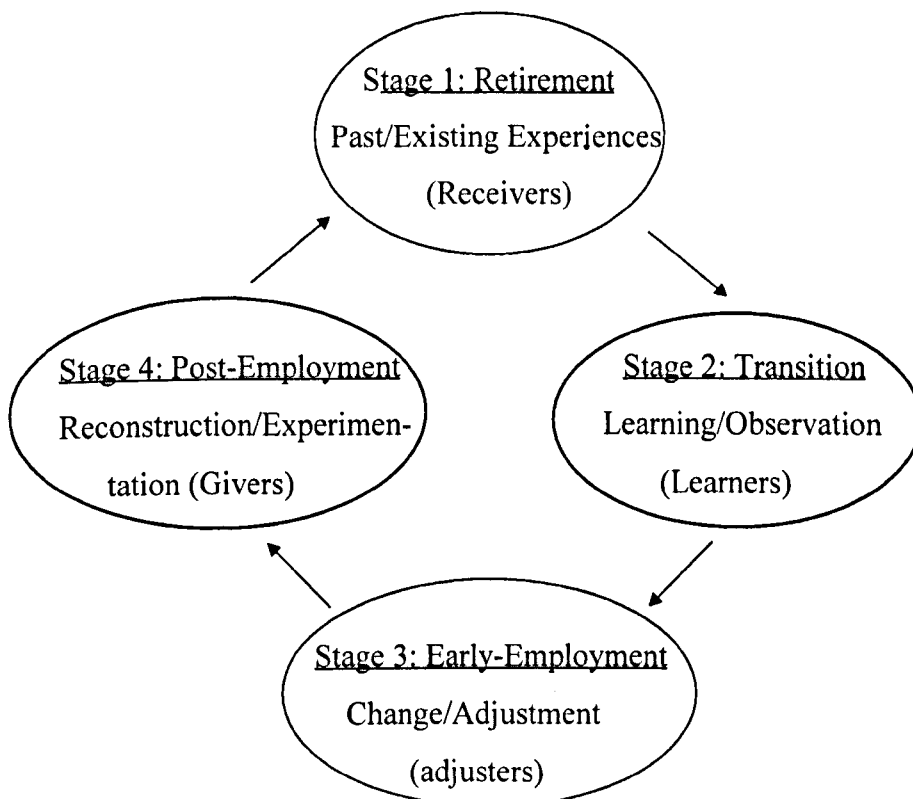
Figure 11.7 The Transition Cycle



Source: Adapted from Nicholson (1990)

The learning situation should be also sequenced so that retired officer can use various styles of learning and integrate them into a meaningful whole in the transitional period. Inspired by Nicholson (1990) and Kolb's (1984) models which theorizes adult learning from their experience, the researcher conceptualized a transitional model (see the following Figure 11.8) to explain how the retired officers' learning progress through four transitional stages. We can see there are four stages: past and current experiences, learning and observation, change and adjustment, experimentation and reconstruction.

Figure 11.8 Transitional Model for Retired Officers in Transition



Building on Kolb and Nicholson's theoretical models, the researcher refers to four major categories of learning styles: receivers, learners, adjusters and givers. These correspond with the four stages in the past and current experiences, learning and observation, change and adjustment, experimentation and reconstruction. To be effective, the retired officers, as adults, need at least four different but useful learning abilities. This model requires activities in all four stages for effective learning.

The transitional model (Figure 11.8) depends on whether an officer develops subsequent careers and modifies the role assigned in different stage: (1) retirement simply prepare for the new task as assigned with change in personal behaviour; (2) transition implies acceptance of the assignment's demands with all the burden of change depending on the individual's personality and behaviour; (3) early-employment represents those instances in which the retiree is relatively adjusted and changed, and he/she is able to modify the new position; and finally (4) post-employment indicates cases in which there is change in personal qualities and role parameters. In this research, from retirement to early employment it elicits the most dramatic challenges as in mid-career change for retired officers, whereas post-employment could be the least challenging. All stages, however, may be stressful for retired officers in their transition to subsequent careers.

As discussed earlier, entry to civilian employment depends on the military organisation and the general occupational structure of society, individual acquired and learning skills, career plan and the desire to pursue second career goals, and the need for labour force. The primary skills of retired officers in subsequent careers, however, are different. They are more oriented towards the interpersonal relations ('*Guan Xi*'). To be effective at this level, retirees need to influence people, to work as a 'family team' member, and to build

coalitions and cooperation. Of course, transferable skills for retirees are still important, but from the research findings, there is generally a shift in relative weight from the technical to the interpersonal relations as middle-aged retirees move to subsequent careers.

This can be a difficult transition for many middle-aged retired officers. They may feel overwhelmed with the unfamiliarity of the new challenges. They found themselves promoted to management level in difficulty because, for example, they may become anxious about the interpersonal requirements.

From the research findings, those who had career plans and prepared well for subsequent employment found less difficulty in obtaining jobs, and they were good 'receivers'. But most retirees did not have career plans and did not take actions to prepare for the civilian employment. In the transition stage, some retirees attended vocational training programmes while most retirees sought jobs directly after retirement without joining any vocational training programmes. However, the fact that most retirees encountered difficulty in finding jobs, may imply that they were not good 'receivers' and 'learners'.

Most retirees entered stage 3, 'early-employment'. In the early-employment stage, they became more humble and flexible in accepting lower jobs and pay. Perhaps, they had learned some lessons in the previous two stages. They worked hard to show that their ability and skills could be used efficiently, and showed strong desires to pursue career success. Their loyalty and responsibility towards their work and company were high. Thus, they were good 'adjusters'. In addition, 38.4% of retirees were assigned to

managerial jobs with the possibility of reaching greater achievements in the future (see Figure A.18). However, it will only take time to prove that they are good ‘givers’ because they have already shown that they were typical achievement-oriented members of the company and eager to develop themselves (85% of retirees had strong desires to pursue second career goals; see Figure A.28).

11.9 Conclusion

From philosophical and cultural perspectives, this research draws the following conclusions:

- (1) To search for scientific methods and knowledge in searching for the truth on the issues of retired officers’ careers contains many stimulating and inspiring insights of human resource management, as well as management science.
- (2) The relations between officers, employers, organisations (business and military) and society exist in a dynamic process and context in which officers’ careers and their civilian employment are organized and developed.
- (3) The weakness and strengths of philosophical and cultural impacts on officers’ career development and their civilian employment have been identified as a mirror from which we see a self-consciousness and ethical responsibility. It is a moral responsibility of the organisation (as well as good business sense) as well as the individual to maximize individual and collective potential and pursue self-actualization and self-development.

(4) The unity of knowledge and action implies that an active or retired officer should utilize his/her knowledge, skills or experiences in his/her work and careers for the good of both individual and society. More importantly, officers should balance 'to know' and 'to act' in order to achieve their second career success, as this research has suggested.

(5) Each stakeholder/group such as the government, military, business, society, officer corps and policy-maker has a significant role in dealing with the issues of second careers for retired military officers.

To overcome fully the individual and organisational barriers to employment and advancement opportunities, a value system that capitalizes on diversity must be embedded into the culture, building a multicultural organisation where true integration of veteran-employees is achieved and discrimination is absent. Such an organisational culture would truly value and capitalize on diversity, and constantly reinforce these values through reward systems and continual training on skills fostering integration.

While entry and placement issues are important for these military officers and civilian employees, the next step is to utilize fully the knowledge, skills and abilities that persons with a military background can bring to the workplace, and provide them with rewards and resources for attainment of career success.

Several implications for policy-makers may exist in the research results. In an economy where labour shortage is a hindrance to economic growth, policy-makers may wish to encourage older retired officers to find jobs after retirement. A possible approach to

counter negative perceptions towards retired military officers is to promote health consciousness and hard working attitudes among older veteran-employees by helping them to perceive or build up the confidence that they are healthy, capable, productive and responsible, as well as reduce both employers and employees' perceptions that age or military background affects health and work performance negatively.

Policy-makers may improve the loss of human resources arising from military retirement by encouraging retirees to engage in civilian employment. The finding that the employing organisations are less favourable towards older veteran-employees suggests that employers play a crucial role in job availability for retired military personnel at the macro level.

Policy-makers trying to recruit and retain older veteran-employees in the labour force should consider promoting good management practises in favour of older veteran-employees at the workplace. This may, for example, take the form of special training schemes for older veteran-employees, increased job opportunities for them, providing them with vocational counselling, and setting up a data base of retired officers available for employment business and in the industrial sectors.

Furthermore, the finding that older retirees with a greater desire to pursue second career goals are likely to have less difficulty in obtaining jobs, suggests that policy-makers should try to reduce the difficulty in seeking jobs among retirees. This could be achieved by promoting the desired work values and work culture among older veteran-employees, and encouraging older retired officers to continue to work and develop their careers after military retirement. Also the military needs to play an important part in

providing appropriate policies for officers' resettlement and subsequent careers.

Although most retired officers surveyed had a strong desire to pursue second career goals, in reality, they did not achieve great success in the transition and subsequent levels of job satisfaction. Thus, it appears that most retirees need particular actions to be taken at a level within business or industry sectors to influence this transition. Larger size corporations, for example, may have the capability and resources to offer training and development programmes to meet the needs of military retirees. In this respect, it might at some future time be useful for the MND and other government organisations to make known the findings of studies such as this to larger companies which might have use or need for military retirees. However this does not absolve the military from its responsibilities in providing appropriate support for officers in seeking suitable and better second careers.

The increasing employment rate aged from 35 to 54 between 1978 to 1995 (DGBAS, 1996.4, Table 5) indicates that the government should consider the economic activities and employment status of older employees. The present study complements this concern by identifying the demographic, cognitive and affective aspects of retirement and second career development.

From this research, it is clear that a significant part of the problem of second career is that the military and/or government is not playing an effective part in allowing officers to make a successful transition. Therefore it would be reasonable to conclude that as being the case. Accordingly an option for the military and government is to change its policies and practises in relation to training, development and retirement.

In this regard, it should be noted that organisations such as the Chinese National Federation of Industries, the General Chamber of Commerce, and the National Association of Medium/Small Enterprise serve a useful purpose by continuing to highlight the transition to civilian occupations in their periodicals and other publications. The government and the MND could, however, do more to assist and help these officers to make career plans and seek employment by extending information, training, advice and counselling before and/or after retirement.

In sum, it would seem that the primary implications for policy-makers are the following:

- (1) Long term and overall policies and strategies of human resource development for active and retired officers should be set up and/or reviewed.
- (2) The training and education of officers in the military should be improved, and most education and training should be undertaken with the objectives of cultivating and developing professional officers
- (3) Current promotion and retirement systems should be improved with the purpose of enhancing the job conditions for officer personnel.
- (4) The human resource management and operations of the military should be rationalized for efficiency and effectiveness.
- (5) Attention should be paid to the numbers and status of retired officers in the civilian employment pool.

- (6) Updated data on the employment situation of retired officers should be kept on an ongoing basis in order to anticipate any need for intervention in a timely fashion.
- (7) It is necessary to maintain an awareness of perceptions towards retired officers from the business and industry sectors, and try to change and influence such perceptions to be more positive.
- (8) The current resettlement assistance and vocational training programmes for retired officers should be improved.

To develop a career management strategy for current and future active and retired officers is quite important. It is a fact in many countries nowadays that there will be fewer officers in a smaller military. But the findings and analysis in this research suggest that a fundamentally new career management vision might be called for.

Military and business organisations along with individuals should have an active interest in building a sound career management strategy. Organisations want to ensure the availability of quality personnel at every level of operation to avoid gaps in much-needed leadership and experience. Moreover, they want to avoid the inefficiencies that often result when active officers become dissatisfied or uncertain about their future, and retired ones become unemployed or underemployed.

From the individual perspectives, although some officers may never be completely sure what they want, some sense of direction is also important. An element of predictability

and control keeps people focused and satisfied, while the absence of such qualities in a career become frustrating and distracting. Without a clear career plan and goal, one may begin to see stress resulting from uncertainty and ambivalence.

Although developing a comprehensive career management strategy is complex and full of risks, it is, nevertheless, necessary. It is evident that the Taiwanese military has adopted the American military personnel system in principle, but although this is believed to be one of the more advanced personnel systems in the world, most officers surveyed in this study did not feel the presence or value of career development programmes.

The Taiwanese military may need to examine and identify this problem and then to take actions to improve it. It must embody some vision of the future and identify the steps that will be taken to get there. Career management will permit both individuals and organisations to make the first and second career process work more effectively, as well as limit uncertainty.

Chapter 12: Conclusions and Future Research

12.1 Conclusions

This study attempted to identify the retirement problems, employment status and the determinants of a successful second career in the transition from military retirement to civilian occupations. In doing so, it sought to make a beginning in exploring a topic which has not received much attention so far in Taiwan, by carrying out a broad questionnaire survey, observing career development patterns of military retirees, and reporting on the findings that merit consideration in reshaping the policy and content of today's human resource management for retired and active military officers.

The theories of training, learning and development form an important strategy in human resource management for the purpose of active and retired officers' career development. Based on the literature associated with career development, adult training and learning, the research explored the transitional model of a successful second career, and the employment situations among retired officers. This allowed issues of how retired officers and their careers should be managed and developed to be examined.

Second careers for military officers involve transitions - transitions in skills, knowledge, attitudes and social behaviours, and include the analysis, design, implementation and evaluation of relevant activities to the transitions. The literature review provided the theoretical perspectives of training, learning and career development to explore how

they have affected the transitions and employment status of retired officers. Through the empirical survey, a model of second career success, its implications, and new insights have been generated.

The mid-aged career stage is perhaps the most difficult one to manage, a view also held by Lewis and McLaverty (1991). Such management is essential not only to getting a second job and facilitating continued career development, but, perhaps even more important, to help those retired officers unable to develop in military service, to have meaningful civilian careers with challenges and opportunities.

The findings from this research show that no single or fixed pattern has been adopted by retired officers towards second career development. HRM has the dual aims of improved organisational development and individual development. Both elements appeared to be missing in Taiwan. Military and business organisations did not provide sound HRM for officers and employed retirees in terms of their training, career planning and development. Retired officers experienced their first career in the military and a second career in business organisations without significant or systematic career development planning by themselves, the military or business organisations.

Responsibility is increasingly being placed on individuals to manage their own careers. This is confirmed in this research through the impact of career planning on second career achievement. While, on the other hand, training and learning were taking place in the military and business organisations, and/or vocational training programmes, the aim of much of this training was not the development of officers and retirees as an end in itself, but ensuring that officers and retirees had acquired skills and expertise necessary

to carry out their jobs in such a way as to improve organisational performance and to meet job requirements.

One major conclusion of this study therefore, is that factors such as the external and internal environment, the organisational goals, policies, tradition, culture and structure (such as 'family business', etc.) all have a vital role to play in the way in which human resource management for officers and retirees operates.

The nature, extent, and causes of retirement of military officers seem to have become more complicated in recent years as confirmed in this research. Systematic and interdisciplinary research is thus needed to help us synthesize and integrate many facets and perspectives of retirement and second career development. From the findings of this research, retirement and second career development not only influence individuals' life structure and lifestyle, but also may alter human resource supplies and demands. It may also affect the level and composition of organisational, economic, political, social, cultural and military activities. Leaders in the military, business and government organisations need to be concerned with military officers' retirement and second careers on a continuous basis to ensure that the organisations, society and individuals can contribute to their fullest potential.

This research has suggested that individuals' retirement and subsequent second employment may be linked to individual demographic, cognitive and affective factors. Demographic factors that have been linked to retirement and second employment include educational level, rank achieved before retirement, age, skills, vocational training, and career plan. Cognitive factors include perceived career success in the

military and perceived organisational attitudes towards older veteran-employees. Finally, affective factors include work attitudes, desires for second career success, and job satisfaction. The present study sought to ascertain these linkages empirically in a specific research context.

It was found that career plans, coupled with the desire to pursue second career goals, greatly enhanced the transition from military to civilian occupations, and improved employment status. Those working retirees who believed that they could transfer military expertise and skills to civilian occupations had less difficulty in obtaining jobs, as did the younger age group. Those who retired at higher ranks or with higher educational attainments were not necessarily more successful in transition and employment status, although such attributes are highly esteemed in the military achievement.

The researcher predicted significant correlations between employment status and vocational training, educational attainments, rank achieved and transferable skills. The findings did not support these assumptions. None of these factors produced any significant correlations with retirees' employment status.

The conclusion is that the lack of the significant correlations between them may be attributed to

- (1) The lack of overall human resource policies of the military, business and government for developing active and retired officers;

- (2) The lack of understanding of modern officership and professionalism on the part of society, especially the business and industrial sectors, and
- (3) The lack of personal efforts and career plans among retirees themselves.

However, it could be argued that at most times in an adult's career, the individuals control their career development. Having the ability and skills that an employer needs today does not mean that an employer's need will not change tomorrow. Retired officers, like civilians, need multiple, flexible and portable skills. Middle-aged people must always learn the new; let go the outdated, and find employment security from within themselves rather than outside.

Nevertheless, a central problem exists in respect of adaptability and the acquisition of new skills at older ages. Both the increasing numbers of older employees in the labour market and the potential organisational gains through increasing adaptability indicate that training for older employees will become increasingly important in most countries, now and in the future (e.g., Patrick, 1992).

In that setting, older employees will have particular training needs. As managerial jobs continue to require more intellectual, managerial and interpersonal competence (rather than manual skills), it is essential that older veteran-employees remain able to inspire and lead in those developing areas.

People, no matter whether civilian or military, are the most important asset in organisations and society. Thus, creating a more caring organisation in which all are

concerned with individual training, learning and development, is very important.

From the findings, we may also conclude that success in the first career will not guarantee success in the second, because the context and conditions are different. The criteria for success in the two careers are also likely to be different. Higher-ranking officers engage in tasks that are characteristically bureaucratic. Thus, higher-ranking retirees move to employment based on more administrative, managerial and bureaucratic skills, rather than technical ones. In this regard, the civil service could be a suitable career for these higher-ranking officers. However, due to the very keen competition for civil service jobs every year, only one retired officer was successful, in this survey, in the examination of civil service. It may be argued that the lack of a career plan and/or personal efforts would make it more difficult for these retired officers to find a job in the civil service than in the private sectors. Without preparation for the entrance examination for the civil service before the retirement from the military, success in this area is unlikely for retired military officers.

Although a technical background may assist military retirees in obtaining employment, most retirees surveyed functioned in administrative, managerial and manual jobs in their civilian careers. However, there are different patterns in the post-retirement occupation and activities of retirement.

The research findings in the areas of military and business HRM, organisational development, personal career planning and development, and public policy, etc. indicate that retired military officers have difficulty in obtaining appropriate jobs and in adapting to a new work role. They tend to be in lower positions and receive lower pay than they

have had in the military.

They wish to have civilian employment, to develop a second career, to have a career plan, to learn how to transfer acquired skills and expertise into a new area of work, to continuously learn new skills to pursue success in a second career, and to be well recognized, motivated and supported by military leadership, civilian employers, as well as society.

This research made a pioneering study of the training and development issues of retired officers by identifying the problems retired officers face in seeking jobs, and also by identifying the determinants needed for a successful transition to a second career. The research was based upon the Western and Chinese philosophical and sociological foundations of theory and context through which the researcher was attempting to build up the philosophical and cultural perspectives and seek new insights into second career development for retired officers.

Cross-disciplinary methodologies were used in this research to design the research, review the literature, test hypotheses, and analyze and report the findings. The researcher viewed the topic within a broad context so that the managerial, social, cultural, economic, political and military perspectives could be taken into account.

Furthermore, the research developed an index called the 'transition index' as an important tool for the measurement of the transition and employment situations of retired officers. The division of the four groups of respondents was believed to permit a simultaneous assessment of the different experiences of the groups. The use of the

transition index and the four groups has given a new dimension to the study of the issues associated with second careers among retirees in this research.

The research sought findings and to develop recommendations which might assist retired officers in achieving an improved situation with regard to their employment status and second career development. The approach adopted in this research reflects an interdisciplinary approach using a macro research framework and different methodologies. Constructing career development models and patterns for retired officers could be useful for other researchers facing similar or different situations in other locations or contexts, and in determining what research work should be undertaken.

In spite of the extensive literature concerning the implications of Chinese culture in general management, organisation studies, and sociology, little has directly dealt with the cultural impacts on career behaviour, either in business, government or military organisations. Business philosophy includes a number of ingredients, innovation and profit orientations being two of major ones. However, the doctrine of 'interpersonal relationships' (*Guan Xi*) being in conflict with HRM makes the achievement of business objectives more difficult. The pervasiveness of interpersonal relationships undermines the foundation of a Western view of HRM. As a result, the opportunity to introduce Western management thinking, particularly HRM in business and military organisations in Taiwan, becomes more problematic because of the essence of Chinese culture. To sum up, *Guan Xi* has a significant impact on the efficiency and effectiveness of military and business organisations operating in Taiwan. In addition both retired officers and civilian employees are subject to *Guan Xi* in their work, management and career development. In short, *Guan Xi* affects all major dimensions

of individual and organisational development and performance, therefore knowing ways of creating and maintaining '*Guan Xi*' networks is necessary for every officer's career success at individual and organisational levels.

It is necessary that Taiwanese business and military organisations effectively couple the conventional wisdom of '*Guan Xi*' and modern management philosophies introduced from the West following the continual development of the Taiwanese economy. Although these two groups of management philosophies often interplay and interact as a result of the growing integration of global businesses, this contribution suggests that the effect of Chinese conventional wisdom is not eroded as far as '*Guan Xi*' is concerned.

The culture of Taiwan has evolved along with her own path drawing inspiration from Confucian philosophy. Interestingly, Confucius spoke in terms of a moral order which is universal. He maintained that the life of the moral man is an exemplification of the universal moral order (Sang, 1927). On the other hand, the culture of the United States has been influenced strongly by its European heritage and Judeo-Christian philosophy. A central cultural concept is that of natural law, which transcends domains. Saint Thomas Aquinas (1225-1274) summarized the issues in the thirteenth century in his research on law when he stated that 'the natural law' includes the preservation of human life, the promotion of family life, an orderly social life and the quest for knowledge (Pegis, 1944).

Although Western debates and anxieties that highlighting cultural differences in some respects constitute a dynamic perspective, differences in management between the East and West nevertheless remain. In some Asian territories they have been modified by

economic development; in others they have been exaggerated by historical experience and ideology. Among those firmly in the latter category is the Chinese style of management. As a result, we did not expect identical results for Taiwan and other East Asian nations, as differing histories and social evolution in these countries will very likely have created differences in their value systems.

However, the employment problems arising from this research between practise of HRM and the essence of Chinese culture can be concisely put: the importation of Western management without any modification in local management culture and methods is not likely to be cost effective, as suggested in this research.

The concept of maximum use of human resources of retired military officers has yet to be given high priority, and this is acting as a formidable invisible barrier to the further development of Taiwanese economy. The integration of HRM into business and the military in Taiwan, for example, may be expected to improve and modernize the performance and management of both business and the Taiwanese armed forces. But on the other hand, it will limit the advantages gained by those who currently rely on '*Guan Xi*'. To achieve this change more Taiwanese people, both military and civilian, need to be persuaded to open their minds to some of the advantages of Western management techniques, especially those of HRM. The problem is how can this be achieved given the relative advantage gained through '*Guan Xi*'.

For the military, it should rethink and review its traditional combat-based identity. This need is demonstrated through the need for and success in achieving employment among retired military officers. Issues to be considered include vocational training programmes,

career development and employment support. Thus, the Taiwanese military must adopt an identity that encompasses combat readiness as a professional armed force, together with a professional, modern management and resettlement relief roles as befits a caring and effective employer. In essence, the Taiwanese military should change its prevailing view of officers as destined only for a military vocation and career.

As a human resource, retired military personnel are an important factor in economic activity, and the status of the individual veteran-employee should reflect this. To preserve their value in the labour market, veteran-employees still have to learn and develop continuously throughout their careers. Thus, researchers will have to consider new concepts and theories for motivating older veteran-employees as well as civilian-employees to care about their work, to learn new skills, and to develop their careers. Training and learning in personal growth to promote such behaviours is one of the major efforts in this respect.

The increasing numbers of both older veteran and civilian employees in the labour market and the potential organisational gains through innovation, creativity and adaptability imply that training and developing for these older employees will become increasingly important now and in the future. In that setting, older veteran-employees will have particular training and development needs.

As managerial jobs in both military and business organisations continue to require more intellectual, professional and interpersonal competence, it is essential that high ranking retired officers remain able to inspire and lead in those developing areas. Furthermore, organisational effectiveness often depends on a mixture of people, with a range of

different experiences, ideas, expertise and knowledge from which innovation, creativity and productivity result. Thus, enhancing the adaptability and learning ability of middle-aged military retirees, and developing their careers, will be a key issue for effective human resource management in the future.

12.2 Future Research

Given the potential implications of retirees' complaints, it would appear wise to launch a further investigation into issues regarding retirees' employability and performance. Especially in the light of the downsizing of the military strength, this subject matter is important and has not been systematically explored before in Taiwan.

The present research was an important first step towards understanding the potential problems, employability and determinants of a successful career after leaving the military and entering the civilian world of work. Future research might be directed at not only replicating or making alterations to the present research design, but also systematically evaluating other potentially important dimensions.

In addition to the research extensions alluded to throughout this discussion, experimental investigations of retiree effects across different job types could be illuminating. For example, those who retired in earlier years and more recent than the present study, the inclusion of direct civilian equivalents, and the experiences of female retired officers, would be useful areas of further study. Given the importance to one's working life of second career development, the extent and effects of employers' perceptions and their evaluation on retirees' performance in the long term are also

worthy of follow-up.

One of the more exciting areas for future research would be in application of the findings in a prospective study of officers still on active duty. Officers may be discouraged by seeing their senior officers unemployed or underemployed once they enter the civilian employment market; while those who achieve successful employment may provide an encouraging example to those still awaiting retirement.

One seeming inconsistency with the prospect of predictability is the sizable number of cases where individuals appeared to possess most or all of the requisites for a favourable transition but yet failed to achieve such a transition. This could be due, for example, to personality problems, poor adaptability, cultural conflicts (e.g., military and business), or conflicts between veteran and civilian employees, or poor '*Guan Xi*', etc. Detailed case studies might clarify such issues.

Officers who have been in military service for many years and have not been promoted may be seeking greater knowledge and skills as a way to qualify for a better employment position after retirement. The reasons for participating, or otherwise, in vocational training may be many and various. For example, some retirees may seek vocational training before retirement but are not given the opportunity, or be unable to find a suitable course, while some may not seek one but be required to take whatever course is 'offered'. According to General Yu (1995. 4.2), the criteria to enter the TTC programmes for retiring officers are ambiguous and controversial because of the limited provision available. Without the full financial support from the government and parliament, the TTC can only offer training to 28% of retired officers at the ranks of Lt.

colonel and colonel, every year.

Thus, it seems important to study whether mandatory or voluntary vocational training affects retirees' perceptions about attending and participating in the programmes. Individuals are motivated to become involved in learning to the extent that they feel a need to gain knowledge and perceive a personal goal that will help to achieve something in their careers. If a training course is mandatory, attendants may not perceive any value in what is being presented; therefore, their motivation to attend and learn from the training may be low, which may have adverse consequences for their subsequent employment. The credibility of a training programme can have a huge influence on participants' attitudes, confidence and performance for future employment.

While most retirees expressed that their perceptions of civilian employers' acceptance of retirees was poor, this subject would be worthy of further study using new data to ascertain the opinions and attitudes of employers as encountered by officer retirees. Does the fact that one is a retired military officer, of itself, constitutes a barrier or opportunity to civilian employment? Do civilian employers perceive the military qualities and qualifications of retired officers as an asset or liability for the company? Do civilian employers have a stereotypical view of the military which affects their treatment of retiree applicants? Further study in this area might well determine employer bias which might be changed by way of a variety of techniques.

The present study was conducted within a specific research context. Retired officers with other ranks such as lieutenant, captain, major, or even 'general' should be involved in future research to explore their retirement and/or employment life. Conditions

peculiar to the present research context may limit the generalisability of the present study. Future studies should be conducted in other developing and/or developed countries, to ascertain whether or not the research findings are generalisable.

In addition, political ideologies, social and cultural impacts, career orientations, motivations, perceived function of active and retired officers, and retirees' family changes, should be investigated to develop a portrait of them in the transition between the first and second careers. Retired and active officers are concerned about the training, education and career development provided by the military, their employability after retirement, the uncertainty of the transition process, and the care-taking activities provided for those officers in order to make their careers and lives meaningful.

How can the military, business and government improve the employment situations of retired officers? Perhaps the best course of action for policy-makers and researchers is to accept the reality that retirees' employment situation is a problem, to seek possible methods to improve this situation, and to implement policies to alleviate the deterioration.

The present study was the first research on the issues of the second career of retired officers in Taiwan, and has left many questions which need to be explored further. Some of these relate to overall HRM policy for retired military officer in terms of their resettlement, employment and second career development; some relate to the measurement of the transferability of military management, expertise and skills to the civilian employment. Others relate to understanding the societal and cultural aspects regarding to active and retired officers, although this research explored some of these

issues.

It should be noted that the respondents were surveyed while in the preliminary stage of career change. It seems likely that some of the measures (for example, congruity of perceptions with present occupation, training and development problems, and job/pay satisfaction) would be temporarily altered during such a phase. Repeat measures after career change was accomplished and stabilized would have been enlightening.

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

It would seem advisable, however, that continuing studies track the activities of retired officers entering the work force so that any need for a more positive impact on their transition in the future could be anticipated and effectively implemented on a timely basis. The MND and other government policy-makers will be well advised periodically to appraise themselves of the general status and condition of the transition of retired officers to civilian employment, for these reasons.

To study other national systems for transition from military to civil life would be advantageous for the policy-makers of Taiwan to deal with the issues of second career development of retired military officers. As we discussed in Chapter 4, for example, the employment rate of British retired officers within three months of retirement was 80%

in 1994, compared with 87.2% employment rate among those surveyed in this research. Therefore issues associated with officers' employment situations and their career development may be meaningful to explore in the British context. In addition, the American Army established the 'Developmental Vocational Skills and Education Programmes' in 1991 providing over 300 vocational training courses for retired military personnel in order to help them to find a good job in civilian society. It would be useful to compare how the resettlement policies and vocational training programmes in Taiwan, Britain and America help retired military officers to transfer to civilian employment.

APPENDIX A

Base Data Analysis

In this section, there are eight groups of data will be presented and analyzed as follows:

- (1) Demographic and Base Data (Groups A, B, C and D).
- (2) Transition Index (Groups B and C).
- (3) Monthly Income of Employment (Groups B and C).
- (4) Data on Military Training, Education and Development (Groups A, B, C and D).
- (5) Data on Retirement (Groups A, B, C and D).
- (6) Data on Employment and Second Career (Groups B and C).
- (7) Data on the Comparison of Policy and Practise of HRM between the Military and Business Organisations (Groups B and C).
- (8) Data on the Perceptions of the Transitional Training Course and Business Management Course (Groups A, B and C).

This section reports the findings for the sample groups as a whole, relating the independent and dependent variables represented by the survey questions. Also presented in this section are the data for the four groups by whether each group has attended the TTC or BMC. Throughout this section, both explanatory and presumptive observations are also included in an effort to provide greater meaning to the findings.

A.1 Demographic and Base Data (Groups A, B, C and D, total cases 296)

The four sample sizes are shown in Table A.1.

Table A.1 The Four Sample Sizes

Group	Number	Percent
Group A	73	24.7
Group B	79	26.7
Group C	74	25.0
Group D	70	23.6
Total	296	100%

The Services of the Taiwan's armed forces are divided mainly into the Army, Navy and Air Force as three major combat services (CS). The others, such as the Military Police (MP), Coast Guard, Logistics, and Political Warfare (PW), are combat support services (CSS). In this survey, we will take these CS and CSS as independent variables. The Marine Corps is regarded as a combat branch of the Navy. The Political Warfare is a unique Service in the Taiwan's armed forces, as discussed in Chapters 4 and 6.

The PW system has its own PW Command with its independent personnel system whose position in the MND is higher than other Deputy Offices of the General Staff. The PW Command controls and supervises the political education, training, performance and warfare (political warfare) of each Service through its political warfare systems in every level of the armed forces. However, here we perceive it as a 'CSS' (see

Table A.2).

Table A.2 Total Distribution by Service

Service	Number	Percent
Army	150	50.8
Navy	45	15.3
Air Force	52	17.6
Political Warfare	37	12.5
Military Police	6	2.0
Coast Guard	4	1.4
Logistics	1	0.3
Total	295	100%
Missing	1	

In Table A.2, the 'missing one' means that one respondent did not indicate his Service in the questionnaire. 'Missing values' in the SPSS statistical calculations are assigned automatically when no legal value can be assigned, as when input data for a numeric field are blank. The rank structure at officer and soldier levels is the same in every Service. Take Western military systems for example; the Captain in the Navy is equivalent to the Colonel in the Army, and its Admiral is equivalent to the General (three stars' rank) in the Army. The Wing Commander in the Air Force is equivalent to the Lt. Colonel in the Army, and the Commander in the Navy. In Taiwan's armed forces, the rank structure for each Service is identical. The total distribution of the targeted population by rank shown in Table A.3.

Table A.3 Total Distribution by Rank

Rank	Number	Percent
Captain	8	2.7
Major	81	27.4
Lt. Colonel	120	40.5
Colonel	87	29.4
Total	296	100%

The total distribution of the targeted population by age shown in the following Table A.4.

Table A.4 Total Distribution by Age

Range	Number	Percent
25-30	16	5.4
31-35	21	7.1
36-40	55	18.6
41-45	148	50.0
46-50	43	14.5
50 +	13	4.4
Total	296	100%

In the following Tables A.5 and A.6, we can see the different educational levels in this population. Once the cadets are commissioned as officers, they may attend professional training in the branch school, Command Staff College and War College at various stages during their military career development.

Table A.5 Total Distribution by Educational Level

Level	Number	Percent
2-Year-College	138	46.6
4-Year-Academy	147	49.7
Master Degree	11	3.7
Total	296	100%

Table A.6 Total Distribution by Military Training Level

Level	Number	Percent
Branch School	184	65.0
Command Staff College	87	30.8
War College	12	4.2
Total	283	100%
Missing	13	

The questionnaires asked respondents for demographic data such as: age, rank, service years, educational attainments, military and civilian expertise, and job titles and positions before and after retirement. Reference was made to the ‘Taiwanese Military Profession Table of the Officer Corps, 1995’ to scrutinize every respondent’s profession, to decide whether or not they had transferable civilian expertise and skills (see Table A.7).

Table A.7 Total Distribution by Skills

Skills	Number	Percent

With Transferable		
Civilian Skills	154	52
Without Transferable		
Civilian Skills	142	48

Total	296	100%

A.2 Transition Index (Groups B and C, total cases 153)

The questions raised by the study caused the need for an index to measure some, not all, aspects of efficiency and quality of the transition from military retirement to civilian occupations. To serve this need, a ‘transition index’ was developed which provides one of the measures. The transition index is the important research tool of this study and the terms High-Transition (H-T), Medium-Transition (M-T) and Low-Transition (L-T) will be repeatedly applied in assessment of various aspects of the transition from military

service to civilian occupations. On a most fundamental basis, H-T will be considered no difficulty in obtaining jobs synonymous with good, desirable, favourable and effective. The term L-T implies a transition approaching the converse of these conditions.

In this survey, respondents were asked whether they had faced any difficulty in applying jobs and/or employment (see Table A.30 later in this chapter). Those who had not experienced any difficulty were counted as H-T; those who had faced one or two difficulties were viewed as M-T; and three or more difficulties were regarded as L-T. However, the classification of transition index from the questionnaire responses is not sufficient to measure the overall efficiency or quality of the transition from military retirement to civilian employment.

Here is the definition of the 'transition index' in this study:

“The transition index is an observable indicator to show whether retired officers have any difficulty in finding jobs or in employment, and how many difficulties they have experienced”.

Even if it indicated that they had faced some difficulties it may not be evident how these related to their present employment status: whether they are employed or not; how much pay they received, and whether they are satisfied with their jobs and pay, etc. Thus, the transition index will be cross-tabulated with job and pay satisfaction, and combined with stated incomes from their retirement occupations.

The transition index will be also analyzed in relation to variables such as age, ranks, educational levels, career plans, vocational training programmes, multiple skills, and the desire to pursue a second career. By an equal weighing of retirement satisfaction and

stated retirement earnings on a group basis, values may be assigned so that a transition index can be calculated on an individual basis. The subjects may now be ranked according to each individual's transition index and then group.

The values for the transition index were calculated separately for the groups (H-T, M-T, L-T) as a whole and then for each of the two cohorts, those who had had vocational training course (Group B) and those who hadn't (Group C). While most of those falling into a particular transition index category in the group overall will fall into that same transition index category within their respective cohorts, there are some expectations because of the differences between the cohorts. The separate calculation for the group as a whole and its sub-group cohorts thereby provides for more accurate comparison between the group and each of the cohorts. The transition index will be applied to the data analysis for Groups B and C (both groups retired and employed in private sectors).

The application of the transition index to the three groups (H-T, M-T and L-T). It should be noted that numbers in the H-T and L-T are consistent throughout the presentation of group data and are a reflection only of the mathematical application of the transition index. That is to say, the sizes of the H-T, M-T and L-T groups are not at all related, in this case, to the perceived satisfaction with job, but reflect only the mathematical distribution generated by application of the transition index. In further support and explanation of this concept, Table A.8 reflects the impact of perceived satisfaction of jobs as one of the components of the transition index.

Table A.8 Perceived 'Job Satisfaction' in Groups B and C

		Satisfaction with Job				
		Dissatisfied/Satisfied/Very Satisfied			Row	Chi-Square
Transition					Total	Value =
Index						27.50135
H-T	16.0%	40.0%	44.0%	19.7%	***	
M-T	45.5%	49.1%	5.5%	43.4%	Missing	
L-T	57.4%	34.0%	8.5%	37.0%	Cases = 26	
Column						Valid
Total	44.1%	41.7%	14.2%			Cases = 127

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

From Table A.8, Chi-Square value = 27.50135, DF = 4, $P = 0.00002$ has reached a significance level. It indicates that the H-T group was more satisfied with their civilian occupation than other groups, while the L-T group were more dissatisfied. This result shows that different transition indexes were significantly associated with the differences in job satisfaction among 127 retirees.

In this study, the 'job satisfaction' is to measure retirees' satisfaction with work and tasks itself, and 'pay satisfaction' is regarding pay only. However, we may see the same example demonstrated as follows.

Table A.9 Perceived 'Pay Satisfaction' in Groups B and C

Satisfaction with Pay			Row Total	Chi-Square Value =
Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied		
Transition Index				20.85717
H-T	20.0%	56.0%	24.0%	19.5% ***
M-T	65.5%	32.7%	1.8%	43.0% Missing
L-T	60.4%	33.3%	6.3%	37.5% Cases = 25
Column				Valid
Total	53.7%	37.5%	7.8%	Cases = 128

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

From Table A.9, Chi-Square value = 20.85717, DF = 4, P = 0.00034 has reached a significance level. We can see the same result from Table A.9 which indicates that the H-T group reported that they were more satisfied with their pay while the L-T group were more likely to be dissatisfied than other groups. This result shows that different transition indexes were significantly associated with the differences in satisfaction with payment among 128 retirees.

Table A.10 reflects all the components of current monthly income; only the income from current employment was calculated into the transition index. Consequently, the average (mean) monthly income from current employment of the 22 subjects designated H-T was \$38,737, while the average monthly income from current employment of the 40 subjects designated as L-T was \$36,325. In the H-T group of \$38,737 there is a difference at the 0.05 level. H-T retirees earned more from their civilian occupations than did L-T retirees.

Table A.10 Current Monthly Income by Transition Index (Groups B and C)

Source	Total Group (N=113)	H-T (N=22)	M-T (N=51)	L-T (N=40)

Current Employment				
Pay (Mean)	\$36,062	\$38,737*	\$34,723	\$36,325
Retired Pension (Mean)	\$49,772	\$48,264	\$50,251	\$47,961

Total	\$85,842	\$87,001	\$84,974	\$84,287

Missing Cases = 40

* Significance at the 0.05 level

The monetary unit = New Taiwan Dollar (NT\$)

The averaged foreign exchange rate in 1995 was £ 1 = NT\$ 40

By combining the subjective perceptions of satisfaction with the objective figure of current monthly earnings from the civilian occupations, a measure has been devised by which other questionnaire responses may be assessed. Recognizing that the transition

index is less than finite, the M-T separation between the H-T and L-T group adds further legitimacy to the transition index as one of measures of the efficacy of the transition. The purpose of using the transition index with other variables such as age, rank, educational level, career plan, vocational training programmes, multiple skills, and the desire to pursue a second career, is to identify the correlation between the transition index and these variables.

On the average, it appears that retirees' post-retirement employment income, including retired pay or retired pension, is at least roughly equal to the total salary of active duty. But this may imply that some retired officers might experience a decline in their style of living while others end up better off.

A.3 Monthly Income from Employment (NT\$40 = £ 1 in average in 1995)

The current monthly income figures from previous Table A.10 reported reveal that retired officers are clearly a favoured segment of Taiwanese society in terms of their earnings from all sources. The group as a whole averaged total monthly earnings of \$85,842 of which \$36,062 was from current employment, and \$49,772 was from military retirement pension. Other sources such as spouse's income, etc. are not included in this figure. However, we will further compare the monthly income between the civilian employees and the military officers as follows:

(1) Civilian Employees:

According to the employment statistics of the Directorate General of Budget, Accounting and Statistics (DGBAS), the average monthly income in every industry are:

Table A.11 The Average Monthly Income in Industry

Industry	Average \$28,626	Service	Average \$34,288
Electricity/Water/Gas	\$58,696	Financial banking	
Construction	\$30,189	/insurance	\$50,666
Manufacturing	\$28,101	Service in business	
Mine	\$27,832	/industry	\$42,459
		Transportation	
		/telecommunication	\$37,439
		Social/personal service	\$30,846
		Business	\$29,586

(Resource: China Times, 1994.3.14, Section 19)

In Table A.11, the average monthly income \$34,288 in service is higher than \$28,626 in industry. The top/bottom five monthly income in professions as shown as following Table A.12:

Table A.12 The Top/Bottom Five Monthly Income

The top five highest monthly income		The bottom five lowest monthly income	
Professions	Average	Professions	Average
-----		-----	
Electricity	\$67,000	Laundry	\$20,000
Telecommunication	\$66,000	Clothes sales	\$19,000
Foreign banking	\$64,000	Tourist service	\$18,000
Petrol industry	\$62,000	Food/restaurant	\$17,000
Professional consultant	\$61,000	Hair/beauty saloon	\$16,000

(Resource: China Times, 1994.3.14, Section 19)

The highest monthly income is \$67,000 in electricity, while the lowest monthly income is \$16,000 in hair/beauty saloon. The difference between both incomes is \$51,000.

Compared to a military officer's monthly income including 'commander allowance', 'service allowance', and 'basic pay' (for example, the former is \$3,210; the latter is \$15,460 for a second lieutenant in the first year, and the basic pay is \$16,990), it reveals as following Table A.13:

(2) Military Officers:

Table A.13 Officers' Monthly Income in 1995

Ranks	The starting monthly pay (first year)	The maximum monthly pay
2nd Lieutenant	\$35,660	\$43,970 (13th year/over)
Lieutenant	\$38,110	\$49,000 (15th year/over)
Captain	\$43,295	\$51,890 (11th year/over)
Major	\$46,580	\$56,610 (11th year/over)
Lt. Colonel	\$52,260	\$70,045 (12th year/over)
Colonel	\$69,380	\$80,265 (12th year/over)

(Resource: data provided by Major General, Yu, L.H. 1995.4.25).

In Table A.13, Lt. colonel and colonel's monthly income can be classified as the 'high/highest income' groups in the employment market in Taiwan compared to their civilian counterparts. The starting monthly income \$35,660 for a second lieutenant in military service is slightly higher than the average monthly income \$34,288 in business service, and \$28,626 in industry. In addition, we may also compare the starting monthly

income \$35,660 for a second lieutenant, for example, to the figures in the following Table A.14:

Table A.14 Starting Monthly Pay in Industry in 1995

Average	Manufacturing	Hi-Tech	Service	Banking
\$27,143	\$27,007	\$26,336	\$26,799	\$29,570

(Resource: China Times, 1995.5.8, Section 15)

The starting monthly pay \$35,660 for a second lieutenant is higher than the average monthly pay \$27,143 in industry in 1995. In addition, the average starting monthly pay for an employee with a B.A. degree directly out of college/university, working in a semi-conductor company in Taiwan is approximately \$30,000 to \$32,000, at the higher end of the scale; the same employee might earn \$20,000 to \$25,000 in a advertising company, at the lower end of the scale (China Times, 1995.5.8).

In terms of 'monthly income', military officers should be ranked as one of the best occupations in Taiwan. In addition, in this research we found that the average monthly employment income for retired officers is \$36,062, plus their average retirement pension \$49,772 will be reached to \$85,842 altogether which will be the highest monthly income in Taiwan's job market (see Table A.10), compared to the highest civilian income on 'electricity occupation' \$67,000 in 1995 (see Table A.12). But an average monthly employment income \$36,062 for a retired colonel is about equally to the monthly income, the lowest one, of a second lieutenant in military service.

For a person with the responsibility of a first grade officer, second lieutenant, a \$35,660 monthly salary for a full time work appears satisfactory compared to the pay of his/her civilian counterparts. On the other hand, however, he/she may be dissatisfied with it, because of the different perceptions of officers towards different jobs or job conditions. For example, a second lieutenant might work in the Ministry of National Defence in Taipei for 8 hours a day, and be free at the weekends, while another might be working in the front line, in a dangerous zone in Kinmen Island for 24 hours a day, 7 days a week, and having one week leave in Taiwan for every 2-3 months. Both second lieutenants will be earning the same, but the first may be more likely to be satisfied with job than the second.

For many employers, retirees are alternative employees because the financial obligations employers could ordinarily incur (medical benefits, pension payment, etc.) are precluded by the protection and benefits retired military officers receive. Moreover, many retirees may actually seek an earnings level in civilian jobs that, together with their pension, matches or slightly exceeds what they would have earned in military service. Finally, their willingness to work enables many to work in occupations compatible with the types of activities and duties they assumed in their professional officer roles. Together with the formation of salary, time and task considerations in the post-active periods in military service shape the profiles of retirees in terms of income and occupational responsibilities in civilian employment.

Table A.15 shows the two groups' average employment income. While the average employment income \$34,397 of Group B and \$30,730 in Group C, both retirees earned enough in retired pay to more than offset the employment earnings differential.

Table A.15 Current Monthly Income in Groups B and C

	Group B	Group C
Source	(N=63)	(N=64)

Current Employment		
Pay (Mean)	\$34,397	\$30,730
Retired Pension (Mean)	\$49,427	\$41,379

Total	\$83,824	\$72,109

Missing Cases = 16 in Group B

Missing Cases = 10 in Group C

Having decided to retire, officers face a 20-40 % reduction in monthly income. This occurs at the time when many families are faced with children's tuition costs. Resettlement and housing costs related to retirement are a further complication. Partly for this reason, 87.2% of 153 retirees in Groups B and C worked after leaving military service.

A.4 Data on Military Training, Education and Development (Groups A, B, C and D, total cases 296)

Figure A.1 Are you satisfied with military education and training? (valid cases 269, missing cases 27)

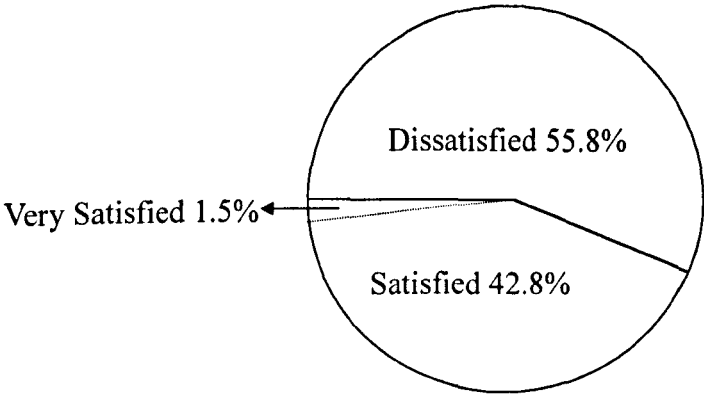


Figure A.2 Is learning multiple skills important while in the military? (valid cases 291, missing cases 5)

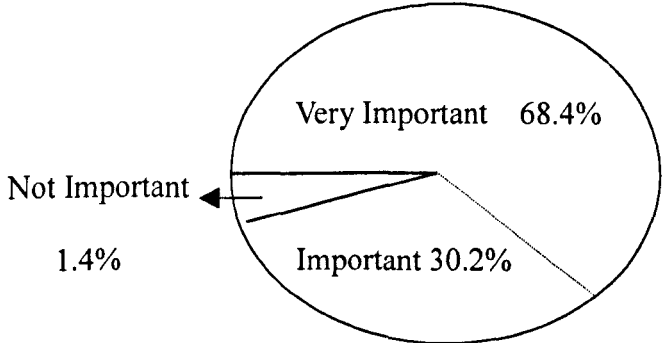


Figure A.3 What are the learning environment and opportunity in the military? (valid cases 293, missing cases 3, 'none' here means 'no learning opportunity at all')

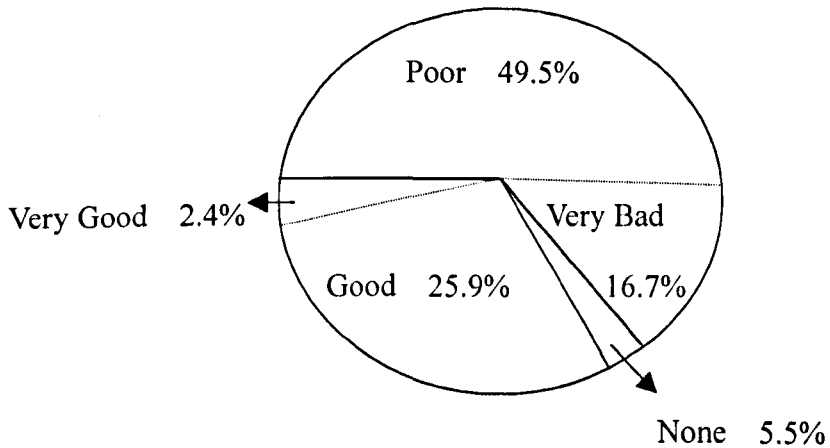


Figure A.4 Can the military become a learning organisation? (valid cases 275, missing cases 21)

The original question was asked: "Currently, the private business is promoting the concepts of 'learning organisation' to encourage individual and organisational learning to achieve organisational goals. Can the military become a learning organisation?"

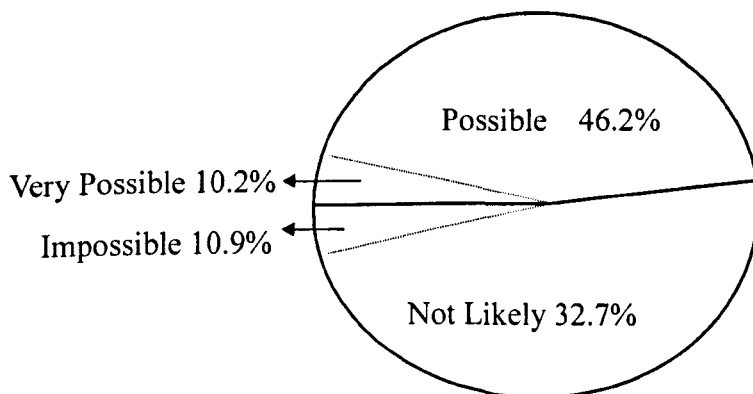


Table A.16 What is the best statement of 'military career development'? (valid cases 295, missing case 1)

Depends on Your Senior Officers	56.6%

Depends on Your Performance and Ability	14.6%

Depends on Educational Attainments and Service Records	14.6%

If I Can't Get Promotion, I Should Retire and Develop A Second Career	7.1%

Other Statements	7.1%

Total	100%

Figure A.5 Do your senior officers care about subordinates' career development? (valid cases 296)

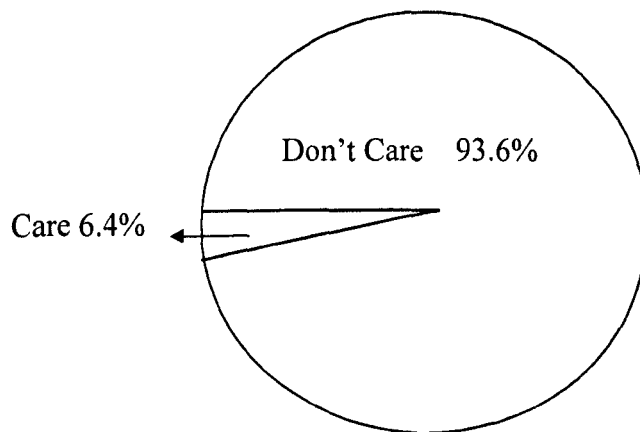


Figure A.6 Do your senior officers care about their subordinates' learning, education and training? (valid cases 296)

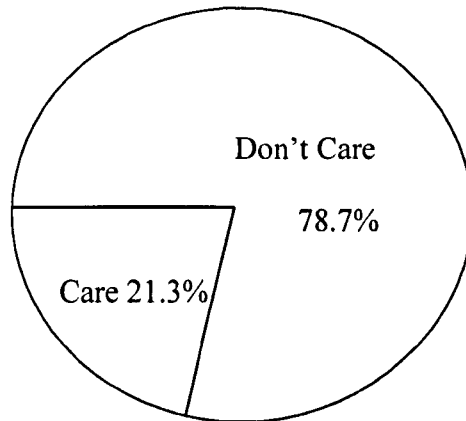
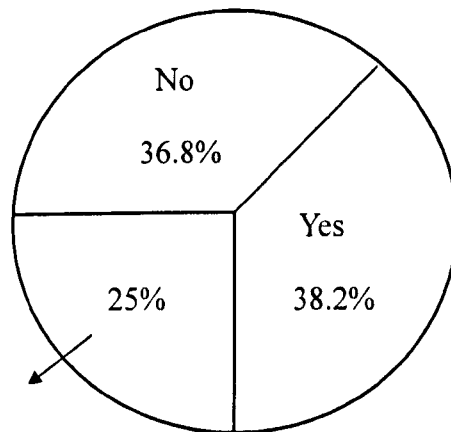


Figure A.7 Do you have a personal career development plan in the military? (valid cases 296)



I don't know how to make
a career development plan

Figure A.8 Is it necessary to have a career development plan for officers in the military?

(valid cases 296)

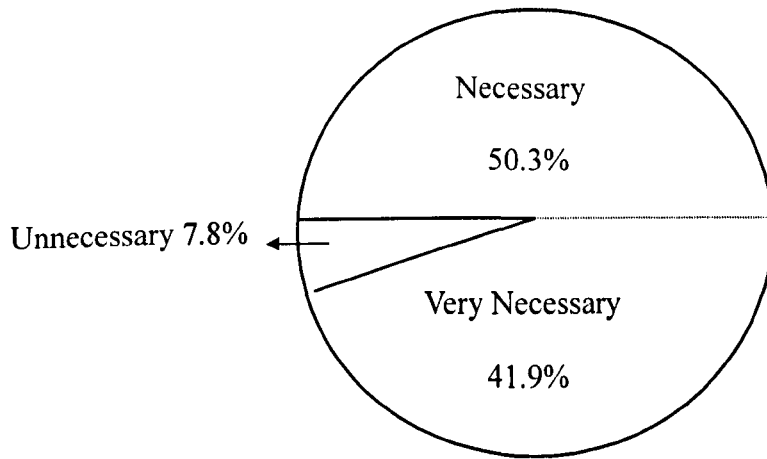


Table A.17 When should the career development plan start for an officer? (valid cases

294, missing cases 2)

Recruitment Period	30.6%

Since Graduation	25.2%

Enrollment Period	19.7%

In the Mid-Service Period	16.7%

Before Retirement	7.8%

Total	100%

Figure A.9 Does the military provide you with sufficient information to make a career development plan? (valid cases 296)

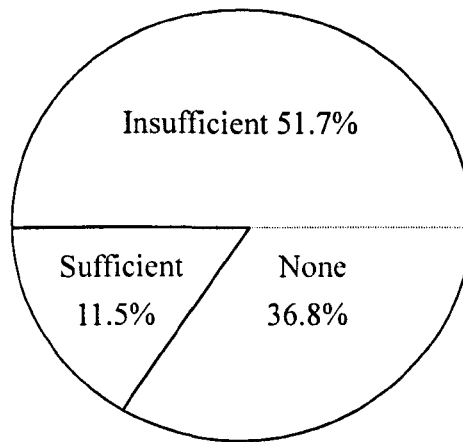


Figure A.10 Does the military provide you with sufficient information, training or assistance for your resettlement and subsequent employment? (except TTC and BMC, valid cases 296)

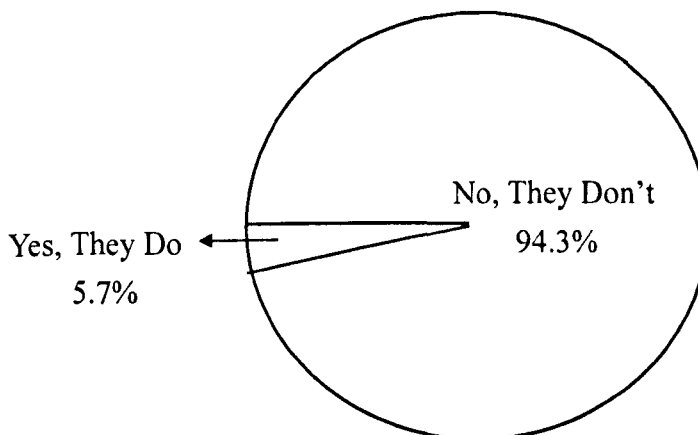
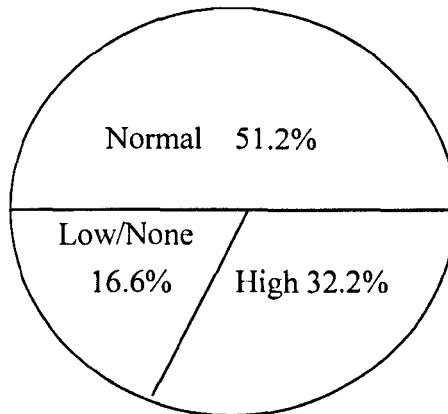


Figure A.11 What are your perceptions on your 'military career achievement' while you were in the service? (valid cases 295, missing case 1)



A.5 Data on Retirement (Groups A, B, C and D mainly, total cases 296)

Table A.18 Why you decided to retire from military service? (multiple choice up to six answers, valid cases 283, missing cases 13)

No Future	39.20%

Service Expired	33.22%

Poor Senior Leadership	23.32%

Unfair Personnel Practises and Policies	21.20%

Qualifications Limited	19.08%

Can Not Learn Expertise and Skills	17.67%

Poor Practises of Promotion and Evaluation	16.61%

Poor Morale and Discipline	12.37%

Low Social Status	10.25%

We may compare to the similar results from the Groups B and C as Table A.19 as follow.

Table A.19 Why you decided to retire from military service? (multiple choice up to six answers in Groups B and C, valid cases 142, missing cases 11)

No Future	35.21%

Service Expired	33.80%

Poor Practises of Promotion and Evaluation	30.28%

Unfair Personnel Practises and Policies	25.35%

Poor Senior Leadership	23.94%

Low Social Status	21.13%

Qualifications Limited	20.42%

Cannot Learn Expertise and Skills	14.79%

Over Working Loads	13.38%

Figure A.12 What do you think about the employer's acceptance of retirees. (valid cases 294, missing cases 2)

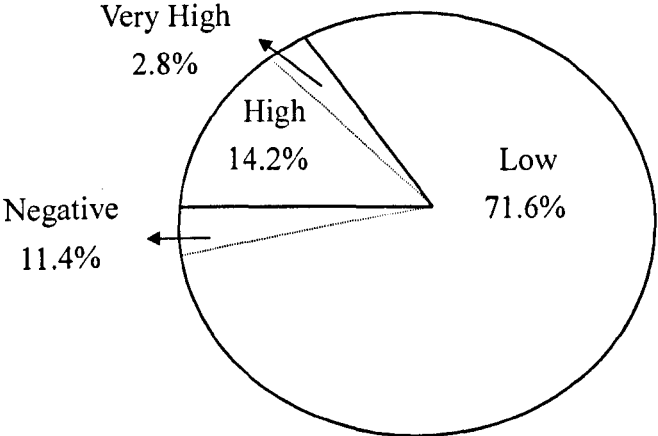


Figure A.13 Middle-aged retired officers find it more difficult to find jobs. (valid cases 275, missing cases 21)

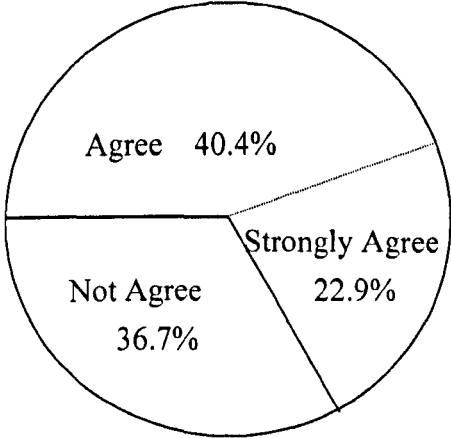


Figure A.14 The transferability of military expertise and skills to the civilian employment. (valid cases 288, missing cases 8)

In the questionnaires, one question was asked: “In general, can military expertise and skills be transferred and applied to the civilian work?”

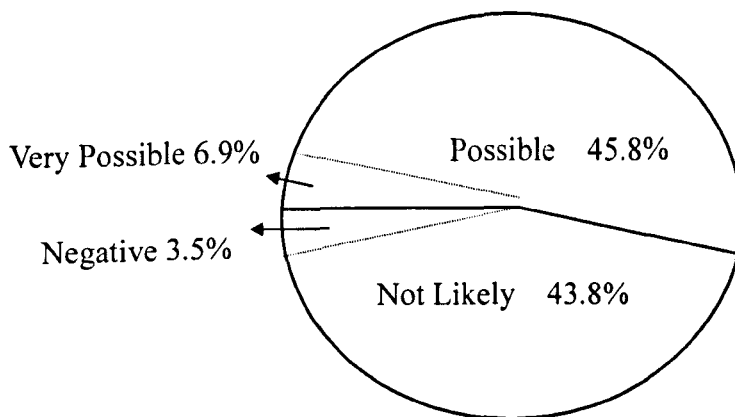


Figure A.15 The transferability of military management and experiences to the civilian employment. (valid cases 294, missing cases 2)

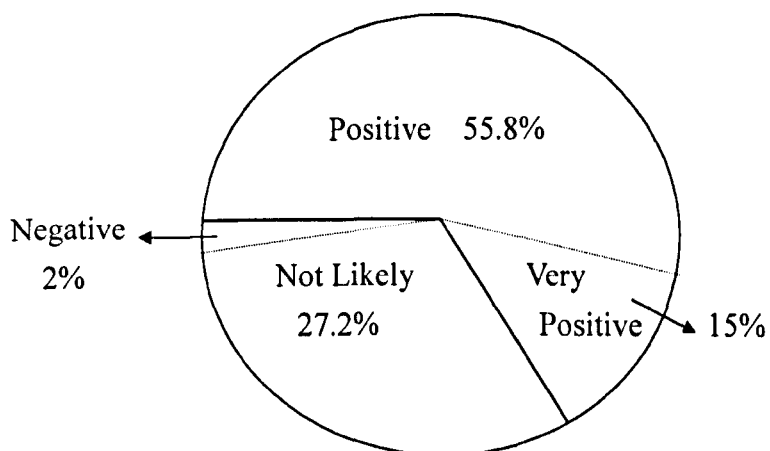


Figure A.16 The desire to pursue the goals in second careers (valid cases 289, missing cases 7)

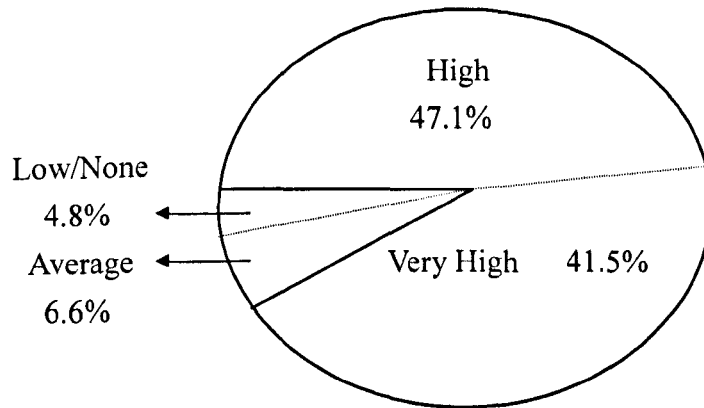


Figure A.17 The need for training, education and development programmes by the company for new veteran-employees. (valid cases 285, missing cases 11)

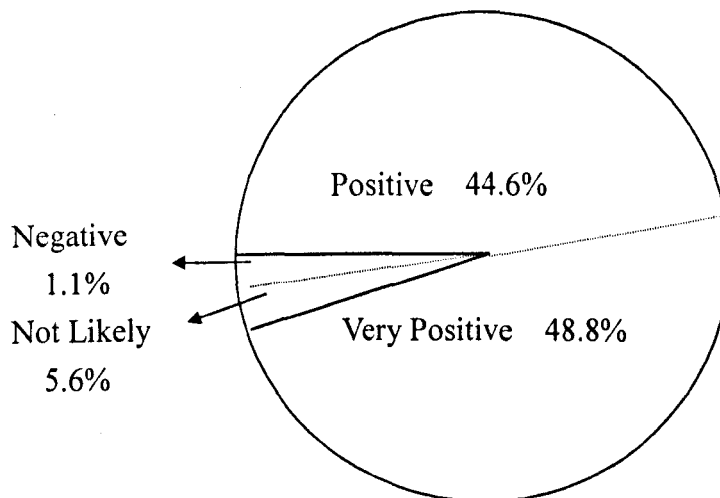


Table A.20 What kinds of skills and expertise you should have in order to apply for an ideal job? (multiple choice up to six answers, valid cases 281, missing cases 15)

Managerial	56.94%

Technical	48.40%

Computer	47.69%

Language	31.32%

Marketing	20.28%

Administrative	18.15%

A.6 Data on Employment and Second Career (Groups B and C mainly, total cases 153)

Basic Data:

1. Actual employed cases = 116

2. Unemployed cases = 17

3. Missing cases = 20

(20 respondents didn't answer whether they are employed or not)

4. The monetary unit = New Taiwan Dollar (NT\$). The average foreign exchange rate in 1995 was £ 1 = NT\$ 40.

Table A.21 Employment Rate (valid cases 133, missing cases 20)

	Unemployment	Employment	Row Total
Group B	12.5%	87.5%	54.1%
Group C	13.1%	86.9%	45.9%
Column Total	12.8%	87.2%	100%

Figure A.18 Employed Persons by Job Category

(valid cases 112, missing cases 41)

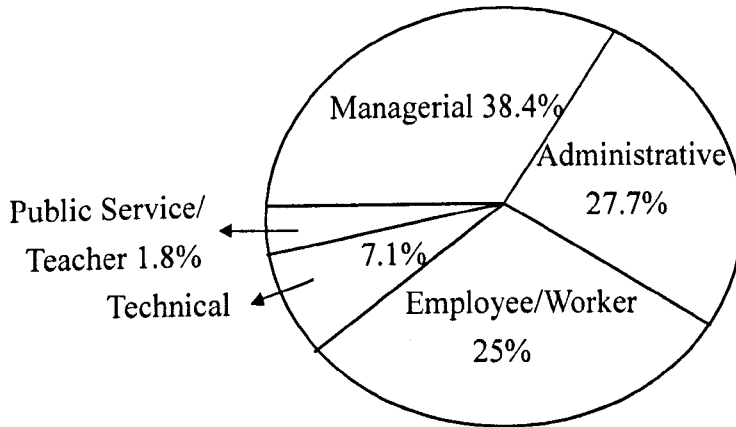


Table A.22 Employed Retirees by Industry (valid cases 105, missing cases 48)

Industry	60.7%	Service	39.3%
Manufacturing	45.5%	Business Service	14.3%
Construction	7.6%	Security Service	12.4%
Hi-Tech	3.8%	Transportation	6.7%
Food-Making	3.8%	Bank/Insurance	2.9%
		Restaurant	2.9%

In Table A.22, 6.7% were doing 'transportation job' in which 5 respondents were vehicle drivers for company, 1 respondent was a vehicle mechanic, and 1 was a manager. In this Table, 48 respondents did not answer what their jobs are, and some of them were unemployed.

Figure A.19 Family or Non-Family Business (valid cases 102, missing cases 51)

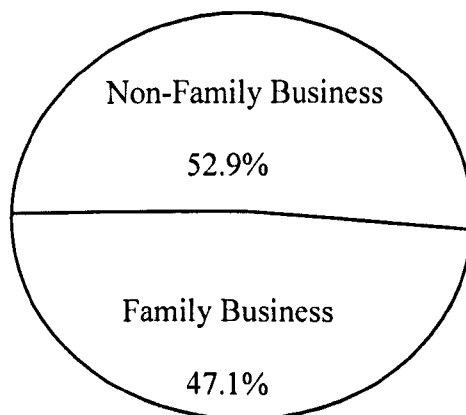


Figure A.20 Training and Development Units/Programmes Among Companies

(valid cases 106, missing cases 47)

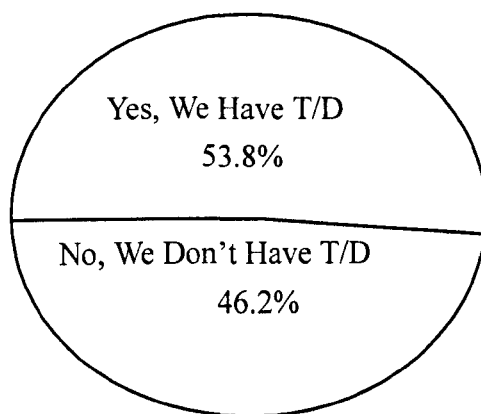


Table A.23 Family Company by Training/Development Programmes

(valid cases 101, missing cases 52)

	With T/D	Without T/D	Total
Family Company	50.0%	50.0%	47.1%
Non-Family	60.4%	39.6%	52.9%
Total	53.8%	46.2%	

Half of the family companies do not have training and development units and programmes, compared to that of 39.6% non-family companies. This represents that 50.0% of retired officers who are working in the family company shared no any training and development programmes, while 39.6% of retired officers who are working in the non-family company had the same treatment.

Table A.24 Company Size by Training/Development Programmes, and Percent of Employed Military Retirees (valid cases 105, missing cases 48)

Company Size	With T/D	Without T/D	Employed Retirees
1- 9 persons	0%	100%	1.9%
10-29 persons	19.0%	81.0%	19.6%
30-49 persons	66.7%	33.3%	9.3%
50-99 persons	45.0%	55.0%	18.7%
100-199 persons	56.3%	43.8%	15.9%
200-499 persons	66.7%	33.3%	14.0%
500/over persons	86.4%	13.6%	20.6%

Small-middle sized enterprise has dominated 98.49% of whole enterprises in Taiwan in 1990 with providing 70% whole job opportunities available, and its total production has shared 50% of gross national production (GNP) per year (Huang, 1990, p.117). In 1995, 96% business companies were small-middle sized enterprises (90,000 companies) (Economic Daily News, 1995.6.23). According to the Report of Medium and Small

Business Administration, the Ministry of Economic Affairs (1996.12.3), the definitions of the small-middle sized enterprises are:

(1) Business enterprise: annual sale under \$80,000,000, employees under 50.

(2) Manufacturing enterprise: capital \$60,000,000, employees under 500.

Table A.25 What are the most important considerations in looking for an ideal job?

(multiple choice, valid cases 150, missing cases 3)

Job Nature (can fit my interest)	60.78%

Good Work Environment	53.59%

My Expertise and Skills	
Can Be Used Efficiently	38.56%

Income/Welfare	32.68%

Working Hour	12.42%

Good Colleague/Boss	10.46%

Promotion	7.19%

Company Reputation	3.27%

Training Opportunity	2.61%

Those retired officers who need to looking for an ideal job consider in priority: job nature which can fit my interest, good working environment, and my expertise and skills can be used efficiently. Assured by retirement pension, their considerations on income and welfare was put on the fourth order.

Table A.26 Employment Monthly Income [valid cases 113, (actual employed cases 116), missing cases 40]

		Monthly Income			
		Low	Medium	High	Row Total
Group B		20.6%	52.4%	27.0%	55.8%
Group C		12.0%	50.0%	38.0%	44.2%
Column Total		16.8%	51.3%	31.8%	100%

Low income = \$19,000 to \$25,000, medium income = \$26,000 to \$40,000, high income = \$41,000 and over.

Table A.27 Distribution of Transferable Skills (based on ‘Taiwanese Military Profession Table of the Officer Corps, 1995’ to scrutinize every respondent’s profession, and to decide whether or not his profession can be transferred to the civilian work, valid cases 153)

		Without Skills	With Skills	Row Total
Group B		43.0%	57.0%	51.6%
Group C		60.8%	39.2%	48.4%
Column Total		51.6%	48.4%	100%

Table A.28 Distribution of Pensioner (valid cases 153, officers who have been serving over 20 years will be entitled to retirement pension)

	Without Pension / With Pension		Row Total
Group B	5.1%	94.9%	51.6%
Group C	17.6%	82.4%	48.4%
Column Total	11.1%	88.9%	100%

Table A.29 Distribution of the Military Service (valid cases 152, missing case 1)

	Army	Navy	Air Force	CSS	Row Total
Group B	59.5%	7.6%	21.5%	11.4%	52.0%
Group C	27.4%	24.7%	16.4%	31.5%	48.0%
Column Total	44.1%	15.8%	19.1%	21.1%	100%

CSS = Combat Support Services

Table A.30 Is there any difficulty in seeking a job and/or employment? [multiple choice up to five answers, valid cases 105 (actual employed cases 116), missing cases 48]

Lack of Skills	50.48%

Older Age	45.71%

Devaluated Military Degree and Qualifications	29.52%

Can't Fit into Company's Management and Culture	21.90%

Low Pay/Position	18.09%

Table A.30 shows that those retired officers in Groups B and C who have faced difficulties when they were seeking jobs and/or in employment. Let's compare the expected perceptions on the foreseen employment difficulties in Groups A and D in following Table A.31.

Table A.31 Expected difficulties of seeking a job or employment in the near future
 (multiple choice up to five answers in Groups A and D, valid cases 138, missing cases 5)

Lack of Skills	54.34%

Devaluated Military Degree and Qualifications	39.86%

Older Age	39.86%

Don't Know How to Apply for A Job	38.41%

Can't Fit into Company's Management and Culture	31.89%

Figure A.21 Are you satisfied with your civilian job? (valid cases 135, missing cases 18)



Figure A.22 Are you satisfied with your payment? (valid cases 135, missing cases 18)



Figure A.23 Middle-aged officers find it more difficult to find jobs (valid cases 145, missing cases 8)

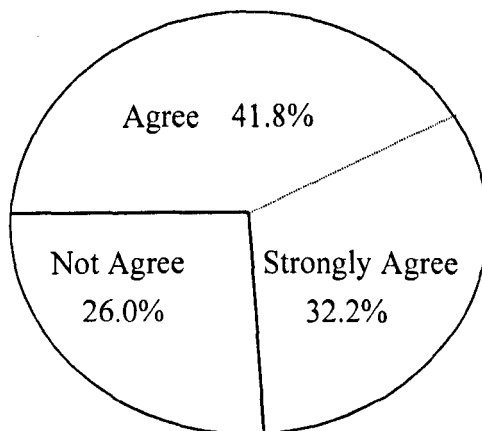


Figure A.24 What do you think about the employers' acceptance of retirees (valid cases 142, missing cases 11).

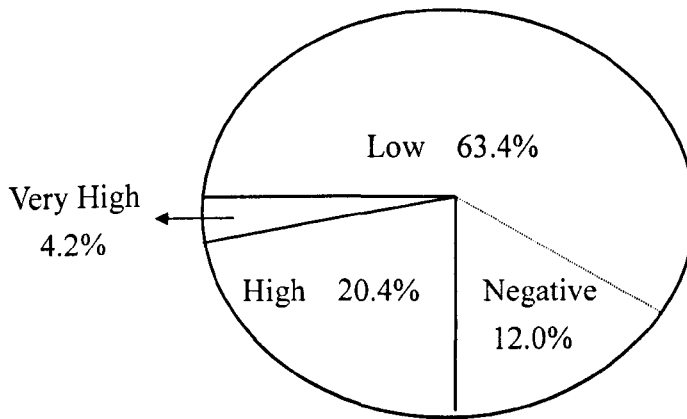


Figure A.25 Have you ever been discriminated against while you are employed or seeking a job? (valid cases 153)

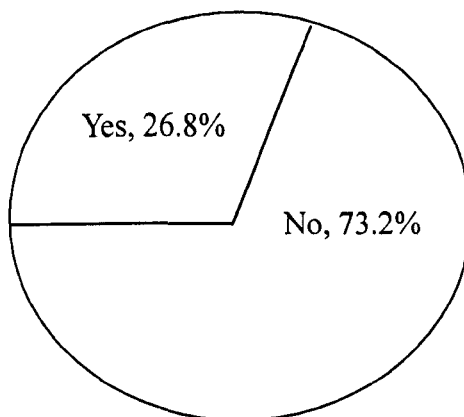


Figure A.26 Have you ever had any difficulty in finding a job because of a lack in expertise/skills? (valid cases 153)

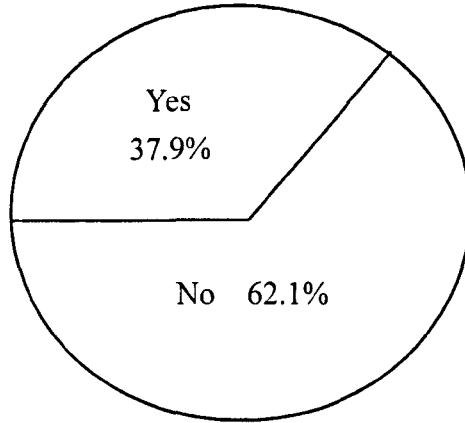


Figure A.27 Number of jobs since retirement? (valid cases 136, missing cases 17)

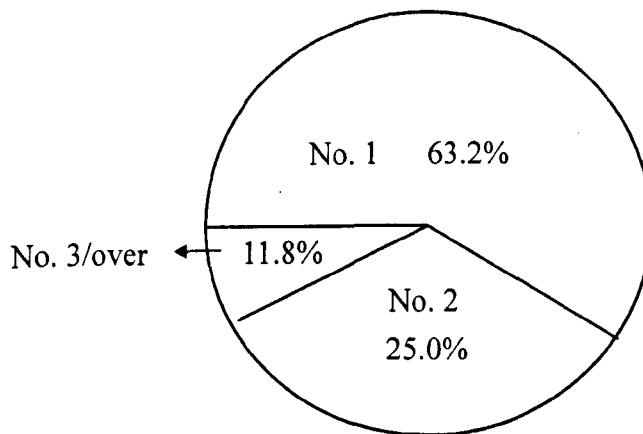


Table A.32 Reasons of dissatisfaction with your job, if any? [multiple choice up to four answers, valid cases 78, (actual employed cases 116), missing cases 75]

Low Pay	35.9%

No Future	35.9%

Work Pressure	30.8%

I Don't Like This Job	29.5%

Lack of Expertise/Skills	20.5%

Cannot Adjust Myself To the New Work Role	14.1%

'I don't like this job' listed here as one of the possible reasons of dissatisfaction means that I am taking this job, possibly, for instance, for the need of payment, regardless of whether I like the job or not. For example, a retired officer with higher rank may dislike getting a job of apartment janitor, but he is still taking this job for the payment sake. Thus, 'I don't like this job' could be regarded as one of the reasons of dissatisfaction with jobs among retired officers.

'Low pay' regarded as a 'difficulty' while retired officers were seeking jobs and/or in employment (see Table A.30). Retired officers may 'feel' difficult in receiving lower payment than they expected. This is why many retired officers were not satisfied with lower payment, as this table shown.

Table A.33 What are the best qualifications to seek an ideal job for retired officers?
 (multiple choice up to four answers, valid cases 153)

Responsibility	56.2%

Loyalty and Enthusiasm	49.7%

Having Civilian Expertise and Skills	45.1%

Having Military Managerial Skills and Experience	45.1%

Hard Working Attitude	29.4%

Good Learning Ability and Attitude	22.2%

Good Adaptability	21.6%

Figure A.28 What is your desire to pursue second career goals? (valid cases 134,
 missing cases 19)

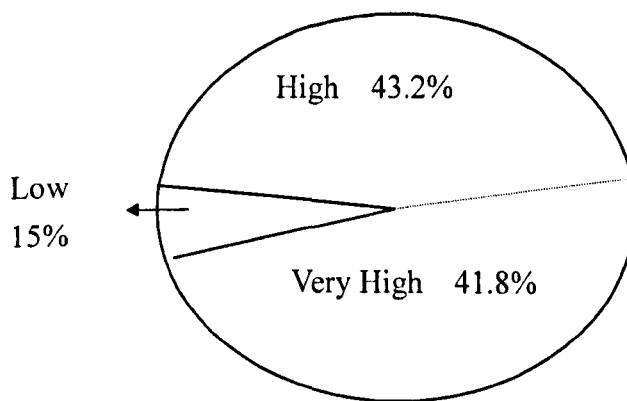


Table A.34 Job search methods among retired officers: Group B (valid cases 60, missing cases 19)

Friend/Family/Relative	32.9%

Recommended by Unions	28.9%

Advertisement in Newspaper	25.0%

By Yourself	7.9%

Public Job Agency	1.3%

Others	3.9%

Table A.35 Job search methods among retired officers: Group C (valid cases 56, missing cases 18)

Friend/Family/Relative	44.1%

Advertisement in Newspaper	10.3%

By Yourself	8.8%

Civil Service Examination	7.4%

Recommended by Unions	5.9%

Public Job Agency	2.9%

Private Job Agency	1.5%

Others	19.1%

A.7 Data on the Comparison of Policy and Practise of Human Resource Management between the Military and Business Organistaions (Groups B and C, total cases 153, actual employed 116).

Figure A.29 Military welfare programmes are better than business ones. (valid cases 140, missing cases 13)

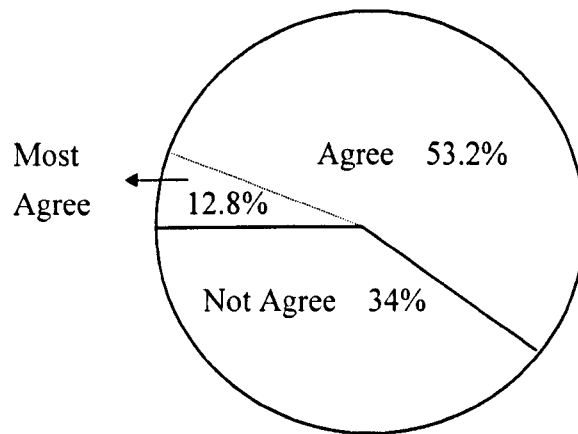


Figure A.30 Military management emphasizes more on personal training and development than business management does. (valid cases 138, missing cases 15)

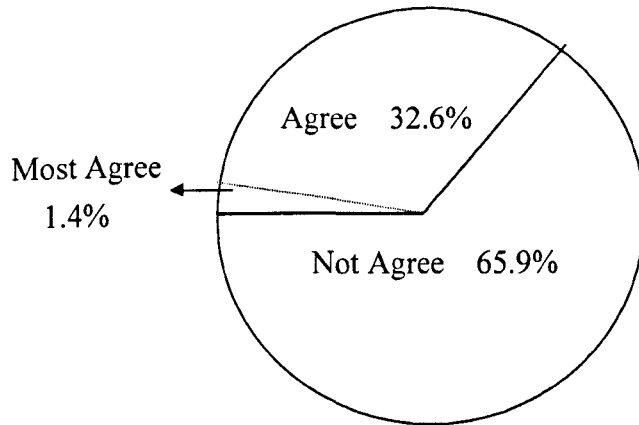


Figure A.31 Military promotion policy and practise are fairer than business ones. (valid cases 130, missing cases 23)

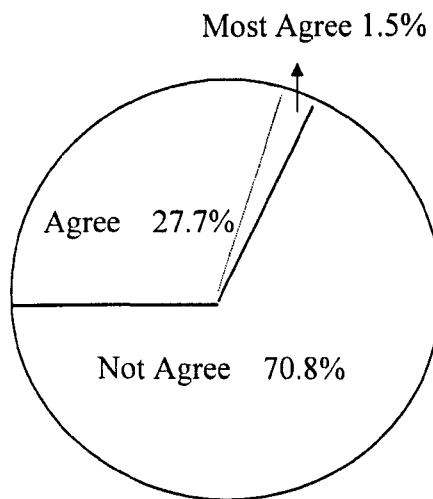


Figure A.32 I can learn more skills and experiences in military organisations than business ones. (valid cases 135, missing cases 18)

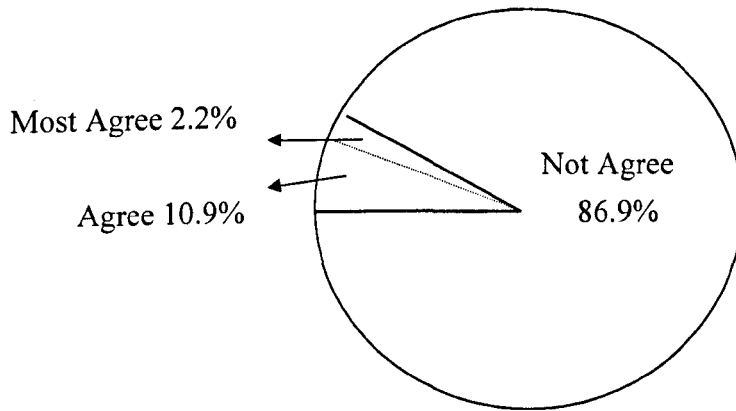


Figure A.33 Employees are more motivated by business reward policy and practise than military ones. (valid cases 141, missing cases 12)

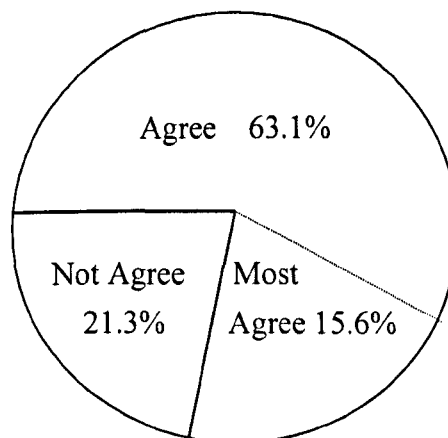


Figure A.34 Business pay level is higher than military one. (valid cases 132, missing cases 21)

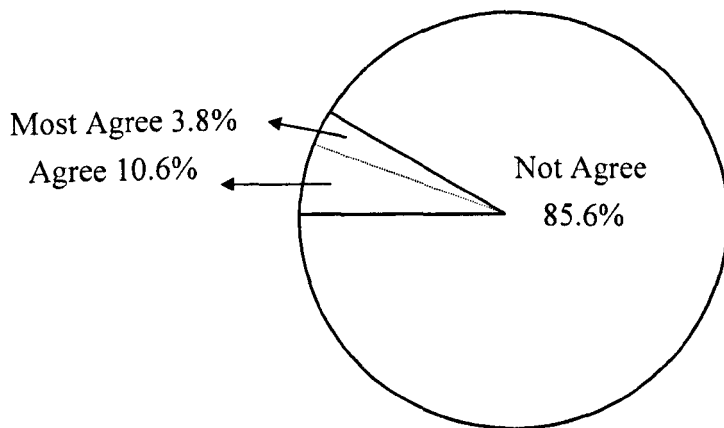


Figure A.35 Performance evaluation policy and practise in business organisations are better than military ones. (valid cases 118, missing cases 35)

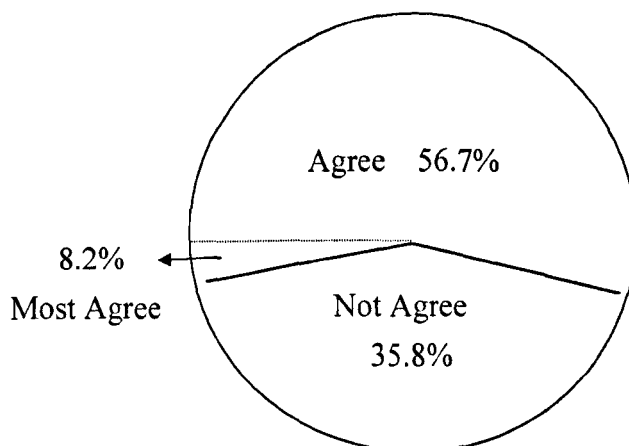


Figure A.36 The policy and practise of merit and demerit in business organisation are fairer than military ones. (valid cases 120, missing cases 33)

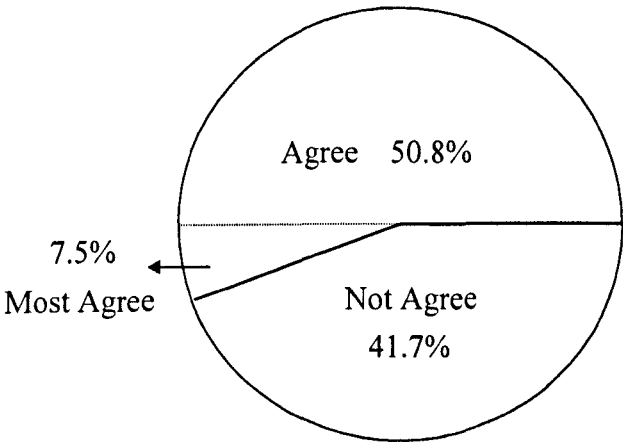


Figure A.37 I would get more chance to be promoted in business organisations than in military ones. (valid cases 117, missing cases 36)

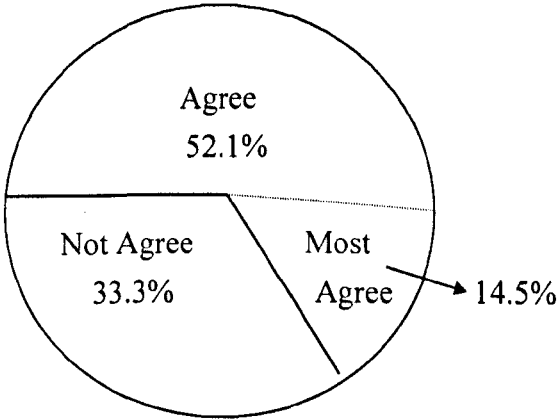


Figure A.38 I would get more payment according to my ability/performance in business organisations than in military ones. (valid cases 111, missing cases 42)

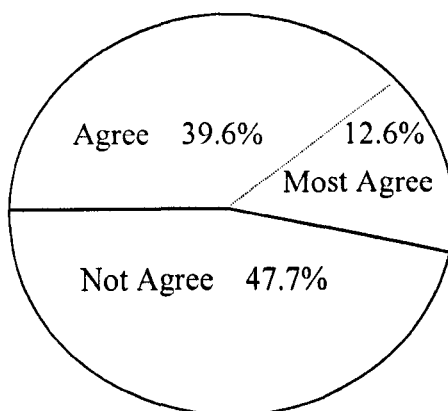


Figure A.39 I could apply my skills and expertise to the work more in business organisations than military ones. (valid cases 120, missing cases 33)

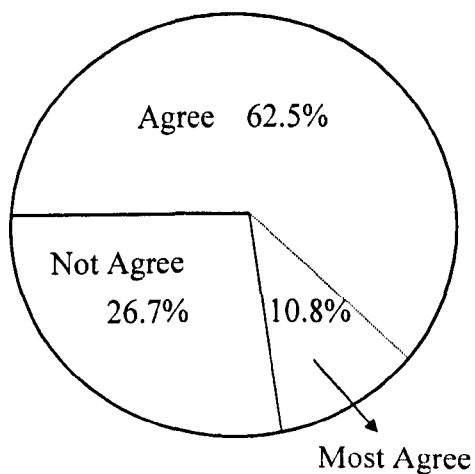


Figure A.40 If I worked incompetently, I would be easier to get fired in business organisations than military ones. (valid cases 139, missing cases 14)

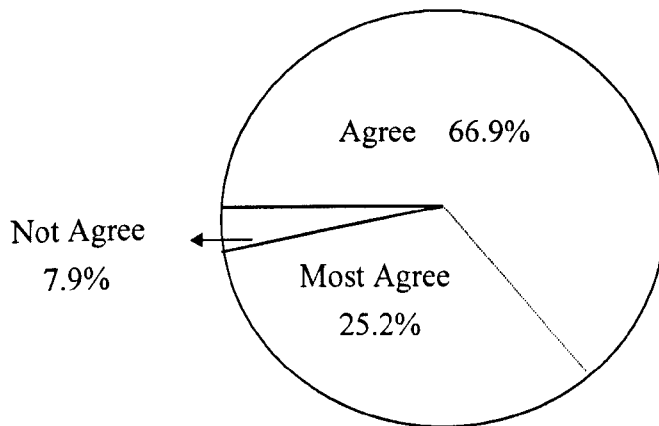
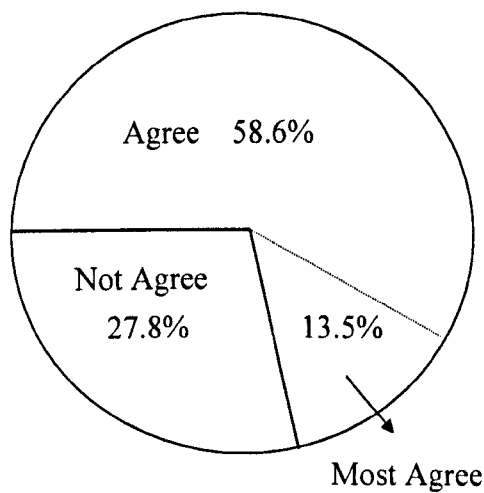


Figure A.41 Business management cares and concerns more on human factors than military management does. (valid cases 133, missing cases 20)



A.8 Data on the Perceptions of the Transitional Training Course (TTC) and Business Management Course (BMC) (Groups A, B and D).

Figure A.42 Did the TTC help your civilian employment? (Group B, valid cases 76, missing cases 3)

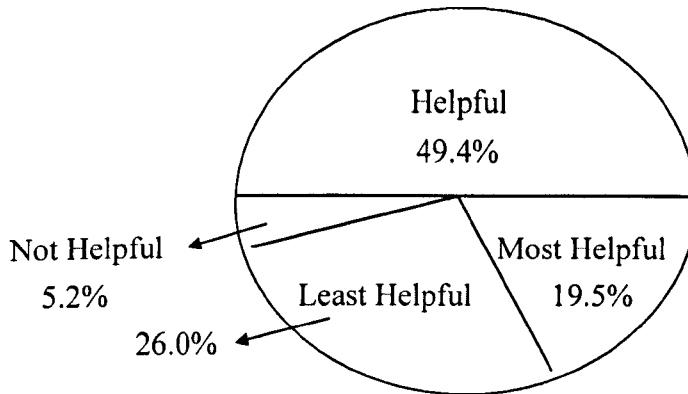


Figure A.43 What are your perceptions on the values and function of TTC? (Group A and B, valid cases 73)

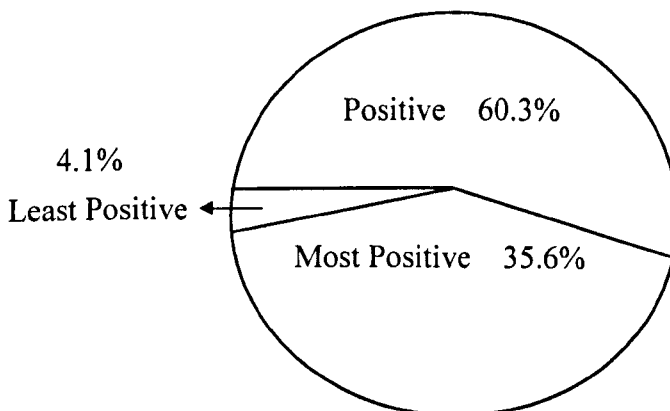
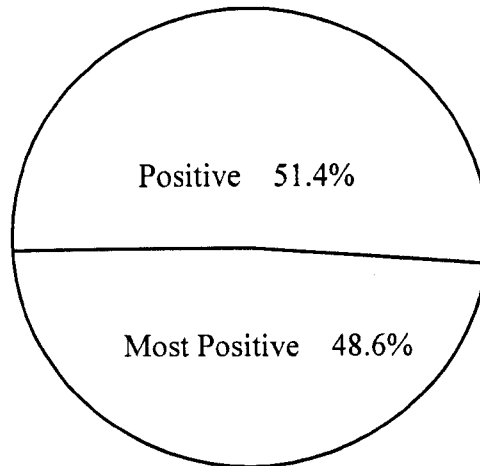


Figure A.44 What are your perceptions on the values and function of BMC? (Group D, valid cases 70)



APPENDIX B

Statistical Analysis of Findings

This section presents the results of a detailed analysis of the questions from the questionnaires. These are presented according to the main hypotheses that were proposed in literature review of Chapters 8 and 9. Before discussing the results, it is important that a number of points be made regarding their nature and the way in which they should be interpreted.

The tests were mainly processed on the Amstrad 486 SLC-33 MHz, IBM compatible with 4MB RAM. The researcher used the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) package version 6.0 for Windows. Bryman and Cramer (1990) comment:

“SPSS is one of, if not the, most widely used and comprehensive statistical programmes in the social science” (p.16).

The great advantage of using a package like SPSS is that it will enable the researcher to score and to analyze quantitative data very quickly and in many different ways. In other words, it helps the researcher to eliminate those long hours spent working out scores, carrying out involved calculations, and making those inevitable mistakes that so frequently occur while doing this. In the following analysis, each hypothesis will be tested by several crosstabulations, and then the results of null hypotheses testing will be discussed further.

Hypothesis 1: Retired Officers Intend To Make Successful Second Careers.

H-1.1 Transition Index

Table B.1 Groups B and C by Transition Index

	Transition Index			Row	Chi-Square
	H-T	M-T	L-T	Total	Value = 0.26781
Group B	19.7%	42.4%	37.9%	47.5%	Missing Cases = 14
Group C	16.4%	45.2%	38.4%	52.5%	
Column					Valid Cases
Total	18.0%	43.9%	38.1%		= 139

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

In Table B.1, Chi-Square value = 0.26781, DF = 2, $P = 0.87467$ didn't reach a significant level. Whether having vocational training or not was not significantly associated with the difficulties retirees had faced in obtaining jobs (transitional index).

To measure the quality and efficiency of transition from military retirement to civilian employment, the transition index should be used with job and pay satisfaction, combined with their stated incomes from their civilian jobs.

From previous Tables A.8 to A.10 in Chapter 9, we can find that those who are 'very satisfied' with their jobs and pay were in 'H-T', while the reverse is true in 'L-T'. And those who have higher monthly payment were in 'H-T' than those in 'L-T'.

H-1.2 Employment and Unemployment

Table B.2 Groups B and C by Employment Rate

	Unemployment	Employment	Row	Chi-Square
Group B	12.5%	87.5%	54.1%	Total Value = 0.01119
Group C	13.1%	86.9%	45.9%	Missing Cases = 20
Column				Valid Cases = 133
Total	12.8%	87.2%		

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

In Table B.2, Chi-Square value = 0.01119, DF = 1, P = 0.91574 didn't reach a significance level. Vocational training was not significantly associated with the employment or unemployment.

H-1.3 The Desire To Pursue Second Career Goals

Table B.3 Four Groups by the Self-Goal

Q: What is your desire to pursue second career goals? (Hereafter, 'self-goal'). The answers fell into either low, average, high or very high.

Groups	Self-Goal				Row Total	Chi-Square Value
	Low	Average	High	Very High		
Group A	4.1%	6.8%	57.5%	31.5%	25.3%	= 12.11583
Group B	6.5%	9.1%	46.8%	37.7%	26.6%	
Group C	7.2%	7.2%	39.1%	46.4%	23.9%	Missing Cases
Group D	1.4%	2.9%	44.3%	51.4%	24.2%	= 7
Column Total	4.8%	6.6%	47.1%	41.5%		Valid Cases = 289

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

In Table B.3, Chi-Square value = 12.11583, DF = 9, $P = 0.20686$ didn't reach a significance level.

H-1.4 The Need For Training and Education Provided by the Company For Military Retirees

Table B.4 Four Groups by the Need for Training and Education of the Company for Military Retirees

Q: Do you need the training and education provided by the company as you are a new employee? (Hereafter, 'the need for training/education').

The Need for Training/Education

Groups	Least /Negative	Positive	Very Positive	Row Total	Chi-Square Value
Group A	8.3%	43.1%	48.6%	25.3%	= 8.53888
Group B	7.9%	44.7%	47.4%	26.7%	
Group C	10.0%	48.6%	41.4%	24.6%	Missing Cases
Group D	0%	41.8%	58.2%	23.5%	= 11
Column					Valid Cases
Total	6.7%	44.6%	48.8%		= 285

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

In Table B.4, Chi-Square value = 8.53888, DF = 6, P = 0.20122 didn't reach a significance level. We may see the same results from Groups B and C in following Table B.5.

Table B.5 Groups B and C by the Need for Training and Education of the Company for Military Retirees

Groups	The Need for Training/Education			Row Total	Chi-Square Value
	Least /Negative	Positive	Very Positive		
Group B	7.9%	44.7%	47.4%	52.1%	= 0.58518
Group C	10.0%	48.6%	41.4%	47.9%	
Column					Missing Cases
Total	5.1%	45.3%	49.6%		= 7
					Valid Cases
					= 146

In Table B.5, Chi-Square value = 0.58518, DF = 2, P = 0.74633 didn't reach a significance level.

H-1.5 Satisfaction With Job and Pay

Table B.6 Groups B and C by Job Satisfaction

		Job Satisfaction				
		Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Row Total	Chi-Square
Group B	48.6%	41.4%	10.0%	51.9%	Value = 3.06333	
Group C	38.5%	41.5%	20.0%	48.1%	Missing Cases	
Column					= 18	
Total	43.7%	41.5%	14.8%		Valid Cases	
						= 135
						P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

In Table B.6, Chi-Square value = 3.06333, DF = 2, P = 0.21618 didn't reach a significance level. This result indicates that the difference between Groups B and C was not significantly associated with job satisfaction.

Table B.7 Groups B and C by Pay Satisfaction

		Pay Satisfaction				
		Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Row Total	Chi-Square
Group B	57.1%	38.6%	4.3%	51.9%	Value = 2.08063	
Group C	52.3%	36.9%	10.8%	48.1%	Missing Cases	
Column					= 18	
Total	54.8%	37.8%	7.4%		Valid Cases	
						= 135
						P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

In Table B.7, Chi-Square value = 2.08063, DF = 2, P = 0.35334 didn't reach a significance level. This result indicates that the difference between Groups B and C was not significantly associated with pay satisfaction.

We can see the research results from Tables B.1 to B.7 and realize that although most retirees had faced certain difficulties in obtaining jobs, and were not satisfied with their jobs and pay, it indicated there was a high employment rate 87.2% among retirees. Thus, we may argue that most retired officers, in this survey, were just getting a job.

Most of them expressed high desires to pursue the goals of second career development, and they wanted to have training and education programmes provided by the company in order to enhance their abilities and performance, and with a hope to get promotion in the future.

As we discussed in Chapter 7, 'career success' is evaluated highly, based on pay and job status (Korman, et al., 1981) and the subjective experience of career change (Collin, 1984). People who are satisfied with their jobs and achievement have positively evaluated their career success (Martin and Hanson, 1986; Poole, et al., 1993). This has relevance for an individual's perceptions on career success, as Locke (1969) defined job satisfaction as:

“a function of the perceived relation between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it as offering” (p.309).

From the results, it can be concluded that although most retired officers had faced difficulties in finding jobs, and were not satisfied with their jobs and pay, they still intended to make successful second careers by showing a strong desire to make it happen in the near future, and a need of having training and education programmes provided by the company to help them to achieve such career goals. Thus, we reject null hypothesis. Most retired officers intended to make successful second careers.

Hypothesis 2: Middle-Aged Retired Officers Find It More Difficult To Find Jobs.

H-2.1 Transition Index

Table B.8 Current Age by Transition Index (Groups B and C)

Age	Transition Index			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 12.60062
	H-T	M-T	L-T		
30-39	35.0%	25.0%	40.0%	14.4%	*
40-45	21.6%	47.3%	31.1%	53.2%	Missing Cases
46 +	4.4%	46.7%	48.9%	32.4%	= 14
					Valid Cases = 139

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

In Table B.8, Chi-Square value = 12.60062, DF = 4, P = 0.01340 has reached a significance level. It shows that the younger group has more percentage in H-T category while the older group has more percentage in L-T category. It implies that the younger retirees were in less difficulty in obtaining jobs than the older ones while the reverse is true in L-T category.

H-2.2 Employment and Unemployment

Table B.9 Current Age by Employment Rate (Groups B and C)

Age	Unemployment	Employment	Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 2.71153
30-39	5.0%	95.0%	15.0%	Missing Cases = 20 Valid Cases = 133
40-45	11.3%	88.7%	53.4%	
46+	19.0%	81.0%	31.6%	

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

In Table B.9, Chi-Square value = 2.71153, DF = 2, P = 0.25775 didn't reach a significance level. This result shows that age factor in Groups B and C had not a significant association with employment and unemployment.

H-2.3 Employment Income

Table B.10 Current Age by Employment Income (Groups B and C)

Age	Income			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 8.00899
	Low	Medium	High		
30-39	5.6%	50.0%	44.4%	15.9%	Missing Cases = 40 Valid Cases = 113
40-45	14.8%	55.7%	29.5%	54.0%	
46+	32.4%	38.2%	29.4%	30.1%	

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

In Table B.10, the monthly income does not include the retirement pension or pay of the retirees. The low income = \$19,000 to \$25,000, medium income = \$26,000 to \$40,000, high income = \$41,000 and over. This income classification is to consider the average starting salary for an employee with a university/college degree, who earned approximately from \$20,000 to \$32,000 and the income distribution in Taiwan in general.

In this Table, Chi-Square value = 8.00899, DF = 4, P = 0.09125 didn't reach a significance level. This result shows that age factor in Groups B and C was not significantly associated with employment income.

H-2.4 Number of Jobs Since Retirement

Table B.11 Current Age by Number of Jobs Since Retirement (Groups B and C)

Q: How many jobs have you had since retirement? (Hereafter, 'No. of Job')

Age	No. of Jobs			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 10.69409
	No.1	No.2	No.3/over		
30-39	82.4%	5.9%	11.8%	13.7%	*
40-45	64.7%	27.9%	7.4%	54.8%	Missing Cases = 29
46+	46.2%	30.8%	23.1%	31.5%	Valid Cases = 124

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

This result shows that the age factor was significantly associated with different numbers of jobs since retirement. From Table B.11, Chi-Square value = 10.69409, DF = 4, P = 0.03023 has reached a significance level. It shows that in three different groups by age,

most of them were holding their first jobs and 82.4% between 30 to 39 years old were the most holding the first job. The group between age 46 and over was more holding the second, third or more jobs since retirement than of other age groups.

H-2.5 The Desire To Pursue Second Career Goals

Table B.12 Current Age by the Self-Goals (Four Groups)

Q: What is your desire to pursue second career goals? (Hereafter, 'self-goal')

Age	Self-Goal			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 19.11798 *** Missing Cases = 7 Valid Cases = 289
	Low	High	Very High		
30-39	2.2%	40.7%	57.1%	31.5%	
40 - 45	15.3%	49.3%	35.4%	49.8%	
46+	16.7%	51.9%	31.5%	18.7%	

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

This result shows that the difference of age groups in all 289 respondents has made a significant difference on the desires of pursuing the goals of a second career. From Table B.12, Chi-Square value = 19.11798, DF = 4, $P = 0.00075$ has reached a significance level. 57.1% of age group between 30-39 has more percentage of 'very high' desire to pursue the career goals than of other age groups. Age group of 46 and over has more 'low' desire of pursuing the goals of career development than of other age groups.

Table B.13 Current Age by the Self-Goal (Groups B and C)

Q: What is your desire to pursue second career goals? (Hereafter, 'self-goal')

Age	Self-Goal			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 8.19504
	Low	High	Very High		
30-39	4.8%	28.6%	66.7%	14.4%	Missing Cases = 7 Valid Cases = 146
40 - 45	15.8%	42.1%	42.1%	52.1%	
46+	18.4%	51.0%	30.6%	33.6%	

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

From Table B.13, Chi-Square value = 8.19504, DF = 4, $P = 0.08469$ didn't reach a significance level. It indicates that difference of age groups had not a significant association with different desires to pursue second career goals.

H-2.6 The Statement of “Middle-Aged Retired Officers Find It More Difficult To Find Jobs”

Q: Do you agree the statement “middle-aged retired officers find it more difficult to find jobs”? (Hereafter, ‘mid-aged retirees’)

Table B.14 Transition Index by the Mid-Aged Retirees (Groups B and C)

Transition Index	Mid-Aged Retirees			Row Total	Chi-Square Value
	Not Agree	Agree	Most Agree		
					= 13.77563
H-T	45.8%	37.5%	16.7%	18.2%	Missing Cases
M-T	27.6%	44.8%	27.6%	43.9%	= 21
L-T	12.0%	40.0%	48.0%	37.9%	Valid Cases
Column Total	25.0%	41.7%	33.3%		= 132

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

In Table B.14, Chi-Square value = 13.77563, DF = 4, P = 0.00805 has reached a significance level. It indicates that those who didn't agree about the statement “middle-aged retired officers find it more difficult to find jobs” were in less difficulty in obtaining jobs while the reverse is true for the L-T in ‘most agree’. However, 75% of 132 retirees expressed their ‘agree’ and ‘most agree’ attitudes towards this statement, while 81.8% of retirees admitted that they had faced certain difficulties in finding jobs.

Table B.15 Four Groups by Mid-Aged Retirees

Groups	Mid-Aged Retirees			Total	Chi-Square Value = 81.70814
	Not Agree	Agree	Most Agree		
Group A	18.8%	58.8%	23.2%	25.1%	***
Group B	29.3%	44.0%	26.7%	27.3%	Missing Cases
Group C	22.5%	39.4%	38.0%	25.8%	= 21
Group D	83.3%	16.7%	0%	21.8%	Valid Cases
Column					= 275
Total	36.7%	40.4%	22.9%		

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

This result shows that different groups were significantly associated with the difference on the perceptions of the statement ‘the middle-aged retired officers find it more difficult to find jobs’. From Table B.15, Chi-Square value = 81.70814, DF = 6, $P = 0.00000$ has reached a significance level. In Group D, 83.3% of respondents were more likely to ‘not agree’ this statement than any other groups. Group A had more percentage to ‘agree’ than of other groups. In total, 63.3% of 275 respondents tended to ‘agree’ and ‘most agree’ this statement. In Group D, no answer can be found in the ‘most agree’ category.

Table B.16 Groups by Mid-Aged Retirees (Groups B and C)

Groups	Mid-Aged Retirees			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 2.29189
	Not Agree	Agree	Most Agree		
Group B	29.3%	44.0%	26.7%	51.4%	Missing Cases = 21 Valid Cases = 132
Group C	22.5%	39.4%	38.0%	48.6%	
Column Total	26.0%	41.8%	32.2%		

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

From Table B.16, Chi-Square value = 2.29189, DF = 2, P = 0.31792 didn't reach a significance level.

Table B.17 Service by Mid-Aged Retirees (Four Groups)

Service	Mid-Aged Retirees			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 13.76415
	Not Agree	Agree	Most Agree		
Army	36.2%	44.9%	18.8%	50.4%	*
Navy	40.5%	23.8%	35.7%	15.3%	Missing Cases = 22
Air Force	47.9%	31.3%	20.8%	17.5%	
CSS	23.9%	50.0%	26.1%	16.8%	Valid Cases = 274

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

CSS = Combat Support Services

This result shows that different Services in 274 respondents were significantly associated with the difference of perceptions on this statement. From Table B.17, Chi-Square value = 13.76415, DF = 6, P = 0.03238 has reached a significance level. 50% of CSS were the most to 'agree' this statement. The Air Force was more likely to 'not agree' this statement than other Services while the Navy was more likely to 'most agree' this statement than other Services.

Table B.18 Service by Mid-Aged Retirees (Groups B and C)

Services	Mid-Aged Retirees			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 12.73568
	Not Agree	Agree	Most Agree		
Army	27.4%	48.4%	24.2%	42.8%	*
Navy	26.1%	13.0%	60.9%	15.9%	Missing Cases
Air Force	25.0%	42.9%	32.1%	19.3%	= 8
CSS	25.0%	46.9%	28.1%	22.1%	Valid Cases = 145

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

CSS = Combat Support Services

This result shows that different military Services in Groups B and C were significantly associated with the difference of perceptions on this statement. From Table B.18, Chi-Square value = 12.73568, DF = 6, $P = 0.04743$ has reached a significance level. 60.9% of the Navy were more to 'most agree' this statement. The Army was more likely to 'agree' this statement than other Services. All Services shared almost evenly percentage on 'not agree' category.

Table B.19 Rank Levels by Mid-Aged Retirees (Four Groups)

Rank	Mid-Aged Retirees			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 61.37179
	Not Agree	Agree	Most Agree		
Major/Captain	71.8%	24.4%	3.8%	28.4%	***
Lt. Colonel	20.4%	48.7%	31.0%	41.1%	Missing Cases
Colonel	26.2%	44.0%	29.8%	30.5%	= 21
					Valid Cases = 275

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

This result shows that different rank levels in 275 respondents were significantly associated with the difference of perceptions on this statement. From Table B.19, Chi-Square value = 61.37179, DF = 4, P = 0.00000 has reached a significance level. 71.8% of majors and captains were the most to 'not agree' this statement. Lt. colonels and colonels were more likely to 'agree' and 'most agree' this statement than major/captain ranks.

Table B.20 Rank Levels by Mid-Aged Retirees (Groups B and C)

Rank	Mid-Aged Retirees			Row	Chi-Square
	Not Agree	Agree	Most Agree	Total	Value = 2.38638
Major	33.3%	50.0%	16.7%	12.3%	Missing Cases = 7 Valid Cases = 146
Lt. Colonel	25.4%	39.4%	35.2%	48.6%	
Colonel	24.6%	42.1%	33.3%	39.0%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

From Table B.20, Chi-Square value = 2.38638, DF = 4, P = 0.66509 didn't reach a significance level.

Table B.21 Educational Attainments by Mid-Aged Retirees (Four Groups)

Education Levels	Mid-Aged Retirees			Row	Chi-Square
	Not Agree	Agree	Most Agree	Total	Value = 10.78287
2-year-college	44.9%	40.2%	15.0%	46.2%	** Missing Cases = 21 Valid Cases = 275
4-year-academy	29.7%	40.5%	29.7%	53.8%	
/over					

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

4-year-academy/over including 11 master degrees

This result shows that different educational levels in 275 respondents were significantly associated with the difference of perceptions on this statement. From Table B.21, Chi-Square value = 10.78287, DF = 2, P = 0.00456 has reached a significance level. Officers with 2-year-college level were more likely to ‘not agree’ this statement than another level. The officers with 4-year-academy level were more likely to ‘most agree’ this statement than another one. Both educational levels shared almost the same percentage of ‘agree’ category.

Table B.22 Educational Attainments by Mid-Aged Retirees (Groups B and C)

Education Level	Mid-Aged Retirees			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 6.50312
	Not Agree	Agree	Most Agree		*
2-year-college	30.7%	46.7%	22.7%	51.4%	Missing Cases = 7
4-year-academy/over	21.1%	36.6%	42.3%	48.6%	
					Valid Cases = 146

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

4-year-academy/over including 6 master degrees

This result shows that different educational levels in 146 respondents were significantly associated with the difference of perceptions on this statement. From Table B.22, Chi-Square value = 6.50312, DF = 2, P = 0.03871 has reached a significance level. Officers with 2-year-college level were more likely to ‘not agree’ this statement than another level. Officers with 4-year-academy level were more likely to ‘most degree’ this statement than another level.

Table B.23 Military Training Levels by Mid-Aged Retirees (Four Groups)

M-Training Level	Mid-Aged Retirees			Row Total	Chi-Square
	Not Agree	Agree	Most Agree		Value = 15.29526 ***
Branch School	46.4%	33.3%	20.2%	63.9%	Missing Cases
Command Staff /War College	22.1%	48.4%	29.5%	36.1%	= 33 Valid Cases = 263

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

This result shows that different military training levels in 263 respondents were significantly associated with the difference of perceptions on this statement. From Table B.23, Chi-Square value = 15.29526, DF = 2, P = 0.00048 has reached a significance level. Officers at the Command Staff and/or War College levels were more likely to ‘agree’ and ‘most agree’ this statement than another level. Officers with branch school level were more likely to ‘not agree’ this statement.

Table B.24 Military Training Levels by Mid-Aged Retirees (Groups B and C)

M-Training Level	Mid-Aged Retirees			Row Total	Chi-Square
	Not Agree	Agree	Most Agree		Value = 1.50967
Branch School	30.5%	39.0%	30.5%	57.3%	Missing Cases
Command Staff /War College	21.3%	44.3%	34.4%	42.7%	= 10 Valid Cases = 143

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

In Table B.24, Chi-Square value = 1.50967, DF = 2, P = 0.47009 didn’t reach a significance level.

Table B.25 The Transferable Skills by Mid-Aged Retirees (Four Groups)

	Mid-Aged Retirees			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 0.82220
	Not Agree	Agree	Most Agree		
Skills					
Without Skills	38.3%	37.6%	24.1%	48.4%	Missing Cases
With Skills	35.2%	43.0%	21.8%	51.6%	= 21
					Valid Cases
					= 275

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

In Table B.25, Chi-Square value = 0.82220, DF = 2, $P = 0.66292$ didn't reach a significance level. Whether having transferable skills or not was not significantly associated with the different perceptions on this statement.

Table B.26 The Transferable Skills by Mid-Aged Retirees (Groups B and C)

	Mid-Aged Retirees			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 4.28443
	Not Agree	Agree	Most Agree		
Skills					
Without Skills	33.3%	37.3%	29.3%	51.4%	Missing Cases
With Skills	18.3%	46.5%	35.2%	58.6%	= 7
					Valid Cases
					= 146

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

In Table B.26, Chi-Square value = 4.28443, DF = 2, $P = 0.11739$ didn't reach a significance level.

H-2.7 The Employers' Acceptance of the Retirees

Q: What do you think about the employers' acceptance of the retirees? (Hereafter, 'acceptance')

Table B.27 Four Groups by the Officers' Perceptions on the Employers' Acceptance of the Retirees.

Group	Acceptance			Row Total	Chi- Square Value =
	Negative	Least Positive	Positive		
Group A	8.2%	83.7%	8.2%	19.3%	17.34564
Group B	10.5%	60.5%	28.9%	29.9%	**
Group C	13.6%	66.7%	19.7%	26.0%	Missing Cases
Group D	12.7%	81.0%	6.3%	24.8%	= 42
Column Total	11.3%	71.7%	16.9%		Valid Cases = 254

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

The result shows that different groups were significantly associated with different perceptions on the employers' acceptance on retirees. From Table B.27, Chi-Square value = 17.34564, DF = 6, $P = 0.00809$ has reached a significance level. 83.7% of Group A showed that the employers' acceptance on the retirees was more 'least positive' than other groups. In the four groups, 83.0% of respondents believed that employers' acceptance on retirees was 'least positive' or 'negative'.

Table B.28 Groups by the Officers' Perceptions on the Employers' Acceptance of the Retirees (Groups B and C)

Group	Acceptance			Total	Chi-Square Value = 1.72187
	Negative	Least Positive	Positive		
Group B	10.5%	60.5%	28.9%	53.5%	Missing Cases = 11
Group C	13.6%	66.7%	19.7%	46.5%	
Column Total	12.0%	63.4%	24.6%		

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

Valid Cases = 142

In Table B.28, Chi-Square = 1.72187, DF = 2, P = 0.42277 didn't reach a significance level.

Table B.29 Transition Index by the Officers' Perceptions on the Employers' Acceptance of the Retirees (Groups B and C)

Transition Index	Acceptance			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 6.99302
	Negative	Least Positive	Positive		
H-T	4.2%	50.0%	45.8%	18.0%	Missing Cases = 20
M-T	13.6%	64.4%	22.0%	44.4%	
L-T	14.0%	66.0%	20.0%	37.6%	Valid Cases = 133

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

In Table B.29, Chi-Square value = 6.99302, DF = 4, P = 0.13626 didn't reach a significance level. These findings are not considered significant.

In Table B.8, the group at younger age was significantly associated with transition index which indicates that younger retirees were in less difficulty in obtaining jobs. From Tables B.9 and B.10, it is evident that the age factor has no significant association with the employment income and rate of retired officers.

Furthermore, most retirees expressed the view that employers' acceptance for the retirees was low or negative. Those who agreed that 'middle-aged retired officers find it more difficult to find jobs' were more in L-T, and the reverse is true in H-T. This could imply that those were in H-T may be likely to 'not agree' this statement. Thus, from the test results, we reject null hypothesis. Most middle-aged retired officers found it more difficult to find jobs.

Hypothesis 3: The Desire To Pursue Second Career Goals Has A Correlation With the Subsequent Employment Status of Retired Officers.

Q: What is your desire to pursue second career goals? (Hereafter, 'self-goal')

H-3.1 Transition Index

Table B.30 Transition Index by the Self-Goal (Groups B and C)

Transition Index	Self-Goal			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 6.08007
	Low	High	Very High		
H-T	12.0%	32.0%	56.0%	18.7%	Missing Cases = 19 Valid Cases = 134
M-T	10.2%	49.2%	40.7%	44.0%	
L-T	22.0%	32.0%	46.0%	37.3%	
Column Total	14.9%	39.6%	45.5%		

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

In Table B.30, Chi-Square value = 6.08007, DF = 4, P = 0.19325 didn't reach a significance level. It indicates that the desire to pursue second career goals was not significantly associated with the transition index.

H-3.2 Employment and Unemployment

Table B.31 Employment Rate by the Self-Goal (Groups B and C)

	Self-Goal			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 2.00997
	Low	High	Very High		
Unemployment	16.7%	58.3%	25.0%	9.4%	Missing Cases = 25 Valid Cases = 128
Employment	14.7%	39.7%	45.7%	90.6%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

From Table B.31, Chi-Square value = 2.00997, DF = 2, P = 0.36605 didn't reach a significance level. This result shows that difference between employment and unemployment rate in Groups B and C has not a significant association with the desires to pursue second career goals among 128 retirees.

H-3.3 Employment Income

Table B.32 The Self-Goal by Employment Income (Groups B and C)

Self-Goal	Income			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 16.99588
	Low	Medium	High		
Low	23.5%	64.7%	11.8%	15.0%	**
High	21.7%	60.9%	17.4%	40.7%	Missing Cases = 40 Valid Cases = 113
Very High	14.0%	34.0%	52.0%	44.2%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

This result shows that different desires of pursuing the goals of second career in Groups B and C were significantly associated with the difference on employment income. From Table B.32, low income = \$19,000 to \$25,000, medium income = \$26,000 to \$40,000, high income = \$41,000 and over. Chi-Square value = 16.99588, DF = 4, P = 0.00194 has reached a significance level. The group with the 'very high' desires to pursue second career goals has higher income than of other groups. The group with the 'low' desires to pursue second career goals has shared more percentages of 'low' and 'medium' income than of other groups.

H-3.4 Satisfaction With Job and Pay

Table B.33 The Self-Goal by Job Satisfaction (Groups B and C)

Q: Are you satisfied with your job? (Hereafter, 'satisfaction with jobs')

Self-Goal	Satisfaction with Jobs			Row	Chi-Square Value = 13.02901
	Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Total	
Low	55.0%	35.0%	10.0%	14.9%	*
High	55.4%	39.3%	5.4%	41.8%	Missing Cases = 19 Valid Cases = 134
Very High	29.3%	46.6%	24.1%	43.3%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

The result shows that different desires to pursue career goals were significantly associated with different satisfaction with their jobs. From Table B.33, Chi-Square value = 13.02901, DF = 4, P = 0.01113 has reached a significance level. Retirees with 'very high' desires to pursue career goals were more 'satisfied' and 'very satisfied' with their jobs than other groups. The group with 'low' desires was more 'dissatisfied' with their jobs than other groups.

Table B.34 The Self-Goal by Pay Satisfaction (Groups B and C)

Q: Are you satisfied with your pay? (Hereafter, 'satisfaction with pay')

Self-Goal	Satisfaction with Pay			Row	Chi-Square
	Dissatisfied	Least Satisfied	Satisfied	Total	Value =
Low	10.0%	70.0%	20.0%	14.9%	14.13400
High	5.4%	55.4%	39.3%	41.8%	**
Very High	10.3%	29.3%	60.3%	43.3%	Missing Case = 19
					Valid Case = 134

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

The result shows that different desires to pursue career goals were significantly associated with different satisfaction with their pay. From Table B.34, Chi-Square value = 14.13400, DF = 4, P = 0.00688 has reached a significance level. 70.0% of retirees with 'low' desires to pursue career goals were more 'least satisfied' with their pay than other groups. The group with 'very high' desires to pursue career goals was more 'satisfied' with their pay than other groups.

From the research results of Tables B.30 to B.34, we found that the different desires to pursue second career goals were not significantly associated with transition index and employment rate, but it were significantly associated with employment income and satisfaction with jobs and pay. Thus, in terms of employment income and satisfaction with jobs and pay, we reject the null hypothesis. The desire to pursue second career goals has a correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Hypothesis 4: Vocational Training Has A Correlation With the Subsequent Employment Status of Retired Officers.

H-4.1 Transition Index

Table B.35 Groups by Transition Index (Groups B and C)

Group	Transition Index			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 0.26781
	H-T	M-T	L-T		
Group B	16.4%	45.2%	38.4%	52.5%	Missing Cases = 14 Valid Cases = 139
Group C	19.7%	42.4%	37.9%	47.5%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

In Table B.35, Chi-Square value = 0.26781, DF = 0.87467 didn't reach a significance level.

H-4.2 Employment and Unemployment

Table B.36 Groups by Employment Rate (Groups B and C)

Group	Unemployment	Employment	Row Total	Chi-Square Value = .01119
	Group B	12.5%		
Group C	13.1%	86.9%	45.9%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

From Table B.36, Chi-Square value = 0.01119, DF = 1, P = 0.91574 didn't reach a significance level.

H-4.3 Employment Income

Table B.37 Groups by Employment Income (T-Test for Paired of Groups B and C)

Variable	No. of Pairs	Mean	SD	DF	T Value
Group B	59	32406.78	8440.70	58	-.11
Group C		33237.36	58822.41		

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

From Table B.37, T = -.11, P = 0.917 didn't reach a significance level. This result shows that the difference between the Group B who had attended vocational training, and the Group C who hadn't, was not significantly associated with the difference on employment income.

H-4.4 Satisfaction With Job and Pay

Table B.38 Groups B and C by Job Satisfaction

		Job Satisfaction				
		Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 3.06333
Group B		48.6%	41.4%	10.0%	51.9%	Missing Cases = 18
Group C		38.5%	41.5%	20.0%	48.1%	
Column						Valid Cases = 135
Total		43.7%	41.5%	14.8%		
P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***						

In Table B.38, Chi-Square value = 3.06333, DF = 2, P = 0.21618 didn't reach a significance level. This result indicates that the difference between Group B and C was not significantly associated with job satisfaction.

Table B.39 Groups B and C by Pay Satisfaction

		Pay Satisfaction				
		Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 2.08063
Group B		57.1%	38.6%	4.3%	51.9%	Missing Cases = 18
Group C		52.3%	36.9%	10.8%	48.1%	
Column						Valid Cases = 135
Total		43.7%	41.5%	14.8%		
P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***						

In Table B.39, Chi-Square value = 2.08063, DF = 2, P = 0.35334 didn't reach a significance level. This result indicates that the difference between Groups B and C was

not significantly associated with pay satisfaction.

We can see the research results from Tables B.35 to B.39, so we accept the null hypothesis. Vocational training has no significant correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

Hypothesis 5: Military Rank Has A Correlation With the Subsequent Employment Status of Retired officers.

H-5.1 Transition Index

Table B.40 Rank Level by Transition Index (Groups B and C)

Rank	Transition Index			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 3.09565
	H-T	M-T	L-T		
Major	22.2%	38.9%	38.9%	12.9%	Missing Cases = 14 Valid Cases = 139
Lt. Colonel	22.1%	39.7%	38.2%	48.9%	
Colonel	11.3%	50.9%	37.7%	38.1%	

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

In Table B.40, the Chi-Square value = 3.09565, DF = 4, P = 0.54195 didn't reach a significance level. It indicates that different rank levels were not significantly associated with the difficulties retirees had faced in finding jobs.

H-5.2 Employment and Unemployment

Table B.41 Rank Level by Employment Rate (Groups B and C)

Rank	Employment Rate		Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 2.20406
	Unemployment	Employment		
Major	5.3%	94.7%	14.3%	Missing Cases = 20 Valid Cases = 133
Lt. Colonel	11.1%	88.9%	47.4%	
Colonel	17.6%	82.4%	38.3%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

In Table B.41, Chi-Square value = 2.20406, DF = 2, P = 0.33220 didn't reach a significance level. This result shows that rank factor in Groups B and C was not significantly associated with employment and unemployment.

H-5.3 Employment Income

Table B.42 Rank Level by Employment Income (Groups B and C)

Rank	Income			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 6.69324
	Low	Medium	High		
Major	17.6%	47.1%	35.3 %	15.0%	Missing Cases = 40 Valid Cases = 113
Lt. Colonel	27.3%	47.3%	25.5%	48.7%	
Colonel	7.3%	53.7%	39.0%	36.3%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

In Table B.42, low income = \$19,000 to \$25,000, medium income = \$26,000 to \$40,000, high income = \$41,000 and over. Chi-Square value = 6.69324, DF = 4, P = 0.15301 didn't reach a significance level. This result shows that rank factor in Groups B and C was not significantly associated with employment income.

H-5.4 Satisfaction With Job and Pay

Table B.43 Rank Level by Job Satisfaction (Groups B and C)

Q: Are you satisfied with your job? (Hereafter, 'satisfaction with jobs')

Ranks	Satisfaction with Jobs			Row	Chi-Square
	Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Total	Value = 1.91803
Major	44.4%	33.3%	22.2%	13.3%	Missing Cases = 18 Valid Cases = 134
Lt.Colonel	42.6%	41.2%	16.2%	50.4%	
Colonel	44.9%	44.9%	10.2%	36.3%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

The result shows that different rank levels were not significantly associated with different satisfaction with their jobs. From Table B.43, Chi-Square value = 1.91803, DF = 4, P = 0.75083 didn't reach a significance level.

Table B.44 Rank Level by Pay Satisfaction (Groups B and C)

Q: Are you satisfied with your pay? (Hereafter, 'satisfaction with pay')

Ranks	Satisfaction with Pay			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 5.39097
	Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied		
Major	50.0%	33.3%	16.7%	13.3%	Missing Cases = 18 Valid Cases = 134
Lt.Colonel	49.3%	44.8%	6.0%	49.6%	
Colonel	64.0%	30.0%	6.0%	37.0%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

The result shows that different rank levels were not significantly associated with different satisfaction with their pay. From Table B.44, Chi-Square value = 5.39097, DF = 4, P = 0.24948 didn't reach a significance level.

H-5.5 Military Career Achievement

Q: What is your perception on your military career achievement while in the military?

Table B.45 Transition Index by Military Career Achievement (Groups B and C)

Transition Index	Military Career Achievement			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 1.81015
	Low	Normal	High		
H-T	16.0%	40.0%	44.0%	18.0%	Missing Cases = 14 Valid Cases = 139
M-T	19.7%	49.2%	31.1%	43.9%	
L-T	22.6%	47.2%	30.2%	38.1%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

Table B.45 shows that Chi-Square value = 1.81015, DF = 4, P = 0.77063 didn't reach a significance level.

The interesting comparison with this group of tables, however, lies with reports of perceived satisfaction in the retirement occupations. While 44.0% in H-T group reported that they were 'high' in their achievement in military service, the considerable higher figure of 84.0% in H-T group reported that they were 'satisfied' or 'very satisfied' in their civilian employment occupations (see previous Table A.8).

Table B.46 Ranks by Military Career Achievement (Groups B and C)

Rank	Military Career Achievement			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 1.33613
	Low	Normal	High		
Major	21.1%	52.6%	26.3%	12.4%	Missing Cases = 0 Valid Cases = 153
L.Colonel	21.3%	45.3%	33.3%	49.0%	
Colonel	15.3%	52.5%	32.2%	38.6%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01 **, P < 0.001 ***

Table B.46 shows that Chi-Square value = 1.33613, DF = 4, P = 0.85522 didn't reach a significance level. The result implies that the higher rank achieved in military service didn't produce significantly higher career achievement while they were in military.

Table B.47 Military Career Achievement by Job Satisfaction (Groups B and C)

	Satisfaction with Job			Row Total	Chi-Square Value
	Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied		
M-Achievement					= 7.49927
Low	33.3%	50.0%	16.7%	17.8%	Missing Cases = 18
Normal	55.1%	33.3%	11.6%	51.1%	
High	31.0%	50.0%	19.0%	31.1%	
Column Total	43.7%	41.5%	14.8%		Valid Cases = 135

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

From Table B.47, Chi-Square value = 7.49927, DF = 4, $P = 0.11174$ didn't reach a significance level. It indicates that different perceptions on military career achievement were not significantly associated with the satisfaction with civilian jobs.

Table B.48 Military Career Achievement by Pay Satisfaction (Groups B and C)

	Satisfaction with Pay			Row Total	Chi-Square Value
	Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied		
M-Achievement					= 6.11780
Low	54.2%	33.3%	12.5%	17.8%	Missing Cases = 18
Normal	63.2%	32.4%	4.4%	50.4%	
High	41.9%	48.8%	9.3%	31.9%	
Column Total	54.8%	37.8%	7.4%		Valid Cases = 135

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

From Table B.48, Chi-Square value = 6.11780, DF = 4, $P = 0.19052$ didn't reach a significance level. It indicates that different perceptions on military career achievement were not significantly associated with the satisfaction with pay of civilian employment.

From the research results of Tables B.40 to B.44, we accept the null hypothesis. Military rank has no significant correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers. In addition, from Tables B.45 to B.48, we found that different perceptions on military career achievement were not significantly associated with the transition index, the rank achieved in military service, and satisfaction with jobs and pay.

Hypothesis 6: Educational Attainments In the Military Have A Correlation With the Subsequent Employment Status of Retired Officers.

‘Educational attainments’ here represents the academic educational level and military training level.

H-6.1 Transition Index

Table B.49 Educational Level by Transition Index (Groups B and C)

	Transition Index			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 4.90976
	H-T	M-T	L-T		
2-year-college	21.6%	48.6%	29.7%	53.2%	Missing Cases = 14 Valid Cases = 139
4-year-academy					
/over	13.8%	38.5%	47.7%	46.8%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

4-year-academy/over includes 6 master degrees

In Table B.49, Chi-Square value = 4.90976, DF = 2, P = 0.08587 didn't reach a significance level.

Table B.50 Military Training Level by Transition Index (Groups B and C)

Military Training Level	Transition Index			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 1.57604
	H-T	M-T	L-T		
Branch School	21.8%	43.6%	34.6%	57.4%	Missing Cases = 17
Command Staff /War College	13.8%	44.8%	41.4%	42.6%	

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

In Table B.50, Chi-Square value = 1.57604, DF = 2, $P = 0.45474$ didn't reach a significance level. It indicates that the different military training levels were not significantly associated with the transition index.

H-6.2 Employment and Unemployment

Table B.51 Educational Level by Employment Rate (Groups B and C)

Education Level	Unemployment	Employment	Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 1.65180
	2-year-college	9.5%		
4-year-academy /over	16.9%	83.1%	44.4%	Valid Cases = 133

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

4-year-academy/over including 6 master degree

From Table B.51, Chi-Square value = 1.65180, DF = 1, P = 0.19871 didn't reach a significance level. This result shows that different educational levels in Groups B and C were not significantly associated with the difference on employment and unemployment rate.

Table B.52 Military Training Level by Employment Rate (Groups B and C)

Military Training Level	Unemployment	Employment	Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 0.24543
Branch School	11.8%	88.2%	58.5%	Missing Cases = 23 Valid Cases = 130
Command Staff /War College	14.8%	85.2%	41.5%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

In Table B.52, Chi-Square value = 0.24543, DF = 1, P = 0.62031 didn't reach a significance level. This result shows that military training levels in Groups B and C were not significantly associated with the difference on employment and unemployment rate.

H-6.3 Employment Income

Table B.53 Educational Level by Employment Income (Groups B and C)

Education Level	Income			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 2.71541
	Low	Medium	High		
2-year-college	16.7%	56.1%	27.3%	58.4%	Missing Cases = 40 Valid Cases = 113
4-year-academy /over	21.3%	40.4%	38.3%	41.6%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

4-year-academy/over including 6 master degree

In Table B.53, low income = \$19,000 to \$25,000, medium income = \$26,000 to \$40,000, high income = \$41,000 and over. Chi-Square value = 2.71541, DF = 2, P = 0.25725 didn't reach a significance level. This result shows that different educational attainments in Groups B and C were not significantly associated with the employment income.

Table B.54 Military Training Level by Employment Income (Groups B and C)

Military Training Level	Income			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 2.19287
	Low	Medium	High		
Branch School Command Staff /War College	23.4%	45.3%	31.3%	58.2%	Missing Cases = 43 Valid Cases = 110
	13.0%	56.5%	30.4%	41.8%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

From Table B.54, low income = \$19,000 to \$25,000, medium income = \$26,000 to \$40,000, high income = \$41,000 and over. Chi-Square value = 2.19287, DF = 2, P = 0.33406 didn't reach a significance level. This result shows that different military training levels in Groups B and C were not significant associated with employment income.

H-6.4 Satisfaction With Job and Pay

Table B.55 Educational Level by Job Satisfaction (Groups B and C)

Ed-Level	Satisfaction with Job			Total	Chi-Square Value = 0.91242
	Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied		
2-year-college	41.1%	45.2%	13.7%	54.1%	Missing Cases = 18
4-year-academy/over	46.8%	37.1%	16.1%	45.9%	
P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***					Valid Cases = 135
4-year-academy/over including 6 master degree					

In Table B.55, Chi-Square value = 0.91242, DF = 2, P = 0.63368 didn't reach a significance level. It indicates that the different educational levels were not significantly associated with the satisfaction with jobs.

Table B.56 Military Training Level by Job Satisfaction (Groups B and C)

		Satisfaction with Job				Chi-Square
		Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Row Total	
M-Level						Value = 0.97902
Branch School		44.2%	39.0%	16.9%	58.3%	
Command Staff		45.5%	43.6%	10.9%	41.7%	Missing Cases
/War College						= 21
						Valid Cases
						= 132
P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***						

In Table B.56, Chi-Square value = 0.97902, DF = 2, P = 0.61293 didn't reach a significance level. It indicates that the different military training levels were not significantly associated with the satisfaction with jobs.

Table B.57 Educational Level by Pay Satisfaction (Groups B and C)

		Satisfaction with Pay				Chi-Square
		Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied	Row Total	
Ed-Level						Value = 2.39943
2-year-college		48.6%	43.1%	8.3%	53.3%	
4-year-academy		61.9%	31.7%	6.3%	46.7%	Missing Cases
/over						= 18
						Valid Cases
						= 135
P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***						
4-year-academy/over including 6 master degree						

In Table B.57, Chi-Square value = 2.39943, DF = 2, P = 0.30128 didn't reach a significance level. It indicates that the different educational levels were not significantly associated with the satisfaction with pay.

Table B.58 Military Training Level by Pay Satisfaction (Groups B and C)

M-Level	Satisfaction with Pay			Total	Chi-Square Value
	Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied		
Branch School	46.1%	46.1%	7.9%	57.6%	= 7.35476
Command Staff /War College	69.6%	25.0%	5.4%	42.4%	*

Missing Cases = 21
Valid Cases = 132

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

In Table B.58, Chi-Square value = 7.35476, DF = 2, P = 0.02529 has reached a significance level. It indicates that different military training levels were significantly associated with the pay satisfaction. The retirees at branch school level were more satisfied with their pay than those at Command Staff and/or War College levels. The latter was more dissatisfied with their pay than the former.

From the research results of Tables B.49 to B.58, we accept the null hypothesis. Educational attainments in the military have no significant correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers. Although it indicates that military training levels were significantly associated with pay satisfaction in Table B.58, it implies that retirees at lower training level were more satisfied with their civilian pay than those at higher training level. However, it is assumed, in this hypothesis, that retirees at higher educational levels are likely to be satisfied with their jobs and pay.

Hypothesis 7: Multiple Skills Have A Correlation With the Subsequent Employment Status of Retired Officers.

H-7.1 Transition Index

Table B.59 The Skills by Transition Index (Groups B and C)

Skills	Transition Index			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 0.19922
	H-T	M-T	L-T		
Without Skills	17.1%	45.7%	37.1%	50.4%	Missing Cases = 14 Valid Cases = 139
With Skills	18.8%	42.0%	39.1%	49.6%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

In Table B.59, Chi-Square = 0.19922, DF = 2, P = 0.90519. These findings are not considered significant.

H-7.2 Employment and Unemployment

Table B.60 The Skills by Employment Rate (Groups B and C)

Skills	Unemployment	Employment	Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 1.77351
	Without Skills	16.7%		
With Skills	9.0%	91.0%	50.4%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

In Table B.60, Chi-Square value = 1.77351, DF = 1, P = 0.18295 didn't reach a significance level. This result shows that whether or not retirees have multiple skills in Groups B and C was not significantly associated with employment and unemployment.

H-7.3 Employment Income

Table B.61 The Skills by Employment Income (Groups B and C)

Skill	Income			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 4.13607
	Low	Medium	High		
Without Skills	16.7%	59.3%	24.1%	47.8%	Missing Cases = 40
With Skills	20.3%	40.7%	39.0%	52.2%	Valid Cases = 113

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01 **, P < 0.001 ***

In Table B.61, low income = \$19,000 to \$25,000, medium income = \$26,000 to \$40,000, high income = \$41,000 and over. Chi-Square value = 4.13607, DF = 2, P = 0.12643 didn't reach a significance level. This result shows that whether or not retirees have multiple skills in Groups B and C was not significantly associated with the employment income.

H-7.4 Satisfaction With Job and Pay

Table B.62 The Skills by Job Satisfaction (Groups B and C)

Skills	Satisfaction with Job			Row Total	Chi-Square Value
	Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied		
Without Skills	44.1%	38.2%	17.6%	50.4%	= 1.09532
With Skills	43.3%	44.8%	11.9%	49.6%	
					Missing Cases = 18
					Valid Cases = 135

$p < 0.05^*$, $p < 0.01^{**}$, $p < 0.001^{***}$

In Table B.62, Chi-Square value = 1.09532, DF = 2, P = 0.57830 didn't reach a significance level. It indicates that whether having transferable skills or not was not significantly associated with the satisfaction with job.

Table B.63 Transferable Skills by Pay Satisfaction (Groups B and C)

Skills	Satisfaction with Pay			Row Total	Chi-Square Value
	Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied		
Without Skills	61.2%	29.9%	9.0%	49.6%	= 3.63021
With Skills	48.5%	45.6%	5.9%	50.4%	
					Missing Cases = 18
					Valid Cases = 135

$P < 0.05^*$, $P < 0.01^{**}$, $P < 0.001^{***}$

In Table B.63, Chi-Square value = 3.63021, DF = 2, P = 0.16282 didn't reach a significance level. It indicates that whether having transferable skills or not was not significantly associated with the satisfaction with pay.

H-7.5 Number of Jobs Since Retirement

Table B.64 The Skills by Number of Jobs Since Retirement (Groups B and C)

Skills	No. of Jobs			Row	Chi-Square Value = 7.66052
	No.1	No.2	No.3/over	Total	
Without Skills	70.5%	24.6%	4.9%	49.2%	*
With Skills	52.4%	27.0%	20.6%	50.8%	Missing Cases = 29
					Valid Cases = 124

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01 **, P < 0.001 ***

This result shows that the skill factor was significantly associated with the different numbers of jobs since retirement. In Table B.64, Chi-Square value = 7.66052, DF = 2, P = 0.02170 has reached a significance level. Those 'without multiple skills' were most frequently in holding their first job which implies that the job stability among them was higher. On the contrary, those 'with multiple skills' were more likely to be in their second, third or more jobs which implies that they changed jobs more frequently than those who had not multiple skills.

H-7.6 The Transferability of Military Management and Experience, and Expertise and Skills

Table B.65 Groups B and C by the Transferability of Military Management and Experience

Q: In general, can military management and experience be transferred and applied to the civilian work? (Hereafter, 'transferability')

Group	Transferability			Row	Chi-Square
	Least Positive	Positive	Very Positive	Total	Value = 0.57466
Group B	29.1%	60.8%	10.1%	52.0%	Missing Cases = 1
Group C	34.2%	54.8%	10.0%	48.0%	
Column					Valid Cases = 152
Total	31.6%	57.9%	10.5%		

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

2 respondents answered 'negative' which be counted as 'least positive'.

The Chi-Square value = 0.57466, DF = 2, P = 0.75026 didn't reach a significance level.

Both variables are not considered significant.

Table B.66 Groups B and C by the Transferability of Military Expertise and Skills

Q: In general, can military expertise and skills be transferred and applied to the civilian work? (Hereafter, 'transferability')

Group	Transferability			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 0.51155
	Least Positive	Positive	Very Positive		
Group B	46.8%	48.1%	5.1%	52.3%	Missing Cases = 2
Group C	50.0%	43.1%	6.9%	47.7%	
Column Total	48.3%	45.7%	6.0%		Valid Cases = 151

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

2 respondents answered 'negative' which be counted as 'least positive'.

The Chi-Square value = 0.51155, DF = 2, P = 0.77432 didn't reach a significance level.

Both variables are not considered significant.

Table B.67 Transition Index by the Transferability of Military Management and Experience (Groups B and C)

Transition Index	Transferability			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 7.70481
	Least Positive	Positive	Very Positive		
H-T	36.0%	40.0%	24.0%	18.1%	Missing Cases = 15
M-T	27.9%	65.6%	6.6%	44.2%	
L-T	34.6%	55.8%	9.6%	37.7%	Valid Cases = 138

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

2 respondents answered 'negative' which be counted as 'least positive'.

From Table B.67, Chi-Square value = 7.70481, DF = 4, P = 0.10301 didn't reach a significance level. It indicates that the different transition indexes were not significantly associated with the different perceptions on this 'transferability'.

Table B.68 Transition Index by the Transferability of Military Expertise and Skills
(Groups B and C)

Transition Index	Transferability			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 16.70541 **
	Least Positive	Positive	Very Positive		
H-T	48.0%	40.0%	12.0%	18.2%	Missing Cases = 15 Valid Cases = 138
M-T	35.0%	61.7%	3.3%	43.8%	
L-T	67.3%	25.0%	7.7%	38.0%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

2 respondents answered 'negative' which be counted as 'least positive'.

The result shows that different transition index categories were significantly associated with different perceptions on the transferability of military expertise and skills to civilian employment. From Table B.68, Chi-Square value = 16.70541, DF = 4, P = 0.00220 has reached a significance level. It indicates that those who believed in the transferability of military expertise and skills experienced less difficulty in obtaining jobs while the reverse is true for the L-T.

Table B.69 Rank Levels by the Transferability of Military Management and Experience

(Groups B and C)

Rank	Transferability			Row Total	Chi-Square
	Least Positive	Positive	Very Positive		Value = 13.12312
Major	61.1%	27.8%	11.1%	11.8%	*
Lt. Colonel	34.7%	57.3%	8.0%	49.3%	Missing Cases = 1
Colonel	18.6%	67.8%	13.6%	38.8%	Valid Cases = 152

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

2 respondents answered 'negative' which be counted as 'least positive'.

This result shows that different rank levels were significantly associated with different perceptions on the transferability of military management and experience to civilian works. From Table B.69, Chi-Square value = 13.12312, DF = 4, $P = 0.01069$ reached a significance level. Colonels have more 'positive' and 'very positive' attitudes towards this transferability than of other ranks, while majors have more 'least positive' attitudes than of other ranks.

Table B.70 Rank Levels by the Transferability of Military Expertise and Skills (Groups B and C)

Rank	Transferability			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 4.59379
	Least Positive	Positive	Very Positive		
Major	63.2%	26.3%	10.5%	12.6%	Missing Cases = 2 Valid Cases = 151
Lt. Colonel	50.0%	44.6%	5.4%	49.0%	
Colonel	41.4%	53.4%	5.2%	38.4%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

2 respondents answered 'negative' which be counted as 'least positive'.

In Table B.70, Chi-Square value = 4.59379, DF = 4, P = 0.33157 didn't reach a significance level. It indicates that the different rank levels were not significantly associated with different perceptions on this 'transferability'.

We can see the research results from Tables B.59 to B.63, so we accept the null hypothesis. Multiple skills have no significant correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers. In Table B.64, those who 'without multiple skills' were more likely to be holding first jobs which may imply that the job stability among them was high and their employability may be comparatively weak, compared to those who 'with multiple skills' in the generally dynamic employment context of Taiwan. Furthermore, those who believed in the transferability of military expertise and skills to civilian work were very likely to experience less difficulty in obtaining jobs (see Table B.68).

Hypothesis 8: Having A Career Plan Before Retirement Has A Correlation With the Subsequent Employment Status of Retired Officers.

Q: Do you have a personal career plan in the military? (Hereafter, 'career plan')

H-8.1 Transition Index

Table B.71 The Career Plan by Transition Index (Groups B and C)

Career Plan	Transition Index			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 11.76745
	H-T	M-T	L-T		
No	9.3%	50.0%	40.7%	61.9%	**
Yes	32.1%	34.0%	34.0%	38.1%	Missing Cases = 14
					Valid Cases = 139

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

The result indicates that whether or not retirees have career plans was significantly associated with different transition indexes. From Table B.71, Chi-Square value = 11.76745, DF = 2, P = 0.0278 has reached a significance level. Those who have career development plans experienced less difficulty in obtaining jobs than those who don't have ones, while the reverse is true for the L-T category.

H-8.2 Employment and Unemployment

Table B.72 The Career Plan by Employment Rate (Groups B and C)

Career Plan	Unemployment Employment		Row	Chi-Square
			Total	Value = 1.01196
No	15.2%	84.8%	59.4%	Missing Cases = 20 Valid Cases = 133
Yes	9.3%	90.7%	40.6%	

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

From Table B.72, Chi-Square value = 1.01196, DF = 1, $P = 0.31443$ didn't reach a significance level. This result shows that whether or not the retirees have their personal career development plans in the military was not significantly associated with the employment rate after retirement.

H-8.3 Employment Income

Table B.73 The Career Plan by Employment Income (Groups B and C)

Career Plan	Income			Row	Chi-Square
	Low	Medium	High	Total	Value = 5.14816
No	22.4%	53.7%	23.9%	59.3%	Missing Cases = 40 Valid Cases = 113
Yes	13.0%	43.5%	43.5%	40.7%	

$P < 0.05$ *, $P < 0.01$ **, $P < 0.001$ ***

From Table B.73, low income = \$19,000 to \$25,000, medium income = \$26,000 to \$40,000, high income = \$41,000 and over. Chi-Square value = 5.14816, DF = 2, P = 0.07622 didn't reach a significance level. This result shows that whether or not the retirees have their personal career development plans in the military was not significantly associated with the difference on employment income after retirement.

H-8.4 Satisfaction With Job and Pay

Table B.74 The Career Plan by Job Satisfaction (Groups B and C)

Career Plan	Satisfaction with Jobs			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 12.17607
	Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied		
No	53.2%	40.3%	6.5%	57.0%	** Missing Cases = 18 Valid Cases = 135
Yes	31.0%	43.1%	25.9%	43.0%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

This result shows that whether or not the retirees have career development plans was significantly associated with different satisfaction with jobs among retirees. From Table B.74, Chi-Square value = 12.17653, DF = 2, P = 0.00227 has reached a significance level. Those who have career plans were more satisfied with their jobs than the group who don't have career plans, while the reverse is true for the group with 'dissatisfaction'.

Table B.75 The Career Plan by Pay Satisfaction (Groups B and C)

Career Plan	Satisfaction with Pay			Row Total	Chi-Square Value = 11.21901 * Missing Cases = 18 Valid Cases = 135
	Dissatisfied	Satisfied	Very Satisfied		
No	65.4%	32.1%	2.6%	57.8%	
Yes	40.4%	45.6%	14.0%	42.2%	

P < 0.05 *, P < 0.01**, P < 0.001***

This result shows that whether or not the retirees have career development plans was significantly associated with different satisfaction with pay among retirees. From Table B.75, Chi-Square value = 11.21901, DF = 2, P = 0.0366 has reached a significance level. Those who have career plans were more satisfied with their pay than the group who don't have career plans, while the reverse is true for the group with 'dissatisfaction'.

From the research results of Tables B.71 to B.75, whether having career plan or not was significantly associated with transition index, and satisfaction with job and pay, but not associated with employment rate and income. Thus, in terms of transition index and satisfaction with job and pay, we reject null hypothesis. Having a career plan before retirement has a significant correlation with the subsequent employment status of retired officers.

APPENDIX C

A Letter to Survey Subjects (Groups A and D)

Dear Sir:

May, 1995

The purpose of this questionnaire is to find out your personal perceptions and experiences on the issues of training and development of military officers' second careers. The results will be expected helpful to develop the human resources effectively on the interface between the military and business organisations.

I am conducting this research, assisted by the Office of the Deputy Chiefs of the General Staff for Personnel, the Ministry of National Defense, the Chinese National Federation of Industries, the General Chamber of Commerce, and the National Association of Medium and Small Enterprise.

Nevertheless, there are two incentives: First, I have promised feedback of this research to these institutions above which may increase their concern about how to value and assist military retired officers. Second, I have endeavored to make the questionnaire meaningful which may give you an opportunity for self-analysis and reflection on these issues. I would be most grateful if you would help this research and complete the attached questionnaire anonymously and return it in the prepaid envelope.

Your sincerely,

Mr. Guor-Rurng Shieh
Research Student
Department of the Management
Systems and Sciences
The University of Hull
Hull HU6 7RX

Encl: Q'aire and pre-paid envelop

APPENDIX D

A Letter to Survey Subjects (Groups B and C)

Dear Sir:

May, 1995

The purpose of this questionnaire is to find out your personal perceptions and experiences on the issues of training and development of military officers' second careers. The results will be expected helpful to develop the human resources effectively on the interface between the military and business organisations. I am conducting this research, assisted by the Office of the Deputy Chiefs of the General Staff for Personnel, the Ministry of National Defense, the Chinese National Federation of Industries, the General Chamber of Commerce, and the National Association of Medium and Small Enterprise.

Nevertheless, there are two incentives: First, I have promised feedback of this research to these institutions above which may increase their concern about how to value and assist military retired officers. Second, I have endeavored to make the questionnaire meaningful which may give you an opportunity for self-analysis and reflection on these issues. I would be most grateful if you would help this research and complete the attached questionnaire anonymously and return it in the prepaid envelope. As soon as I receive your response, a set of British stamp will be sent to you as a small gift.

Your sincerely,

Mr. Guor-Rung Shieh
Research Student
Department of the Management
Systems and Sciences
The University of Hull
Hull HU6 7RX

Encl: Q'aire and pre-paid envelop

APPENDIX E

QUESTIONNAIRES (GROUPS A, B, C AND D)

I. About You (Groups A, B, C and D)

1. Gender: F ___ M ___
2. Age: 30-35 ___ 35-40 ___ 40-45 ___ 45-50 ___ 50/over ___
3. Educational background: (the highest one)
Military university (2 years) ___ Military university (4 years with bachelor degree) Master ___ Other ___
4. Training records: (the highest one)
Military: War College ___ Command Staff College ___ Branch school ___
Other ___
Civilian: University studies ___ Training in foreign countries ___ Other ___
5. Expertise/Qualifications:
Military _____ Civilian _____
6. Your rank ___ Position ___ Branch ___
7. Your Service: Army ___ Navy ___ Air Force ___ Other ___
8. Your (present or last) monthly payment in military service:
NT\$35,000-40,000 ___ NT\$40,000-45,000 ___ NT\$45,000-50,000 ___
NT\$50,000-55,000 ___ NT\$55,000-60,000 ___ NT\$60,000/over ___
9. You have retired for: month ___ year ___. Total service years ___ years
10. Will you have retirement monthly pension? Yes ___ No ___, If yes, how much?
NT\$ _____
11. If you were in a leading position while you were in the military, how many people at the most you have managed? ___ people

II. About Your Employment Information (Groups B and C)

1. What is your company's name? Location _____ City/County _____
2. Is your company a private company ___ state-owned company ___ political party-owned company ___, or foreign company ___
3. Is your company a family-run business? Yes ___ No ___

4. Is your company a:
 Manufacture ___ Service ___ Transportation ___ Hi-Tech ___
 Construction ___ Restaurant ___ Food ___ Direct Sale ___
 Store/Distribution ___ Financial/Banking ___ Security ___ Other ___
5. How many employees does your company have? _____ people
6. Is there any training and development program for employee in your company?
 Yes ___ No ___
7. What is your title and position of your current job? _____
8. If you are in a leading position, how many employee have you managed? _____ people
9. What is your current monthly payment in civilian job?
 NT\$20,000-25,000 ___ NT\$25,000-30,000 ___ NT\$30,000-35,000 ___
 NT\$35,000-40,000 ___ NT\$40,000-45,000 ___ NT\$45,000/over ___

III. About The Military Training, Education and Development (Groups A, B, C and D)

1. Are you satisfied with military education and training?
 Very satisfied ___ Satisfied ___ Dissatisfied ___
2. Is learning multiple skills important while in the military?
 Very important ___ Important ___ Not important ___
3. What are the learning environment and opportunity in the military?
 Very good ___ Good ___ Poor ___ Very bad ___ None ___
4. Currently, the private business is promoting the concepts of 'learning organisation' to encourage individual and organisational learning to achieve the organisational goals. Can the military become a learning organisation?
 Very possible ___ Possible ___ Not likely ___ Impossible ___
5. What is the best statement of military career development? (choose the closest one)
 Depends on your senior officers ___
 Depends on your performance and capability ___
 Working hard can lead me to a promotion in the future ___
 Depends on educational attainments and service records ___
 I will try my best to get promotion ___
 If I cannot get promotion, I should retire and develop a second career ___
6. Do your senior officers care about subordinates' career development?
 Very care ___ Care ___ Don't care ___
7. Do your senior officers care about subordinates' learning, education and training?
 Very care ___ Care ___ Don't care ___

8. Do you have a personal career development plan while you are in the military?
Yes, I do ___ No, I don't ___ I don't know how to make a career development plan ___
9. Is it necessary to have a career development plan for officers in the military?
Very necessary ___ Necessary ___ Unnecessary ___
10. When should the career development plan start for an officer?
Recruitment period ___ Enrollment period ___ Since graduation
In the mid-service period ___ Before retirement ___
11. Does the military provide you with sufficient information to make a career development plan?
Sufficient ___ Insufficient ___ None ___
12. Does the military provide you with sufficient information, training or assistance for your resettlement and employment? (except for TTC and BMC)
Yes, they do ___ No, they don't ___
13. What is your perception on your military career achievement?
High ___ Normal ___ Low ___ None ___

IV. About Your Career Development After Retirement (Groups A, B, C and D)

1. Why you decided to retire from military service? (multiple choice)

My service year is expired ___	Poor senior leadership ___
My qualifications are limited ___	Poor interpersonal relations ___
Poor learning environment ___	Unfair military personnel policies ___
Without any expertise or skills ___	Poor promotion and evaluation policies and practises ___
No future ___	Poor social status and image ___
To create a second career ___	Poor payment and welfare in military ___
Personal health factor ___	Overworking in military ___
Personal family factor ___	Poor living facilities in military ___
No freedom in military ___	Political or social reasons ___
Will be assigned to offshore islands ___	Not happy to be an officer ___
Poor working environment in military ___	Other ___
Poor morale and morality ___	
2. What are your perceptions on the employers' acceptance for retirees?
Very high ___ High ___ Low ___ Negative ___
3. "Middle-aged retired officers find it more difficult to find job". What is your comment on this statement?
Strongly agree ___ Agree ___ Not agree ___

4. In general, can military expertise and skills be transferred to the civilian employment?
Very possible___ Possible___ Not likely___ Negative___
5. In general, can military management and experiences be transferred to the civilian employment?
Very positive___ Positive___ Not likely___ Negative___
6. What is your desire to pursue the second career goals?
Very high___ High___ Average___ Low___ None___
7. Will you need for training, education and development programmes provided by the employing company?
Very positive___ Positive___ Not likely___ Negative___
8. What kinds of skills and expertise you should have in order to apply for an ideal job? (multiple choice)
Managerial skills___ Technical skills___ Computer skills___ Marketing skills___
Public relations skills___ Financial skills___ Language skills___ Administrative skills___ Other___

V. About Your Employment and Second Career (Groups B and C)

1. What are your most considerations in looking for an ideal job? (multiple choice)
Job nature (can fit my interest)___ Income/welfare___ Working hour___
Good working environment___ Promotion opportunity___
Training opportunity___ Company's reputation___
Good colleagues/bosses___ My expertise and skills can be used efficient___
Other___
2. Is there any difficulty in seeking a job and/or employment? (multiple choice)
Lack of expertise or skills___ Lack of interview skills___
Without strong confidence___ I am too old___
With an authoritarian manner___ Poor communication ability___
Can't be managed or controlled___ Can't work so hard___
Don't know how to apply for a job___
Without employment information___
Don't understand the company's culture___
Devaluated military degree and qualifications___
Can't accept lower position or payment___
Don't understand my own aptitude, interests___
Can't fit into company's management and culture___

3. Expected difficulties of seeking a job or employment in the near futures?

(Groups A and D)

- Lack of expertise or skills ___ Lack of interview skills ___
Without strong confidence ___ I am too old ___
With an authoritarian manner ___ Poor communication ability ___
Can't be managed or controlled ___ Can't work so hard ___
Don't know how to apply for a job ___
Don't understand the company's culture ___
Without employment information ___
Devaluated military degree and qualifications ___
Can't accept lower position or payment ___
Don't understand my own aptitude, interests ___
Can't fit into company's management and culture ___

4. Are you satisfied with your civilian job?

Very satisfied ___ Satisfied ___ Least satisfied ___ Dissatisfied ___

5. Are you satisfied with your payment?

Very satisfied ___ Satisfied ___ Least satisfied ___ Dissatisfied ___

6. Have you ever been discriminated against while you are employed or seeking a job?

Yes ___ No ___

7. Have you ever had any difficulties to find a job because of lacking expertise/skills?

Yes ___ No ___

8. Is your job the first ___ second ___ or third/over ___ one since retirement?

9. Reasons of dissatisfaction with your job, if any?

Lack of expertise or skills ___ Low payment ___ Work pressure ___ Company's
pressure ___ Not work hard ___ I don't like this job ___ Cannot adjust myself to
the new work role ___ Military personality ___ Poor performance ___ Complains
a lot ___ Poor interrelations with others ___ No promising future ___ Other ___

10. What are the best qualifications to seek an ideal job for retired officers? (multiple choice)

With civilian expertise and skills ___ More mature and stable ___
High loyalty and enthusiasm ___ Can motivate others ___
High morality and justice ___ Good language capability ___
Military managerial experience and skills ___ Good leadership ___
Strong sense of responsibility ___ Good adaptability ___
Good learning attitude and ability ___ Good educational attainment ___
Hard working ___ Other ___
Good interpersonal relations ___

11. What are your methods to find a job when retirement? (multiple choice)

Recommended by the Unions ___

Recommended by friends, family and/or relatives ___

From newspaper's advertisement ___

Recommended by private employment agency ___

Recommended by public employment agency ___

I am qualified to be a civil servant or teacher ___

Self employment ___

Self recommended ___

Other ___

VI. About The Transitional Training Course (Group A and B)

1. Are you attending: Industrial Class ___ Business Class ___

2. What are your perceptions on the value and function of TTC ?

Very positive ___ Positive ___ Normal ___ Negative ___

3. Did the TTC help your civilian employment? (Group B)

Most helpful ___ Helpful ___ Least helpful ___ Not helpful ___

VII. About The Business Management Course (Group D)

1. What are your perceptions on the value and function of BMC ?

Very positive ___ Positive ___ Normal ___ Negative ___

VIII. The Comparison of Policy and Practise of HRM between the Military and Business Organisation (Groups B and C)

1. The welfare program of military is better than business ones.

Most agree ___ Agree ___ Not agree ___

2. Military management emphasizes more on personal training and development than business management does.

Most agree ___ Agree ___ Not agree ___

3. Military promotion policy and practise are fairer than business ones.

Most agree ___ Agree ___ Not agree ___

4. I can learn more skills and expertise in military organisations than business ones.

Most agree ___ Agree ___ Not agree ___

5. Employees are more motivated by business reward policy and practise than military ones.
Most agree ___ Agree ___ Not agree ___
6. Business pay level is higher than military one.
Most agree ___ Agree ___ Not agree ___
7. Performance evaluation policy and practise in business organisations are better than military ones.
Most agree ___ Agree ___ Not agree ___
8. The policy and practise of merit and demerit in business organisation are fairer than military ones.
Most agree ___ Agree ___ Not agree ___
9. I would get more chance to be promoted in business organisation than in the military ones.
Most agree ___ Agree ___ Not agree ___
10. I can get more payment according to my ability and performance in business organisation than in military ones.
Most agree ___ Agree ___ Not agree ___
11. I could apply my skills and expertise to the work more in business organisations than military ones.
Most agree ___ Agree ___ Not agree ___
12. If I worked incompetently, I would be easier to get fired in business organisations than military ones.
Most agree ___ Agree ___ Not agree ___
13. Business management cares and concerns more on human factors than military management does.
Most agree ___ Agree ___ Not agree ___

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