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**EMPLOYMENT EXPERIENCES OF BLACK AND WHITE VETERANS WITH  
SERVICE-CONNECTED DISABILITIES**

by

**SHARON Y. MURPHY**

**DISSERTATION**

Submitted to the Graduate School

of Wayne State University,

Detroit, Michigan

in partial fulfillment of the requirement

for the degree of

**DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY**

2014

MAJOR: SOCIOLOGY

Approved by:

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Advisor

Date

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## **DEDICATION**

I would like to dedicate this document to Rod, Jamal, Njima, and my family members. I am grateful to the many Veterans in my life, particular the Veterans with service-connected disabilities who taught me from a very early age about love, caring and compassion and the value of work, based on their unique employment experiences. My Dad was a Veteran with a disability. He was a community advocate, activist, and leader. He helped young men in the community find their way. He used his vocational skills and training to help others learn how to work to their highest potential despite their disabilities. I read his letters to his mother while he was in the Korea War Era. His family was struggling and he vowed to send his money home to care for his family. The Army had messed up his pay and for weeks, he went without. Reading between the lines, I feel a sense of despair. I recall learning later in life that he experienced “discrimination in the South and because of his disability he had an exceptional time locating work.” Nonetheless, when he returned home he forged ahead and created his own vocations by using the skills he had gained through his service in the military. Because of this Veterans’ advocacy, leadership, demonstrations, marching, and picketing labor disputes my own fate was pre-determined. I also owe a great deal of gratitude to my grandfather, also a Veteran with a disability. I recall watching baseball games with him in the summer and listening to his military tales as well as learning about his injuries. He had a bullet in his neck that he told us “could not be removed.” My Daddy Bill was the foundation of our family. He was a very hard worker. He provided for his family despite his medical conditions and disability. He was truly a proud individual and his work experience attributes helped to shape who I am today. There are other Veterans to acknowledge and I could go on and on. Therefore, I will stop right here.

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I like to personally acknowledge my advisor Dr. Khari Brown, Sociology and all of my committee members for their input and scholarly advice as I have progressed onward with this dissertation project. The support from my committee was a valuable experience. Thank you Dr. K. Brown, Associate Professor and Director of Graduate Studies; Dr. D. Fasenfest, Associate Professor of Sociology, Editor, Critical Sociology; Dr. H. Gottfried, Associate Professor of Sociology, Gender, Work and Economy, and Dr. G. Parris, Coordinator and Assistant Professor/Rehabilitation Counseling Program.

This has been a challenging process as I have worked in the field in a primary qualitative capacity. However, while learning to complete this study from a purely quantitative perspective was challenging, it was a barrier I had to learn to overcome. Many professors and advisors, mentors and friends throughout the years have motivated me. I want to especially thank Dr. George Ntiri, Wayne State University, Detroit, Michigan and Dr. Jessie Grant, Akron, Ohio, for always providing me with encouragements throughout this dissertation journey.

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## **PREFACE**

This dissertation focuses on employment experience of Veterans. It specifically focuses on the different experiences of White and Black Veterans with disabilities and their ultimate struggle to locate suitable employment. This dissertation provides a historical analysis of the employment differences Black Veterans experienced since the Revolutionary War to present times.

The primary aim of this dissertation will be on Veterans with service-connected disabilities as defined by the Department of Veterans Affairs. This population uniquely identified in the Veterans Employability Research Study 2007 as individuals seeking employment specifically through the Department of Veterans Affairs.

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## CHAPTER I

### GENERAL INTRODUCTION

#### **Overview**

The present study examined the association between race and employment experiences among Veterans with disabilities. By employment experience, the researcher refers to individuals' formal vocational training and any prior work histories, which led to the development of skills, knowledge, attributes utilized in particular occupations, careers, or professions (Xiao, 2002). A typical definition or characteristic of employment experiences suggest work is completed beyond formal education and/or job training, which extends into the labor force. For Veterans employment experiences also include statuses of the unemployed, those not working, and seeking work, and those that have given up looking for work. Studies suggest that seeking employment takes on a greater sense of urgency as the gap widens between completion of training and/or formal education and obtaining gainful employment. The longer one seeks work without success, the greater the likelihood that the individual begins questioning his/her employability and earning potential (Choy, Bradburn & Carroll, 2008). Employment experiences characteristics are amalgamations of human capital experiences, acquired through education attainment, good job match, and time in the labor market (Myck & Paull, 2001). The main problem here is that there is a difference between the employment rates of White Veterans with and without service-connected disabilities when compared to the higher unemployment rates of Black Veterans with and without service-connected disabilities or any disability. This dissertation examines the African American Veterans' employment experiences from a historical perspective and from a contemporary viewpoint being that their total employment experiences are interconnected and encompasses more than the above-mentioned characteristics or definition

of employment experiences. By examining the specific characteristics of Veterans' employment experiences, this research aims to develop insight into how historical racial inequality in employment, contribute, today, to racial disparities in the labor market experiences of Black Veterans with and without service-connected disabilities (Faberman & Foster, 2013).

Veterans have multiple employment experiences because of both their active participation in the military and their civilian labor market involvement. In addition, Veterans have multiple experiences because their labor market experiences may encompass both internal and external factors<sup>1</sup> which began prior to or during their military participation and follows them into their civilian labor market (Chudzinski, 1988). White and Black veterans and Veterans with disabilities often have had dissimilar levels of employment experience histories. The employment experiences acquired through skills acquisition, on the job training and education in the military, in the presence of a service related injury, illness, or wound as a direct encounter to combat, interrupts employment; hence does not often correspond to good jobs and/or sustainable careers following ones military service. Additionally, income inequality and discriminatory labor market practices have historically contributed to the dissimilarity in the employment experiences of Black and White Veterans, which has led to different experiences both inside and outside the labor market (Chudzinski, 1988).

On today's national level, the unemployment rates of Black and White Veterans are both unacceptable and high. Unemployment is particularly for Veterans with both combat/wounds and service-connected disabilities who face substantially higher unemployment and many obstacles as they return to civilian life (Frain, Bethel, & Bishop, 2010; Warchal, West, Graham, Gerke, & Warchal, 2011). A report by the Economic Policy Institute indicated that during the recession in

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<sup>1</sup> Internal factors affecting veterans' employment experiences include race, disability/service-connected disability, age, gender. External factors affecting veterans' employment experiences are social economic status, educational training/skills, prior actual work, and job availability in the labor market and income inequality.

2007, the unemployment levels for all Veterans reached crisis proportions (Austin, 2008). DOL (2008) states that an estimated 200,000 Veterans have entered the labor market since 2008, yet there are still a significant number of unemployed Veterans who face challenges in the pursuit of employment. A considerable number of these Veterans struggle with the lack of marketable transferable skills. They find the availability of employment options, quality rehabilitation and educational/training programs a challenge, particularly if they have service-connected disabilities (Ruh, Spicer, Vaughan, 2009; DOL; 2012).

Despite the interventions provided by the Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) and the Department of Defense (DOD), the unemployment rate among some segments of the Veterans' communities remains higher than the general population (Department of Labor, 2012). For example, recent labor market data indicates that Blacks, who are only 11.9% of the total Veterans' population, have lower levels of labor market participation (DOL, 2011). Based on the 2011 data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics the unemployment rate for the general Veterans' community was 12.0% (DOL, 2011). During 2011, Black Veterans, like many non-veteran Blacks, had disproportionately higher unemployment rates, which ranged from as low as 17.4% to as high as 21.3% unemployment; nearly doubled the overall general veterans' unemployment rate. At the same time, Veterans 18 to 30 years old reported a 28.5% to 48% unemployment rate (Beucke, 2011 & DOL, 2011). This unemployment rate was nearly three times the general Veterans' population unemployment rate or White Veterans' unemployment rate during the same period, which was 12% (Matos & Galinsky, 2011).

The VA and DOD try to ensure that Veterans returning to the civilian workforce and their families have available resources to obtain and maintain meaningful careers. In addition, these departments aim to help Veterans maximize employment opportunities and protect their

employment rights (DOL, 2012). The non-disabled-veterans' employment rate has improved by 3% since August 2012; in some communities reflecting the lowest rates of the past three years (2009-2011). This rate has dropped to 6.6% down from 6.9% at the start of 2012 (Daywalt, 2012). However, the concern remains with the relatively lower levels of employment among Black Veterans with and without service-connected disabilities. Employment struggles of Black Veterans are not unique to this present economic downturn. Their struggles are linked to and compounded by the burdens of race and issues, which dates back to early centuries.

Little is known about the struggles of why Black Veterans with disabilities continue to have poorer employment outcomes given opportunity for skills acquisition, education following training a transferability of skills acquire to help bolster opportunities. Historically the military has skewed towards both the working class and African Americans. Thus, this paper is situated within the historical context of racial discrimination experiences by many African American Veterans and contends that the military may have helped to widen the social economic gap between Black and White Veterans through the perpetuation of inequalities which has gone on to sustain vast differences in skills acquisitions relevant in today's labor market. Subsequently, this paper primarily examined the impact of race on the employment experiences of Black Veterans with service-connected disabilities whom have historically experienced disproportionately higher prevalence of unemployment, which continues in today's labor market.

### **Order of the Research**

The research was presented in the following manner: Chapter 1, the Introduction provided an overview of the study, discussed the historical relevance of this study, and the overarching aim of the study on the relative theories; which analyzed the employment experiences of White and Black Veterans with disabilities. Chapter 2 examined the social, socio-

demographic and disability predictors of employment experiences for White and Black Veterans. Chapter 3 described the sample research data and nature of data collection. The data did not provide an opportunity to explore industry occupational codes to test hypotheses relative to the primary versus secondary labor markets. It does help situate what has happened relative to Black and White Veterans with disabilities to a historical context to support the ongoing racial segmentation within the labor market.

Chapter 4 and Chapter 5 summarized the main findings and detailed the purpose of the study. These Chapters also examine relevant cross tabulation and regressions of independent variables and dependent variables. These Chapters summarized the causes for disparities among the employment experiences of Black and White Veterans with service-connected disabilities.

Finally, Chapter 6 research findings, theoretical implications, and policy recommendations did explore efforts to inform hiring practices for Veterans with disabilities and enhance hiring practices for special or protected populations like minorities.

### **Historical Black Soldiers' Participation in the United States Military**

In the Civil War and Reconstruction Eras, Black soldiers' contribution in the military was a complex problem for the Union government (Franklin, 1994). The relationship of Black soldiers' participation and Black soldiers benefitting from their military experiences was twofold. First, particularly before and after the emancipation, Black soldiers' participation directly influenced the Union Military forces as well as provided some Black soldiers opportunities. Second, however, the Union, Black slaves, and White soldiers developed an entangled and complicated relationship over rights, humanity, politics, and arms (Franke, 1999).

Whereas, the Union viewed Black soldiers as a critical component to their military labor forces many of the Union's military personnel remained uneasy with the thought of arming

slaves and Black soldiers (NARA [National Achieves] 2013, Freeman, Elsie, Wynell Burroughs Schamel, and Jean West, 2013; Franklin, 1994). For example, Franke (1999) contends, the Union viewed Black and White military members and the surviving family members of those soldiers differently. Congress for example refused survivors' benefits and widows' pension to Black women following the death of their husbands or partners (Franke, 2013). Even worst, once conscription<sup>2</sup> started Black soldiers' casualty numbers increased because many Black soldiers were turned over to the Confederate Secretary of War. Those Black men were not provided treatment of prisoners of war, instead they were deemed "slaves in arms," incendiaries or insurrectionists and then executed (Franke, 1999).

Although more than 180,000 Black soldiers serving on the side of the Union's Navy and Army forces when the subjects of emancipation, the right to bear arms, voting and politics, were questioned, voluntary participation was questioned likewise (NARA, 2013; and Franklin, 1994). Subsequently Black soldiers demonstrated their commitment in the military. The Union recognized its critical dependence on Black soldiers and deemed them indispensable (Du Bois, 1973). Black soldiers viewed their participation as a platform to gain necessary freedoms and equal rights. Their participation however, was not necessarily welcomed by the Union. DuBois stated in *Black Reconstruction*:

"Simply by stopping work, they could threaten the Confederacy with starvation. By walking into Federal camps, they showed to doubting Northerners the easy possibility of using them as workers and as servants, as farmers, and as spies, and finally, as fighting soldiers" (1973, p. 121).

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<sup>2</sup> Conscription: The National Conscription Acts require all able-bodied male citizens to become liable to avail themselves to perform military duty on behalf of the United States (Wood (2012). <http://blogs.loc.gov/law/2012/11/civil-war-conscription-laws/>.



By the end of the Civil War, more than 200,000 Black soldiers had served in the military (NPR, 2007; Army.mil, 2013).

DuBois accounted the Black soldiers' participation as a contributing factor to the reason the "power" of Black soldiers in the South, although not always viewed as "soldiers" proved to contribute to the win of the Union by weakening the confederacy and aiding the Union army (DuBois, 1973). He contended that yielding to necessity Blacks were freed from slavery by the Union and then they armed themselves (pp. 193). Aside from noncombat support, Black soldiers were often outfitted with arms and they served in artillery and infantry duties (Franklin, 1994). Additionally, these soldiers proved their significance to the Union by successfully performing key military strategies and overtaking key military installations held up by the opposition (Franklin, 1994). Once more, enlightened by the Black soldiers' abilities, some White military leaders and White regular soldiers grew weary about of having Blacks, particularly former slaves equally armed with them (Franke, 1999).

Succeeding the Civil War, the predominately-White men United States (US) military contended that Blacks, remained incapable of performing sophisticated military strategies and that they lacked fighting skills. Black soldiers continued to endure manual labor-intensive duties and laborious task relegated to them, similar to their experiences as slaves (Astor, 1998). Due to segregation, the military formed ill-trained unskilled all-Black regiments, usually under the leadership of White officers. Some Black soldiers received artisan and skilled training but not many. However, the pay for Black soldiers in these segregated units averaged less than the average pay for White soldiers with similar artisan or skilled training (Byran, 2003).

The roles Black soldiers participated in skilled or not, while in the segregated military vastly affected their employment experiences back in the civilian labor market. Mencke (2010)

contended that there was an intentional elimination of Black skilled workers from the labor market because White soldiers and White civilians did not want to compete with them in the labor market. Mencke (2010) stated that many Southern states supported the elimination of Black skilled soldiers from the labor market, which stemmed from federal legislation, which disenfranchised Black soldiers. Because federal legislation Black soldiers were categorically disenfranchised and eliminated from almost every aspect of civilian success, starting with equal access to quality education, to equal access to public policymakers whom could have supported them. Ultimately, the successful elimination of almost 100,000 Black skilled artisans soldiers from the labor-pool, in due time, also removed them from the labor market as well (Mencke, 2010).

Although Blacks had not previously benefited from the military, to prove themselves worthy of full citizenship rights, they continued to enlist in the US military in record numbers during every American military conflict leading up to World War I and into World War II (Astor, 1998; Finkerlman, 2009; Williams, 2011). Charged with content over ongoing racial inequality in the US, other Blacks however remained far removed from the immediacy of World War I (Williams, 2011). However, as many as 2.5 million Blacks felt that entering the armed forces for America was an opportunity to promote nationalism and patriotism hoping that the government would reward them by providing dutiful civil rights to all Blacks back home (Williams, 2011).

With inferior weapons and training, Black soldiers, including Black officers were continuously assigned laborious jobs and menial task by high-ranking White officers who viewed Black soldiers as inferior (Blumberg, 1984). High-ranking White officers, in direct opposition of serving alongside any Blacks soldiers, also implied that Blacks lacked discipline

and unworthy of holding any military leadership positions. Additionally, White military leaders commonly shared the assumption that even well trained Black officers were a reflection of poorly trained Black troops and, that their performances too would exhibit character flaws that could otherwise jeopardize their military operations (DOD, 1985; Glatthaar, 2013). Finally, resisting all political pressure to be inclusive of Black military participants White military leaders commonly held fast to the assumption that Blacks, if provided an opportunity to perform high-level duties or special military operations lacked endurance, would succumb to weather elements, or have issues following directions from White superior officers (DOD, 1985; Glatthaar, 2013).

As WWI, progressed, Black military divisions remained segregated from all-White military divisions (Byran, 2003). It was not until WWI, that Black soldiers began to receive specialized training under the command of French Officers who desperately pleaded with the United States for assistance (Byran, 2003). Following WWI, the United States Congress and United States Army established specific training academies devoted to the training and preparation of Black soldiers (Byran, 2003). Heading into WWII, however, conditions for Blacks in the military had not significantly changed. During WWII, segregation in the US Military mirrored segregation in the United States of America as a whole. Because of segregation in the military, many Black soldiers continued to perform menial task, which once more, did little to improve their civilian labor market opportunities (Blumberg, 1984; Byran, 2003). Blacks during this time began to contest all military conflicts and felt they had nothing to gain; their fight for democracy remained in the US not overseas (Williams, 2011). The Black community as well contested the poor treatment of the all Black Servicemembers because of their poor treatment in segregated military units. Whereas the general assumption by most White

military leaders continued to contend that Blacks were only accustomed to manual labor, which they had performed as civilians, and that they were incapable of more sophisticated specialties or military operations (DOD, 1985).

Unquestionably, the racial segregation and prejudice, which proliferated during World Wars I and II, cultivated and maintained flagrant racism toward Black soldiers and Veterans (Motley, 1975/1987 pp 11). As the military's stance on the utilization of Black soldiers gained support in lower-level jobs as did the use of segregation, which maintained unstable Black units produced solely to support White soldiers (DOD, 1985). Most of the Black units were fractured appendages to attached White divisions. These units were quickly banned and disbanded causing a lack of cohesion among Black Servicemembers creating what Motley termed "integrated casualties" (Motley, 1975/1987 pp. 19). Undeniably, training was the essential milestone of the military, and the essential key to future success following the military. Still training issue multiplied and racism and prejudice left many Black Soldiers/Servicemembers and Veterans, among members of those fractured units (Onkst, 1998). Thus, Black soldiers were primarily restricted from specialist duties consequently they remained inadequately prepared for specific military duties and post-military employment experiences. For instance, because there was an assumption that flourished throughout the military that Black soldiers lacked training which was virtually unattainable to them. Upon returning home with virtually no training, Black soldiers found the same assumptions about their abilities, which impacted their ability to obtain civilian employment opportunities (Glatthaar, 2013).

Black soldiers as well as soldiers with injuries considered training, work and skill development essential to their well-being and a springboard to gaining competitive occupations in the civilian world (Jefferson, 2003). Military training for Blacks was not a priority therefore

the policy of segregation led to unequitable opportunities for Black soldiers (Parker 2009; Motley 1975/1987 pp. 26). Once more Black soldiers were officially detached from stable White divisions. Black soldiers by order were forced to sleep in segregated camps, eat in separate facilities, and have recreation in separate locations (Motley, 1975/1987). Black soldiers, Servicemembers and now Black Veterans stated that instead of gaining adequate military training they received inadequate and segregated assignments in segregated combat units, resulting in the overdeveloped lower task like cleaning, cooking, driving, and infantry (Parker, 2009; Byran, 2003).

Continuing into WWII, a small number of Black soldiers trained at the same military academies as White Officers were promoted to Commissioned Officers, nevertheless their leadership abilities remained questionable, and they primarily held leadership positions only over Black units (DOD, 1985; Repp, Whetherholt, Epperson, Wilson, 2008). Racism and segregation prohibited Black Officers from leading White units and from commanding White military installations, divisions, and branches (DOD, 1985). Once more, the training Black soldiers did receive, demeaned them. Including the Black officers and unit leaders, most Blacks in the military during this time, were forced to perform menial tasks once again i.e. cleaning, cooking, and mopping. Black soldiers remained barred from service in the Marine Corps, Coast Guard, and Army Air Corps. The Navy did allow Black soldiers to serve on the other hand their primary duties were mess men (Repp, Whetherholt, Epperson, Wilson, 2008). Other common duties performed by Black soldiers were stevedores, dockworkers, and drivers responsibility for ground logistics and Services of Supply (S.O.S) support units who frequently worked long hours day and night (DOD, 1985).

Because many Black Veterans only performed lower-level skills or unskilled jobs in the military, which often translated to insufficient transferable skills, they acquired lower-leveled or unskilled employment upon discharge (Motley, 1975/1987; Parker, 2009; Byran, 2003). Black soldiers, fortunate enough to have transferable skills, stated that the mainstream labor market largely overlooked them when they returned from military duty. In addition, they reported when they did receive training that was adequate for career-minded employment opportunities they were ill prepared for the civilian labor market (Parker, 2009; Jefferson, 2003). Finally, those Black Veterans who reported on-the-job training stated that they only gained meager benefits, which they attributed to racial and or overt forms of discrimination (Onkst, 1998).

Parker (2009) contended that following the World Wars, the military had somewhat of a codependent-type relationship experience with Black soldiers. He argued that Blacks believed that because of their military experiences they would have full citizenship in the United States of America. Accordingly, those Black Veterans felt a sense of entitlement to benefits indebted to them as indebted to non-minority soldiers (Parker, 2009). However, Black military participants who hoped for fruitful gains in the military realized their optimistic visions were short-lived, because racial discrimination continued to be a part of the American way of life (Onkst, 1998). Consequently, Black soldiers, and Veterans often contended that the classification of race had greater precedence in United States of America than war (Motley (1975/1987 pp. 29).

White and Black soldiers had vastly different military and post-war experiences. Following the war, post-military opportunities and training remained an acute problem for many Black Veterans, which affected their employment opportunities significantly. There were, however, some Black Veterans exposed to opportunities outside of the military. Some Black Veterans even experienced memberships in political communities if fortunate, and believed they

could “achieve a sense of equal Black-white relations” in the United States of America (Parker, 2009). For the most part, however, political organizations and many Veterans advocacy organizations, such as the Legionnaires, exclusively prohibited or restricted Black Veterans’ membership (Keene, 2002). For example, by the 1930s, only 3,557 Black Veterans out of almost 400,000 Black Veterans were listed members of the Legionnaires, which boasted a membership of over 1,000,000 Veterans (Keene, 2002).

The intent of the Veterans’ advocacy organizations or Veterans’ Service Organizations (VSOs) like the Legionnaires, Disabled Veterans of America, etc., was to serve as a bridge between the Veterans and human service agencies, medical centers, counseling facilities and compensation for Veterans. These VSOs also provided Veterans advocacy support while they waited for or contested denial of benefits from the Department of Veterans Affairs (VA). Nonetheless, because Black soldiers were denied equal access to the same VSO advocacy organizations as their White counterparts they often lack necessary quality of life services. In other words, Black Veterans, who often succumbed to social problems or illnesses saw their issues exacerbated because of long-term illnesses, diseases, serious disabilities, severe mental health conditions and lacked opportunities which were more frequently provided to White Veterans upon returning to the US or civilian status (Keene, 2002).

Advocacy and the VSOs provided little constellation to mitigate the social and health problems experienced by many returning Black soldiers. Employment and other opportunities in the Black Veterans’ communities remained sparse. Once more, many Black Veterans were either ill prepared for semi-to-professional opportunities or even entry-level skilled jobs because they had minimal to no relevant transferable civilian skills (Hill, 2010). In addition, many Black Veterans were simply denied opportunities, which paralleled their military experiences based on

their race and ethnicity. Subsequently, regardless of training, many Black Veterans' following the WWII Era, reported that their skills were discounted, or disregarded all together (Hill, 2010). For example, Jefferson (2003) recalled meeting with a Black Veteran who was trained to drive trucks in the military. As a civilian, this Veteran contended, he was restricted to only "dishwasher" positions. He stated that when he applied for work through his State's, operated unemployment agency they only saw him as a dishwasher. Despite his exemplary background as a driver, the unemployment agency workers stereotyped him. Not having adequate training consequently impacted Veterans' socioeconomic status and movement out of poverty as well. Whereas many White Veterans prevailed back in the United States, many of their Black counterparts, whom previously relied heavily on their acquired military experiences, only achieved marginalized socioeconomic gains as civilians or in the civilian labor market (Onkst, 1998, Keene, 2002).

The end of World War II, meant Black soldiers had to reexamine their traditional practices of American patriotism and it forced America to reexamine segregated military units (Westheider, 1998). In other words, Black soldiers began to speak out against poor treatment that they received in the military and the lack of social supports received once they returned home (Herbold, 1995; Blumberg, 1984 & Glattharr, 2001). What White and Black Veterans had in common was that they collectively experienced dissatisfaction when they left the military and returned home to high unemployment and inadequate medical, housing, and social programs to assist Veterans (Morsch, 1975; Keene, 2002).

Treatment of many injured or ill Veterans was substandard because prior to the development of many Veterans' service organizations and advocacy organizations the special treatment and military care was reserved for superior ranked Servicemembers (VFW, 2013).



Veterans banded together and spoke publically about the lack of social welfare and health programs following their military experiences. Veterans discovered that previous employment had been filled by civilians and the little gains monetarily, obtained from bonus and enlistment incentives, gave them little salience to mitigate their ill-feelings back in the US (Murray, 2008). In 1942, the US government considered various programs and social services to support Veterans transitioning from soldier to civilian life and to avoid additional civil unrest regarding the treatment of Veterans (Hill, 2010). That same year, a commission recommended that the federal government be involved in an educational program for all Veterans. The Armed Forces Committee on Postwar Educational Opportunities was formed which made a list of suggestions in the following year. US citizens were surveyed in 1943 regarding their feelings relative to supporting Veterans and developing the enactment of transition programs (Murray, 2008; Mosch, 1975). The Committee reported that the government had a duty to educate all Veterans with at least one year of education. Therefore, the military, which improved labor force participation among many Veterans, particularly in higher-ranking positions, allowed for the development of skills to be utilized post-service through the GI Bill Educational Benefits<sup>3</sup> (Mettler, 2005).

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<sup>3</sup> GI Educational Benefits The Servicemen's Readjustment Act of 1944 signed into law by President Franklin D. Roosevelt June 22, 1944.

- a) It gives servicemen and women the opportunity of resuming their education or technical training after discharge, or of taking a refresher or retainer course, not only without tuition charge up to \$500 per school year, but with the right to receive a monthly living allowance while pursuing their studies.
- b) It makes provision for the guarantee by the Federal Government of not to exceed 50 percent of certain loans made to Veterans for the purchase or construction of homes, farms, and business properties.
- c) It provides for reasonable unemployment allowances payable each week up to a maximum period of one year, to those Veterans who are unable to find a job.
- d) It establishes improved machinery for effective job counseling for Veterans and for finding jobs for returning soldiers and sailors.
- e) It authorizes the construction of all necessary additional hospital facilities.
- f) It strengthens the authority of the Veterans Administration to enable it to discharge its existing and added responsibilities with promptness and efficiency (US Department of Veterans Affairs, 2011).

The GI Bill contended that educational benefits should be offered to Veterans to cover up to four years of training. If needed, Veterans could receive career counseling and other assistance to help them properly utilize all of their opportunities according to their status (Mosch, 1975, p. 29). President Roosevelt who endorsed the program called the Servicemen's Readjustment Act or GI Bill an insurance to counteract the expected high unemployment anticipated as World War II ended (U.S. National Achieves & Records, Administration, 2012). Particularly, the US government anticipated large numbers of returning veterans to civilian requiring employment assistance and educational services. Therefore, the Servicemen's Readjustment Act was established in advance to counteract widespread high unemployment among returning veterans (Olson, 1974).

The GI Bill had a noticeable economic impact on many Veterans who participated in its educational programs and other social welfare programs (Mettler, 2005). Veterans had an overall 83 percent participation rate in the GI programs, which significantly enhanced their lives while also increasing their incomes (Mettler, 2005). For some Veterans, the GI Bill led to home ownership. For America, the GI Bill led to the vast suburbanization of its cities (Herbold, 1994; Mettler, 2005). Overall, the GI Bill had the highest impact on White male Veterans, compared to Black male Veterans, Veterans with disabilities and women Veterans (Cohany, 1990; Jefferson, 2003). Although the educational benefits enabled a large number of Veterans to pursue college degrees and obtain higher social economic status, racial segregation policies prevented many Black Veterans, from accessing the full advantage of the GI Bill's benefits.

Undeniably, the federal government's overt racial discrimination against Black Veterans contributed to this group benefited the least from the GI Bill. The GI Bill had a particularly negative impact on the lives of many Black Veterans outside of just educational discrimination.

In the South, for instance, when Black Veterans attempted to utilize their benefits for the GI Bill's four major entitlements (special job placement services, unemployment compensation, home and business loans and educational subsidies) they were denied due to a combination of racism and poorly administered policies (Onsokt, 1998).

Since the formation of the GI Bill, its benefits has remained one of the most consistently debated post-WW II subject researched (Mettler, 2005). For instance, proponents of the "common man theory" and some Veterans' organizations opposed the GI Bill. The common man proponents felt that Americans were self-sufficient individuals who needed little government intervention or handouts (Bennett, 1996). Likewise, Veterans' organizations advocates felt that the Bill would exclusively eliminate benefits for Veterans with disabilities (Conrad, 2005). On the other hand, other researchers of the GI Bill felt that the Bill was the transformation of the US society's "knowledge base" which also led to the direct formation of the middle-class (Drucker, 1994; Mettler, 2005). Yet these benefits according to other researcher was said to have led to the redistribution of benefits for White Veterans vs. the creation of inequitable distribution of benefits for African-American Veterans and the working class (Mettler, 2005). Mettler (2005) contended however, that the post-WW II GI Bill debate was not firmly supported by empirical literature. She stated that there were "myths surrounding its inclusiveness and demarcating effects," which were thought to have brought about an inherently elitist policy linked to discrimination and the maintenance of social and economic problems for Black Veterans and the American working-class (Mettler, 2005).

Another part of the debate surrounding the post-WWII GI Bill was that the VA did indeed discriminate against potential Black Veterans recipients by willfully withholding or denying benefits from them, furthering the gap in the social economic gains of Black and White

Veterans. However, Mettler (2005) contends that Black Veterans, like their White Veteran counterparts equally benefited from the GI Bill. She states that although the housing loan components of the GI Bill discriminated against Black Veterans they also benefited because they became active in civic and political organizations prompted by civil rights issues. She stated that returning WWII Black Veterans may not have been politically motivated in civil rights issues had they not been in the military which pushed many of them into leadership opportunities fighting for equality even from the GI Bill (Mettler, 2005). On the other hand, the VA, at the time of the formation of the GI Bill, did not see Black Veterans' inequalities, disparities, and lack of benefits as a "burning issue" (Herbold, 1994). The VA denied benefits to Black Veterans and created more barriers to their job training, acquisition of housing, small business loans, post-secondary educational opportunities, and employment prospects (Herbold, 1994, McKenna, 2008).

During the post-WW II era, when Black Veterans returned to their communities they faced mounting joblessness and widespread poverty (Lomotey, 2010). Whereas White Veterans entered training programs, post-secondary educational programs or returned to pursue their jobs of origin pre-WWII, which remained in place for them by their previous employers (Lomotey, 2010). However, because of discrimination, few mechanisms were set in place to advance higher education attainment among Black Veterans (Lomotey, 2010). The substandard treatment of Black Veterans carried over into other facets of Veterans' lives (Mencke, 2010).

Throughout the late 1940s to the 1950s because of segregation, Black Veterans were restricted from using their GI Benefits for education and job retraining at predominately-White universities and colleges primarily in the South (Herbold, 1994). In the decades following the GI Bill, some Northern universities and colleges in urban communities accepted the GI benefits as a

form of financial aid for Black Veterans and other minorities on its campuses (Herbold, 1994). Nonetheless, Black Veterans faced discrimination in the northern colleges and universities too. Black recipients of the GI Bill lacked access to adequate counseling and career development. Following WWII, there were a total of less than a dozen Black professionals in Georgia, Alabama and Mississippi combined to provide career development services to Black Veterans in the South (Turner and Bound, 2002; Onkst, 1998). Lack of education and access to job retraining in predominately White southern institutions theoretically stimulated the movement of Black Veterans to northern institutions (Turner and Bound 2002). Black Veterans encountered significant barriers however. They encounter discrimination in the North, including housing discrimination and disruption of family life caused by moving to the North to seek education and job retraining (Turner and Bound, 2002).

Predominately Black colleges and universities, already financially strained, faced mounting pressures to accommodate and educate Black Veterans in less than standard educational facilities (Herbold, 1994). Without adequate training and educational facilities, Black Veterans were in a disadvantaged position to advance economically relative to White Veterans. A combination of discrimination, which limited full access to the GI benefits, caused Black Veterans to not keep pace educationally and economically relative to their White Veteran counterparts (Herbold, 1994). Consequently, Black Veterans' education and economic advancements did not increase at the same rate as White Veterans.

Despite the obstacles facing Black Veterans 100,000 managed to receive allocated educational funds, which helped to fuel the jumpstart of the Black middle class and somewhat narrowed the socioeconomic gap between Black and White Veterans. Likewise many Historically Black Colleges and Universities (HBCUs) benefited when legislation was passed to

strengthen lower performing post-secondary training programs targeted to educate low-income, first-generation minority students and many Black Veterans. Under the Higher Education Act (HEA) of 1965 and Lanham Act of 1946, appropriations were allocated to “level the playing field” by providing financial resource to predominately Black training facilities and postsecondary education institutes (Herbold, 1994; Lomotey, 2010). HBCUs were one of the primary recipients of the HEA financial resources, which created funding sources aimed at sustaining accessible educational facilities for Blacks, the poor and other minorities (Herbold, 1994; Lomotey, 2010).

While the issues of Blacks Veterans over time differed dating back to the early American wars and conflicts to today, what remains constant is how racism continued to flourish within the military and Veterans’ civilian communities. For instance, during the 1940s, 50s, and 60s military race relations paralleled race relations throughout the United States of America. Less than a third of Blacks and minority Veterans received representation from the US Department of Veterans Affairs due to racism (Herbold, 1994). In fact, in the mid-1940s to the late 1950s, Senator Rankin and other Senators who backed his separatist policies and Black-White segregationist beliefs simply withheld financial resources intended to assist all Veterans, including Black Veteran with social readjustment like housing, education and bank loans for small businesses (Herold, 1994). Senator Rankin supported racial segregation and was not a supporter of civil rights, African American soldiers, Jewish Americans or Japanese Americans (Herzinger, 2013). He was concerned with the language of the GI Bill, which stated, “any veteran shall be found eligible for and entitled” to benefits. This language explicitly implied that Black Veterans like their White Veteran counterparts could be entitled to educational and other Veterans’ benefits and able to seek educational training at predominately-White institutions of

higher learning. Essentially, what Rankin was doing was questioning the issue of qualification of benefits for Black and other minority Veterans (Conrad, 2005). Rankin pushed for lower survivors' benefits to deceased Black Veterans' family members and he supported other separatist policies, which restricted opportunities for Black Veterans in the South, which limited the availability of colleges and universities opened to Blacks seeking educational opportunities (Herbold, 1994). As a result, Black Veterans contended that they repeatedly received fewer claims eligibility awards for benefits, which meant that fewer of them, received educational training, medical treatment or effective treatment for their mental health conditions (Onsokt, 1998; Herbold, 1994; Jefferson, 2003; Mencke, 2010).

Black Veterans contended that inside the Department of Veterans Affairs, for instance the staff did not "care" about them, consequently they did not "care about themselves" either (Mencke, 2010). Because it was so difficult for Black Veterans to obtain personal adjustment counseling, physical and mental health care from the US Department of Veterans Affairs and Veteran's Administration (VA) Medical Centers/Hospitals, many Black Veterans reported that they were ill fitted to seek employment opportunities (Jefferson, 2003). The Civil Rights Movement, however, mobilized Black voters and Black soldiers, which eventually lead to the desegregation of the military (Blumberg, 1984). However, today, upon exiting the military, many Black Veterans, continue to have dissimilar levels of employment experiences relative to their White Veteran counterparts.

### **Brief History of the Department of Veterans Affairs (VA)**

To decrease unemployment for ordinary military personnel, the government instituted entitlement programs to assist Veterans with less prestigious duties, the hard to employ, and veterans with disabilities and injuries. The United States government started the Vocational

Rehabilitation program as an entitlement program for “war-injured and disabled citizens.” Under the War Risk Insurance Act of 1914, the program was extended to provide services to Veterans with “dismemberment, sight, hearing, and other injuries resulting in permanent disabilities.” The timely delivery of pre-vocational/educational training, military training and post-war vocational rehabilitation training and support services were essential tools utilized by the government to help restore Veterans to their pre-war injury positions or better. “Preferential” hiring strategies a cornerstone of the “Veterans premium,” while quite controversial even among the non-disabled Veteran population, allowed employers to hire Veterans with disabilities, even when more qualified non-disabled Veterans or civilian personnel candidates were available (Department of Veterans Affairs, 2012).

The VA has transformed its vocational, educational and employment programs over the years. The current Department of Veterans Affairs Chapter 31 education and employment program is called VetSuccess. According to the Department of Veterans Affairs Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment (VetSuccess) Program, a Veteran qualifies for educational training, counseling and other services, if they have a disability rating of 20% or greater, have an honorable/other than dishonorable discharge from their military service duties and follows the appropriate guidelines for applying into the program. Entitlement, not eligibility is based on their 20% “service-connected disability” their “handicap to employment” and their ability to pursue and complete “suitable employment” which is “feasible.”

Veterans must have a service-connected disability to participate in the Department of Veterans Affairs Chapter 31 VetSuccess Program. However, Veterans with more severe disabilities or with multiple impairments and disabilities are normally not “feasible” for services. These Veterans are typically factored out of most educational pursuits and employment



equations and are not usually a part of the “labor market” because training is “infeasible” due to their on-going health needs or other risk surrounding their specific disabilities. Therefore, only Veterans with service-connected disabilities who will require minimal to significant retraining to become substantially or gainfully employed, in the labor market usually participate in the educational component of VetSuccess (Department of Veterans Affairs, 2012).

### **Definition of Terms**

Disabilities and service-connected disabilities: Disabilities and service-connected disabilities (SCDs) are used interchangeably. The Department of Veterans Affairs recognizes various phrases used by the medical community to understand the differences between, impairment, handicap and disability; but does not explicitly use one definition (Department of Veterans Affairs, 2012).

Furthermore, disabilities according to the U. S. Department of Veterans Affairs (DVA) are accidents, wounds, injuries, or illnesses aggravated during active military, naval, or air service (Department of Veterans Affairs, 2012). Those disabilities often allow the Veteran to receive compensatory and other financial benefits in varying degrees.<sup>4</sup> The Veterans Disability Compensation program, administered by the Department of Veterans Affairs (DVA) uses the rating 0 to 100 percent to determine if the disabilities (illnesses, injuries or diseases) “incurred or manifestations” during service caused a compensatory loss of income resulting in a monetary benefit owed to the Veteran (Department of Veterans Affairs, 2012). Proving a Veteran is

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<sup>4</sup> The Veterans Disability Compensation program, administered by the Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) uses the rating 0 to 100 percent to determine if the disability (illness, injury, or disease) which incurred during service caused a loss of earning potential, resulting in a monetary benefit owed to the Veterans.

disabled is often a challenge. Veterans can be certified as an individual with a service-connected disability in three primary ways:

- (1) The Veteran can often draw upon documentation and medical records (Panangala, Scott, Weimer, Moulta-Ali & Nichols 2010).
- (2) The VA can draw upon the use of presumptions (illnesses associated with war), a practice that began in 1921 with an amendment (P.L. 67-47) to the War Risk Insurance Act (P.L. 63-193) (Panangala, et al. 2010).
- (3) The VA may label a Veteran as having a Service-Connected Disability (SCD), a disease, injury, or other medical and mental health condition that occurred during active military service. The disability may have been present at the time a Veteran entered the military, but became exacerbated due to the Veteran's military duty. The VA based on functional ability rates these service-connected disabilities.<sup>5</sup>

Even with a disability rating, many Veterans will continue to work or seek educational retraining.<sup>6</sup> Finally, to determine if the Veteran is entitled to training, or other educational benefits, the Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment (VR&E) Division of the VA use the disability rating in another way such as determining housing benefits, housing modifications and educational/survival benefits to Veterans' benefactors.<sup>7</sup>

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<sup>5</sup> The Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) rate the Veteran according to the "Schedule for Rating Disabilities in Title 38, U.S. Code of Federal Regulations, Part 4." For example, a zero percent is a valid rating and is different from having no rating at all.

<sup>6</sup> The VA uses data on service-connected disability status and ratings to measure classify the demand for health care services. As a result, these disabilities have dissimilar definitions according to the American Disability Act (ADA), World Health Organization (WHO), or even the Department of Defense (DoD).

<sup>7</sup> According to the Department of Veterans Affairs Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment (currently referred to as the VetSuccess) Program, a Veteran qualifies for educational training, counseling and other services, if they have a disability rating of 20% or greater, have an honorable/other than dishonorable discharge from their military service duties and following the appropriate guidelines for applying into the program.

Disabilities: There are two primary models of disabilities: a medical model and a social/moral model. This research will be guided largely by the social model in the sense that the social model reviews disabilities relative to how they are situated and viewed by society. Nonetheless, the bulk of available research on this subject is driven by the medical model, therefore, the medical model of disabilities and its multiple interpretations as well as official definitions are outlined below.

The medical model usually regards a person in terms of a defect or illness. The social/moral model has relevance to shame and guilt, which limits the individual's chances to advance in society and within his/her community (Kaplan, 2012). There are also multiple medical and social definitions of disabilities, which vary from culture to society (Bradsher, 1996). The Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA), Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), World Health Organization (WHO), Social Security Administration (SSA), Department of Veterans Affairs, and even the Department of Defense (DOD) use a medical model to define "disability" however, all of these agencies operate with different definitions. The VA's broad definition of disabilities was defined in the previous sections of this report. Other relevant definitions are below.

The World Health Organization (WHO) international classification defines disabilities as a complex phenomenon, which universally affects an individual's body as well as her position in society. The word "disability" is an "umbrella term," used by WHO and it is widely used in the medical communities. This term encompasses physical and mental limitations as well as the inability of one to function independently in society within any given life situation (WHO, 2012). One billion individuals worldwide have disabilities due to increasing chronic diseases,

injuries, car crashes, falls, violence, and aging (WHO, 202). Approximately 80% live in poverty; have limited access to health care and/or limited access to rehabilitative care (WHO, 2012).

Disabled World News: This definition states that a disability is incurred when the usual standards of an individual's or group's conditions or functions experience a significant physical, sensory, cognitive, intellectual, mental impairment, or chronic disease. These disabilities are multidimensional for each individual and classified according to their abilities to participate and/or have restrictions imposed on them in their own social or physical environments (2012).

Disabilities in America is becoming one the largest minatory groups, which constitutes over 65 percent of the working-age adults in America (Disability Funders Network, 2012). According to the DEN (2012), the majority of adults with disabilities in America represent the nation's largest segment of poor individuals. This group is also vastly under-employed, under-educated and suffers extreme discrimination relative to age, ethnicity, gender, race, sexual orientation, and socioeconomic status in part due to their disabilities.

GI Bill of Right: The Servicemen's Readjustment Act, Public Law 346, which is often referred to as the GI Bill. Congress passed this Bill in 1944. The GI Bill will be explained in further detail in the body of the research.

United States Military Occupation Code: Military Occupational Specialty (MOS) is the specific service specialization in the military. The MOS is assigned an alphanumeric identification for each specific military occupation in the Army and Marines. The other military Branches, Air Force (Air Force Specialty Codes AFSC) and Navy (Navy Enlisted Classification NEC) are similar acronyms to define occupations. This MOS, AFSC, NEC, as well as the DMOS (Duty Military Occupational Specialty) and MOSQ (Military Occupational Specialty Qualification) can be cross-referenced to similar civilian occupations or duties (DoD, 2013).

Americans with Disabilities Act (ADA) and The EEOC: Employment and accommodation laws, which are a part of the US Department of Justice, share similar definitions of disability. Based on *The Compliance Manual Section* of The US Department of Justice, a disability is with respect to one individual is (a) a “physical or mental impairment that substantially limits one or more major life activities of such individual; (b) there is a record of such an impairment; or (c) being regarded as having such an impairment” (US Department of Justice, 2011).

Social Security Administration (SSA) has two separate services that provide monetary benefits to individuals with disabilities. The first program is the Social Security Disability Insurance often referred to as SSDI Title II of the Social Security Act and the Supplemental Security Income SSI program Title XVI of the Social Security Act (SSA, 2012). The definition of disability is the same whether and individual applies for Title II or Title XVI benefits. The Social Security Administration (SSA) adds to the definition of disability that the individual possesses “the inability to do *any* substantial gainful activity (SGA)” and the condition that the disability or illness has lasted for more than one year (SSA, 2012).

Individuals with disabilities may have some work through various work incentive programs under the “rule” and not jeopardize their cash benefits. While the “rules” differs for both programs it allows eligible individuals to test their abilities and may even provide them with cash benefits, medical insurance, payment for work expenses and possible vocational training while they are testing their abilities (SSA, 2012). Similar to the VA, the for the most part, SSA financial benefit (entitlement) awards individuals with a disability in the labor market. However, SSA is the most restrictive program and has strict guidelines concerning other financial resources, entitlement or benefits, which can be, utilized simultaneously (U.S. Social Security Administration, 2012).

Not only is there a medical component to disability, but there is also a societal dimension which consists of cultural, racial, and other social burdens experienced by marginalized individuals and Veterans with disabilities. The social conceptions of disabilities have been redressed to some degree over the years (Winters, 2003), and often with negative connotations and stigmas. This study, however, will examine racial differences in the vocational training and employment of Veterans with service-connected disabilities, in order to determine if racial differences persist in the employment status, ability to match military skills with civilian job requirements, job satisfaction, and accommodations made for disabilities on the job among Black and White disabled veterans. Many Veterans dually receive Veterans benefits and benefits from The Social Security Administration. According to the SSA (2010) reports on poverty, Black men represent a disproportionately large number of individuals receiving monetary poverty benefits.

*Veterans/GIs:* Veterans come from the root word *vetus*; Latin, which means experienced (Merriam-Webster.com, 2012). Veterans' status, race, and disabilities to some extent have caste-like attributes. While Veterans with disabilities have unique medical and psychosocial conditions, they are all interconnected by the virtue of their shared statuses and their shared experiences in the military.

Black and White Veterans have multiple statuses inside and outside of the military and their respective Veterans' communities. A "Veteran" is often mistaken by most Americans to be a "person with a disability" or a part of an ethnic or cultural group or even a part of a minority social caste. However, in reality on 26% of the entire Veterans' population have a disability (Armstead, 2012). A disabled Veteran is marginalized, however, not only because of his/her military cultural status, but often because of an illness, be it mental or physical. This marginalization is further compounded when the individual is part of a racial or ethnic minority

population (Armstead, 2012). Additionally, Black Veterans are often seen as having higher health care needs because they have poorer general health overall. These Veterans also have higher PTSD and lower socio-economic means (MHA, 2012; Armstead, 2012).

The US Census Bureau Fact Finder (2011) reported that among the 12.7 percent or 26.4 million all Veterans in American 5.6 percent lived in poverty pre-911. That number has risen to more than 12.0 percent since the Gulf Wars (US Congress Economic Committee [JEC], 2011). Black Veterans are more likely among the highest in the Veteran's poverty category due to joblessness, lack of educational opportunities and greater socioeconomic needs in their communities. According to Hoge, Castro, Messer, McGurk, Cotting, and Koffman, (2004) and Flynn, Hassan, West, (2013), Veterans, face challenges when they return to the US as they attempt to integrate back into their communities. They stated that as many as 12 percent of Veterans face readjustment challenges so severe that when they return home they immediately enter a community and life of poverty. They concluded that Black Veterans were among the highest impoverished individual because they were the least educated and they fared worse than their White Veteran counterparts (2004) did.

*Servicemember/Soldiers:* also seen in print as service member refer individuals serving in the United States armed forces. A Service member is a person or member of the US Armed Forces (The American Heritage Dictionary, 2000). Soldiers serve in the Army (The American Heritage Dictionary, 2000). For this document soldier is an all-inclusive term that of the United States Army, the United States Navy, the United States Air Force, the United States Marine Corps, and the United States Coast Guard.

### **Purpose and Need of the Study**

Due to the increase unemployment among Veterans with disabilities, particularly among Black Veterans with disabilities, it is important to understand their socio-economic and demographic characteristics following their discharge from the military and return to the civilian labor market. Furthermore, it is important to determine how social resources, disability status, gender, and military significantly impact employment experiences and if these statuses potentially explain race differences in the employment experiences of Veterans with service-connected disabilities.

Since 2012, there are 21.2 million Veterans in the United States 18 years old or older and in the labor market (DOL, 2013). Approximately 5.5 million Veterans who are in the labor market have disabilities and 3.4 million have service-connected disabilities. Of the 5.5 million Veterans with disabilities, many Black Veterans report worse employment outcomes (Jefferson, 2003). They require more job accommodations to remain on permanent jobs or to obtain advancements in the workplace, and to obtain favorable positions and assignments.

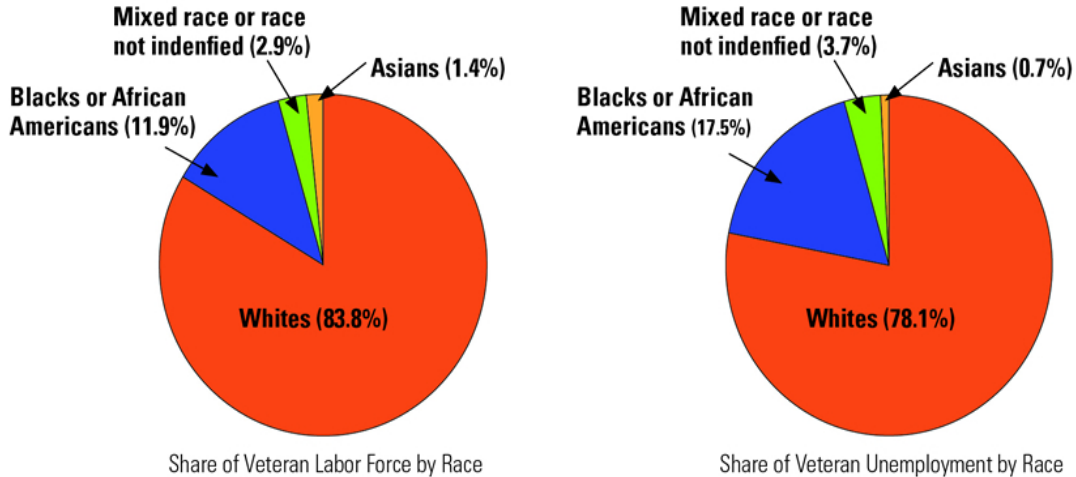
In 1954, Allport predicted a lessening of racism as people from different groups become exposed to one another, contributing to status equality, forcing stereotypes, and prejudices to disappear among racial and ethnic groups. Nonetheless, research still shows a difference in employment based on race and disability. For example, the hardest to service of the Veterans' populations are Black Veterans with disabilities (Jefferson, 2003). Whereas many non-minority Veterans have the ability to return to the United States and move in and out of certain categories and seamlessly enter the job market, if the Veteran is Black and has a disability, this reintegration becomes more difficult.

Figure 1: Reprinted from the DOL Special Report 2012<sup>8</sup>

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<sup>8</sup> The first chart in Figure 1 detail the Veterans' labor market participation. The second chart shows Veterans' unemployment and the persistent higher unemployment among African American Veterans. The second chart show






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*Source.* Reprinted from The Department of Labor Special Report—The Veteran Labor Force in the Recovery 2012.

Overall, Black and White Veterans are connected universally by their common experiences in the service or during their combat duties. Veterans with disabilities are also universally connected by the virtue of their medical or mental health conditions. This study is necessary to understand how racial discrimination and other socioeconomic factors play a role in the employment outcomes of Black Veterans with disabilities.

## **Theoretical Overview**

### **Segment Labor Market Theories**

The Segment Labor Market Theories have several parts. The Dual Labor Market Theory and Human Capital Theory are the two primary segment labor market theories discussed in this study. Labor market segmentation theories suggest that historical economic, political, and marginalization of racial minorities and women force the development and maintenance of division of the labor markets (Bauder, 2001). These labor markets are categorized into separate

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that African American Veterans comprise 11.9% of the total Veterans population and 17.5% unemployment (DOL, 2012).

primary and secondary markets distinguished by characteristics and behaviors across occupational hierarchy (Reich, Gordon, & Edwards, 1973; Wachter, Gordon, Piore, & Hall, 1974). Caputo (2002) states that because of hiring practice scenarios discrimination in the labor market becomes a “vicious circle.”

The Dual Labor Market and the Human Capital Theory share many similarities about the primary and secondary markets relative to the specific characteristics, which makes up the labor market’s framework. Some of these differences are peripheral or not essential, rather than determinate. First, both theories share the premise of at least two distinctive labor markets with market specific attributes. Second, each theory agrees to an extent that employment within the secondary consist of frequent turnovers comprised primarily of individuals with lower-level employment skills or no skills at all. Whereas there are some essential similarity in all of the labor market theories this paper will explore more in detail the differences between the markets too. The Dual Labor Market has fundamental similarity to the Human Capital Theory. Chudzinski criticized a signal relationship between the Dual Labor Market and Human Capital Theory. He indicated that the multiple relationship and that the Human Capital Theory, “complement and temper” the Dual Labor Market Theory (1988). This study questions therefore, how both theories, which are based on similar fundamental ideals; maintain conditions that explain employment differences of Black and White Veterans with service-connected disabilities.

### **The Dual Labor Market**

The Dual Labor Market contends that because of race, Black and White Veterans with service-connected disabilities may have different paths into the labor market. The Dual Labor Market, for example, consists of three general segments (Piore, 1972). Within the Dual Labor

Market, there is a primary and secondary wage sector, a distinction between good and bad jobs, and workers whom are fortunate to work in the primary sector or are confined to the secondary sector (Wachter, Gordon, Piore, & Hall, 1974). The Dual Labor Market tends to sometimes generalize the division within the labor market that stratifies workers. On the other hand, The Dual Labor Market also does a good job in explaining the significant problems encountered by workers' aims to move into the primary wage sector and take advantage of its benefits.

The Dual Labor Market has multiple characteristics. For instance, the Dual Labor Market explains the primary wage sector is a part of the economy that contains good-paying skilled jobs distributed among workers based on custom rather than production (Wachter, 1974). Labor within the primary wage sector is more typically associated with skilled work. Workers in the secondary sector develop patterns of job instability, moving between jobs, frequently on, and off unemployment (Wachter, Gordon, Piore, & Hall, 1974). Within the secondary wage sector, demarcated by lower paying jobs workers exhibit fewer skills and are most likely limited to fewer advancement opportunities.

Another characteristic of the Dual Labor Market is that Blacks and other minorities are disproportionately in the secondary wage sector and they are most likely among the lower-wage tier within the primary sector (Reich, Gordon and Edwards, 1973). They are most likely among the low wage earners, have "race-typed jobs" which means they may find that they have little opportunities for advancements/job security, which rarely exist, in the lower tier of the Dual Labor Market (Reich, Gordon and Edwards, 1973; Poire, 1972).

Under the premise of the Dual Labor Market Theory, another characteristic of this theory is that racial segregation and limited skills for limited jobs translates into Blacks having few job prospects. Therefore, the Dual Labor Market maintains structural inequality and institutional

racism rather than individualized racism and discrimination. The general premise of the Dual Labor Market is that it disproportionately perpetuates poverty, which keeps the poor or lower income wage earners at a disadvantage in the labor market (Piore, 1972).

Another characteristic of the Dual Labor Market is relative to the treatment of minorities, women, Veterans, and individuals with disabilities. Even within the lower labor market tier, Black Veterans, women Veterans and Veterans with service-connected disabilities experience a harder time in the labor market, compare to White Veteran with disabilities (Jefferson, 2003). For example, women Veterans, sometimes viewed as problematic, faced hiring contingency practices, which often overlook them for other qualified candidates opting for more traditional, and “perceived” Veteran characteristics found in men candidates (Jefferson, 2003). Such career contingencies and hiring strategies suggest that White Veterans and men were overall better prepared for post military employment experiences because of their pre-military social economic status, education, and familial backgrounds (Chudzinski, 1988).

Employers are highly selective for workers with higher-level skills. Once more, the selectivity process is not an individual act. Rather it is the consequence of Blacks and Whites living in different neighborhoods, having different educational opportunities, being in different social networks and having different skill sets. Black Veterans are more likely than White Veterans to have originated from poorer communities and lived within poorer family environments. They tend to have fewer networking systems (HR associates, family members with businesses, etc.), to depended on to sure up their labor market networks which are essential to obtaining contacts for employment. All of this translates into Whites being more aware of job opportunities and in a better position to take advantage of good job openings.

A final characteristic of the Dual Labor Market is that its geographic separation creates racial dynamics, which maintains division within the segmentations (Reich, Gordon and Edwards, 1973). Now, the individual and institutional racism once more explains (in another section of the paper) why Blacks and Whites live in different neighborhoods, attend different schools as children, and have relatively few friends outside of their racial group. Because of those above-mentioned differences, Black cannot typically take advantage of good or higher wage job opportunities. In short, while many of the reasons why some individuals are confined to the poor or secondary wage tier are complex White racial stereotypes help explain their selection of neighborhoods and school districts (Piore, 1972). Factors like racist lending practices of banks help further explain the racially segregated neighborhoods and racial segregation, which is highly correlated with class segregation and contributes to concentrations of poverty in and/or near Black neighborhoods, which further confines, Blacks to greater participation in the secondary segmented labor markets rather than Whites.

### **The Human Capital Theory**

Gary S. Becker coined the phrase the Human Capital Theory in his study on the economic and social conditions of workers. Human Capital Theory contends that the earnings of the workers increase over their lifetimes. He contends that as the workers' education or training increases with fundamental knowledge and skills, their labor market wealth increases over workers' lifetime as well (Becker, 1964). Furthermore, the Human Capital Theory assumes that workers have full decision-making abilities over their education, training, and medical care. In addition, he places a value on the workers' overall knowledge of their jobs. In other words, the workers have benefits both inside the job and outside the job (Xiao, 2002). According to Becker

(1992), for instance, the workers' knowledge of their jobs is a beneficial cost to them beyond the traditional wage, health-cost benefits, normally associated with employment compensation.

Overall, the Human Capital Theory relates a set of marketable skills in the form of capital to the workers (Acemoglu & Autor, 2012). There are advantages to the Human Capital Theory for example, which emphasizes that skills are a common stringboard to analyze wage distributions. On the other hand, disadvantages of the Human Capital Theory deemphasize the skills of workers, and do not take into consideration compensation differentials<sup>9</sup>, labor market imperfections,<sup>10</sup> and race-based discrimination factors into consideration<sup>11</sup>. This definition of the Human Capital Theory is broad and fairly agreed upon by most researchers and economist, provided the decisions of the workers are most beneficial to the employers (Acemoglu & Autor, 2012).

Becker's definition of the Human Capital Theory does not assume that wages motivate workers. He assumes that workers "maximize welfare as they conceive it, whether they be selfish, altruistic, loyal, spiteful, or masochistic" (Becker, 1992). He contends that the market, which can either soften or magnify wage differentials among Black and White workers (1992), also influences discrimination. Acemoglu and Autor (2012) contend that in addition to race and gender there is an age effect associated to wage discrimination.

Acemoglu and Autor (2012) analyzed several Human Capital Theory models. They contend there is a distinction between age effects and experiences affects, which is particularly prevalent among some segment of the Veterans' population. They found that Vietnam Veterans, for instance, lost their "experience premium" associated to their time in war because war had no

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<sup>9</sup> Paying a worker less based on hard-to-observe characteristics of the job (Acemoglu & Autor, 2012).

<sup>10</sup> Comparing two workers with same human capital to pay one less than to pay the other (Acemoglu & Autor, 2012).

<sup>11</sup> Wages paid lower based on race, gender, and other prejudices. (Acemoglu & Autor, 2012).

effective marketable productivity. In addition, they concluded that war had no marketable productivity value and regardless of age, it was only work related experience, which counted for higher marketability among Vietnam Veterans (2012). Based on the above-mentioned definitions there are characteristics of the Human Capital Theory, which are comprised of multiple overlapping preferences, public policies and screening strategies used to re-employ or to employ workers based on race, gender, age, and Veterans' employment experience status.

## CHAPTER II

### LITERATURE REVIEW

#### Race and Employment Experiences of Veterans with Service-Connected Disabilities

##### State of Black American Veterans vs. White American Veterans

In 2011, President Obama stated that unemployed Veterans' situation is a crisis in America (Obama, 2011). The unemployment crisis tends to be even grander for Black Veterans with service-related disabilities and especially acute for younger Veterans (Paye, 2010; Beucke, 2011). Based on the 2011 data from the Bureau of Labor Statistics, for instance, 12.0% of all Veterans reportedly were unemployed or jobless. During the same period corresponding levels of unemployment for White men, 20 years and older was less than 10%; however, higher than in previous decades (Department of Labor, 2011). During the same period, the unemployment rate of Black men was as high as 16%. The corresponding employment rate for Black Veterans with disabilities was as high as 34% (Schneider, 2011; Department of Labor, 2012). This was nearly three times the rate of White men (Schneider, 2011; Department of Labor, 2012).

##### **Background of Black Veterans' Issues**

The employment struggles of Black Veterans are not new issues. In the *Returning Soldier*, DuBois explored the irony of war and said, referring to Black soldiers, "we return, we return from fighting, we return fighting" (1973, p. xx). He called on Black soldiers to take up the issue of civil rights upon returning to the United States. He said, "America did not win the war by fighting only. America's greatest contribution was her preparation" (p. xx) What DuBois was alluding to was the contributions, preparation, and sacrifices of the Black dockworkers and laborers and the efficiency of the Black officers and under-officers, all of whom went into action to fight for American alongside their non-Black counterparts, and never wavered (1914).



DuBois' above-mentioned statement underscored the struggles of minority Veterans, then and now. Those same Black soldiers, for instance, often returned home broken, battered, and scarred. Some of those Veterans had physical disabilities; some had more complex "invisible or hidden," or mental disabilities Post Traumatic Brain Injury (PTBI) or Traumatic Brain Injury, (TBI) and they faced an array of compounding and perplexing issues, which they had to overcome in America. Unable to sit on the bus with fellow White soldiers whom they fought side by side with, unable to eat at the same lunch counter or unable to have equal access to education and employment or equal health care if disabled, was an unexpected war waged against Black Veterans back home.

### **Persistent Unemployment of Black Veterans**

Social scientists have begun to pay increasing attention to the racial experiences and employment outcomes of Black Veterans with disabilities. Kuzy (2004) reported that employment experiences differed among Whites and Black returning soldiers. He stated that historical race and racism created disparities, which denied vocational services (local, state, and federal programs), vocational processes (counseling, testing/evaluation, placement), re-training educational, and other benefits to Black Veterans. Other benefits denied to Black Veterans were benefits also known as quality of life or life stabilization benefits such as housing and health care (Kuzy, 2004).

Kuzy (2004) stated that because of race and racism, minority Veterans with disabilities are "doubly discriminated." Jefferson (2003), stated that Black Veterans are doubly impacted in every aspect of society and employment, and that they experienced discrimination on "two-fronts" race, disabilities (Jefferson, 2003). Those benefits he stated, created to enable equal access to the entire vocational process including re-training as well as access to quality education

and employment, were for all Veterans (Jefferson, 2003). Because of race/racism and disabilities, however, minority Veterans, especially minority Veterans with disabilities had, their benefits frequently denied (Jefferson, 2003; Kuzy, 2004).

Researchers who specifically studied Veterans' employment outcomes within the context of personal/environmental factors found that Black Veterans with disabilities have had different experiences regarding their vocational rehabilitation and employment as well. For instance, in 1987, Cohany studied the Current Population Survey (CPS) of Vietnam War men and women Veterans. According to Cohany (1990), Black Veterans constituted 9 percent of the Vietnam era Veterans. Cohany's report revealed that for those Black Veterans without disabilities, the military, and then later the vocational rehabilitation services were resources, which provided them a means to gain training, education, and ultimately economic upward mobility (1990). Cohany's report revealed that Black Veterans with disabilities also had higher unemployment compared to their non-disabled Black Veteran counterparts.

Other studies of Vietnam War Veterans also reported accounts of racial discrimination and alienation among Black and White Veterans during the employment process. Carter (1982) reported that Black Veterans indicated they experienced a continuum of racial discrimination and injustice, pervasive isolation, alienation and lower self-esteem. Even worse, those Black Veterans who reported acts of discrimination, alienation, violence, and hostility reported they felt their communities abandoned them when they returned to America (Carter, 1982; Knoblock, 2006). During the same corresponding periods, many of those Veterans as well as Black Veterans stated they encountered hostility from some segments of the community who "feared them," called them traitors and baby-killers and then refused to offer them employment (Bradley & Kennedy, 1987). Because of discrimination, those Black Vietnam Veterans experienced higher

unemployment associated with no hires and alleged mistreatment by some businesses and industry (Knoblock, 2006).

Additionally, researchers stated that following Vietnam, the media prompted and perpetuated the fear of Black Veterans as well as White Veterans as having violent psychological and mental health disorders and worth fearing (Lembcke, 1998). Oxley and Heights (1987), reported however, the misdiagnoses of mental health, especially among Black Veterans was widely overused, which contributed to the negative public perception of the Vietnam Era Veterans. The research also indicated the policies of media and businesses, against the antiwar protest movement, fueled the above-mentioned myths of mistrust and violence towards Veterans. Accordingly, other researchers countered the popular media visibility representation of Vietnam Veteran and stated that many of the psychiatric disorders played out in the media appeared socially constructed through the media (Lembcke, 1998).

Finally, researchers contended that such misdiagnoses warranted viewing and cautious interpretation because of the over used diagnostic tools, which caused discrimination among Veterans based on the perception that they would have difficulties in the workplace. In contrast, instead of fear, employers who valued the prior MOS duties training, leadership, and discipline of Veterans known as a "premium" risked hiring the Veterans because of skills attributed to their prior military trainings. As a result, those Veteran-friendly employers were more favorable to hiring returning Veterans and because of their experiences and "premium," those employed Veterans' salaries in their respective fields was often higher than their counterparts were (Kleykamp, 2009). The "premium" had a lesser effect on Black Veterans with service-connected disabilities. Moore Johnson and Washington, (2011) suggested that the overall educational process, not premium, was a heavy contributor to the job experiences of Black and White

Veterans. Moore stated that training and education, two essential and pivotal components of the employment process for Veterans, failed to meet the needs of many Black Veterans with service-connected disabilities, affecting their overall employment experiences (Moore et al., 2011).

### **Problems Affecting the Black Veterans' Communities**

Today there is still considerable concern regarding the crisis associated with the high unemployment of Black Veterans with disabilities. Black Veterans historically lack economic and social resources, and as a result, they are in danger of receiving inadequate resources and assistance when needed (Mental Health America, 2012). For example, the MHA study, entitled *African American Communities and Mental Health* states that historical racism linked to current conditions of Black Veterans living in the most impoverished socioeconomic communities, results in higher incidents of incarceration and substance abuse, and poorer mental and physical healthcare. Wilson (1987) also contends that many Black impoverished socioeconomic communities “the underclass” becomes categorized by crime, teen pregnancy, women heads of households and they cycle of welfare dependent families. He characterizes the Black impoverished community as the “the tangle of pathology.” It is the tangle of pathology, not overt racial discrimination that Wilson contends causes Black individuals remained in these communities, which are historically poorer with unskilled urban laborers (Wilson, 1987).

For Black Veterans with disabilities the same above-mentioned historical challenges, according to the MHA (2012) translate to long-term social inequalities and social disparities for the many returning to these impoverished communities. These problems and challenges include joblessness, the absence of adequate health education and the lack of social and economic resources, which result in Black Veterans with disabilities developing a sense of mistrust for the establishment and individuals in power (MHA, 2012). The MHA also states that Black Veterans

exhibit challenges of physical and mental stress due to their higher exposure to violent conditions during war and lack adequate support when they attempt to resume civilian life (2012). For instance, the MHA indicates that as many as 21% Black Veterans, when compared to 14% non-Black Veterans, suffer from PTSD due to their war-zone exposures (2012).

Despite the high incident of reporting mental health issues within the Veterans communities many Black Veterans like their White Veterans counterparts have invaluable military skills, they require intensive intervention prior to participating in the labor market. Like White Veterans, these Black Veterans require intensive supports to essentially avoid higher contacts with the further mental health diagnoses and possible hospitalization, encounters with the justice systems, avoid dependency on various social/healthcare agencies, or to avoid higher incidents of homelessness compared to non-Black Veterans with disabilities (Paye, 2010; MHA, 2012; Haley & Kenney, 2012; Rosenheck, Bassuk & Salomon, 2012). Otherwise, lacking adequate social, physical, and mental health care, housing, and financial/legal supports, many of these Black Veterans with disabilities may continue to have socioeconomic problems and lag behind non-Black Veterans in the labor market.

### **Veterans' Healthcare**

According to the Urban Researchers Institute, only one out of every ten Veterans has health care. This equates to more than 1.3 million working-age Veterans who lack adequate health care (Haley & Kenney, 2012). Additionally, Black Veterans have poorer health than others do. According to the research, Black Veterans, especially Veterans with service-connected disabilities, are uninsured or underinsured at a higher rate than other populations. Black Veterans tend to be younger, have greater higher health risk, and/or service related medical conditions, less education, and are less likely in the labor force than are their White counterparts (Haley &

Kenney, 2012). Along these lines, relative to others, Black Veterans are in greater need of vocational counseling, educational assistance, and disability compensation and health care (Paye, 2012). Incidents of PTSD, diabetes, hypertension and other stressor are on the increase among Black Veterans (Paye, 2012). This is particularly troubling given that these Veterans receives less care by qualified VA Medical staff than their counterparts because they lack VA health care and treat outside the VA systems. Finally, studies indicate a direct correlation between unemployment and health among the general Veterans' population, particularly among Black Veterans with disabilities (MHA, 2012; National Council on Disability, 2012).

### **Veterans' Homelessness**

Today like other pressing issues i.e. health care, community supports, and education, which surrounds the success of Veterans with disabilities the issue of homelessness, is an imminent concern. It was not until the 1970s and 1980 that the issue of homelessness and the issue of homeless Veterans became a prevalent concern in America (Perl, 2012). Homeless Veteran is defined by The United States Code Title 38 benefits (Title of the United States Code)<sup>12</sup> as a person who “served in the active military, naval, or air service” and was not dishonorably discharged.<sup>13</sup> On the other hand, according to the McKinney-Vento Homeless Assistance Act (P.L. 100-77) Section 103(a) of McKinney-Vento Act<sup>14</sup> Veterans are homeless if they are defined by homelessness in the following ways:

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<sup>11</sup> U.S. Department of Housing and Urban Development, *Veteran Homelessness: A Supplemental Report to the 2010 Annual Homeless Assessment Report to Congress*, October 2011, p. 4, <https://www.onecpd.info/resources/documents/2010AHARVeteransReport.pdf>.

<sup>12</sup> The United States Code defines the term as “a Veteran who is homeless” as defined by the McKinney-Vento Homeless Assistance Act. 38 U.S.C. §2002(1).

<sup>14</sup> The definition of “homeless Veteran” is at 39 U.S.C. § 2002. The McKinney-Vento definition of homeless individual is codified at 42 U.S.C. §11302(a).

- a). homeless Veteran is a person “homeless individual” suffering from literal homelessness, lacking a fixed nighttime residence,
- b). a potential for imminent loss of housing whether it is their home, hotel, motel or government entity which due to finances will be removed as a viable living option within 14 days of a specific housing eviction notification or event,
- c). other federal definition which may apply to youth or homeless Veteran with a family experiencing long term period without independent permanent housing accompanied by frequent moves with 60 days and they are expected to remain in unstable housing,
- d). victim of domestic violence which results in the “homeless Veteran to flee a situation because of a life-threatening condition.

Relative to Veterans in America the entire community is still overrepresented among the homeless communities (NCVAS, 2012). That is Veterans constitute 10% of the total adult population, 16 % of the homeless adult population, 13 % of adults in shelters and finally 16% at any given time of homeless adult population in America (Lowe, et al, 2004; NCVAS, 2012). Having stable housing reduces obstacles to employment for all veterans particularly Veterans transitioning from military to civilian life with social adjustment problems, health and physical disabilities, substance abuse history and criminal backgrounds (Dunlap, Rynell, Young and Warland, 2012). The Department of Veterans Affairs estimates that out of 131,000 homeless Veterans per night approximately 40% of homeless Veterans are male (NCH, 2009). Other characteristics of homeless Veterans include single individuals, separated or divorced, originates from a poorer or disadvantaged home, neighborhood or community, have mental illness, have a history of substance abuse. Finally, but not always many homeless Veterans have a history of

incarceration within the various Veterans' communities. (Donley, 2008; National Coalition for the Homeless, 2009).

While homelessness is high among male Veterans and the other Veterans' communities, it is extremely high among Black Veterans. Moreover, Black Veterans with disabilities are at higher risk for homelessness and they are 1.4 times more likely to be homeless than White Veterans (Perl, 2012/13). This is somewhat certain given that Black Americans are more likely than any other group to find themselves homeless (NCH, 2008; Perl, 2012/13). For instance, in 2004 the U.S. Conference of Mayors<sup>15</sup> report stated that out of 27 major cities<sup>16</sup> the homeless population of Americans consisted of 49% Black/African-American, 35% White, non-Hispanic, 3% Hispanic/Latino, 2% Native American, and 1% Asian (Lowe, Slater, Welfley and Moye, 2004). Granted the population of homelessness varied by from city to city Blacks were over-represented among the homeless population in many of those surveyed cities. Of those above-mentioned 27 major cities, Blacks constitute 36% homelessness within the surveyed cities compared to Whites at 30% homelessness within the surveyed cities (Lowe, Slater, Welfley and Moye, 2004). That is in the urban communities Blacks represented a larger population of homelessness compared to the rural communities where Whites or Native Americans represented a larger population of homelessness (Lowe, Slater, Welfley and Moye, 2004; NCH, 2007). In homeless shelters and transitional housing Black individuals represented as much as 49% of the homeless population in spite of only constituting 12% of the US population (Power, 2006).

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<sup>15</sup> The US Conference of Mayors consists of 1,139 cities with a population of 30,000 or more. The organization is nonpartisan and chaired by the elected official Mayor of its respective city.

<sup>16</sup> The survey obtained information on homelessness relative individual demands for emergency assistance including food and shelter. The 27 major cities were Boston, Burlington, Cedar Rapids, Charleston, Charlotte, Chicago, Cleveland, Denver, Detroit, Kansas City, Louisville Metro, Los Angeles, Miami, Nashville, New Orleans, Norfolk, Philadelphia, Phoenix, Portland, Providence, Salt Lake City, San Antonio, San Francisco, Santa Monica, Seattle, St. Paul, and Trenton.



To compound, the issues of homelessness, as many as 45 percent of the homeless Black Veterans have health conditions, service-connected disabilities, and substance abuse or mental health problems (NCH, 2008). Women Veterans are also at high risk for homelessness. In addition, Veterans with disabilities including Veterans diagnosed with post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) and traumatic brain injury (TBI) are high risk because they are more likely subject to interpersonal conflicts and lack of coping skills due to stress these injuries incurred while deployed in Afghanistan and Iraq (National Coalition for the Homeless, 2009).

According to the National Alliance to End Homelessness Report, 51% of the homeless population, Black Veterans are well over-represented by their proportion among all Veterans (National Coalition for the Homeless, 2007-2008).

Table 2.1: Demographical Statistics of Veterans' Homelessness in America<sup>17</sup>

Homeless population of veterans	23%
Homeless male veterans	33%
Homeless Vietnam Era Veterans	47%
Homeless Post-Vietnam Era Veterans	17%
Homeless Pre-Vietnam Era Veterans	15%
Homeless Veterans serving more three or more years	67%
Homeless Veterans stationed in war zones	33%
Veterans who used VA Homeless Services	25%
Veterans who completed high school/G.E.D, compared to 56% of non-veterans	85%
Homeless Veterans who received Honorable Discharge	89%
Homeless Veterans residing in major cities	79%
Homeless Veterans residing in suburban cities	16%
Homeless Veterans residing in rural communities	05%
Homeless Veterans with alcoholism, drug addiction, or mental health problems	76%
White Homeless male Veterans compared to 34% non-Veterans	46%
Veterans age 45 or older compared to 20% non-Veteran	46%

*Source.* Reproduced from the *National Coalition for the Homeless US Veterans Fact Sheet*

(2009).

The Table 2.1 indicates generational homelessness of Veterans in the US. There has been a steady increase in homelessness since pre-Vietnam. Additionally, homelessness crosses every

<sup>17</sup> Homelessness remains high among all Veterans' generations since World War II NCH (2009).

social demographic status within the Veteran's community. According to the table above many homeless Veterans reside in urban communities, they have at least a G.E.D. relative to their educational attainments they served at least three years in the military and many of them have Honorable Discharge statuses.

### **Veterans' Incarceration**

Incarceration plagues all Veterans. Because of the high unemployment in some Veterans' communities, they encounter when they return home from duty, some of them engage in petty crimes for money or serious crimes (such as domestic violence) due to stress related factors (DVA, 2011). If these Veterans do not receive proper treatment for their psychological problems, they become higher risk for homelessness, job-loss, and joblessness and, increase personal stress, gateway problems to incarceration (Glazek, 2012). The 2011 Department of Veterans Affairs (VA) homeless Domiciliary Residential Rehabilitation and Treatment Program (DRRTP) reported a drastic and direct association between incarceration history and limited employment options with less than 30 percent of Veterans with non-drug-related felonies compared to non-felony Veterans employed following their incarceration (2011).

Black Veterans, especially the Black Veterans with disabilities, experience greater difficulties with employment even more because they are also higher risk of incarceration. Mumola reported in 2000 that the incarceration rate of young Veterans and minority Veterans might exceed the rate of the same groups during the Vietnam Era (2000). Further, the United States Department of Justice Special Report entitled *Veterans in Prison or Jail* indicates that there are 225,700 incarcerated Veterans. Black Veterans comprise approximately 35 percent of the Veteran population in state prisons and 37 percent of Veterans in federal facilities despite the fact that Black s make up 9.7 percent of the Veteran community as a whole (Mumola, 2000;

NAMI, 2007). Black Veterans have incidents because of higher risk factors that cause them to have greater opportunities to encounter law enforcement and judicial systems-awkward sentence. Black Veterans like White Veterans with incarceration histories have a harder time finding employment.

Employers find Veterans without felonies and criminal background more favorable which narrows the already tight employment market for many Veterans (Kleykamp, 2009). These factors are more significant with Black Veterans with disabilities because of their multiple problems and combined social issues that put them at higher risk. Consequently the same discriminatory and racial disparities in education, employment and socio-economic that contributes to Black Veterans' disparities in America contributes to the raising prison population (Reed, 2010). Furthermore, historical and contemporary employers' practices that limit Blacks during the hiring process (pre-screening, unfair interview questions, misperceptions of applicants) become greater barriers to employment for Black Veterans with disabilities who have a history of incarceration and multiple legal issues (Neckerman & Kirschenman, 1991; Allen, 1986; Greenberg, 2001).

### **Racial and Subsequent Economic Segregation**

The segmented labor market, specifically the dual labor market suggest women and minorities are disadvantaged and restricted to secondary labor markets which typically pay lower wages with little opportunities to advance beyond the lower tier of the market (Grusky, 1998). That is, because of social stratification the segmentation becomes a universal phenomenon, which causes group formation to develop in the labor markets among groups of individuals, based on their relative race, gender, access to wealth, power, and prestige and related inequality (Davis & Moore, 1970 [1945]; Weber, 1948).

Massey who studied race, class and gender inequalities largely focusing on the post-World War II era contends that race, class and gender are “intertwined by mechanism” which produces “social stratification” and exploits and excludes minorities and women into “social categories” (Massey, 2008 pp xvi). He contends that social stratification ultimately affects social and economic means of poorer individual and systematically undermines their ability to have quality of life in their communities. For example, he argues that stratification occurred in many facets of life including within the financial, health of schools, neighborhood quality, employment, and amenities.

Massey contends that Black Veterans were historically exploited by the distribution of some of the GI benefits, which either permitted them access to quality jobs and higher education or in the same vain, denied them the same benefits (2008). He concludes that in poorer communities, stratification and segregated communities are sustained by restricted resources (i.e. financial resources, GI benefits, employment opportunities, housing, healthcare, etc.), and these exclusionary practices are the basis of all inequalities, which lead to restricted access to jobs (Massey & Denton, 1993; Massey, 2007).<sup>18</sup>

### **Role of racial and subsequent economic segregation in limiting the availability of jobs in their communities**

According to the American Psychological Association (APA) report on the socioeconomic status of ethnic and racial minorities, unemployment remains the single historical phenomena consistently connected to poverty (2013). Wehman (2009) contends that,

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<sup>18</sup> Massey and Denton's primary theoretical work lies within the socioeconomic and labor market field and not necessarily African Americans Veterans with disabilities; their work on unemployment informs the discussion regarding unemployment of African Americans Veterans with disabilities. They contend that segregation is the fundamental cause of poverty among African Americans and that major cities are divided geographically along racial bounds that creates African Americans ghettos, that perpetuated a African Americans underclass by limiting the educational and employment opportunities for the residents of these neighborhoods.

historically, Veterans with disabilities regardless of minority status, experience greater challenges in the labor market compared to their non-Veteran counterparts. He further states that cognitive, community and vocational (job preparation) problems, as well as community reintegration are multifactorial challenges that contribute to unemployment, particularly among racial minority Veterans.

Wehman, Gentry, West, Arango-Lasprilla (2009), found that for Black and other racial/ethnic minority Veterans with the disabilities, multifactorial challenges such as minority status, socioeconomic status, education, unemployment, health, etc., are compounded and act as combining variables that has a more adverse effect among minority Veterans than White Veterans. In the minority communities, for instance, unemployment remains nearly twice as high 13% when compared to their Whites Veterans 7.0% and typically 7.9% for non-Veterans based on specific geographic locations in the U. S. (DeJesus, 2013; Institute for Veterans and Military Families, 2012). However, for Black Veterans with a reported illness or disability, the multifactorial challenges such as adjusting and reintegrating to community and family were paramount causing the Veterans to remain unemployed longer, by up to four years after they exit the military (Wehman, et al, 2009; Kreutzer, Marwitz, Walker W, Sander A, Sherer M, Bogner J, Fraser R, Bushnik T., 2003).

MacDonald, Chamberlain and Lon's (2006) study on racial experiences of postwar adjusting Veterans with disabilities found that race was also a predictor of higher psychological factors such as PTSD, schizophrenia, bipolar disorders. They reported by minority Veterans whom experienced encounters in combat zones also reported higher incidents of social and community integration, which led to lower employment outcomes. Likewise, Wehman, et al (2009) asserted that since more minority Veterans entered military duty in "war-torn" countries

(i.e. Iraq and Afghanistan); they sustained higher risks of serious or severe disabilities. Once returned to the US from “war-torn” combat zones, many Veterans with disabilities found fewer opportunities to engage in functional reintegration activities like job training, skills retraining their military abilities to potential jobs in the labor market, or educational programs.

Consequently, it was those above-mentioned multifactorial issues, which compounded the Veterans’ overall reintegration communities’ process. Finally, Wehman et al (2009) and Arango-Lasprilla, Ketchum, Gary, Kreutzer, O’Neil-Pirozzi, Wehman, Marquez de la Plata, and Jha (2009) maintained that aside from the emotional social and economic multifactorial challenges Veterans face, many of them experience difficulties explaining their physical, mental health needs, and transferable skills to the labor market (Wehman, et al, 2009).

### **Blacks poverty/under-representation within the middle: Limits jobs**

There are multiple ways to define the phrase “middle class” and are typically multiple variations of middle class when comparing Black and White socio-economic statuses. For example, social science characteristically defines middle class relative to a class of individuals with similar work experiences and market situations (Scott and Marshall, 2005). The definition of middle class has been expanded to also include family/marital status, education, work or occupation and standard of living (Marsh, Darity, Cohen, Casper and Salter, 2007; Harris, 2010). Whereas some business and economist professionals incline to agree with other social science definition of middle class, add that “one’s attitude about their perceived middle class status” matters (Horn, 2013).

There is a major difference relative to the definition of middle class and the actual perception of middle class. Researchers contend that within the Black communities, there might be a common lens relative to why middle class has historically been viewed a certain way

(Marsh, Darity, Cohen, Casper and Salter, 2007). Accordingly, there should also be a common lens relative to how the middle class is currently viewed, which might already need re-evaluation (Marsh, Darity, Cohen, Casper and Salter, 2007). For instance, poverty rather than middle class tend to be generational within the Black communities. Many Blacks rather than Whites live in economic communities delineated by higher concentrations of joblessness, social isolation, regardless of their income statuses (Wilson, 1996). Additionally, Wilson (1996) contends, that many Blacks also live in communities with a higher concentration of crime rates, lower performing educational systems, higher poverty rates, lower property values, and severe racial segregation. Therefore, Blacks as a whole have a more difficult time maintaining their middle class social status from generation to generation. That is, because many Black people experience difficulties moving from the lower class in society to social environments within the middle class status, disadvantages of the lower class are maintained throughout multiple generations and dimensions (Sharkey, 2009).

Harris (2010) contends that Black families within the middle class status tend to slide back and forth between the lower and middle classes. What is generally known is that the cause of the changes and sliding back and forth within the Black middle class is tied to their status within the labor market. That is within the US, Blacks continue to have more tenuous work experiences and they have struggle more with substantial unemployment and inequality in the labor market. Even during the height of the economic times in America, workers in Black communities still seemed to experience higher levels and more severe problems with unemployment compared to workers in the White communities (Austin, 2008).

There is limited upward mobility within the labor forces and the racial wage gap is widen between White and Black workers. The Black wage gap creates a disadvantage, which persist

because of racial differences within the education, experience and occupations experiences of Black workers. These problems have been intensified because of the lack of attention of policymakers to address inequalities in the education system and the labor market where Black wage gap and labor issues are concerned (Austin, 2013). Therefore, there exist a preservation of stereotypes, which intensifies in the Black communities, educational, health, and other institutions like the criminal justice system. While there is a correlation between crime and the existence of ongoing socioeconomic disadvantage and unemployment these stereotypes create a disproportionate scale of Black, particularly Black men who remain incapable of maintaining quality income and incapable of obtaining stable employment (Austin, 2008).

Finally, race inequality exists in the forces that determine promotion in the labor force. Specifically, Black men receive more scrutiny in the labor market before receiving a promotion, relative to White men. Furthermore, numerous studies provide some evidence that the Black work credentials receive more intense scrutiny than those of whites when in contention for promotions Black men and women tend to work substantially longer between leaving school and gaining significant work experience.

Peter Drucker (1994) credits the development of the American middle class to the creation of the GI Bill. He states that the GI Bill supported educational attainment and created job stability for returning WWII American Veterans, which transformed the American middle class landscape. While millions of White Veterans benefited from the transformation of the middle class, there were unintended benefits for many Black Veterans too. Whereas many occupations and educational institutions remained closed to Black Veterans those fortunate enough to receive the benefits earned degrees, which resulted in higher paying jobs in noteworthy occupational fields or professions (Mettler, 2005). Consequently, as many Black



Veterans launched into the middle class because of its expanding definition, which stretches in some cases from \$25,000 to \$100,000, found that their lifestyles and standard of living remained similar to their previous lower class standard of living (Balles, 2012).

**Role of racial stereotypes: Blacks are lazy/poor work ethics**

Black Veterans with disabilities reported fewer successful employment outcomes; however, factors that influence minority Veterans' employment outcomes were not unique to Veterans. According to Neckerman and Kirschenman (1991), practices associated with race, class misunderstandings manifest throughout the hiring process, and those practices follow Black workers into the workforce and relegate them into entry-level unskilled jobs. Nonetheless, as Black Veterans attempt to reenter the labor force using their specialized skills and/or they attempt to reenter the labor force for the first time in their adult lives, the reality of today's labor market threaten secured positions. Even with highly specialized skills, Black Veterans face a rigid jobless economy and staggering joblessness market.

A fundamental ideal of the Segment Labor Market theory is that it sustains and perpetuates common hiring contingencies. For example, Black applicants and Veterans with disabilities, who attempted to re-enter the labor force with less formalized networks or without specialized skills, face an unbalanced hiring process. Neckerman and Kirschenman (1991)<sup>19</sup> call these unbalanced strategies hiring contingencies. Neckerman and Kirschenman (1991) found Black applicants like minority Veterans undergo pre-judgment during multiple phases of the hiring process. They found that Black applicants performed poorly during the job seeking process and that a system of "class misunderstanding" which leads to pre-screening resulted in

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<sup>19</sup> Class misunderstanding: Neckerman and Kirschenman (1991 & 1993), social science theorists study racial patterns and hiring practices. In *"We'd Love to Hire Them, But...: The Meaning of Race for Employers"* and *"Hiring Strategies, Racial Bias, and Inner-City Workers."*

declining applications at the pre-interview phase. Class misunderstanding contends hiring practices associated with race create class misunderstandings manifested throughout the hiring process, follow Black workers into the workforce, and relegate them into entry-level unskilled jobs.

Neckerman and Kirschenman (1991) also contend that class misunderstanding, screening/hiring practices, of minority applicants develop at the applicant phase. This class misunderstanding occurs at a critical time when many employers first encounter Black or poorer applicants in the context of socioeconomic class. According to their research, employers already have preconceived ideas about the applicants, influenced by widespread negativity associated with the poorer minority communities (i.e. crime, drugs, underperforming or poor schools). For those reasons, employers institute disingenuous hiring strategies. Because of class misunderstandings of Black applicants, those personnel staff in the position of hiring an applicant used prejudicial practices such as intentional screening, redirecting interviews to White applicants from poorer communities, or instituting skills testing, evaluations or assessments to eliminate minority applicants (Neckerman & Kirschenman, 1991).

Class misunderstandings manifest throughout the hiring process and occur in the workforce as well. By chance, if these Black applicants were hired they would have assignments less challenging, in unskilled entry-level jobs, when compared to White applicants (Neckerman and Kirschenman, 1991). Further, Kirschenman, Moss and Tilly (1995) and Neckerman (1991), state that employers tend to rely on informal, subjective screening mechanisms. Rosenbaum and Binder (1997) contends that elevating the educational requirements not necessary for the position, overstating entry-level job requirements, using psychological questionnaires maintains screening mechanisms in the workforce. Such screening mechanisms contribute to the difficulty

of Black jobseekers because many Black jobseekers had less formalized networks to advance them through their application process. For example, Rosenbaum and Binder contends in the wake of employment experience deficits noted among some Black applicants some employers capitalize on their shortcomings and revert to unnoted actions which stratifies the labor market and create structures that limits access to employment (1997). Consequently, Black applicants, as well as Black Veteran jobseekers with disabilities, potentially face deteriorating employment situations at the onset of their career exploration endeavor, with widening racial gaps (Kirschenman & Tilly, 1995). As a result returning from military services, Black Veterans with disabilities face a culmination of negative factors – a perfect storm – as they attempt to seek jobs and obtain careers.

### **CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY**

#### **Research Questions**

This study examined the association between race and employment experiences among disabled military Veterans. This study is a secondary quantitative analysis of data obtained from The 2007 Veterans Employability Research Survey (VERS) (ABT, 2008). The research questions used in this investigation are as follows:

RQ1: To what extent are there racial differences in the employment status and experiences of Veterans with service-connected disabilities?

RQ2: What is the connection between social demographics and military experiences of Black and White Veterans with service-connected disabilities?

#### **Sample**

The current study utilizes The 2007 Veterans Employability Research Survey (Abt, 2008) to respond to the above research questions. This study surveyed 5,031 Veterans between July 3, 2007, and November 6, 2007. The initial sample consisted of 82,981 Veterans who had applied for Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment (VR&E) services. After eliminating redundant records and deceased Veterans, the VERS staff reduced the number of potential participants in the sample to 80,875. The sampling frame was stratified and reduced to approximately 1,000 interviews per cohort, based on the degree to which the Veteran used VR&E services, from “successful completion” to “did not show up” as well as three categories in-between.

Veterans received a call by phone and received a letter by mail regarding participation in the national survey. The researchers eliminated refusals, wrong numbers, and missing contacts from the sample. Data of the 5,031 Veterans used in the report, indicated or confirmed their

eligibility for vocational rehabilitation services through VR&E, eligible to complete the survey, and completed the entire survey. There are a total of 3,275 Whites and 1,682 Blacks. The overall response rate was 29<sup>20</sup> percent, which accounted for incorrect contact information as opposed to refusals to participate.

### **Veterans Employability Research Survey**

The US Department of Veterans Affairs commissioned The 2007 Veterans Employability Research Survey Final Report to understand how Veterans with service-connected disabilities navigate through the Vocational Rehabilitation and Employment (VR&E)/VetSuccess Programs to obtain employment (www.data.gov). Using a national poll of Veterans who entered the VR&E Program but did not complete for various reasons, the 2007 Veterans Employability Research Survey Final Report study provides a lens to compare factors associated with Veterans completing their respective programs, and, ultimately, securing employment.

### **Measures**

*Dependent Variables:* Employment experience consists of the following dichotomous measures. Those measures are: (1) the degree to which people are working or not, (2) the extent to which respondents were satisfied with their jobs, (3) the degree to which respondents received accommodations for their disabilities at their place of work, and (4) the degree to which respondents perceived a match between their military skills and civilian skills work.

*Independent Variables:* Race, social-demographic characteristics, military service, disability status, and discrimination based upon disability, race, in general, or some other reason.

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<sup>20</sup> This study recognizes that the VRS response rate is low. However, it is comparable to other surveys and the findings would likely be more robust if able to reach the hard to reach population.

Table 3.1 below, suggests that approximately 70% of the Veterans sampled were White.<sup>21</sup> The race variable included Veterans that self-identified as White and Black Veterans.<sup>22</sup><sup>23</sup> The social demographic variables consisted of the following: (a) highest level of education, (b) gender, (c) military branch, (d) military rank, (e) serious employment handicap, (f) marital status, and (g) age. The military service variable consisted of the following: (a) military branch, (b) rank, and (c) tenure in service (Army, Navy, Air Force, and Marines Servicemembers). Officers' ranks included both Commissioned and Non-Commissioned Servicemembers. The non-officers included Enlisted Servicemembers.

### **Definition of Employment Experience Variables**

During the preliminary examination of the employment experience variable, which was the starting point of the study, the primary aim was to examine the dissimilarity of variable. Therefore, the following approach, which examined variables separately, decreased the odds that the variables were dissimilar. Subsequently to avoid looking at intrinsic data (unique data) early in the process, this study wanted to minimize potential loss of important information that could have been missed by combining too many variables. Finally, this study sought to understand the relationship between the each variables.

Table 3.1 below outlines the race and the social-demographic employment experiences as defined in the study. Table 3.1 indicates that the majority of the Veterans in this study served in the army or the marines. As it related to income status, the majority of the Veterans had experienced a pay grade of E-5 or E-6. Servicemembers in pay grades E-1 through E-3 denoted training statuses or on their initial assignment, which included the basic training phase where

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<sup>21</sup> One limitation of the study is that it did not include a measure of employment classification, which would have allowed for the completely test of the soundness of your theory on your data.

<sup>22</sup> The data set did not include enough non-Black racial/ethnic minorities to include those groups into your study.

<sup>23</sup> There were not enough self-identified Hispanics in study to warrant statistical comparisons.

recruits were immersed in military culture and values and were taught core military skills. As leadership duties increase of the mid-level enlisted ranks Servicemembers, formal recognition is denoted by terms such as noncommissioned officer (NCO) and petty officer. An Army sergeant, an Air Force staff sergeant, and a Marine corporal are considered NCO ranks. The Navy NCO equivalent, Petty Officer, is achieved at the rank of Petty Officer Third Class (Department of Defense, 2013).

**Table 3.1: Frequencies: Race, Social-Demographic Employment Experiences**

<b>Social-demographics Employment Experience</b>	<b>%</b>
<b><i>Employment Experience</i></b>	
Currently Employed and not Looking for Work <sup>24</sup>	79.3
Satisfied with Current Job/Career <sup>25</sup>	40.0
Alignment between Military/Civilian Job Skills <sup>26</sup>	57.2
Job Accommodates Disabilities <sup>27</sup>	70.3
<b><i>Race</i></b>	
White	70.0
Black	30.0
<b><i>Gender</i></b>	
Male	83.3
Female	12.6
<b><i>Military Branch</i></b>	
Army	47.7
Navy	21.4
Air Force	17.2
Marines	12.3
<b><i>Military Rank</i></b>	
Officers	15.7
Enlisted	84.3
<b><i>Educational Status</i></b>	
Less than High School to Associate Degree	71.9
Associate Degree or Higher	28.1
<b><i>Serious Employment Handicap</i><sup>28</sup></b>	
Yes SEH	45.3
No SEH	54.7
<b><i>Disability Rating</i></b>	
0/No Rating/Memo Rating	06.4
10 to 49%	52.4
50 to 100%	41.2

<sup>24</sup> Employment Status—Veterans respond they are currently employed

<sup>25</sup> Job Satisfaction—Combined Veterans responding satisfied with job

<sup>26</sup> Previous Training—Combined Veterans responses to military skills align with current job

<sup>27</sup> Job Accommodations—Veterans responding they receive accommodations on the job

<sup>28</sup> SEH—Serious Employment Handicap

<i>Marital Status</i>	
Married	65.2
Not Married	34.8
<hr/>	
<b>N=4267</b>	
<hr/>	

According to the data provided in Table 3:1, the average years of military duty, for Black Servicemembers was 7.6% years and the average years of duty for White Servicemembers was 6.9%. Approximately 75% of the Servicemembers had high school to an associate degree.



## CHAPTER IV

### DATA ANALYSES

#### **Race, Disability, Military Employment Experiences, and Social-Demographic**

##### **Characteristics**

The analyses presented in this Chapter addresses the following questions: The analyses presented in this Chapter V addressed the following research questions:

RQ1: To what extent are there racial differences among Veterans with service-connected disabilities?

RQ2: What is the connection between social demographics and military experiences of Black and White Veterans with service-connected disabilities?

To respond to these questions, cross tabulations and t-tests initially were conducted as shown in Tables 4.1-4.6. Of special note, human raters and counselors cause variations in the ratings and serious employment handicap decision processes influence the “rating” process, which is based on a compensatory wage loss due to an illness or bodily injury and “serious employment handicap” status due to environmental and social background factors. The VERS describes the rating process and serious employment handicap decision in more detail. These differences will be explained in more detail as well in Tables 4.2 and 4.3.

##### **Bivariate Analyses: Race Social-Demographic Characteristics**

**Table 4.1: Race and Social-demographic Characteristics: Cross-Tabulation Analyses**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Age (average)</b>	<b>Female</b>	<b>Education Years Beyond High School</b>	<b>Married</b>
White	40-49 years	21.1%	28.1%	68.1%
Black	40-49 years	14.1%*	28.2%	57.6%**
N=	4267	4957	4267	4267

*Note.* \*<.05; \*\*<.01

The data presented in Table 4.1 suggest that Black and White Veterans with service-connected disabilities tend to be approximately the same age and have similar levels of education. However, White Veterans with service-connected disabilities are more likely compared to their Black Veteran counterparts, to be married and to be women.

### *Disability Status*

**Table 4.2:** *Race and Disability Statuses: Cross-Tabulation*

<b>Variables</b>	<b>No/memo rating%</b>	<b>Between 10-49%</b>	<b>Between 50-100%</b>
White	71.9	66.1	65.1
Black**	28.1	33.9	34.9
N=	320	2601	2036

*Note.* \*<.05; \*\*<.01

Table 4.2 describes the impact race has on both disability status among Veterans with service-connected disabilities. The disability status determines if Veterans are qualified, eligible and entitled to participate in support services including post-military training for Veterans with service-connected disabilities. White Veterans with service-connected disabilities were more likely than Black Veterans to have “no/memo” rating. White Veterans with service-connected disabilities were also more likely than Black Veterans with service-connected disabilities to have a rating between 10-40% and 50-100%. This means that across the rating scales Whites Veterans were qualified to receive an injury or illness ratings more often than Black Veterans.

**Table 4.3:** *Race and Serious Employment Handicap (SEH): Cross-Tabulation*

<b>Variables</b>	<b>% w/Serious Employment Handicap</b>
White	43.92%
Black	48.59% **
N=	4267

*Note.* \*<.05; \*\*<.01

See Tables 4.3 above which describes the impact race has on a serious employment handicap among Veterans with service-connected disabilities. According to the VERS report, counselors make the decision of assigning a “serious employment handicap” entitlement during

the vocational evaluation process. While statistically different, rates of disability and having a serious employment handicap look fairly similar among Black Veterans were significantly more likely compared to Whites to have a serious employment handicap.

*Years of Military Service*

**Table 4.4:** *Race and Years of Military Service: T-Test*

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Years of Military Service</b>
White	11.63%
Black	13.06% **
N=	4169

*Note.* \* $<.05$ ; \*\* $<.01$

Table 4:4, relies upon an independent t-test to compare years of military service for White and Black Veterans with service-connected disabilities. This Table indicates that Black Veterans had a slightly longer tenure of military service than did their White counterparts.

**Table 4.5:** *Race and Military Branch: Cross-Tabulation*

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Army</b>	<b>Navy</b>	<b>Air force</b>	<b>Marines</b>
White	14.4%	23.1%	18.7%	13.7%
Black	59.0%	17.1%	14.1%	9.8%
N=	2054	895	729	528

*Note.* \* $<.05$ ; \*\* $<.01$

Table 4.5 describes the relationship between race and military branch among Veterans with service-connected disabilities. White Veterans tended had a higher representation in the following branches Navy, Air Force, and Marines when compared to Black Veterans with service-connected disabilities. Whereas, Black Veterans with service connected disabilities had significantly higher representation in the Army. Over half the Veteran population in this sample was in the Army.

**Table 4.6:** *Race and Military Rank: Cross-Tabulation*

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Commissioned Officer</b>	<b>Warrant Officer</b>	<b>Enlisted Person</b>	<b>Non-commission Officer</b>	<b>Don't know</b>
White	5.5%	1.9%	83.3%	9.3%	<n
Black	3.1%	1.2%	85.6%	10.2%	<n

N=	204	72	3570	406	14
<i>Note.</i> *<.05; **<.01					

Table 4.6 indicates that Blacks and Whites maintained similar ranks during their time in service. White Veterans with service-connected disabilities following their military experiences indicated that they were more often commissioned officers and warrant officers slightly higher than Black Veterans with service-connected disabilities. For the most part, this Table suggests that both blacks and whites were equally represented among all military rankings.

The analyses presented in Table 4.7 indicate that White Veterans with disabilities are more likely compared to their Black counterparts to report being satisfied with their jobs, to be employed, to have a job in which their military skills are useful in their civilian work, to work at a job that made accommodations for their disabilities. The analyses that follow examine the impact of race on these same employment experiences while controlling for a host of social-demographic, military, and disability variables.

**Table 4.7:** *Race and Employment Experiences: Cross-tabulation*

	<b>Currently Employed and not Looking for a Different Job</b>	<b>Job Accommodates Disabilities</b>	<b>Military/Civilian Job Align</b>	<b>Job Matches Interests</b>	<b>Reporting Income from Wages/Salary</b>	<b>Satisfied w/ Job</b>
White	37.19%**	73.2%**	57.43%	70.08%**	81.13%**	40.8%**
Black	24.77%	63.0%	57.13%	59.15%	72.82%	26.4%
N=	2,906	2,906	2,906	2,906	2,906	5031

\*<.05; \*\*<.01

Table 4.7 examines the association between race and employment experiences. This table largely suggests that Black Veterans have worse employment experiences than do Whites Veterans. That, White Veterans are more likely than Black Veterans to be currently working and not seeking additional work, to work at jobs that accommodates their disabilities, to work jobs in which their military training prepared them for their civilian work, to work jobs that match their

professional interests, and to report wages or a salary for their work. These employment experience disparities along racial lines may contribute to why White Veterans are more likely than Black Veterans to be satisfied with their jobs. In sum, the analyses in this chapter indicate that Blacks and Whites Veterans with service-connected disabilities have different backgrounds in terms of their social-demographic characteristics, disability status, and military status characteristics. Whereas the demographic tables indicate that the outcomes for Black and White Veterans with service-connected disabilities are fairly similar; that is not always so. Upon further analysis race did significantly predicted that there were negative differences among the military experiences and disability experiences of Black and White Veterans with service-connected disabilities. The chapter that follows examines the degree to which such these disabilities potentially explain differences in the labor market participation between Black and White Veterans.

## CHAPTER V

### DATA ANALYSES

#### Race and Employment Experiences

The analyses presented in this Chapter V addressed the following research questions:

RQ1: To what extent are there racial differences among Veterans with service-connected disabilities?

RQ2: What is the connection between social demographics and military experiences of Black and White Veterans with service-connected disabilities?

**Table 5.1:** *Race and Social-demographic Characteristics: Logistic/OLS Regression*

Variable	Age	Female	Education	Married
White	-.099*	.503**	.025	.514**
Age	----	-.487**	-.016	.189**
Female	-.429**	----	.792**	.090**
Education	-.010	.782**	----	.153*
Married	.183**	-.670**	.154*	----
Disability Status	-.338**	-.182	.375**	.244**
Years of Service	.025**	.007	.008**	.032**
<i>Military Branch</i> <sup>29</sup>	----	----	----	----
Army	-.068*	-.410	-.098**	-.071
Navy	-.130*	-.200	.009	-.077
Marines	-.280**	-1.268	-.103**	.006
Military Rank	-.078*	-.503	-.297*	.049

N=4267

Note. \*<.05; \*\*<.01

The Age analyses of Table 5.1 indicates that female Veterans tend to be younger than males, married Veterans tend to be older, and the Veterans with the highest disability status tend to be younger. In addition, Army, Navy, and Marine Veterans with SCDs tend to be younger than Air Force Veterans and the higher the rank, the older the Veterans. The Gender (Female) analyses indicate that more female Veterans are White, younger, have higher education and married. Branches of service were not significant for the female Veteran.

<sup>29</sup> Given that military branch is a nominal variable (e.g. the categories of Army, Air Force, Marines, and Navy are not ranked from high to low). A dummy variable was created for each branch of the military (e.g. Army: 1= Army 0= not in Army, Air force: 1=Air Force 0= not in Air Force, etc.) so that we are comparing one branch to that of the others. Therefore, we are comparing Army to Air Force, Navy to Air Force, and Marine to Air Force.

The Education analyses indicate once again that females Veterans received higher education than males Veterans. Veterans with higher education are married more and had significantly higher disability ratings. Finally, the higher the Veterans' education indicates that he/she remained in the military longer as well as served Army and Marines more often. On the other hand, more Veterans with higher education achieved higher rank than not. Finally, the Married analyses indicate that Veterans are White, younger and females. These analyses also indicate that Veterans had a higher disability rating and served in the military longer. Military rank and Branch of service was not significant for married variable.

**Table 5.2:** *Race and Disability Status: Ordinal Logit and OLS*

Variables	Disability Status
White	-.250**
Age	-.386**
Female	-.207*
Education	.367**
Married	.256**
Disability Status	-----
Years of Service	.028**
<i>Military Branch</i>	-----
Army	-.092*
Navy	.057
Marines	.026
Military Rank	.020
N=4267	

*Note.* \*<.05; \*\*<.01.

The regression analyses presented in Table 5.2 indicates that race maintains an independent relationship disability status. That is holding the remaining variables constant; White Veterans have a lower disability ranking than do Blacks. Veterans with significant disability rating were lower in age than Veterans without significant disability rating. Gender was negatively impacted for Veterans with significant disability rating. However, education and years of service are positively associated with disability rating. Finally, the only military branch associated with disability rating is the Army and Military Rank and are not significant for this variable.

**Table 5.3: Race, Military Rank, and Years of Military Service: Ordinal Logit and OLS**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Military Rank</b>	<b>Years of Service</b>
White	-.345**	-1.670**
Age	-.119*	2.516**
Female	-.349*	.464
Education	-.368**	.713*
Married	.106	2.566**
Disability Status	.007	2.355**
Years of Service	-.011*	---
<i>Military Branch</i>	---	---
Army	-.065	-3.174**
Navy	-.435*	-1.149*
Marines	.016	-5.454**
Military Rank	---	-.946**
N=4267		

Note. \*<.05; \*\*<.01

The regression analyses presented in Table 5.3 indicate that race maintains an independent relationship to military rank and years of service. That is holding the remaining variables constant; Whites Veterans with service-connected disabilities have a lower ranking in the military and have shorter tenure of service than do Blacks.

These analyses also indicate that there are a negative relationships between Military Rank and age, female, education, and years of service, which are all statistically significant. It appears that women spend less time in the military than their male counterparts do. Navy is also statistically significant; there is negative relationship between Military Rank and Navy.

Relative to Years of Service White Veterans with service-connected disabilities have less years of service. This variable has a negative significant relationship with your dependent variable as do Army, Navy, Marines, and Military Rank. There is a positive statistically significant relationship between age, education, marital status, and disability status.



**Table 5.4: Race and Military Branch: Multinomial Logit and Ordinal Regression**

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Army</b>	<b>Navy</b>	<b>Marines<sup>30</sup></b>
White	.729*	.032	.165
Age	.093*	.181	.220*
Female	.421*	.221*	1.209*
Education	.101	-.007*	.092
<i>Married</i>	.116	.092	-.123
Disability Status	.100	-.047	-.032
Years of Service	.032*	.012*	.088*
Military Rank	.026	245.963*	.116
N=	1993	890	513

Note. \*<.05; \*\*<.01

See Table 5.4 above. Based upon the data presented in table 5.4 when controlling for other background variables, Veterans' age, gender, years of services was statistically significant for Veterans in the Army based on race and military rank. Likewise when controlling for other background variables again, relative to the Navy, gender, education, years of service and Military Rank were statistically significant based on the Veterans' race, and Military Branch. Finally, when controlling for other background variables for the Marines, the Veterans' age, gender, and years of service were significant based on race and Military Branch. Across all Military Branches, gender differences and years of service remained statically significant relative to race and Military Branch. The analyses now turns to examining the relationship between race and employment experiences.

**Table 5.5a: Impact of Race on Employment: Cross-tabulation Analyses**

	<b>% Employed, and not looking for other Employment</b>	<b>% Employed, but looking for employment</b>	<b>% Not working and looking for employment</b>	<b>% Not working and not looking for employment</b>
White	24.77**	34.14**	18.59**	22.5
Black	37.19	24.64	11.82	26.35
N=4267				

\*<.05; \*\*<.01

The cross-tabulation analyses presented in Table 5.5a indicate that White disabled Veterans are more likely than their Black counterparts to be employed and not looking for other

<sup>30</sup> Air Force is the reference Military Branch variable

employment. Conversely, Black veterans are more likely to be employed but looking for other employment, which suggests a greater level job dissatisfaction among Blacks relative to Whites.

Blacks are also more likely to not be working and looking work.

**Table 5.5b:** *Impact of Race on Employment Experiences: Cross-tabulation Analyses*

	<b>Very Satisfied with Job</b>	<b>Receive Wages</b>	<b>Job Matches Interests</b>	<b>Job Suits Skills</b>	<b>Military/Civilian Job Align</b>	<b>Job Accommodates Disabilities</b>
White	40.87**	81.12**	70.08**	72.68**	57.13	73.22**
Black	25.20	72.82	59.15	80.60	57.43	63.00
N	2599	2599	2599	2599	2599	2599

\* $<.05$ ; \*\* $<.01$

Similarly, cross-tabulation analyses presented in Table 5.5b suggests that White Veterans are more likely to be very satisfied with their jobs, to receive wages or a salary as a source of income, to work at a job that matches their interests, skills, and accommodates their disabilities. The analyses that follow examine the impact of race on these same employment experiences while controlling for a host of social-demographic, military, and disability variables.

**Table 5.6a:** *Impact of Race on Employment: Multinomial Logit Regression*

**Employed, but looking for employment vs.  
Employed, and not looking for other Employment**

	<b>Coef.</b>	<b>Std. Err.</b>	<b>z</b>	<b>P&gt; z </b>	<b>[95% Conf. Interval]</b>	
White	-.713187	.0902894	-7.90	0.000	-.890151	-.536223
Air Force	.0729338	.1115658	0.65	0.513	-.1457311	.2915987
Navy	.0136377	.1048661	0.13	0.897	-.1918961	.2191715
Marines	.1022486	.1290564	-0.79	0.428	-.3551945	.1506974
Rank	.0236038	.0737623	0.32	0.749	-.1209676	.1681752
Length of Service	.0043027	.004041	1.06	0.287	-.0036175	.0122229
Employment Handicap Disability	-.0444584	.0809058	-0.55	0.583	-.2030309	.114114
Rating	.1133782	.0678561	1.67	0.095	-.0196173	.2463736
Female	-.1052981	.1137699	-0.93	0.355	-.328283	.1176869
Married	-.1470603	.0884165	-1.66	0.096	-.3203534	.0262329
Education	-.1566587	.0870692	-1.80	0.072	-.3273113	.0139939
Age	-.0283355	.0439447	-0.64	0.519	-.1144655	.0577945
South	-.0993658	.1107789	-0.90	0.370	-.3164884	.1177568

**Not working and looking for employment vs.  
Employed, and not looking for other Employment**

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
White	-.8211379	.1100658	-7.46	0.000	-1.036863	-.6054128
Air Force	-.0669775	.1470095	-0.46	0.649	-.3551108	.2211559
Navy	.1233786	.129738	0.95	0.342	-.1309032	.3776603
Marines	-.1269622	.1630808	-0.78	0.436	-.4465947	.1926703
Military Rank	-.097753	.0929609	-1.05	0.293	-.2799531	.0844471
Length of Service	-.0237763	.0061059	-3.89	0.000	-.0357437	-.0118089
Employment	-.3835381	.1032856	-3.71	0.000	-.5859742	-.1811019
Handicap Disability	.1676198	.0862029	1.94	0.052	-.0013348	.3365743
Rating						
Female	.1228712	.1369176	0.90	0.370	-.1454823	.3912248
Married	-.7267241	.1058072	-6.87	0.000	-.9341025	-.5193457
Education	.418374	.1148523	-3.64	0.000	-.6434805	-.1932675
Age	.1990477	.053769	3.70	0.000	.0936625	.304433
South	.1039614	.1321873	0.79	0.432	-.1551209	.3630437

**Table 5.6a: Impact of Race on Employment: Multinomial Logit Regression (cont.)**

**Not working and not looking for employment vs.  
Employed, and not looking for other Employment**

	Coef.	Std. Err.	z	P> z	[95% Conf. Interval]	
White	-.2095808	.1021801	-2.05	0.040	-.4098502	-.0093114
Air force	-.0868197	.1232097	-0.70	0.481	-.3283064	.154667
Navy	.0359301	.1144622	0.31	0.754	-.1884116	.2602718
Marines	-.0556227	.1391481	-0.40	0.689	-.328348	.2171026
Rank	.0120948	.0788745	0.15	0.878	-.1424963	.1666859
Length of Service	-.034543	.005121	-6.75	0.000	-.0445799	-.0245061
Employment						
Handicap Disability	-.7323547	.0915208	-8.00	0.000	-.9117321	-.5529772
Rating						
Female	.7031591	.0765944	9.18	0.000	.5530368	.8532814
Female	.2480641	.124198	2.00	0.046	.0046405	.4914877
Married	-.3678671	.0950888	-3.87	0.000	-.5542378	-.1814964
Education	-.747068	.1026465	-7.28	0.000	-.9482514	-.5458845
Age	.6504069	.0482693	13.47	0.000	.5558007	.745013
South	-.0680775	.1159155	-0.59	0.557	-.2952677	.1591128

Number of obs = 4267

Log likelihood = -5309.946

Similar to the bivariate analyses, all of the multivariate analyses reported in Table 5.6 a and b suggested that Black Veterans had more tenuous employment experiences than do their White counterparts. Specifically, when controlling for social-demographic characteristics, military experience, and disability, Table 5.6a suggests that White disabled Veterans were less likely than their Black counterparts are, to report being employed, but looking for work than to

be employed and not looking for work. White Veterans were also less likely than Black Veterans to not be working and looking for employment than working and not looking for work. Finally, White Veterans were less likely to not be working and not looking for work than to be working and not looking for other employment.

**Table 5.6b: Impact of Race on Employment Experiences: Logit Regression**

	<b>Very Satisfied with Job</b>	<b>Receive Wages</b>	<b>Job Matches Interests</b>	<b>Job Suits Skills</b>	<b>Military/Civilian Job Align</b>	<b>Job Accommodates Disabilities</b>
White	2.058 (0.206)**	1.486 (0.143)**	1.678 (0.157)**	1.562 (0.163)**	0.991 (0.091)	1.664 (0.162)**
Air Force	1.010 (0.117)	1.179 (0.149)	0.860 (0.101)	1.192 (0.165)	0.870 (0.098)	1.026 (0.130)
Navy	0.956 (0.105)	1.321 (0.160)*	0.984 (0.110)	1.130 (0.144)	0.914 (0.097)	0.892 (0.103)
Marines	1.083 (0.144)	1.062 (0.151)	1.022 (0.140)	1.015 (0.155)	0.986 (0.127)	0.993 (0.139)
Military Rank	0.891 (0.069)	1.064 (0.085)	0.912 (0.076)	1.022 (0.095)	0.968 (0.075)	0.791 (0.074)*
Length of Service	1.009 (0.005)	1.028 (0.005)**	1.008 (0.005)	1.012 (0.006)	1.028 (0.005)**	1.027 (0.006)**
Employment Handicap	1.124 (0.095)	1.920 (0.184)**	1.154 (0.100)	0.977 (0.096)	0.911 (0.075)	1.004 (0.090)
Disability Rating	0.968 (0.070)	0.667 (0.053)**	0.873 (0.065)	0.918 (0.079)	0.871 (0.062)	0.827 (0.065)*
Female	1.073 (0.129)	1.061 (0.142)	0.930 (0.112)	1.132 (0.157)	0.827 (0.094)	1.156 (0.148)
Married	1.290 (0.121)**	2.676 (0.280)**	1.109 (0.103)	1.302 (0.135)*	1.325 (0.117)**	1.187 (0.114)
Education	1.488 (0.133)**	1.630 (0.177)**	1.595 (0.152)**	1.265 (0.136)*	1.255 (0.111)*	2.067 (0.213)**
Age	0.938 (0.046)	0.554 (0.029)**	1.020 (0.051)	0.919 (0.051)	0.952 (0.045)	0.987 (0.051)
South	1.117 (0.126)	1.259 (0.157)	0.820 (0.095)	0.955 (0.126)	0.906 (0.100)	1.319 (0.167)*
N	2599	3493	2599	2599	2599	2599

\* $<.05$ ; \*\* $<.01$  (Standard errors in parentheses)

Similarly, Table 5.6b indicates that Whites Veterans are more likely compared to Black Veterans to be very satisfied with their jobs, to receive wages or salary as a source of income, and to work at a job that suits their interests, skills, and accommodates their disabilities. These analyses also indicate that education, marital status, disability, and years of experience are

positively statistically significant to the impact of race employment experience. Army and Marines are both significant and both have a negative association to impact of race employment experience. Overall, however, race is the most consistent predictor of employment experiences. That is, while Black and White Veterans with service-connected disabilities have fairly similar military experiences and demographic characteristics, Black Veterans however, have maintain worse employment experiences.

## CHAPTER VI

### CONCLUSION

#### **Main Findings**

RQ1: To what extent are there racial differences in the employment status and experiences of Veterans with service-connected disabilities?

Main Finding: Whites Veterans with service-connected disabilities are more likely when compared to Blacks Veterans with service-connected disabilities to be employed and have a positive employment experiences.

RQ2: What is the connection between social demographics and military experiences of Black and White Veterans with service-connected disabilities?

Main Finding: Education is a better predictor for Whites than for Blacks in being employed versus under-employed and of working at a job that matches their interests.

This study examined the association between race and employment experiences among military Veterans with service-connected disabilities. The aim of the research was to determine specific outcomes that would provide insight into how racial inequality in labor market contributed to racial disparities and employment among Veterans with service-connected disabilities. This study challenged the assumption that all Veterans with service-connected disabilities had similar employment histories and experiences. It established that a significant number of Black Veterans had less than a positive employment outcome compared to White Veterans with service-connected disabilities merely based on race. That is, when controlling for many background factors, race emerged as a contributing factor to the employment experiences of Black and White Veterans with service-connected disabilities, however, more so for Black Veterans with disabilities. In fact, Black veterans reported their military skills did not match their

civilian jobs, they were less satisfied when employed, they received fewer job accommodations, and they were more likely not working and/or seeking employment.

Upon examination of the social demographic characteristics of Veterans with disabilities, the study revealed that having a disability was an added burden for Black Veterans seeking employment as they attempted to overcome the challenges of their disabilities and overcome social consequences of being a minority. Social stratification, for example, contributed to social inequality in the military, which carried into the labor market. It was a pervasive form of surreptitious racism, which affected the minority Veterans' communities just as it had affected Blacks and other minorities in society. The research stated that there were multifaceted roles that race played in accounting for the employment disparities experienced by Black Veterans with and without disabilities. For instance, Black Veterans were found to have greater problems associated to their socioeconomic backgrounds, which influenced their overall hiring outcomes.

Black Veterans generally experienced unequal access to educational training to improve their overall skills, limited physical and mental health care to improve their well-being. Additionally, Black Veterans had higher unemployment levels, more incidents of incarceration and legal problems when compared to White Veterans. Likewise, Black Veterans were more likely than White Veterans to have greater incidents of PTSD, be homeless, and addicted to drugs, which interrupted their overall labor market experiences. Angrist and Chen (2008) argued that the presence of severe service-connected disabilities alone or coupled with other social dynamics, adversely affected earnings, which reduced the Veterans' human capital investments. Consequently, Black Veterans with service-connected disabilities had a more tenuous time in the labor market because of the multiple levels of socioeconomic issues they may have had entering the military which were exacerbated when they encountered social issues back home.





ageca~013107		.5875373	.0542908	10.82	0.000	.4811293	.6939452
south		-.0887784	.1267571	-0.70	0.484	-.3372177	.1596609
cons		-2.724413	.2724807	-10.00	0.000	-3.258466	-2.190361

Table 6.1 indicates that among White Veterans with service-connected disabilities, we see far fewer relationships between demographic characteristics with being under-employed vs. employed, than among being unemployed vs. employed and among being outside the labor force vs. employed.

**Table 6.2:** *Relationship between Military and Social-Demographic Characteristics with Employment Experiences among White Disabled Veterans: Logistic Regression*

	Very Satisfied with Job	Receive Wages	Job Matches Interests	Job Suits Skills	Military/Civilian Job Align	Job Accommodates Disabilities
<i>Military Branch</i> <sup>34</sup>						
Air Force	-0.042 (0.133)	0.008 (0.153)	-0.156 (0.141)	-0.018 (0.165)	-0.278 (0.133)*	-0.055 (0.152)
Navy	-0.027 (0.125)	0.348 (0.151)*	0.072 (0.136)	0.062 (0.157)	-0.062 (0.125)	-0.110 (0.140)
Marines	0.053 (0.150)	0.065 (0.173)	-0.089 (0.159)	-0.067 (0.182)	-0.035 (0.149)	0.068 (0.166)
Military Rank	0.116 (0.088)	-0.090 (0.097)	0.089 (0.100)	0.059 (0.115)	-0.004 (0.090)	0.109 (0.110)
Length of Service	0.007 (0.006)	0.033 (0.007)**	0.006 (0.007)	0.017 (0.008)*	0.031 (0.006)**	0.026 (0.007)**
Employment Handicap	0.077 (0.111)	-0.766 (0.116)**	0.058 (0.120)	0.226 (0.140)	-0.020 (0.111)	0.117 (0.126)
Disability Rating	-0.024 (0.083)	-0.270 (0.099)**	-0.113 (0.090)	-0.153 (0.105)	-0.156 (0.084)	-0.191 (0.095)*
Female	0.059 (0.147)	-0.252 (0.175)	-0.105 (0.159)	-0.136 (0.180)	-0.312 (0.146)*	0.273 (0.175)
Married	0.375 (0.111)**	0.906 (0.143)**	0.056 (0.116)	0.194 (0.132)	0.235 (0.108)*	0.243 (0.119)*
Education	0.447 (0.103)**	0.629 (0.137)**	0.633 (0.118)**	0.363 (0.134)**	0.284 (0.105)**	0.837 (0.129)**
Age	-0.115 (0.056)*	-0.645 (0.065)**	-0.018 (0.059)	-0.129 (0.067)	-0.050 (0.056)	0.030 (0.062)
South	0.090 (0.123)	0.288 (0.148)	-0.131 (0.131)	0.055 (0.154)	-0.118 (0.123)	0.194 (0.142)
N	1845	2415	1845	1845	1845	1845

\*<.05, \*\*<.01; Standard errors in parentheses

<sup>34</sup> Army is the comparison category for Military Branch



lengthyear~1		-.0416903	.0103721	-4.02	0.000	-.0620192	-.0213615
serious_em~m		.8890562	.2005004	4.43	0.000	.4960826	1.28203
r_disrate~t		.8946277	.1671181	5.35	0.000	.5670821	1.222173
gender_dummy		-.5063524	.2429653	-2.08	0.037	-.9825557	-.0301491
married_du~y		-.6842902	.188012	-3.64	0.000	-1.052787	-.3157935
education~y		-.4342443	.2139731	-2.03	0.042	-.8536239	-.0148647
ageca~013107		.8987122	.1106443	8.12	0.000	.6818533	1.115571
south		-.1012853	.2986739	-0.34	0.735	-.6866754	.4841047
_cons		-2.656382	.5718438	-4.65	0.000	-3.777175	-1.535588

On Table 6.3, unlike Whites Veterans with service-connected disabilities, among Black Veterans with service-connected disabilities we see far fewer relationships between demographic characteristics with being under-employed vs. employed and being unemployed vs. employed, than we observe among being outside of labor force vs. being employed.

**Table 6.4:** *Relationship between Military and Social-Demographic Characteristics with Employment Experiences among African American Disabled Veterans: Logistic Regression*

	<b>Very Satisfied with Job</b>	<b>Receive Wages</b>	<b>Job Matches Interests</b>	<b>Job Suits Skills</b>	<b>Military/Civilian Job Align</b>	<b>Job Accommodates Disabilities</b>
<i>Military Branch</i> <sup>37</sup>						
Air Force	0.159 (0.239)	0.623 (0.242)**	-0.087 (0.219)	0.654 (0.268)*	0.296 (0.223)	0.205 (0.234)
Navy	-0.095 (0.235)	0.198 (0.211)	-0.168 (0.203)	0.223 (0.226)	-0.209 (0.201)	-0.197 (0.208)
Marines	0.140 (0.303)	0.122 (0.255)	0.385 (0.276)	0.188 (0.293)	0.006 (0.266)	-0.218 (0.271)
Military Rank	0.142 (0.168)	-0.056 (0.155)	0.123 (0.158)	-0.208 (0.167)	0.128 (0.156)	0.510 (0.179)**
Length of Service	0.016 (0.010)	0.015 (0.008)	0.016 (0.010)	0.002 (0.010)	0.021 (0.010)*	0.033 (0.011)**
Employment Handicap	-0.086 (0.229)	-0.723 (0.161)**	-0.164 (0.197)	-0.197 (0.216)	0.110 (0.198)	-0.151 (0.202)
Disability Rating	-0.105 (0.158)	-0.532 (0.138)**	-0.240 (0.143)	0.007 (0.157)	-0.097 (0.141)	-0.184 (0.147)
Female	0.064 (0.212)	0.548 (0.213)*	0.014 (0.189)	0.479 (0.219)*	0.061 (0.188)	0.007 (0.196)
Married	-0.011 (0.182)	1.023 (0.159)**	0.201 (0.161)	0.429 (0.176)*	0.403 (0.160)*	0.049 (0.167)
Education	0.292 (0.181)	0.367 (0.181)*	0.168 (0.165)	-0.031 (0.182)	0.042 (0.164)	0.508 (0.174)**

<sup>37</sup> Army is the comparison category for Military Branch

Age	0.070	-0.479	0.072	-0.022	-0.060	-0.160
	(0.112)	(0.092)**	(0.098)	(0.106)	(0.097)	(0.102)
South	0.209	0.226	-0.463	-0.345	-0.013	0.643
	(0.286)	(0.240)	(0.257)	(0.270)	(0.258)	(0.287)*
N	754	1078	754	754	754	754

\*<.05, \*\*<.01; Standard errors in parentheses

We see on Table 6.4 far fewer relationships among demographic characteristics and military experience with employment experiences among Black Veterans with service-connected disabilities than among White Veterans with service-connected disabilities. For Black Veterans with service-connected disabilities, being married maintains the most consistent relationship with employment experience. This is followed by Air Force, length of service, education, and being female.

**Table 6.5: Moderating Relationship of Race on the Association between Education with Job Interests and Under-Employment/Employment of Veterans with Disabilities: Logistic Regression**

	Job Matches Interests <sup>38</sup>	Employed <sup>39</sup>
<i>Interactions</i>		
White * Education	0.460	0.527
	(0.197)*	(0.190)**
<i>Main Effects</i>		
White	0.368	0.546
	(0.111)**	(0.109)**
<i>Military Branch</i> <sup>40</sup>		
Air Force	-0.145	-0.061
	(0.118)	(0.113)
Navy	-0.009	-0.001
	(0.112)	(0.105)
Marines	0.023	0.105
	(0.137)	(0.130)
Military Rank	0.089	0.035
	(0.084)	(0.077)
Length of Service	0.010	-0.005
	(0.005)	(0.005)
Employment Handicap	-0.007	0.022
	(0.102)	(0.096)
Disability Rating	-0.141	-0.129
	(0.076)	(0.071)
Female	-0.071	0.160
	(0.120)	(0.116)
Married	0.105	0.166
	(0.093)	(0.089)

<sup>38</sup> 0=job doesn't match interests, 1=job matches interests

<sup>39</sup> 0=under-employed (working, but looking) 1=employed (working, not looking)

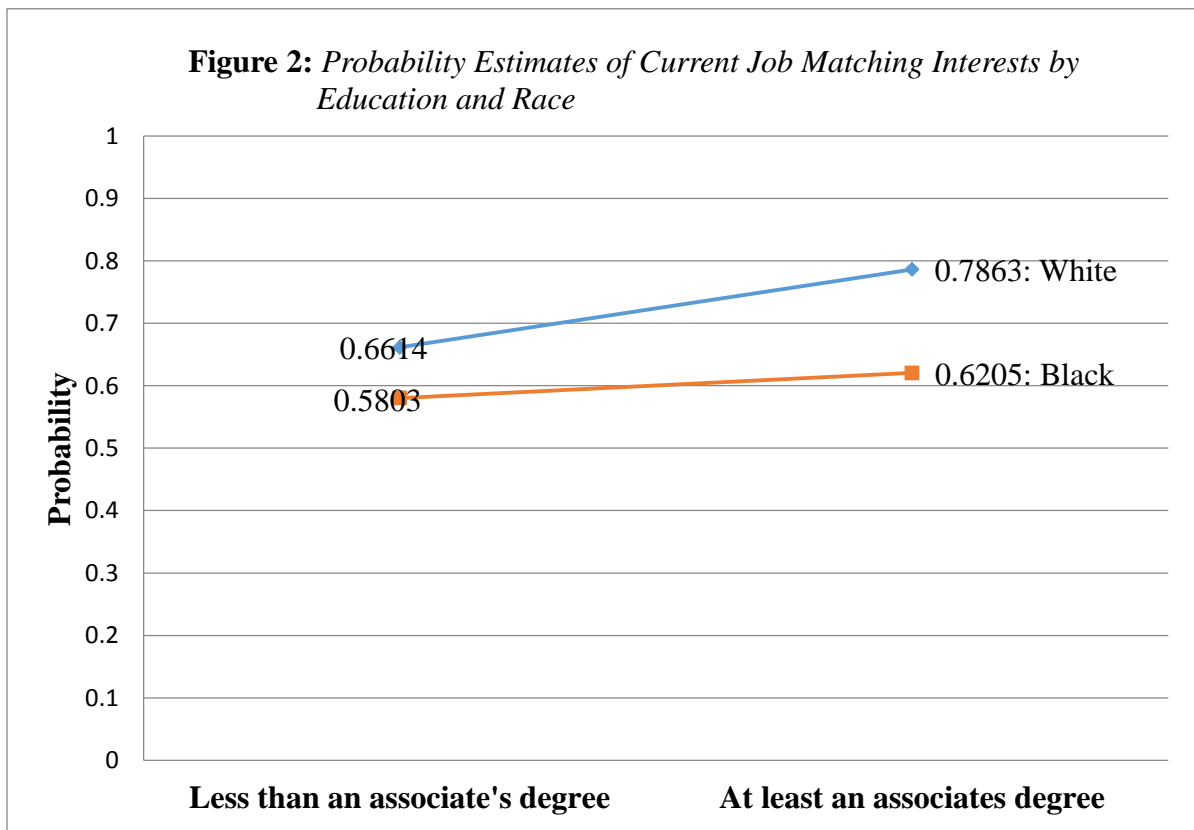
<sup>40</sup> Army is the comparison category for Military Branch

Education	0.173 (0.161)	-0.208 (0.160)
Age	0.010 (0.050)	0.014 (0.048)
South	-0.200 (0.116)	0.086 (0.112)
N	2599	2601

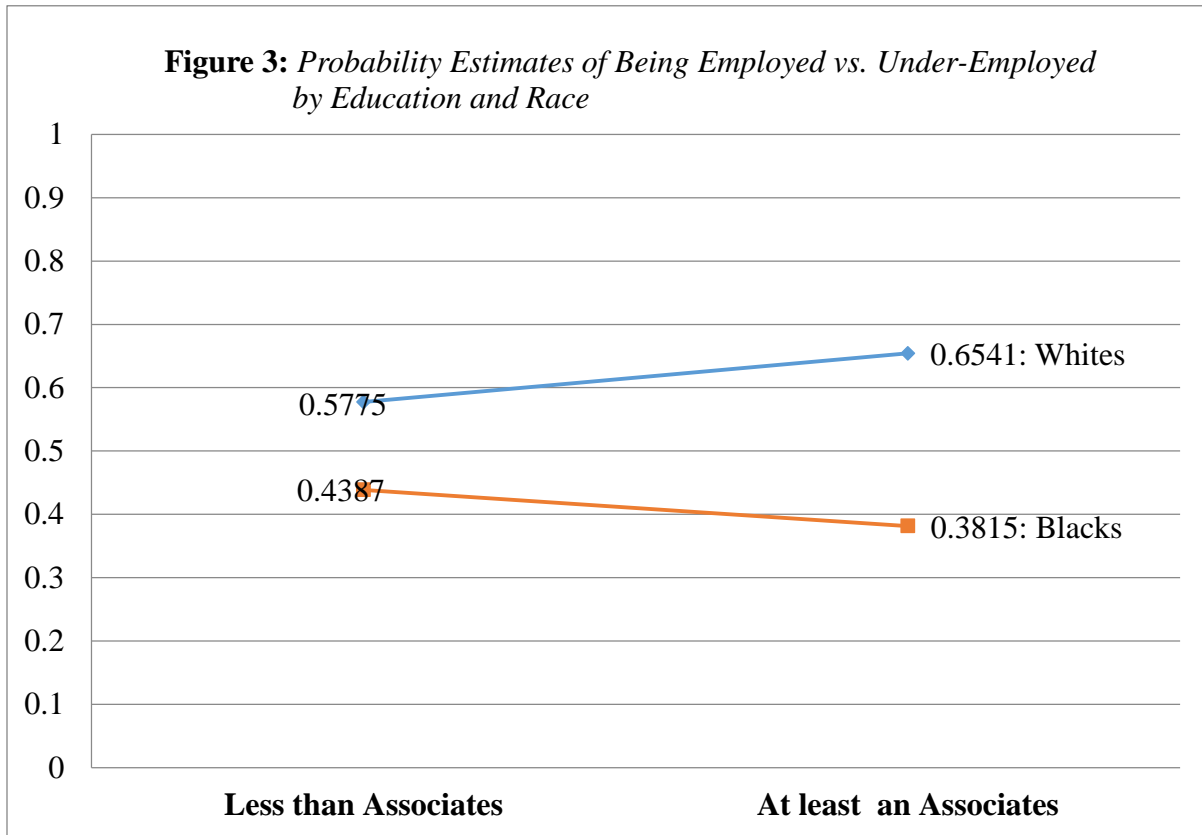
\*<.05, \*\*<.01; Standard errors in parentheses

Finally, Table 6.5 indicates that the Interaction effect for the job match interests analyses for education maintains statistically stronger positive relationship with Whites Veterans with service-connected disabilities working at jobs that match their interests than it does for Blacks Veterans with service-connected disabilities. See Figure 2.

The Interaction effect for the employment interests analyses indicates that education maintains statistically stronger positive relationship with Whites Veterans with service-connected disabilities being employed vs. under-employed than it does for Blacks Veterans with service-connected disabilities. See Figure 3.



The probability estimates listed in this figure above indicates that education maintains as stronger positive relationship with White Veterans with service-connected disabilities working at jobs that match their interests than it does for Black Veterans with service-connected disabilities.



The probability estimates listed in this figure indicates that education maintains as stronger positive relationship with White Veterans with service-connected disabilities being employed than it does for Black Veterans with service-connected disabilities.

In fact, for White Veterans with service-connected disabilities, we observe a positive relationship, whereas for Black Veterans with service-connected disabilities there is a slightly reduced likelihood, albeit, non-significant of being employed as they go from less than to at least an associates degree.

### **Theoretical Impact**

Historically, for Black Veterans with and without disabilities, race has been the source of social inequalities. In the end, having a military experience did not buffer vulnerable Veterans from labor market stratification or segmentation. Chudzinski (1988) theorized, in fact that the market contributed to military personnel employment and unemployment situations. He stated that because of forms of stratification or segmentation, Black and White Veterans had different military and labor market experiences (Chudzinski, 1988).

As we saw, White and Black Veterans had some similar employment experiences because of their overall Veterans' statuses. Nonetheless, segmentation theory explained why Black veterans with disabilities have a particularly difficult time re-entering the labor force, which ultimately contributes to greater employment instability. Many Veterans, for example, developed patterns of job instability due to multiple deployments and moving from base to base. Constant moving and deployment forces Veterans to move among seasonal, temporary, or unstable job markets, frequently on, and off unemployment assistance and then back into the labor force (Wachter, Gordon, Piore, & Hall, 1974). The MOS and other military branch duties yielded little to no transferable civilian skills in many cases. According to Wehman, et al, (2009), the best vocational preparation approach might include a customized vocational reintegration process like social integration programs on college campuses to assist Veterans with and relevant career development which focuses on adequate use of their MOS and military skills. Likewise, these customized programs could include better physical and health care programs to help *all* Veterans to identify early problems associated with Veteran job seeking, problems with returning to the labor market or problems returning to civilian life.

The difficulties of navigating the labor market that becomes ingrained in the segment labor market and a barrier for Black Veterans often inflict White Veterans too, creating the assumption of a shared employment experiences or similar labor market dilemmas. Segmentation theory and the dual labor market contended, however, that the collective experiences of Black Veterans and White Veterans remained dissimilar because they actually navigated the labor market differently as they transition back into the civilian world. White Veterans for instance seemed to have greater longevity in a specific labor market, for specific jobs because of previous experiences and better connections to more favorable resources. Whereas Black Veterans returned home to a less than favorable job community with a depressed job market in general. Additionally, having a disability became an added burden for Black Veterans in all segments of the labor market. As a result, Black Veterans encountered roadblocks, as they had to try to overcome institutional racism and the challenges of their disabilities to obtain suitable employment.

The challenges of racial differences of Veterans with disabilities created the foundation for additional research in these areas. Likewise, it is important to comprehend why Black Veterans experienced a harder time in the labor market compared to White Veteran with disabilities. More in-depth research into labor market segmentation theories, relative to the employment situations of Veterans, is essential. In other words, these labor market theories created two categories of wage tiers in the market based on characteristics, behaviors, and occupational hierarchy, which often defined the historical experiences of Black and White Veterans with disabilities (Reich, Gordon, & Edwards, 1973; Wachter, Gordon, Piore, & Hall, 1974). Finally, because of social stratification, historical, political, and economics, these theories



explained that the differences between Black and White Veterans with disabilities were not due to their disabilities, or due to their military experiences, it was due to their race.

### **Policy Recommendations and Implications for Future Research**

#### **Solutions--More Jobs for Black Veterans with Worse Outcomes**

This research on Veteran services indicates that there is no single answer or no single solution to why there are racial differences in the employment status and experiences of Veterans with service-connected disabilities or to why social demographics and military experiences of Black and White Veterans with service-connected disabilities are connected socially. However, based on the available research on Black and White Veterans with service-connected disabilities, consistently reported worse employment outcomes when compared to White Veterans; assuming everything else was equal. Black Veterans reported they were not receiving equal or adequate access to support services to effectively prepare them for today's job market. They purported they could not locate jobs in their communities and jobs that were available did not meet their interest, abilities (based on their disability status), talents, education, or skills. Black Veterans reported few satisfying job opportunities, fewer job accommodations, less relative income, salaries and other benefits compared to White Veterans.

Veterans with disabilities face many challenges not shared by their able-bodied peers. Consequently, unemployment among Veterans with service-connected disabilities is everyone's problem, which can be reduced. According to the US Census Bureau Veteran Facts and Statistics, October 2009 Report more Veterans with disabilities will enter the labor market and will require accommodations than previous generations. Veterans are returning home younger, with "signature injuries"<sup>41</sup> and they are rehabilitated better, and they have the ability to return to the labor market for a greater portion of their lives (Tanielian & Jaycox 2008; Church, 2009).

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<sup>41</sup> Signature Injuries: PTSD, spinal cord injuries, TBI (Traumatic Brain Injury)

Inequality relative to Black and White Veterans span beyond employment into other segments of the Veteran's lives. For instance, Black Veterans also received lower disability ratings from 0% to 100%, which means that they received lower monetary compensations for their injuries and illnesses as their injuries and illnesses were deemed less serious. The Veterans' disability rating ultimately determines access to some medical and mental health and might potentially determines some vocational educational training services.

### **Early-on Access to Community-based and Social Services**

Black Veterans have historically served in every military event since the development of the United States of America. They deserve to have better; they are also entitled to programs and services to address their disabilities, be it mental or physical health the like. Cartwright and Kim (2006) suggested that government and VA policies and procedures could improve the service delivery process for all Veterans. The early introduction of Veterans with disabilities to alternative, relevant, and emerging job fields would improve employment for them when they return to civilian life. For example, more funding for early-on projects targeting Black and urban communities would introduce minority Servicemembers and other underserved Veterans early-on to various field of employment options, provide them with early options to training programs and then introduce them early-on to high skilled or high tech jobs with transferable and marketable skills. Cartwright & Kim (2006) and Gilbride, (2006), reported that early access to training programs bolster services and where Black Veterans with disabilities benefitted so does other individuals with disabilities whom would then receive the same or equal employment experiences as White Veterans with disabilities.

Additionally, early-on outreach to transitioning Veterans, minority Veterans or Veterans in the hardest to reach populations may be an effective instrument to connect Veterans and

workers in alternative venues that might otherwise be disregarded. Outreach programs are created to be more community-based to meet Veterans and other individuals where they are, with fewer constraints. Such outreach programs could ideally connect workers and Veterans in alternative settings, then these outreach programs could also mean that the community-based worker could have a broader geographic reach or personal connection with Veterans than most traditional programs with organizational constraints would have.

Funding is needed for services and programs for the “hardest hit” Veterans’ communities affected by the recent economic downturn or recession of 2007. In these communities, there was stated to be a sparse labor market to choose from. Alternatively, where there were labor markets they existed primarily within the lower level wage tiers. These programs in urban and inner city communities were stretched beyond their means. They could not single handedly impact the lives of the “hardest hit,” those Veterans with serious mental health issues, substance abuse issues, and homelessness. More funding directed to these community-based programs could have a greater reach than the VA services might have while offsetting services that are available during typical 9 to 5 clinical environments.

### **More Employers Accountability and Jobs in Urban Communities**

This dissertation suggested that there were simply too few jobs in the urban and African American communities and multiple factors, which limited access to employers to address the employment needs of Black Veterans from one viewpoint. In addition to early-on transitional programs and outreach, more public and private employer Veterans interactions and accountability could improve overall employment outcomes. What Black Veterans reported about joblessness and poor work outcomes were the same as stated by the US Census Employment and Veterans’ Situation report. They reported that training and overcoming limited

skills acquisition remained problematic particularly for Black Veterans with disabilities. According to the 2011 US Census, the general Veterans' unemployment was almost 13.0%; however, the Black Veterans' unemployment rate was over 18.2%. Although the today's Veterans' unemployment rate has dropped, it remains as high as 25% for marginalized segments of the Veterans' communities which includes young and minority Veterans, those Veterans with severe mental health, women and homeless Veterans.

Access to quality jobs where Black Veterans could access them is problematic. Poor transportation in the urban communities hinders work for Black Veterans as well. There are simply too many separations of jobs match, skills match to Black Veterans in urban communities to make a difference. Additionally, Black Veterans traditionally lack the connections to organizational personnel to systematically help them access information on how to improve their outlook to enter quality career-based jobs in the labor market (Neckerman and Kirschenman, 1991). In other words, even if Black Veterans knew where to go for employment they might not know whom to access for information, interviews and job offers. Wachter (1974), suggested that White and Black Veterans with disabilities navigate the labor market differently which is an effect of the dual labor market. Black and White Veterans are compartmentalized into labor market sectors comprised of high-wages, low-wages on sectors where they might become stuck between good and bad jobs or confined to jobs with patterns of instability. Consequently, employers must be held accountable to help. Having frequent and accessible informational career fairs would help Black Veterans learn to navigate to other sectors of the job markets. Employers can also offer meaningful job-shadow opportunities, internships, and mentoring to young Veterans to help interest them in alternative employment while strengthening their true connection with other labor sectors and labor markets.

### **Incentives for Employers Willing to Help**

Government incentive programs, tax breaks, and business loans are essential and could be used to incentivize private and public employers to hire more Veterans and more Black Veterans. Additionally, pressure (like reduce tax incentives and access to business loans) on these public and private sectors businesses to employ more Veterans specifically Black/minority Veterans and Veterans with disabilities would level the field for Veterans facing the greatest barriers to employment. More funding that offers social and wrap around community-based services to Veterans will be useful in establishing services to help Veterans with disabilities as well.

President Obama (2011) initiated programs i.e. “Vow to Hire” Heroes Act of 2011 and the Veterans Retraining Assistance Program (VRAP) unemployed or underemployed Veterans. These programs charge the VA, DOL, and DOD with improving educational and other benefits for Veterans to help provide them with transitional skills and career development (VA, 2014). However, Veterans must meet specific criteria such as age (35 but no more than 60 years old), discharge status, among other conditions. Funding criteria are needed for these programs to address the needs of Veterans younger than 35 or older than 61 years old. Both programs exclude Veterans outside of the catchment of the mainstream labor market due date of application, dishonorable discharge statuses, eligible for other benefits, disabilities or Veterans with unemployability statuses, or those who makes up a significant number of Veterans seeking employment but unable to access services. Therefore, to improve the above-mentioned programs greater criterion flexibility should be considered.

### **Future Research**

In line with the above implications, regarding what informs us about racial differences among Black and White Veterans with service-connected disabilities, and explains employment

experiences of Veterans with disabilities, it is critical to research how physical, mental, social, and economic dynamics are related to the Veterans' job seeking communities. To that end, Veterans report that they do not feel counselors and professionals relate to their specific disabilities, social, employment, military histories, and barriers (Moore et al., 2011). To address the challenges of these Veterans workers must be open-minded, understanding, empathic, and respectful. Therefore, more institutes of higher learning, which trains professionals to specifically work on diverse issues facing Veterans, would ultimately improve Veterans' training, education and employment outcomes. Professionals could then impart their knowledge of how to work with Veterans to the hiring public and private employment communities. Thus, with a better knowledge and understanding of how race influences the experiences of Black and White Veterans with disabilities, social and vocational agencies can improve training while at the same time employers can implement improved job accommodations for Black Veterans with disabilities.

Research on the historical context of African American Veterans to contemporary issues was not plentiful, particularly when discussing the needs of Veterans with disabilities. Thus, additional research should continue to address the needs of this unique Veterans' community. Women, homeless Veterans, individuals with mental health needs and other minorities all have unique social-economic and labor market needs. Additional research should focus on how socio-demographic variables such as age, gender, education, and geography influence racial disparities or widens the employment gaps of Veterans in unique categories other than White Veterans with disabilities. This research represents on-going contributions to the body of knowledge regarding the experiences of Veterans in the United States, and it represents how race has influenced their paths to employment. Ideally, this research will be used collectively with other research to

explore variables related to Veterans' employment experiences. Finally, this research study is applicable to Veterans with service-connected disabilities, Black Veterans, African Americans on a whole seeking employment, but it is not nearly enough.

## APPENDIX A

## TABLES OF VARIABLES

**Table: 7.1 RACIAL VARIABLES CODEBOOK**

Racial variables category	CODES
Racial variable	S12Q02
Black	S12Q02_2
White	S12Q02_1

**Table: 8.1: EMPLOYMENT EXPERIENCE VARIABLES CODEBOOK**

The following questions were asked to determine overall job (dis)/satisfaction	S2Q06	How satisfied or dissatisfied were you with that job?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Satisfied</li> <li>• Very satisfied</li> <li>• Somewhat satisfied</li> <li>• Very dissatisfied</li> <li>• Refused</li> </ul>
The following question was asked to determine transitional skills or if military skills match current (civilian) skills	S6Q15A	Is your job in line with your military or civilian experience?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Job matched</li> <li>• Job don't match</li> </ul>
The following questions were asked to determine employment status looking or not looking	S6Q03	What kind of work do you currently do?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Currently employed and not looking</li> <li>• Currently employed and looking</li> <li>• Not working but looking</li> <li>• Not working and not looking</li> <li>• Refused or</li> <li>• Don't know</li> </ul>
The following question were asked to determine job accommodation disability	S6Q14	Does your current job/Now thinking again about your current job, does this job currently accommodate your disability?	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• No accommodations</li> <li>• Yes accommodations</li> </ul>



**Table 9.1:** *VERS Codebook and Selection of Variables Used in the Study*

<b>Additional satisfaction variables category</b>	<b>CODES</b>
How important or unimportant was the VR&E program in helping prepare you to get a suitable job?	S7Q02
Have you ever felt as though you were discriminated against in the VR&E program because of your gender?	S7Q03_1
Have you ever felt as though you were discriminated against in the VR&E program because of your race?	S7Q03_2
Have you ever felt as though you were discriminated against in the VR&E program because of your age?	S7Q03_3
Have you ever felt as though you were discriminated against in the VR&E program because of your ethnicity?	S7Q03_4
Have you ever felt as though you were discriminated against in the VR&E program because of a mental health condition?	S7Q03_5
Have you ever felt as though you were discriminated against in the VR&E program because of a physical disability?	S7Q03_6
Overall, how satisfied or dissatisfied are you with the responsiveness of your primary counselor, the person you spent the most time with?	S7Q18
At the time, you and your counselor determined your educational or vocational goals, how satisfied or dissatisfied were you with the goals you and your counselor selected?	S4Q02
How satisfied or dissatisfied were you with the number of occupational choices that were offered to you during the development of your plan?	S4Q04
Overall, how satisfied or dissatisfied are you with the VR&E program?	S7Q01

**Table 10.1:** *Veterans by Disability Level*

<b>DISABILITY LEVEL</b>	<b>FREQUENCY</b>	<b>VALID PERCENTAGE %</b>	<b>CUMULATIVE PERCENTAGE %</b>
<b>0</b>	2	0	0
<b>10</b>	271	5.4	5.8
<b>20</b>	723	14.4	21.2
<b>30</b>	842	16.7	39.0
<b>40</b>	798	15.9	56.0
<b>50</b>	565	11.2	68.0
<b>60</b>	516	10.3	79.0
<b>70</b>	382	7.06	87.1
<b>80</b>	216	4.3	91.7
<b>90</b>	120	2.04	94.2
<b>100</b>	272	5.04	100
<b>Total</b>	4707	93.6	
<b>Missing</b>	324		
<b>N=31</b>			

**APPENDIX B**

Waiver from IRB Committee

-----Original Message-----

From: Jo Anna Risk <jrisk>

To: smurphyel <smurphyel>

Sent: Mon, Oct 15, 2012 10:50 am

Subject: Re: Question re: IRB Waiver

Sharon, per the information that you provided on the study cited in this e-mail stream, this would not be considered human subject research and therefore, would not require prior IRB review and approval. Thank you for your call. If I can be of further assistance, please do not hesitate to call.  
Jo Anna

Jo Anna Risk RN, MPH, CIP  
IRB Education Coordinator  
IRB Administration Office  
Wayne State University  
87 E. Canfield  
Detroit, MI 48201  
313-577-XXX  
[www.irb.wayne.edu](http://www.irb.wayne.edu)

The next IRB training is scheduled for Friday October 12,2012 from 1:30 PM until 3:00PM in the Conference Room at the IRB Administration Office. The focus of the training will be on defining unexpected problems, knowing when and how to report them to the IRB, and the possible actions taken by the IRB regarding these events. Please call Jo Anna Risk at 577-xxxx to register for the training or log onto [events.wayne.edu](http://events.wayne.edu) and RSVP for this training session on that site. It is very important for us to know the estimated attendance in advance because of limited space.

---

**From:** [smurphyel@](mailto:smurphyel@)  
**To:** [jrisk@edu](mailto:jrisk@edu), [smurphyel@](mailto:smurphyel@)  
**Sent:** Sunday, October 14, 2012 9:38:40 PM  
**Subject:** Question re: IRB Waiver

Hello Ms. Risk,

I am a graduate student in the Sociology program. Dr. Khari Brown is my advisor. I have been working on my proposal on the employment status of veterans with disabilities. I am using **only secondary data** obtained from [www.data.gov](http://www.data.gov); 2007 Veterans Employability Research Survey (VERS). I have attached my abstract and the location of my public data for your review. I work for the Department of Veterans Affairs therefore; I am restricted through that agency from having direct contact with veterans. I am collecting **no** first-hand data for this study. Please advise regarding the need to complete a written formal waiver request. Thank you in advance.

**APPENDIX C**

-----Original Message-----

From: smurphyel <smurphyel@>  
 To: DDDP-Sup <DDDP-Sup@bls.gov>; xxxx <xxxx@wayne.edu>  
 Sent: Wed, Jan 1, 2014 11:33 am  
 Subject: Permission to use chart in dissertation

U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics  
 Division of Labor Force Statistics  
 Suite 4675  
 2 Massachusetts Avenue, NE  
 Washington, DC 20212-0001

Dear Mr. Honer,

I am a Ph.D. Candidate at Wayne State University, in Detroit, Michigan. I am completing my dissertation on the employment experiences of Black and White Veterans, specifically with service-connected disabilities. I would like to use a chart from the US Bureau of Labor Statistic for the development of this chart. Please let me know if additional permission is required to use this chart.

Respectfully,  
 Sharon Murphy, MA CRC LPC  
 PhD Candidate in Sociology  
[smurphyel@netscape.net](mailto:smurphyel@netscape.net)

-----Original Message-----

From: Data.Gov [<mailto:no-reply@explore.data.gov>]  
 Sent: Friday, September 02, 2011 1:07 PM  
 To: Murphy, Sharon, VBADTRT  
 Subject: Welcome to Data.Gov

Thank you for joining the Data.Gov community and getting involved!  
 Participate in the movement to improve government transparency with citizens, by viewing interesting datasets, commenting and reviewing data, and sharing data across the web.

You can always login here: <https://explore.data.gov/login>

If you ever forget your password, you can reset it here:

[https://explore.data.gov/forgot\\_password](https://explore.data.gov/forgot_password)

Thank you,

Data.Gov

<https://explore.data.gov>

[no-reply@explore.data.gov](mailto:no-reply@explore.data.gov)

To unsubscribe from further emails, click here:

<https://explore.data.gov/users/bzh9-cd9t?method=unsubscribe&nonce=1fa2e89a691e039f519cceb5359a9ff24b3e410be83b64df1e3e6e746e41c03>

## APPENDIX D

**From:** Fox, P  
**Sent:** Monday, September 12, 2011 11:23 AM  
**To:** Murphy, Sharon, VBADTRT  
**Subject:** RE: Student collecting data on veterans with spinal cord injury. Questions about protocol and access to existing public data.

Hi Sharon,

If you are collecting unidentified data from a public source, you do not require VA approval.

There is no database (that I am aware of) for SCI information.

As a VA employee, you may submit a protocol, through the Research Office (R&D Committee and WSU IRB) to obtain VA patient data. This is a detailed process. I would suggest you make an appointment to meet with me and my staff if you wish to pursue this course of action.

Patricia

---

**From:** Murphy, Sharon, VBADTRT  
**Sent:** Monday, September 12, 2011 9:13 AM  
**To:** Fox,  
**Subject:** Student collecting data on veterans with spinal cord injury. Questions about protocol and access to existing public data.  
**Importance:** High

Hello Ms. Fox,

I appreciated your time this morning . As I mentioned I am a doctoral student at Wayne State University in Detroit and I am conducting research on employment outcomes of people with disabilities. I am pursuing my degree from the Sociology Department.

***I am writing for two reasons:***

1. first to ensure that there is ***no conflict of interest*** associated with my research or ***no specific protocol*** (according to the Veterans Health Administration Research Development Office) that I must follow because I am associated with the VA.

2. second to find out if there is:

- a known database on veterans with SCI available to the public,
- 1 a known individual conducting research on employment of veterans w/SCI
- 2 a known current survey (available to the public) on veterans with spinal cord injury and employment outcomes which I could have access to.

I am specifically interested in veterans with spinal cord injury who return to work. In addition, I am interested in the *veteran's SCI population* data to use at a later time, when studying employment outcomes of the general population of individuals with SCI.

I have reviewed many of the National Databases like (CPS/Census/APS, etc). however these databases do not collect the specific information that I am seeking. Therefore, I have access the *public data* which is located at [www.data.va.gov](http://www.data.va.gov), on veteran's employability outcomes (2007 Veteran's Employability Survey). However, there is not much usable data or information about veterans with spinal cord injury.

I am in the Dissertation Proposal Writing Phase and at this time I am only concerned with the following demographical information (no privacy information is needed):

**Age of employed veteran with SCI**

**Race/Gender of veteran with SCI**

**Education of veteran with SCI**

**Military rank/unit or training of veteran with SCI**

**Current Employment Status**

As I mentioned before, I work for the Veterans Administration in Detroit as a Vocational Rehabilitation Counselor . Because I work for the VA I am not interested in using in any first hand data. Therefore, I will not be calling veterans directly nor will I be reviewing any first-hand medical records or files. I am basically conducting an n analysis of secondary data on veteran's employment outcomes.

Thank you for your assistance as your agency has been referred to on multiple occasions. Any information would be helpful.

Sharon Murphy, MA, CRC LPC

Doctoral Candidate Department of Sociology  
Vocational Counselor / Independent Living Specialist

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**ABSTRACT****EMPLOYMENT EXPERIENCES OF BLACK AND WHITE VETERANS WITH SERVICE-CONNECTED DISABILITIES**

by

**SHARON YVONNE MURPHY**

May 2014

**Advisor:** Dr. Khari Brown**Major:** Sociology**Degree:** Doctor of Philosophy

The study examined the association between race and employment experiences among Veterans with disability to determine if employment experience differed for White and Black Veterans in the labor market. The research revealed typical characteristics of employment experiences, which suggest that work is completed at multiple levels, based on multiple factors and it is shaped by maintenance of historical discrimination and challenges, demographic and socioeconomic factors often beyond the control of the minority Veteran. For instance, this research found that historically Black Veterans with disabilities reported different employment experiences in the labor market. They reported that they received limited healthcare, have higher rates PTSD (Post Traumatic Stress Disorder) diagnoses, experienced higher poverty, illness and injuries, which affected their civilian labor market participation (Kuzy, 2004). These Black Veterans with disabilities reported lower employment when compared to their non-Black counterparts. Data from the 2007 Veterans Employability Research Survey (VERS) assessed the experiences of Black Veterans with disabilities compared to the employment experiences of non-Black Veterans with service-connected disabilities to understand their employment experiences. Finally, using the segmentation market theories to explain the different experiences of White and

Black Veterans with service-connected disabilities in the labor market this study determined that many veterans with service-connected disabilities, primarily minority and African American Veterans traditionally have employment experiences within the lower-tiers of the labor market. Despite social demographics patterns, educational history and military rank, branch and time in the service, which might have exposed Black Veterans to training and opportunities, race continued to influence the overall employment experiences of Black Veterans with service-connected disabilities when compared to White Veterans with service-connected disabilities.

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### EDUCATION:

WAYNE STATE UNIVERSITY PhD Major: SOCIOLOGY  
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