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Comparison of Army Veterans' and Nonveterans' Individual Work Performance

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Abstract

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MBA, Florida Institute of Technology, 2010

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Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

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Abstract

Business managers lack knowledge and understanding of the transferability of Army veterans' individual work performance (IWP) in the private sector, which results in organizations' failure to hire Army veterans who possess strong IWPs. The purpose of this nonexperimental, cross-sectional study was to compare Army veterans' and nonveterans' transferable IWP as defined by task performance (TP), contextual performance (CP), and counter-productive work behavior (CWB). The IWP framework provided the theoretical foundation for this study. The research question examined how veterans' IWPs compared to those of nonveterans. The sample frame included U.S. Army civilian veterans and nonveterans at a large military installation in the United States. Data were collected from the IWP questionnaire with 210 participants (105 veterans and 105 nonveterans). Independent-sample *t* tests were used to analyze the data based on an alpha of 0.05 and a medium effect size of 0.50. Rejection of null hypotheses provided evidence to indicate differences between veterans' and nonveterans' TP, CP, CWB, and the composite index of IWP. Veterans measured higher compared to nonveterans for all hypotheses tested. The results of the study have several implications for positive social change. Business managers, veterans, and society benefit by improving understanding of veterans' transferable IWPs. Results of this study could lead to an improvement in perceptions of veterans as possessing positive and sought-after work attributes and with a competitive advantage in the workplace, leading to lower unemployment of veterans and higher productivity of companies that hire veterans.

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Dedication

To my lord, Jesus Christ, thank you for your strength, mercy, and grace.

To my husband, John, thank you for your love, support, encouragement, and sacrifices over the years. Your steadfast understanding of all the work required for me to accomplish this dream was humbling. Most of all thank you for your love and perspective on education. You helped shape my insatiable need for knowledge.

To my kids, Mikeal, Dalton, and Elizabeth, you are the joys of my life. Watching you grow into loving, caring, strong, and ethical individuals is a blessing. I am very proud of you, your accomplishments, and to be your mother. You are my greatest gifts from God. Thank you for your patience, understanding, and support. To my schnauzer, Aden, your constant presence as my sidekick through days, weeks, months, and years of research and writing was comforting. You are my little scholar and this is your doctorate too!

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Chapter 1: Introduction to the Study

The U.S. Department of Defense (DoD, 2015a) released a report stating that the U.S. Army would be reducing military defense forces by 40,000 active duty service members between the fiscal years of 2016 and 2019. That reduction did not account for job cuts in other defense services or the approximately 160,000 military personnel discharged from the defense services annually (Weiss, 2016). The result was that there would be nearly 200,000 newly released veterans in 2019, and some research suggested the annual drawdowns would be closer to 490,000 (Faurer, Rogers-Brodersen, & Bailie, 2014). Many of these transitioning veterans would be entering the civilian workforce and finding themselves at a disadvantage in the private sector (Julian & Valente, 2015). This disadvantage was the result of the differing perspectives of private sector employers regarding veterans in comparison to their nonveteran equivalents (Hall, Buckler, Stewart, & Fisher, 2014).

To understand the disparity between veterans and nonveterans, I focused on the individual work performance (IWP) of Army veterans compared to nonveterans. IWP included three dimensions: task performance (TP), contextual performance (CP), and counterproductive work behavior (CWB). Knowledge acquired through self-reported surveys from veterans and nonveterans on their IWPs facilitated a better understanding of veterans as performers in the workplace in contrast to nonveterans. Findings may be used to increase knowledge among private industry managers regarding the similarities and differences of Army veterans' and nonveterans' IWPs based on three dimensions: TP, CP, and CWB. Knowledge enables a better understanding among stakeholders and can

effect positive change where career transition challenges exist (Brown & Lent, 2013), which could reduce private sector employers' misperceptions of veterans and add to the management literature.

In Chapter 1, I introduce the literature related to the real-world problem: private sector misperceptions of veterans. I explain the gap in the scholarly research that led to the research problem and purpose of my study. A brief overview of the theoretical framework is articulated, and I describe the nature of the research, definitions of terms, assumptions, scope and delimitations, and limitations of the study design.

Background of the Study

Reports released by the U.S. Department of Labor's Bureau of Labor Statistics (BLS, 2017) indicated that nonactive duty military service members (i.e., veterans who are not retirees) account for 9% of the U.S. population, which is 20.9 million. On average, approximately 160,000 military veterans transition back to the private sector workplace each year (Weiss, 2016). One of the significant problems veterans encounter is misperceptions due to a lack of understanding and knowledge from private-sector employers (Hall et al., 2014). Stone and Stone (2015) argued that many veterans are victimized unfairly by biases about drug, alcohol, and mental problems as well as other prejudices. The Center for a New American Security (CNAS; Harrell & Berglass, 2012) reported that 60% of businesses proclaimed the major barriers to hiring veterans were skill transfer and negative perceptions.

In their report for the RAND Corporation, Hall et al. (2014) documented RAND's 2011 plan to work with industry to hire 100,000 veterans by 2020. The project was

revised in 2014 to 200,000 when the initial 11 companies that cofounded the initiative grew to over 175 companies (Hall et al., 2014). In 2014, RAND interviewed a sample of representatives from 26 of the partnered businesses to understand industry perspective on veterans and improve job opportunities for veterans. RAND reported that companies desired veterans because they are flexible, able to work at a fast pace, adaptable, dependable, loyal, and culturally diverse, and they have high work ethics and integrity. RAND reported that in addition to the qualities that make veterans desirable hires, interviewed companies also expressed concerns and challenges with hiring veterans. Concerns associated with veterans centered on failure to perform to required job standards due to not acclimating to private sector culture. The problems most cited by companies were translating skills, educating managers, education and experience, branding, and noise in the employment space due to veterans (Hall et al., 2014). RAND concluded that managers do not understand veterans and are not aware of the education, knowledge, and experience of service members, or how they fit in their organization (Hall et al., 2014).

Chrisholm (2017) conducted extensive interviews with 10 managers from industry to understand whether managers accounted for service affiliation when making hiring decisions related to veterans. The interviewed managers had multiple years of leadership experience from different organizations, participated in numerous hiring boards, and had experience working with or managing veterans (Chrisholm, 2017). Based on information from these interviews, Chrisholm found that managers associate individual military services with different qualities. Managers perceive Navy and Air

Force members as having more technical skills, they perceive the Army and Marine Corps members as having more leadership skills, and they perceive Coast Guard members as having more law enforcement than military service (Chrisholm, 2017). Chrisholm concluded that although managers associate veterans with many positive attributes, perceptions related to military culture affect managers' decisions when hiring due to performance expectations primarily related to potential behaviors of veterans as employees.

The research depicting veterans as assets to private companies is vast, as is the lack of military understanding by private sector managers. Although many employers articulated that they do not understand how military veterans fit in the civilian sector workforce, those with veteran employees acknowledged the diverse knowledge, skills, value, and work ethic veterans bring to the workplace (Harrell & Berglass, 2012; Stone & Stone, 2015). Delbourg-Delphis (2014) explained that private industries lack knowledge of the military culture. The entertainment industry and news media tend to cast negative views of veterans (Kleykamp & Hipes, 2015) and depict veterans as battle-scarred warfighters with no regard for rules or regulations (Clevenger, 2014). According to Stone and Stone (2015), employers need to understand better the value of hiring military veterans. Employers' increased understanding of military veterans will facilitate organizations' ability to place veterans in positions where their talents and skills benefit both employer and employee (Stone & Stone, 2015).

Weiss (2016) argued that research is needed to change perceptions and social norms that come from stereotypes and bias based on misperceptions of veterans. There is

existing literature on veterans (Hall & Batka, 2015; Harrell & Berglass, 2012; Weiss, 2016), literature on perspectives of employers (Chisholm, 2017; Hall et al., 2014; Harrell & Berglass, 2012; Ozlen, 2014; Stone & Stone, 2015), and literature on military culture (Jacob, 2014; Redmond et al., 2014; Yellin, 2012). However, at the time of current study, there was a lack of research addressing U.S. Army veterans' and nonveterans' IWPs. Some researchers examining U.S. Army veterans in the civilian sector suggested hiring veterans can be an advantage to organizations (Haynie, 2012). In contrast, many companies reported that they do not understand how veterans fit in their businesses (Hall et al., 2014). The knowledge gap and misperceptions of veterans indicated that further research was needed for private sector employers to understand veterans. This study was conducted to compare the IWPs of U.S. Army veterans and nonveterans, which may close the gap in the literature and improve hiring managers' understanding and knowledge of U.S. Army veterans' IWP.

Problem Statement

Research has shown that military veterans possess "enhanced performance and organizational advantage in the context of a competitive and dynamic business environment" (Haynie, 2012, p. 1). However, Hall et al. (2014) found that 50% of the managers surveyed did not understand the transferability of skills, education, and experience of military service members; and asserted that educating managers could improve their understanding. A review of the literature revealed a lack of empirical studies addressing transferable IWP gained from military experience. The general management problem was that Army veterans encounter misperceptions from private

sector managers. The specific problem was a lack of knowledge and understanding on the part of managers regarding Army veterans' IWP transferability to the private sector, which results in organizations' failure to hire Army veterans who possess strong IWPs.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose for this nonexperimental, quantitative, cross-sectional study was to determine whether there were differences between Army veterans' transferable IWPs (TP, CP, and CWB) and those of nonveterans. Self-reporting surveys were used to collect the data and analyze the relationship between the independent variable (veteran status) and the dependent variables (measures of IWP). The objective was to use the findings to address the gap in the scholarly research.

The four dependent variables were the three dimensions (TP, CP, and CWB) of IWP and an aggregate index of IWP composed of all three dimensions. CWB is an adverse attribute in contrast to the other two IWP components (TP and CP). According to Koopmans, Bernaards, Hildebrandt, de Vet, and van der Beek (2014), in the survey "the CWB items 1 to 10 were coded reversely (0 as 4, 1 as 3, 2 as 2, 3 as 1, 4 as 0) so that a low score meant low performance and a high score meant high work performance" (p. 92). Therefore, when all three dimensions are combined into an aggregate index, they have the same direction.

The independent variable was veteran status: Army veterans and nonveterans. Assessing Army veterans' and nonveterans' IWP differences may provide managers with more knowledge and a better understanding of veterans' transferable IWP. The sample

frame for this study included U.S. Army veterans and Department of the Army civilian nonveterans in the workplace at the military installation.

Research Question and Hypotheses

The research question (RQ) and hypotheses that guided this study were as follows:

RQ: What are the differences between U.S. Army veterans' IWPs (TP, CP, CWB, and aggregate/composite index) and those of nonveterans?

H_o1: Veterans have a mean TP equal to nonveterans.

H_a1: Veterans have a mean TP not equal to nonveterans.

H_o2: Veterans have a mean CP equal to nonveterans.

H_a2: Veterans have a mean CP not equal to nonveterans.

H_o3: Veterans have a mean CWB equal to nonveterans.

H_a3: Veterans have a mean CWB not equal to nonveterans.

H_o4: Veterans have a mean aggregate IWP equal to nonveterans.

H_a4: Veterans have a mean aggregate IWP not equal to nonveterans.

Theoretical Foundation

Koopmans et al.'s (2011) IWP framework and its three dimensions (TP, CP, and CWB) provided the theoretical foundation for this study. Campbell's (1990) definition of IWP was adopted in establishing the theoretical framework of Koopmans et al.'s (2013a) IWP. Campbell defined IWP as the actions and behaviors of an employee that align with the goals valued by the organization.

Three important theoretical propositions accompany IWP. The first proposition is that work performance is behavior, not the results of behaviors (Koopmans et al., 2011). The second proposition is that work performance behaviors include only acts relevant to the goals of the organization (Koopmans et al., 2011). The last proposition is that work performance is multidimensional (Campbell, 1990). TP encompasses the actions of employees. The dimension of CP includes the positive behaviors that are important to the social and psychological well-being of the organization (Koopmans et al., 2011). Conversely, the dimension of CWB is the behaviors that are harmful to the work environment and organization (Koopmans et al., 2011). In Chapter 2 I provide further detail of Koopmans et al.'s (2011) IWP theoretical framework.

Nature of the Study

A nonexperimental, quantitative, cross-sectional research design was used to conduct this research. A nonexperimental approach aligned with participants not being manipulated or controlled. I did not manipulate the variables, as the events measured existed because of prior experiences (see Frankfort-Nachmias, Nachmias, & Dewaard, 2015). A quantitative, cross-sectional design was used to facilitate research from participants in their natural environment, at a single point in time. The cross-sectional design allowed for a probability sample, which increased external validity and allowed the findings to be generalized to the population.

Social science survey researchers frequently use cross-sectional research designs (Frankfort-Nachmias et al., 2015). Surveys enable the researcher to assess attitudes, behaviors, and other internal characteristics of the population (Fowler, 2014; Frankfort-

Nachmias et al., 2015). Koopmans et al.'s (2015) validated survey was used to collect data from Army veterans' and nonveterans' self-reported perceptions. The survey included a Likert-scale design and 18 closed-ended questions divided into three different scales based on the three dimensions of IWP. The three scales were TP, CP, and CWB. SurveyMonkey was used to enable participants to access the surveys.

The nonexperimental, quantitative, cross-sectional survey design enabled me to collect data anonymously and allowed participants to reflect on survey questions in their environment without manipulation. Koopmans et al.'s (2011) IWP theory centers on indicators from individuals based on reflections of their work performance and not on causal relationships or predictions. Using the lens of the IWP theoretical framework, I compared veterans' and nonveterans' self-reported actions and behaviors formed through their experiences, training, and education.

The objective of this study was to contribute to the scholarly management literature by comparing the IWPs of veterans and nonveterans. Koopmans et al.'s (2011) IWP theoretical framework was the first IWP theory that was generalizable to all job classes and occupations. Therefore, it was the best choice for this research as Army veterans and nonveterans both have multiple job classes and professions within their groups. The research problem was that managers do not understand Army veterans fit in the private sector. This research was conducted to determine whether and to what extent Army veterans' IWPs differed from nonveterans'. Self-reported survey data were downloaded from SurveyMonkey to the IBM's Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) version 25, and a *t* test of means for two independent populations was

conducted to test the four hypotheses. Chapter 3 provides further explanation of the variables.

Definitions

Terms used in this study were defined as follows:

Contextual performance: "Behaviors that support the organizational, social and psychological environment in which the technical core must function" (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993, p. 73).

Counterproductive work behavior (CWB): "Behavior that harms the well-being of the organization" (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002, p. 69).

Enlisted soldier: Uniformed service member with employment grade of private (lowest enlisted position) to sergeant major of the U.S. Army (highest enlisted position) (DOL, 2015).

Individual work performance (IWP): "Behaviors or actions that are relevant to the goals of the organization" (Campbell, 1990, p. 704).

Military officer: Uniformed service members with employment grades from second lieutenant (lowest military officer position) to general (highest military officer position) (U.S. Department of Labor [DOL], 2015).

Nonveterans: Individuals who have never served in the U.S. Armed Forces (BLS, 2017).

Task performance: "The proficiency with which individuals perform the core substantive or technical tasks central to his or her job" (Campbell, 1990, p. 708).

Veteran: Under federal law, a person who has served honorably on active duty in the Armed Forces of the United States (BLS, 2017).

Assumptions

Two assumptions were relevant to this study. First, I assumed the survey instrument would produce accurate data. Koopmans et al. (2014) conducted a pilot test of the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ) survey instrument that resulted in good face validity and clear, understandable questions. Second, I assumed the participants would answer the survey themselves and do so honestly. To mitigate potential limitations resulting from this assumption, I ensured that participation would be voluntary and anonymous and that there would be no consequences to participants if they chose to withdraw from the study (see Simon & Goes, 2013).

Scope and Delimitations

Delimitations are inclusionary and exclusionary choices made by the researcher in defining the boundaries and scope of the study (Simon & Goes, 2013). This nonexperimental, quantitative, cross-sectional study included anonymous web-based electronic surveys to collect data from the U.S. Army veterans and nonveterans employed by the Department of the Army. I included veterans of the U.S. Army and nonveterans in their workplace at Large military site. Participants were required to be employed full-time, have a valid common access card to access the Government server, and receive and send e-mail via the Large military site garrison e-mail server. I excluded part-time workers and government workers who did not work in the Large military site installation.

Results are generalizable to the population of U.S. Army veterans and nonveterans employed at Large military site, NC.

Limitations

Limitations are aspects of the study that are not controllable and affect a study's internal validity (Simon & Goes, 2013). There were two limitations concerning this study. The first limitation was that the assessment tool, a self-reporting survey, relied on the participant's recollection. To reduce the recall time of participants, designers of the IWPQ survey instrument included questions that specified a recollection time of 3 months. The second limitation was that the assessment tool was a self-reporting tool and respondents could have self-reported inaccurately. To mitigate this limitation, I conducted an anonymous survey.

Significance of the Study

The original contribution of the research to the existing literature was the knowledge gained from self-reported Army veterans and nonveterans regarding their IWPs in the workforce, which may result in efforts to improve the knowledge of those able to hire veterans. My study addressed the lack of empirical research on veterans' IWPs gained from their military service that could transfer to civilian occupations, from the perspective of the Army veteran employee. Employers may become more aware of the IWPs of Army veterans, which could enhance employment placements of veterans. The value that veterans bring to an organization could help companies stay committed to hiring them (Hall & Batka, 2015). Continued research on the differences between veterans and nonveterans will provide practitioners and policymakers with information

that may remove some of the hiring barriers for veterans who have served their country and may improve the process of meeting the needs of veterans (Wilmoth & London, 2016), thereby effecting positive social change.

Significance to Theory

Some researchers (for example, Joullie, 2016) argue that knowledge created outside of a philosophical framework is not possible. The significant contributions of this study were the creation of knowledge through the theoretical lens of Koopmans et al.'s (2011) IWP theory. Through a self-reported survey, I collected and analyzed data to compare Army veterans' IWPs to those of nonveterans. Empirical evidence added to the management literature, and the theory of IWP facilitated data analysis for future studies. The knowledge gained by private sector managers may create new insights in hiring veterans and may open more job opportunities while facilitating positive perceptions of veterans.

Significance to Practice

Veterans transitioning into the civilian industry workplace face multiple challenges from hiring managers. Managers may not recognize the unique skills and attributes that veterans bring from their military experiences (President's Council of Economic Advisers and the National Economic Council, 2012). Change is constant in the business environment, and for companies to grow they must be willing to implement change through education and understanding to develop and progress, or their business will not survive (Alas, Kaarelson, & Rees, 2014). Industries can benefit from the training, knowledge, and unique skill sets of military veterans (Yellin, 2012).

Veterans' exposure to multiple ethnicities, different cultures, and years of training and accumulated experiences creates knowledge that is impossible to replicate (Walker, 2013). The knowledge that veterans gain in various environments and experiences can apply to civilian industries (Yellin, 2012). Situational awareness and understanding on the part of all stakeholders regarding the knowledge that exists within the cultures of Army veterans and nonveterans are important to understanding the unique values these groups contribute to the workplace. Employers' and hiring managers' education on veterans' skills and the valuable mind-sets that they bring will facilitate managers' understanding of a diverse group of employees to be globally competitive (Yellin, 2012).

Significance to Social Change

Positive social change may come from the knowledge managers gain in understanding Army veterans' transferable IWP. This problem is significant to service members, families, veterans, DoD and Department of the Army civilians, industry, and policymakers. According to the U.S. Department of Veteran Affairs (2015), there were 49,933 homeless veterans in the United States in 2014. Education and understanding of Army veterans' IWPs could improve employment rates. Awareness and understanding of veterans' career adaptability could affect all relevant stakeholders' perceptions during career transitions (Brown & Lent, 2013). Proper orientation, education, and training in the workforce can create positive social change and self-growth (Conerly, 2013).

Summary and Transition

In Chapter 1 I introduced a significant issue regarding veterans transitioning into the civilian sector. Managers may not understand the IWPs of Army veterans or their

transferability into the civilian workforce. The purpose of this study was to determine whether and to what extent Army veterans' transferable IWPs (TP, CP, and CWB) differed from those of nonveterans. Positive social change may result from the knowledge gained by private sector managers. The background of the study reflected current literature on veterans and research on the disparity between veterans and the private sector. The problem was that private sector managers do not understand Army veterans' transferable IWPs in comparison to those of nonveterans, even though veterans in the private sector workforce are known as high performers. The purpose of this study was to address the knowledge gap related to veterans by comparing Army veterans' and nonveterans' IWPs. The theoretical foundation for this study was Koopmans et al.'s (2011) IWP, and the nature of the study was a nonexperimental, quantitative, cross-sectional research design. Two assumptions connected to the study related to the survey instrument. The chapter also included delimitations and limitations of the study. In Chapter 2 I explain the research strategy that focused on Koopmans et al.'s (2011) IWP theoretical framework with the three dimensions of TP, CP, and CWB. I also review literature on private sector research, military veterans, and transfer of learning.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

The problem addressed in this study was a lack of knowledge and understanding on the part of managers regarding Army veterans' IWPs. Recent research (Kleykamp, 2013; Prudential Financial, 2012; Stone & Stone, 2015) has demonstrated the lack of understanding and knowledge that hiring managers have of Army veterans. The purpose of this study was to improve managers' understanding of Army veterans' transferable IWPs as measured in the three dimensions of TP, CP, and CWB when compared to those of nonveterans. Employment is a significant issue as the DoD (2015a) draws down the number of personnel in the U.S. Armed Forces. The exhaustive review of relevant literature on three topic areas (private sector research, military veterans, and transfer of learning) revealed a lack of knowledge among managers regarding veterans' transferable IWP.

Literature Search Strategy

Literature pertinent to managers' knowledge and understanding of veterans' IWPs was limited. The databases used included Research Gate, Sage Journal, Emerald Insight, Science Direct, EBSCOhost, ProQuest, and DoD databases. I also used the Google Scholar search engine. I restricted the search for peer-reviewed articles to those published during or after 2013. Key words used in the search for IWP included *IWP*, *IWP transfer of learning*, *transfer of training*, *task performance*, *contextual performance*, and *counterproductive work behavior*. Key words used for search for knowledge and understanding of managers regarding veteran individual work performance included *manager's knowledge of veterans*, *manager's knowledge Army*, *hiring officials*

understanding of veterans, *managers understanding of veterans*, *managers understanding Army*, *factors affecting hiring veterans*, *veterans to nonveterans in the workplace*, *attitudes towards hiring military veterans*, *unemployment of veterans*, *unemployment of nonveterans*, *stereotypes of veterans*, *bias of veterans*, *stigmas associated to veterans*, and *veteran's transferable skills.* Key words used to search for information pertinent to training, skills, and abilities of Army service members were *Army veteran's knowledge* and *training received*. Key words used in the search for transfer of learning were *transfer of learning*, *career transitions*, *military veteran's transfer of training*, *O'NET*, and *civilian transfer of learning/training*.

Theoretical Foundation

Beginning in the late 20th century, researchers became interested in measuring work performance, explicitly dealing with not only productivity but the amount and quality of work produced (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). Several researchers in the fields of management, organizational psychology, and occupational health have presented methods to measure work performance, but due to the specificity to an occupation many are not well known (Campbell, 1990). Koopmans et al. (2011) explained that the field of management is concerned with how to make employees more productive, while the health field is concerned with preventing the loss of productivity.

Creating a generic framework for work performance is challenging for researchers mainly due to the specific and different operational definition of work performance among various occupations (Koopmans et al., 2011). Murphy (1989) and Campbell (1990) were the first to develop dimensions to define a generic IWP. Murphy suggested

four domains for generic IWP: TP, destructive/hazardous behaviors, downtime behaviors, and interpersonal behaviors. Campbell suggested eight domains for IWP: job-specific task proficiency, facilitating peer and team performance, demonstrating effort, non-job-specific task proficiency, management and administration, maintaining personal discipline writing, oral communication, and supervision.

Two extensive reviews conducted on IWP frameworks by Viswesvaran and Ones (2000) and Rotundo and Sackett (2002) indicated that the three dimensions of IWP were TP, organizational citizen behavior, and CWB. Organ's (1988) term of organizational citizenship behavior, which was replaced by Borman and Motowidlo's (1993) CP dimension, is a dimension of Koopmans et al.'s (2011) IWP. Koopmans et al.'s IWP theoretical framework used the dimensions of TP (Campbell et al., 1990), CP (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), and CWB (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002) in defining and developing the first generic IWP theoretical framework to measure IWP across all job classes and occupations.

Two researchers who used Koopmans et al.'s (2011) IWP theoretical framework were Stiles (2014) and Registe (2017). Stiles examined a population of research and development (R&D) workers to understand the relationship between loss of performance and insomnia. A quantitative, cross-sectional study including Koopmans et al.'s (2011) IWP framework and analysis of variance indicated that R&D workers who have insomnia suffer from loss of work performance (Stiles, 2014). Registe examined employees from both nonprofit and for-profit human resource organizations to determine whether differences in work performance existed between the two enterprises. A nonexperimental,

quantitative, survey approach was chosen along with Koopmans et al.'s (2011) IWP framework and multivariate analysis of covariance (Registe, 2017). The results indicated no differences between the nonprofit and for-profit industries concerning IWP.

A theoretical framework was needed to inform and contextualize the stated problem and to guide analysis within my study. To this end, Koopmans et al.'s (2011) IWP was chosen as the theoretical framework to answer the research question. The three IWP dimensions of TP, CP, and CWB provided the theoretical lens for this study. The theoretical framework was created from a systematic literature review to understand the dimensions of IWP and to identify an instrument to measure IWP from all occupations (see Koopmans et al., 2011). Koopmans et al.'s IWP theory centers on indicators from individuals based on reflections of their work performance and not on causal relationships or predictions. Task performance is the measure of work job knowledge, quantity, and skills (Campbell, 1990; Koopmans et al., 2011; Koopmans et al., 2013b; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002).

CP, the behavioral aspect of IWP, includes the behaviors that are essential to the organizational, psychological, and social atmosphere (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Koopmans et al., 2013b). Examples of CP are communication, adaptability, and demonstrating effort in the workplace (Campbell, 1990; Koopmans et al., 2011; Koopmans et al., 2013b; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). The third scale associated with IWP is CWB, which includes behaviors that are not good for the organization or others in the organization (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). These behaviors include absence from work,

unproductive work, and untrustworthy behavior due to theft or other similar negative characteristics (Koopmans et al., 2011; Koopmans et al., 2014).

Literature Review

Private Sector Research Overview

Harrell and Berglass (2012) examined issues surrounding veteran employees by conducting interviews with 87 individual private sector managers from 69 different private sector companies. Forty-three of the companies prioritized hiring veterans. Nine of the companies targeted veterans informally, and 17 companies did not target veteran hires . Several reasons identified for hiring veterans were their leadership skills; they are high performers with character and discipline; they are effective, resilient, and loyal; and they value relations . The private sector managers interviewed also expressed several concerns with hiring veterans, including translating military skills to civilian industry, negative stereotypes associated with military service members, and misalignment between job requirements and experience .

Lin, Ma, Officer, and Zou (2013) reported that CEOs' involvement in organizational acquisitions are higher among CEOs who have prior military experience. Lin et al. suggested that CEOs with a military value system are valuable to businesses. CEOs with a military value system were more likely to complete deals while lowering cost, and their negotiations led to higher and better returns, which made acquisition of stocks attractive to stakeholders (Lin et al., 2013).

Benmelech and Frydman (2015) found that CEOs with prior military experience are beneficial to organizations. Benmelech and Frydman explained that fraud associated

with CEOs was 70% lower for CEOs with military experience and, during economic lows, CEOs with military experience performed better than CEOs with academic business school instruction. Benmelech and Frydman concluded that CEOs with military experience have solid management styles and a strong sense of ethics that was associated with their ability to deal with a crisis and maintain high levels of resiliency.

Ozlen (2014) found that private sector employees working with prior military service members have an enhanced sense of motivation and performance. Ozlen suggested that military employees do well in various positions within organizations, whether as leaders, members, or supporters. Organizations benefit from both the motivation and performance of the employees as well as the experience and knowledge that military employees transfer. Ozlen further suggested that military experience transfers to civilian industries, especially when veterans are supported and motivated by their new organization to share knowledge.

Yellin (2012) found that the military service had a significant impact on veterans and identified 19 essential mind-sets that influence their decisions even after service. These mind-sets from Yellin's study included a leadership mind-set, a disciplined mind-set, a communicative mind-set, a bold mind-set, a systematic mind-set, a die-hard mind-set, a flexible mind-set, an ethical mind-set, a goal-oriented mind-set, a responsible mind-set, a decisive mind-set, a strategic mind-set, a cool-headed mind-set, an analytical mind-set, a focused mind-set, a selfish mind-set, and a loyal mind-set.

Civilian and Military Culture

Redmond et al. (2014) defined culture as a set of ideas, values, and beliefs within a social environment. The military is a much smaller group compared to the U.S. population (Yamada, Atuel, & Weiss, 2013). A fundamental difference in culture is that military service members as defined in the United States are a subset of society (Atuel & De Pedro, 2014; Rausch, 2014; Yamada et al., 2013). The civilian culture is developed and socialized over time in individuals by the parents, teachers, and religious leaders within their communities (London, Wilmoth, & Dutton, 2013).

The military culture has a set of norms that governs the behaviors, values, and ideas of its members (Smith & True, 2014). Military members socialized from that of normalized civilian values, beliefs, and norms to that of the practices valued and taught in military institutions (Herman & Yarwood, 2014; Prosek & Holm, 2014). The military culture is sustained through indoctrination during basic training and practiced throughout a service member's military career (Strom et al., 2012). Many service members have recognized this transformation and come to believe that they are not the same person they were when they initially volunteered (Hicks, Weiss, & Coll, 2017). The cultural differences between the military and civilian sector were a concern for 58% of veterans transitioning into the private sector (Prudential Financial, 2012). King (2012) explained that because the U.S. military has global responsibilities including responding to international security threats, the U.S. military has developed a culture of around-the-clock duty and obligations that sustains and supports its 24/7 operations, causing some

service members difficulty in separating work from personal life. Unlike the military, private sector labor laws restrict work hours to an 8-12 hours per day (Strom et al., 2012).

Weiss (2016) explained numerous differences between military and civilian cultures. First, few written rules in the private sector describe the day-to-day job requirements, which is opposite to the magnitude of rules, guidance, training, and instruction given by the military. Second, if a private company does not produce higher revenues than expenditures over a significant period, the company will likely fail. The taxpayers fund the military, and therefore the military is not dependent on generated revenue to continue operations; instead, mission accomplishment is the focus. Third, the civilian workforce does not have rank and wages that guarantee the equivalent or higher career and wage progression. The military does not guarantee upward mobility but has a process in that direction. The final difference between military and civilian cultures noted is job security. Although the civilian workforce is diverse with multiple talents, employer's repercussions for firing employees is without question. Private hiring managers' preferences for individual employees can influence the hiring process (Wang & Munnighan, 2013). The military, while also encompassing many diverse and talented individuals, cannot fire members with little to no repercussions and personal preferences when hiring people is not an option. There are specific and detailed personnel related regulations, rules, and policies governing personnel actions that the military must follow.

Rausch (2014) noted that military veterans transitioning into the civilian workplace have challenges with the private sector. Many veterans who work in the private sector do not adjust well to the culture of the civilian workforce (Elbogen,

Johnson, Wagner, Newton, & Beckman, 2012; Griffin & Stein, 2015; Harrell & Berglass, 2012; Horton et al., 2013; King, 2012; O'Connor et al., 2013; Prudential, 2012, & Smith, 2014) in large part because they feel out of place and believe that their civilian counterparts and employers do not understand them (Weiss, 2016).

Exposure to many different experiences and situations constructs military veterans' identities (Rech, Bos, Jenkings, Williams, & Woodward, 2015). Kukla, Rattray, and Salyers (2015) reported that veterans question how they fit in the civilian workplace because they prefer clear guidance in workplace structure, camaraderie, and teamwork, which are not readily available in the private workplaces. The U.S. military culture embraces rules, regulations, policy, restrictions (Cole, 2014; Strom et al., 2012) symbols, and collective values (Redmond et al., 2014). Cole (2014) stated the military culture is like seeing a new country for the first time. The military rank structure is hierarchical and is vital as it facilitates understanding of where service members fit into the overall structure (Strom et al., 2012). The divide between ranks also identifies status in a military community. The structural basis of the military personnel system consists of rank, education and time in service.

Rausch (2014) noted that many transitioning military veterans use a technique from the collectivism approach called "cultural shock." In this defense, mechanism veterans become detached from events around them to cope with the impact that the transition process has on them emotionally. Bergman, Burdett, and Greenberg (2014) used the rank structure in explaining the "culture shock" experienced by transitioning veterans. Where rank is highly recognized and respected in the military, it is

misunderstood and holds little importance in the private sector (Bergman et al., 2014). Cole (2014) explained that improved knowledge and understanding of these unique aspects of military culture can facilitate positive regard toward veterans, and can ease the stress of veteran transition into the private sector, which is of importance as the views that emerge from cultural norms are often not readily recognized.

Stereotypes, Stigmas, and Bias

Cultural differences can be difficult for veterans and managers alike (Delbourg-Delphis, 2014). Most hiring managers, in general, have little knowledge of the military, leading to a variety of negative misconceptions, stigmas, stereotyping, and bias (Delbourg-Delphis, 2014), significantly impacting unemployment factors experienced by veterans (Elbogen, Johnson, Wagner, Newton, & Beckman, 2012; Griffin & Stein, 2015; Harrell & Berglass, 2012; Prudential, 2012; Stone & Stone, 2015; Yellin, 2012).

Yellin (2012) noted that many employees believe veterans are unimaginative, inflexible, and do what told. Yellin further stated that these employers hold negative beliefs about veterans. The negative stereotypes and stigmas attached to military veterans come from a lack of understanding veterans or the military (Delbourg-Delphis, 2014; Harrell & Berglass, 2012; Prudential, 2012; Stone & Stone, 2015; Yellin, 2012).

Cole (2014), Delbourg-Delphis (2014), and Wilmoth and London (2016) found that most people know very little about the military lifestyle and workplace. Delbourg-Delphis (2014) noted that 50 years ago almost everyone knew someone in the military either directly or indirectly and now less than 1% of the nation serve or have served in the

Armed Forces, all of which might explain civilians' misconceptions about veterans leading to stereotyping.

Stone and Stone (2015) noted that biases and stereotypes have an impact on veterans' transfer to the private sector. Combat veterans have a more difficult time gaining civilian employment than veterans who had no combat deployment. Horton et al. (2013), Kleykamp (2013), Kukla, Rattray, and Salyers (2015), and Routon (2014) argued that misperceptions, adjustment issues, and stereotypes label military veterans with no deployment or combat experience.

Routon (2014) explained that these misconceptions and biases impact military veterans job opportunities. Hiring decisions by managers should be based on the criteria of the job, as this is the training that managers receive, but research has shown the impact of personal assumptions when hiring veterans (Castellano, 2013; Malos, 2015). Yellin (2012) noted that stereotyping often leads managers to assess whether veterans are suited for the job or can perform in the available position.

Kukla, Rattray, and Salyers (2015) noted that social norms attributed to veterans have an impact on employers' views concerning hiring them. To understand veterans and the military culture veterans associate with, private sector organizations must have proactive managers that research, learn, and educate employees to generate positive collaboration and shared organizational vision on perspectives and techniques related to hiring military veterans (Jacob, 2014; Nastase, Giuclea, & Bold, 2012; Spencer & Ayoub, 2014).

Military Veterans Overview

The DoD (DoD, n.d.) is the organization within the American government with the mission to protect America's national security and resources. Three million people are employees of the DoD which has an annual budget of approximately $400 billion; larger than many prominent private companies such as Wal-Mart, GM, and Exxon-Mobil (DoD, 2016). Congress mandates the DoD mission. Although Congress derives the authority to establish the structure of the individual military services from the United States Constitution, the president is the commander in chief and has the ultimate authority related to its employment (DoD, n.d.; Redmond et al., 2014). Title 10 of the United States Codes (U.S.C.) articulates the intent of Congress for the Armed Forces:

> (a) It is the intent of Congress to provide an Army that is capable, in conjunction with the other Armed Forces, in (1) preserving the peace and security, and providing for the defense, of the United States, the Commonwealths and possessions, and any areas occupied by the United States; (2) supporting national policies; (3) implementing national objectives; and (4) overcoming any nations responsible for aggressive acts that imperil the peace and security of the United States. (United States Code of Armed Forces, 1956, p. 7)

To understand the amount of training and education that encompasses the Armed Forces this review focused on the DA, one of the five primary defense departments. All five primary defense departments have missions that require teamwork among them. The DA mission primarily focuses on ground operations. The Department of Air Force mission primarily focuses on air support. The Department of Navy mission is to conduct

missions on the seas. The Marine Corps mission is conducted at sea and on the ground, with air and land missions integrated, while the Coast Guard's mission is to protect America's shores (DoD, n.d; Redmond et al., 2014). The U.S. DA (2017) is the oldest agency within the DoD. The all-volunteer force is critical to sustaining and maintaining the U.S. Army's mission (DA, 2014). The Army Doctrine Publication (ADP) 1 outlines the vision of the Chief of Staff of the Army (DoD, 2013). In ADP 1, the Chief of Staff of the Army articulates his vision of the Army's mission, what it is, how it accomplishes the mission and the future of the Army (DoD, 2016). The Army fulfills the mission given by Congress and the United States President:

> (b) In general, the Army, within the DA, includes land combat and service forces and such aviation and water transport as may be organic therein. It shall be organized, trained, and equipped primarily for prompt and sustained combat incident to operations on land. It is responsible for the preparation of land forces necessary for the effective prosecution of war except as otherwise assigned and, in agreement with integrated joint mobilization plans, for the expansion of peacetime components of the Army to meet the needs of war. (United States Code Armed Forces, 1956, p. 7)

The U.S. defense policy requires a global posture with extensive overseas presence for stated national objectives to be met to defend the U.S. national interest abroad. The U.S. Army's forces, along with other defense services, must be trained and capable of maneuvering at a moment's notice to achieve the nation's objectives. These forces must be able to operate efficiently with other U.S. military services and other

countries across the world. The U.S. Army recruits, assesses, selects, trains, and develops its personnel to accomplish this vital and complex mission. The Army's recruiting, assessment, and selection process ensures personnel entering meet the intellectual, physical, and education standards required to serve throughout the Army (U. S. Department of Labor [DOL], 2015), which includes overseas operational environment often characterized by complex, uncertain, and ambiguous challenges and threats.

The variety and number of occupational skills that the Army requires in support of its mission are vast. DoD uses the Armed Forces Vocational Aptitude Battery (ASVAB) to help match service members with occupational skills. The scores service members received on the ASVAB recruitment test determines the initial aptitude of the individual and his or her occupation (DOL, 2015; Redmond et al., 2014).

The U.S. Army is a community consisting of many different occupations and career specialties (Redmond et al., 2014). The different occupations are most effective when officers and enlisted men and women work together (Dubik & Hodne, 2013). Enlisted and officer personnel choices of career fields shown in Table 1 are specialized occupations for which service members can receive extensive training, education, and experience (DoD, 2015b; DOL, 2015; Redmond et al., 2014).

Military Training

Army Regulation 600-100 outlines established standards for the Army's Training and Leader Development model (DoD, 2007). This model identifies essential education and development activities that prepare soldiers for future assignments. The military leader development model has three distinct areas of focus that are interconnected and

critical in developing the experiences that define the military experience throughout a soldier's career. The first area is institutional training (how to do) and education (how to think) which builds the knowledge, skills, and abilities that soldiers will use during their operational assignments (Sharma, 2014). Operational assignments are the second area of focus. This training is attached to life situations, and the experiences build on the individual knowledge of the service member (Sharma, 2014) broadening his or her skills and enhancing their abilities. Self-development is the third area of focus and is a continual process of honing individual leadership skills while minimizing weaknesses (Sharma, 2014).

Institutional training includes initial entry training often referred to as basic training. The Basic Combat Training (BCT) is a 10-week program of instruction that is common to all soldiers. It is at basic training where prospective soldiers are taught the fundamentals that are required to be a soldier and learn the history of the Army and cultural values required of its members (Bergman et al., 2014). Basic training exposes each soldier to the rigors of a highly disciplined lifestyle that focuses on teamwork. Martial arts, physical fitness, and team building techniques are learned and honed, and confidence courses are used to test speed, endurance, problem-solving, and teamwork.

Advanced individual training (AIT) builds on the competencies learned in Basic Combat Training, advancing the soldiers knowledge, skills, and abilities in their chosen military occupational specialty (MOS). The competencies of service members are developed during this phase to align with the institutional requirements. During this phase, the Army values, norms, expectations, physical and mental preparedness, warrior

tasks and battle drills become second nature. The result is a competent team player and prepared, trusted service member (Delboug-Delphis, 2014).

Rasmussen and Sieck (2014) noted that service members apply these competencies when making decisions that could have severe outcomes. Quick action is often required to complete the mission, and the knowledge they receive and develop in training is expected and replicated in the operational assignments. The process of practice and repetition takes initially learned knowledge and applies it to real-world processes, creating more refined skills, knowledge, and abilities. Through constant training, individuals build self-development skills which help them better execute job requirements. The achievement of individual leadership development goals, to maximize strengths and reduce weaknesses are achieved through discipline, structure, and constant training (Redmond et al., 2014). The self-development initiative is a continuous process, beginning in institutional training, continuing through operational assignments and stretches out throughout the soldier's career (Redmond et al., 2014).

Table 1

U.S. Army Active Duty Occupational Groups, May 2015

Occupational Group	Enlisted	Officers
Administrative	6,140	NA
Combat Specialty	109,625	22,865
Construction	15,313	NA
Executive, Administrative, and Managerial	NA	13,763
Electronic and Electrical Equipment Repair	31,051	NA
Engineering, Science, and Technical	43,567	24,353
Health Care	29,986	12,052
Human Resource Development	16,558	2,933
Machine Operator and Production	4,107	NA
Media and Public Affairs	6,646	326
Protective Services	NA	3,215
Support Service	9,901	1,705
Transportation and Material Handling	48,096	12,550
Vehicle and Machinery Mechanic	45,344	NA
Non-occupation or unspecified coded personnel	2,984	2,155

Note. This table is reproduced from the Occupational Outlook Handbook (DoD, 2015b; DOL, 2015) and has been modified to reflect only the U.S. Army.

The military's training and leader development model is structured to build stable development platforms for service members who are vital to professional development attained in the continual process of education, development, training, advising, mentoring, assessment, feedback, and reinforcement (Routon, 2014). As service members progress in their careers, they face new challenges and requirements, which serve as cognitive and developmental training that further develop abilities used for problem-solving from situational experiences. These experiences, coupled with the Army's leader development model, will further strengthen soldiers' knowledge, skills, and abilities.

Workforce Applicability

The professional, cognitive, and experiential knowledge gained by officers and enlisted members can be extensive. Clevenger (2014) explained that military service

members' leadership skills develop early in their careers. They are given challenging missions to execute, are responsible for millions of dollars' worth of equipment, and, most importantly, for service members' lives that serve under and with them. Clevenger suggested that private sector companies benefit significantly from employees with these military experiences (Clevenger, 2014).

Examples of the impact of military veterans' experience and knowledge have after service can be understood throughout history. During the American Revolution, service members demanded the vote which they eventually received (Inbody, 2016). The fortitude and leadership of two Civil War veterans founded the National Rifle Association to bring individuals together for the right to bear arms (National Rifle Association, 2017). Curran, Holt, and Afandor (2017) explained that veterans serve the community after military service through the transfer of knowledge, skills, and experience obtained during their military service. This service is especially true in law enforcement careers, where one in five law enforcement applicants is a veteran.

Routon (2014) suggested that military experience does transfer into the civilian workforce and compared military experience to civilian vocational learning. The researcher noted that veterans who transfer their skills into the civilian workforce would exceed civilian-trained individuals within a 2-year timeframe. Yellin (2012) stated that the more service time accrued in the military, the higher the chances knowledge and experience gained in the military would transfer. Benmelech and Frydman (2015) argued that transferring military skills to civilian service is not dependent on time in the military.

Transfer of Learning Overview

The transfer of learning concept formerly referred to as the transfer of practice dates to the early 1900s. Thorndike and Woodworth (1901) examined individuals' ability to transfer learning from one situation to a similar frame of reference and whether the transfer of learning improved one's mental ability to connect similarities. Thorndike and Woodworth's theory of transfer of learning has continually developed over the years resulting in broad viewpoints among researchers on the transfer of learning.

Recent literature on transfer of learning has focused on connections between an individual's emotions and learning, viewing humans as complex wholes (Immordino-Yang, 2016; Immordino-Yang, Yang, & Damasio, 2014). Immordino-Yang (2016) stated that humans feel, and, therefore, their intelligence and emotions socially are mental reactions or individual behaviors to the environment, situation, and concept. Damasio and Carvalho (2013) suggested an essential part of learning is the balance of emotions, physical well-being, and intellectual stimulus. Perkin and Salmon (2012) noted that complex intellectual individual's dispositional and motivational drivers influence learning. Cognitive learning can be affected by the environment when underestimated and generalized. (Lobato, 2012).

Opre (2015) and Perkins and Salmon (2012) argued that the fundamental purpose of education and training programs result in the transfer of what is learned; there is no purpose to education if not transferred. Without the ability to transfer learning every new situation would have to be retaught because there would be no prior knowledge (Leberman et al., 2006). Education and transfer of training require experience gained

through repetition (Paletz et al., 2013). Opre (2015) and Paletz et al. (2013) showed that a critical element to having expertise in any field requires understanding and not just memorizing content. Experience, education, learning and performance of the human transfer of knowledge, when transfer of learning is not apparent, less than accurate, or not transferred it is noticed and causes scrutiny (Lobato, 2012; Perkins & Salmon, 2012; Richard, Stigler, & Holyoak, 2012; Yasin et al., 2013). Paletz et al. (2013) explained that expertise in a field is essential for transfer of learning. The transfer of learning can be general or specific. General transfer of learning transferred to primary context is generalizable by everyday functions. Specific transfer of learning is learning that is specific and can be used in different situations that require the same level of specific techniques, this is subject matter expert directly connected to a specific skill.

Levels and Types of Transfer of Learning

The transfer of learning types is positive, negative, and neutral. The transferring of positive learning occurs as it is applied in different contexts and facilitates improvement in another area (Leberman et al., 2006). The transfer of negative learning occurs when one task interferes with the learning of another task (Leberman et al., 2006; Perkins & Salmon, 2012). Richland, Stigler, and Holyoak (2012) demonstrated that negative transfer saw through inappropriate application of math being applied to new situations inaccurately. The positive transfer of learning occurs when applying similar learned experience from one context to another, thereby generating knowledge; an example of a positive transfer of learning is used knowledge of math to learn physics. When there is no transfer or zero transfer, a neutral transfer occurs, and there is nothing

gained or lost. Schwartz, Chase, and Bransford (2012) argued that transfer of learning could be adaptive transfer, where the knowledge is adapted to fit the context when applied.

There are different levels of transferability in learning. These levels can be simple or complex. The simple transfer requires a minimal level of effort in different situations, whereas complex transfer requires effort and analysis of the situation (Leberman et al., 2006). Godinez and Leslie (2015), Krishnamani and Haider, (2016), Olivos et al., (2016), and Treuer, McHardy, and Earl (2013) argued the motivational level of an individual before a learning or training event can affect the rate of learning that occurs, and that will later transfer. These motivational drivers benefit cognitive transfer of learning (Immordino-Yang, 2016; Immordino-Yang et al., 2014; Perkins & Salomon, 2012).

The taxonomy of near and far transfer is a distinction used to explain the time by the distance from the first learning (Leberman et al., 2006). Using a computer at home and then using the same type of computer at school is an example of near transfer, which is stimuli that take place in different places, but with similar context (Larsen-Freeman, 2013). Using expert abilities at gaming to manage a company would be one example of far transfer (Larsen-Freeman, 2013). Full separation between the context high-road transfer and low-road transfer partner with two types of learning. The cognitive process of reflection called high-road transfer pulls from the abstract knowledge in the brain (Weiss et al., 1963) and in contrast, low-road transfer stimulus on routines recognized or connections (Perkins & Salomon, 2012).

Workforce and Transfer of Learning

Transitioning from one profession to another is often challenging. Transfer of learning, training, and education from military occupations to the civilian occupations are difficult for private sector managers to understand (Chicas et al., 2012), and many veterans also experience these same challenges (Hall et al., 2014; Harrell & Berglass, 2012). Managers have reported that they do not understand how veteran skills transfer into the private sector (Prudential, 2012), and veterans have perceived that the private sector industries do not understand the military (Kukla, Rattray, & Salyers, 2015). One of the more significant issue related to employment of transitioning veterans in the private sector is the ability to align the skills and experiences of an individual's military service to that required for a job (Faberman & Foster, 2013; Godinez & Leslie, 2015; Hall et al., 2014; Harrell & Berglass, 2012; King, 2012).

An available tool that can help veterans and hiring managers overcome difficulties in aligning military skills and experiences to civilian sector job requirements is the Occupational Information Network (O*NET). O*NET is an online database that is free to users and retains over sixty years of employee surveys and descriptors, realized from a paper resource named the Dictionary of Occupational Titles (Bird & Williams, 2014). The O*NET system is possible in a grant given to the North Carolina Department of Commerce sponsored by the Department of Labor/Employment and Training Administration (U.S. DOL/ETA) (National Center for O*NET Development, 2017). This database is an online resource center updated on a quarterly basis through surveys from

workers in career fields that cover a variety of different occupational information in the nation (National Center for O*NET Development, 2017).

The O*NET system has detailed information and analysis of specific jobs in the market and the work experience required to perform different occupations (Bird & Williams, 2014). Users' scope of knowledge, understanding, and perspective on professional opportunities broaden through the information obtained from the O*NET system on work opportunities (Levine & Oswald, 2013). O*NET Online, the interactive part of O*NET provides tools, available for career exploration, occupational information, workforce knowledge, and context (Bird & Williams, 2014). The online interactive tools help alleviate users' uncertainties and development through multiple types of human resources (National Center for O*NET Development, 2017). O*NET is an information-rich platform for prospective employees, employers, or anyone interested in understanding how knowledge, skills, and abilities transfer into different careers (National Center for O*NET Development, 2017).

The interactive database requires a completed application and a variety of steps to access the interactive Content Model, the area of O*NET that has hundreds of "descriptors" which are defined variables that help the system analyze the different knowledge, skills, and abilities for occupations (National Center for O*NET Development, 2017). O*NET 21.3 database has approximately 1,100 occupations (Reeder & Tsacoumis, 2017) with more than 277 descriptors and links to other federal agencies that have more descriptors (National Center for O*NET Development, 2017).

Users can search for “doctor” as an occupation or utilize a classification number, like the classifications of jobs in the military (Bird & Williams, 2014).

Understanding of military classifications could clarify misunderstandings during the transition from military to civilian occupations for hiring managers and military veterans. In their survey of military veterans, Prudential (2012) found that veterans thought one barrier to civilian employment was the translation of military experiences and skills. Private sector hiring managers reported that they do not understand how veterans knowledge skills and abilities fit civilian jobs (Hall et al., 2014). O*NET’s operating feature labeled “My Next Move for Veterans” is a specialized section of O*NET created specifically for the military (President’s Council of Economic Advisers and the National Economic Council, 2012). This section of the O*Net Resource Center has over 900 civilian career occupations of interest and outlines the knowledge, skills, abilities, training, experience, certifications and educational requirements for each job.

Depending on the preference of the service member when researching occupations, a new career field could be searched or their occupation from their military service. By inputting the military occupation specialty (MOS) of military veterans, the O*NET system will translate service members experience to equivalent civilian experience and retrieve jobs best suited for them (National Center for O*NET Development, 2017; President’s Council of Economic Advisers and the National Economic Council, 2012). The navigation process is personalized and dependent on responses from military veterans applied to detailed questions in the O*NET My Next Move for Veterans system (Bird & Williams, 2014). Levine and Oswald (2013)

explained that understanding job descriptors and work context for different occupations would facilitate the employee in navigating career choices, the employer in translating similar occupational terms, and an organizations ability to write clear, concise job descriptions.

Summary and Conclusions

In Chapter 2 I focused on the literature search strategy to understand the current research on private sector research, military veterans, and transfer of learning. The history and development of IWP along with more recent studies conducted using IWP were incorporated into the theoretical foundation section as well as more in-depth explaining of Koopmans et al.'s (2011) theoretical framework of IWP with the three dimensions of TP, CP, and CWB. The relevant current peer-reviewed literature about the study was synthesized.

The major themes in the literature about the private sector, military veterans, and transfer of learning are as follows. Themes within private sector research included private industry lack of knowledge about veterans and how they fit in the civilian industry, the difference in cultures causing military veterans difficulty transitioning into the private sector and a major theme was stereotypes, stigmas, and biases affecting industry perceptions of veterans and impacting hiring managers decisions.

The section on military veterans described through peer-reviewed literature the DoD and the DA systems, which included an overview of the policies, regulations, and statutes that govern the defense department. Established U.S. Army veterans' knowledge, education, and training during their military careers explained the magnitude of

requirements before promotion as dictated by regulation. The last subtopic in this section synthesized the peer-reviewed literature on the successful transfers from the military to the private sector. The purpose of this topic was to fill a necessary knowledge gap, based on private sector not understanding the military or their knowledge, skills, and education.

The topic of transfer of learning and skills described the theory and different levels and types of transfer of learning. The subtopic added to this section due to the disparity on the translation gap of military knowledge, skills and education and how it translates to the private sector. The O'NET subtopic as explained in detail, and I described the value of the system to veterans and the private sector. However, based on scholarly research, there remains a lack of empirical studies identifying transferrable IWP gained from military experience. In Chapter 3 the research method and design are explained to build a platform for research to compare veterans' and nonveterans' IWPs. This study is important as it further explains the comparable IWPs between veterans and nonveterans.

Chapter 3: Research Method

The purpose of this nonexperimental, quantitative, cross-sectional study was to determine whether there are differences between Army veterans' transferable IWPs (TP, CP, and CWB) and those of nonveterans. The sample frame for this study included U.S. Army veterans and Department of the Army civilian nonveterans in the workplace at the Large military site military installation in North Carolina. One research instrument was used (Koopmans et al., 2015) in collecting data from participants based on the theoretical framework of IWP and its three dimensions: TP, CP, and CWB.

To address the gap in scholarly research, I used a quantitative approach with self-reported surveys. I included four dependent variables, which were the three dimensions of IWP (TP, CP, and CWB) and a composite index of all three dimensions. CWB is an adverse attribute in contrast to the other two IWP components (TP and CP). According to Koopmans (2014), "the CWB items 1 to 10 were coded reversely (0 as 4, 1 as 3, 2 as 2, 3 as1, 4 as 0) so that a low score meant low performance and a high meant high work performance" (p. 92). Therefore, when all three are combined into an aggregate index, all three components have the same direction. The independent variable was veterans status: Army veterans and nonveterans. Comparison of Army veterans' IWPs to nonveterans may provide managers with knowledge and understanding of Army veterans' transferability. The major sections of Chapter 3 are the research design and rationale; methodology; population; sampling and sampling procedures; procedures for recruitment, participation, and data collection on the primary data; instrumentation and

operationalization of constructs; data analysis plan; threats to internal, external, and construct validity; ethical procedures; and the summary.

Research Design and Rationale

The design chosen for this study was nonexperimental, quantitative, cross-sectional. Nonexperimental research does not allow for manipulation of participants, and research is performed in the natural settings of the respondents. The participants were anonymous, and no manipulation of variables occurred. The respondents participated in their natural setting thereby eliminating potentially altered perceptions. The quantitative approach reduced bias in the use of parametric statistics and the analysis of the data from survey instruments (see Boslaugh, 2014). The cross-sectional design is used to compare a predetermined event at a single point in time (Simon & Goes, 2013). The study focused on comparing the results of IWP based on the perceptions of two groups: Army veterans and nonveterans.

Methodology

Population

Frankfort-Nachmias et al. (2015) stated that the population is the set of units in which the researcher conducts research. The population was U.S. Army veterans and nonveterans. The sample frame for this research included U.S. Army veterans and Department of the Army civilian nonveterans in the workplace at the Large military site military installation in North Carolina who worked as government civilians or government contractors. The sample frame included all U.S. Army veterans, enlisted and officers, and the civilian workers who had never served in the armed services. The Large

military site military installation had a population of approximately 140,000 personnel; of these approximately 12,273 were within the sample frame (DoD, 2018).

Sampling and Sampling Procedures

The sample for this study was a probability sample. Probability sampling is the only approach that a researcher can use to generalize from the sample to the population (Frankfort-Nachmias & Leon-Guerrero, 2018). The Large military site military installation is one of the largest U.S. military installations with many Army veterans and nonveterans employed within its boundaries; however, it is a small sample of the population when compared with all Army veterans and nonveterans employed by the government.

Probability sampling is used when there is no possibility of including all units in the population (Frankfort-Nachmias et al., 2015). Random sampling is a type of probability sampling (Singleton & Straights, 2017). A cross-sectional research design fit the purpose of this research as the aim of the study was to understand the differences in various measures of IWP (TP, CP, CWB, and an aggregate index of IWP) from the perceptions of U.S. Army veterans and nonveterans who were representative units within the Large military site population (Singleton & Straights, 2017). The sample was limited to U.S. Army veterans and nonveterans employed at the Large military site military installation in North Carolina.

The Large military site garrison's government e-mail server system was used to disseminate the survey links to the sample frame. An e-mail was sent to the deputy garrison commander for approval to use the e-mail server (see Appendix A) and approval

was provided (see Appendix B). A garrison employee authorized to use the Large military site garrison e-mail server sent a predrafted e-mail to every address listed on the server of the population employed at Large military site (see Appendix C). This e-mail served as a recruitment tool for participants.

There were two inclusion criteria. The first was veterans of the U.S. Army with their workplace at Large military site, NC, and the second was nonveterans with their workplace at Large military site, NC. Excluded from the sample were veterans and nonveterans who received e-mails via the Large military site garrison e-mail server but did not work in the Large military site installation. I also excluded veterans from services other than the U.S. Army. All participants completed a demographic survey (see Appendix D) before accessing the IWPQ survey, and this survey was used to determine their inclusion or exclusion from the study. The demographic survey had six questions. Question 1 asked whether individuals were employees at Large military site, and the second question asked whether they had ever served in the military.

A calculation to determine the appropriate sample size for this study was performed using G*Power (see Faul, Erdfelder, Lang, & Buchner 2007). There are several types of power analysis depending on the purpose of the study. The choice of an a priori analysis was employed to control for Type 1 error and Type 2 error (Field, 2013). An a prior analysis generated by G*Power software with the chosen *t* test of means for two independent populations resulted in a minimum sample size of 210 (n = 105 veterans and n = 105 nonveterans) based on a level of significance (α) of 0.05, a power ($1 - \beta$) of 0.95, a medium effect size (d) of 0.50, and the number of groups at 2 (Green & Salkind,

2014). Cohen (1992) suggested that in research studies 0.95 is an acceptable statistical power and setting the alpha level at 0.05 is standard practice. Cohen suggested effect sizes of 0.20 (small), 0.50 (medium), and 0.80 (large) for studies employing a *t* test of means for two independent populations. The operational definitions suggested by Cohen and studies including similar constructs (Stiles, 2014) resulted in using a medium effect size of 0.50. In a study on R&D workers, Stiles (2014) used the IWP construct and medium effect size in determining sample size.

Procedures for Recruitment, Participation, and Data Collection

The procedures for recruitment included an electronic e-mail server to reach the 12,273 participants from the sample frame. This server included the entire workforce who had computer access. The Large military site population who had access to the server received an e-mail that provided a comprehensive overview of the study's purpose and the target participant population with a link that connected the participants to SurveyMonkey.com.

The participants from the sample frame who chose to participate in the study did so voluntarily. The response rate for online survey studies is approximately 74% (Schonlau, Fricker, & Elliott, 2014). The response rate for an Army military installation is approximately 34.3% (Eber et al., 2013). I anticipated having no issues with a response rate yielding 210 participants (n = 105 veterans and n = 105 nonveterans) from the sample frame. Upon accessing the SurveyMonkey site, the participants completed the informed consent form, which enabled them to take the demographic survey and

participate in the IWPQ survey. Upon completion or noncompletion of the survey, the participant concluded his or her role in the study.

Instrumentation and Operationalization of Constructs

The IWPQ instrument was used to evaluate the participant's self-reported IWP for this study. The IWPQ is a generic instrument used to measure IWP across all job occupations that was developed by Koopmans et al. in 2015 from multiple studies on the theoretical basis of IWP conducted by Koopmans et al. in 2011. I requested permission to use the IWPQ (see Appendix E) for this study and permission was granted (see Appendix F).

Koopmans et al. (2015) used guidelines from Beaton et al. (2000) to adapt the initial IWPQ performed in the Dutch language to the American English language. The cross-cultural adaptation required five steps: translators who are independent of one another, synthesis, a subject matter expert, a review committee, and pilot testing (Koopmans et al., 2015). Interviews conducted with 40 individuals based on cognitive understanding, comprehension, applicability, and American-English were conducted to complete the IWPQ.

Simon and Goes (2013) noted that Cronbach's alpha is a tool commonly used to measure internal consistency and reliability. Internal consistency is the reliability measure of the instrument (Boslaugh, 2014). Cronbach's alpha is often used to assess reliability in Likert scales. The Cronbach's alpha measure is determined by a range from 0 to 1.0 to indicate whether the items within the scale measure the same thing. If the range score is higher than 0.70, the test is measuring the same thing and is valid and

reliable (Simon & Goes, 2013). The three scales used to measure IWP are TP, CP, and CWB. The internal validity of IWPQ was tested using Rasch's Pearson Separation Index (PSI) for reliability. The secondary tool used for analysis was Cronbach's alpha. The three scales measured by Rasch's PSI measure resulted in a task performance PSI score of 0.81, a CP score of 0.85, and a CWB score of 0.74. Cronbach's alpha scores were similar; task performance scored 0.78, CP scored 0.85, and CWB scored 0.79 (Koopmans et al., 2015). Internal validity of the IWPQ was good (Koopmans et al., 2015); all measures resulted in a range score higher than 0.70, and the two tests were consistent in determining the IWPQ as valid and reliable (Koopmans et al., 2015).

Koopmans et al. (2013b) conducted a pilot study of 54 participants, and face validity was strong. Following the pilot test, several items improved, categories increased from five to seven, and the recall period changed from 4 weeks to 3 months. The instrument provided evidence for reliability in internal consistency test and retest.

Koopmans et al. (2015) created the IWPQ instrument for the use of multiple disciplines within the workforce. Koopmans et al. explained that the IWPQ highest level is latent and is IWP. The second level circumscribes the three dimensions of IWP as TP, CP, and CWB. These three dimensions include functioning indicators to explain the general latent factor of IWP. A latent factor often remains unobserved or dormant until circumstances cause its manifestation ("latent," n.d.). An example of a latent factor related to the IWP would be initiative, which is one of several functioning indicators embedded in the dimension of CP.

IWP task performance indicators are completing job tasks, job knowledge, work quality, solving problems, job skills, keeping knowledge up-to-date, working accurately, planning, organization, administration, decision-making, written and oral communication, monitoring, and controlling resources (Campbell, 1990; Koopmans et al., 2011; Koopmans et al., 2013b; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). This dimension is the measure of work job knowledge, quantity, and skills (Campbell, 1990; Koopmans et al., 2011; Koopmans et al., 2013b; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002).

IWP CP indicators are effective communication, adaptability, industriousness, taking on extra tasks, demonstrating effort, initiative, enthusiasm, resourcefulness, persistence, motivation, dedication, attention to duty proactivity, creativity, teamwork, politeness, interpersonal relations, and organizational commitment (Campbell, 1990; Koopmans et al., 2011; Koopmans et al., 2013b; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). This dimension is the behavioral aspect of IWP, and the behaviors are essential to the organizational, psychological, and social atmosphere (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Koopmans et al., 2013b).

IWP CWB indicators are absent from work, tardiness, gossiping about coworkers, unproductive, off-task behavior, complaining, untrustworthiness, theft, or other similar negative characteristics (Koopmans et al., 2011; Koopmans et al., 2014). This dimension indicates behaviors that are not good for the organization or others in the organization (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002).

The IWPQ consists of three separate scales: TP, CP, and CWB. The TP dimension uses a Likert scale from 0 to 4; CP uses a Likert scale from 0 - 4, and CWB

uses a Likert scale from 4 - 0. A 5 = point Likert Scale method of 0 = *Seldom*, 1 = *Sometimes*, 2 = *Regularly*, 3 = *Often*, and 4 = *Always* apply to the two scales for TP and CP, and 4 = *Never*, 3 = *Seldom,* 2 = *Sometimes*, 1 = *Regularly* and 0 = *Often* apply to the CWB scale.

To calculate the mean score to inform the dependent variables, the responses for each question were added and then divided by the number of questions for each scale (Koopmans et al., 2015). The statistical analysis was performed using the variables informed using a mean response from a set of questions and a midpoint of 2. Then the scale measures were interpreted through scores based on percentiles from "very high" to "very low" performance from Koopmans et al.'s 2015 interpretation of the IWPQ scores. Additionally, an aggregate/composite index of IWP was informed by aggregating all three scale participant responses.

Data Analysis Plan

I collected data from anonymous participants downloaded from the SurveyMonkey website via an Excel spreadsheet and checked for completeness and accuracy before transferring to SPSS. The demographics survey was important in dividing the participants into the two different groups of Army veterans and nonveterans reflecting the independent variable. The IWPQ survey was checked to confirm each question on each survey had a completed answer. The data then were uploaded to SPSS for analysis.

The underlying assumptions for a *t* test of means for two independent populations are independence, and the populations are normally distributed. Two *t* tests are available

in SPSS, depending on whether the variances for the two populations are equal or unequal. Results of the tests of assumptions are in Chapter 4.

The hypotheses were tested by comparing the *p*-value to the significance level of 0.05. A *p*-value of 0.05 indicates that there is a 5% probability of concluding that there is a difference when none exist. If the *p*-value was less than the significance level, then the null hypothesis was rejected indicating there was sufficient evidence that the two groups had different means. However, a *p*-value that was higher than the significance level resulted in failing to reject the null hypothesis and a conclusion that there was insufficient evidence that the means were different (Field, 2013).

The question and hypotheses that guided this research follow.

RQ: What are the differences between U.S. Army veterans' IWPs (TP, CP, CWB, and aggregate/composite index) and those of nonveterans?

H_o1: Veterans have a mean TP equal to nonveterans.

H_a1: Veterans have a mean TP not equal to nonveterans.

H_o2: Veterans have a mean CP equal to nonveterans.

H_a2: Veterans have a mean CP not equal to nonveterans.

H_o3: Veterans have a mean CWB equal to nonveterans.

H_a3: Veterans have a mean CWB not equal to nonveterans.

H_o4: Veterans have a mean aggregate IWP equal to nonveterans.

H_a4: Veterans have a mean aggregate IWP not equal to nonveterans.

Threats to Validity

External Validity

Frankfort-Nachmias et al. (2015) explained the types of threats to external validity as the interaction in the selection and treatment of participants. There was a minimal threat in the interaction of selection as the participants were voluntary and self-selected to respond to the online survey. The treatment of participants was no threat because the participants answered the survey anonymously.

Internal Validity

Bhattacharjee (2012) identified three causality conditions to determine if the change in the dependent variable, excluding extraneous variables, causes a change in the independent variable. There are three conditions for causality: (a) if there is a cause, then there is an effect, and if there is no cause, then there is no effect; (b) the cause must have happened before the effect; and (c) there is no plausible explanation for the phenomenon studied.

Bhattacharjee (2012) identified the first condition for causality as covariation: if there is a cause, then there is an effect, and if there is no cause, then there is no effect. The independent variable was veteran status: Army veterans and nonveterans. The four dependent variables were the three dimensions of IWP (TP, CP, and CWB) and an aggregate index of IWP. The perceptions from the participants were used to determine if being an Army veteran or nonveteran causes an effect to IWP. To minimize this threat, the participants were all from the civilian workforce.

Bhattacharjee (2012) identified the second condition for causality as temporal precedence: the cause must happen before the effect in time. For this study, the cause was the status of veteran or nonveteran, and the effect was the IWP gained from their veteran status. The research for this study was at a single point in time; therefore, this could be a potential threat to internal validity if during the survey period some unexpected phenomenon took place. The distributed surveys remained available for participants until the required number of participants responded, which mitigated this threat to internal validity.

Bhattacharjee (2012) identified that the third condition for causality as spurious correlation with no plausible alternative explanation for the effect. The effect (IWP) was not controllable because it was intangible. Therefore, it can be a potential threat to internal validity. To minimize this threat to internal validity, I focused on two sets of groups (Army veterans and nonveterans) that work in the same environment with the response recollection time of the past 3 months.

Construct Validity

Constructs are the abstract values chosen to explain the interest of the study (Bhattacharjee, 2012; Terrell, 2016). The constructs for this study were TP, CP, and CWB, which measure IWP. Construct validity is based on measurements, and whether the measurement used can measure the constructs or variables it is intended to measure (Boslaugh, 2014). Koopmans et al. (2015) noted in the instruction manual to the IWPQ that construct validity was tested and is acceptable. Koopmans et al. further stated that convergent and discriminative validity were the two types of construct validity assessed.

The IWPQ first examined by the World Health Organization's Health and Performance Questionnaire (HPQ). The IWPQ scores correlated with the scores of the presenteeism questionnaire. The TP and CP scales showed the absolute presenteeism score a moderate to positive correlation, and the CWB scale showed a correlation of weak to negative (Koopmans et al., 2014). The IWPQ convergent validity with work engagement depicted a correlation that was moderate positive with the scales TP and CP (r = 0.29 – 0.43), and the correlation to the CWB scale was moderate to weak (r = -0.4 – 0.23) measured by the Utrecht Work Engagement Scale– 9 (Koopmans et al., 2015; Schaufeli, Bakker & Salanova, 2006).

Ethical Procedures

In following the proper ethical procedures and protecting the participants, I adhered to the American Association of Public Opinion Research (AAPOR) Code of Ethics. The code requires integrity, honesty, and respect of affairs that concern participants. The AAPOR code requires Participants' informed judgment. Provided to participants first with the content of the study, the purpose of the survey, and notification the survey is anonymous and voluntary. Data collected was anonymous and stored on a double-password-protected computer and double-password-protected external hard drive. The retained data files are confidential, and established storage in a secret password-protected folder was set. Data will be kept secure for 5 years. I have no ethical concerns related to recruitment or the processes I chose for this study. I received a Certificate of Completion on January 27, 2017, from the National Institute of Health (NIH), Office of Extramural Research for Protecting Human Research Participants, certification number

2297012. Internal Review Board (IRB) approval number is 07-13-18-0278881 (see Appendix H).

Summary

In summary, this study was intended to inform managers of the perceptions of Army veterans' IWPs compared to nonveterans. In Chapter 3 I discussed the methodological approach of nonexperimental quantitative research using a cross-sectional research design. The nonexperimental approach allowed for anonymity, facilitating potentially less bias on the self-assessed survey instrument used for data collection. The quantitative approach of an independent-samples *t* test was used to assess how Army veterans' and nonveterans' IWPs compared. The cross-sectional research design facilitates social science researchers the ability to conduct probability research without the use of an experimental research design, which allows the data results to be generalized to the population (Frankfort-Nachmias, Nachmias, & Dewaard, 2015).

Chapter 4: Results

The purpose of this study was to determine whether there were differences between Army veterans' and nonveterans' transferable IWPs (TP, CP, and CWB). I used self-reporting surveys to collect and analyze data to determine whether there was a significant relationship between the independent variable (veteran status) and the dependent variables (measures of IWP). The research question and hypotheses that guided this study were as follows:

RQ: What are the differences between U.S. Army veterans' IWPs (TP, CP, CWB, and aggregate/composite index) and those of nonveterans?

H_o1: Veterans have a mean TP equal to nonveterans.

H_a1: Veterans have a mean TP not equal to nonveterans.

H_o2: Veterans have a mean CP equal to nonveterans.

H_a2: Veterans have a mean CP not equal to nonveterans.

H_o3: Veterans have a mean CWB equal to nonveterans.

H_a3: Veterans have a mean CWB not equal to nonveterans.

H_o4: Veterans have a mean aggregate IWP equal to nonveterans.

H_a4: Veterans have a mean aggregate IWP not equal to nonveterans.

Chapter 4 includes a summary of the results from the study. The first section is the introduction, which provides a brief review of the purpose of the study, the research question, and the hypotheses. The second section provides a description of the data collection process, including the time frame for data collection, recruitment, response rates, discrepancies in data collection from the plan presented in Chapter 3, and the report

of baseline descriptive and demographic characteristics of the sample. The third section provides the results, which include the descriptive statistics that characterize the sample, evaluation of statistical assumptions, and the statistical analysis findings. The last section provides a summary of the answers to the research question and a transition to Chapter 5.

Data Collection

The data collection process began on October 18, 2018. The data collection concluded without any changes to the plan described in Chapter 3. The Large military site garrison leadership gave guidance for the Public Affairs Office to distribute the drafted recruitment e-mail (Appendix C) to the Large military site population. The recruitment e-mail included an introduction to the study, the voluntary nature and anonymity of the study, the potential positive social change of the study, and an invitation to participants to be part of the IWPQ survey via the SurveyMonkey links. The recruitment e-mail also provided a statement that the survey was installation staff judge advocate, union, and command approved for distribution on the government network. I determined that the survey would remain open for 2 weeks on SurveyMonkey or would close after receiving 210 responses (105 veterans and 105 nonveterans). The response for the 105 veterans concluded on October 19, 2018. The response rate for the 105 nonveterans concluded on October 25, 2018, which concluded the data collection process. There were no discrepancies in data collection plan presented in Chapter 3.

Study Results

Baseline Descriptive and Demographic Data

The participants consisted of 105 veterans and 105 nonveterans. All of the participants worked on the Large military site, North Carolina military installation. All of the veterans were Army veterans, and all of the nonveterans had never served in any of the different uniformed DoD agencies. The percentages for years of military service for veterans were 1-5 years (12.4%), 6-10 years (11.4%), 11-15 years (5.7%), 16-20 years (17.1%), 21-25 years (30.5%), 26-30 years (15.2%), and over 30 years (7.6%). The average number of years of military service was 19.06 with a standard deviation of 9.19. The percentages for years of civilian service for nonveterans were 1-5 years (11.4%), 6-10 years (17.1%), 11-15 years (20%), 16-20 years (20%), 21-25 years (20%), and 26-30 years (11.4%). The average number of years of civilian service for nonveterans was 15.7 with a standard deviation of 7.69. All participants were currently serving in a civilian capacity with the following years of civilian experience: 1-5 years (28.1%), 6-10 years (19%), 11-15 years (21.9%), 16-20 years (12.9%), 21-25 years (11.4%), and 26 -30 years (6.7%). The average number of years of civilian service for all participants was 12.02 with a standard deviation of 7.85.

Most participants were between the ages of 45 and 54 (34.3%). The second highest percentage was between 55 and 64 (24.8%). Only 0.5% were under the age of 24. Other percentages were 25-34 (10%), 35-44 (28.1%), and 65-74 (2.4%). The mean age was 47.5 with a standard deviation of 10.11. Most of the respondents had completed a bachelor's degree, which was the highest percentage in the education section at 36.2%.

The other percentages were graduate degree (31%), associate's degree (11.4%), some college but no degree (10%), a postgraduate degree (6.2%), doctoral degree (3.3%), and high school diploma (1.9%).

Descriptive Statistics

Task performance was defined as the measure of work job knowledge, quantity, and skills (Campbell, 1990; Koopmans et al., 2011; Koopmans et al., 2013b; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). The task performance dimensions for veterans and nonveterans were based on a 5-point Likert scale from 0 to 4 (0 = Seldom, 1 = Sometimes, 2 = Regularly, 3 = Often, and 4 = Always). The highest mean response was for question TP2: "I kept in mind the work result I needed to achieve" (M = 3.60, veterans and M = 2.64, nonveterans). The veterans' lowest mean response was for question TP1: "I was able to plan my work so that I finished it on time" (M = 3.07). The nonveterans' lowest mean response was for question TP5: "I managed my time well" (M = 2.21). Descriptive statistics for the five task performance questions are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for TP of Veterans and Nonveterans

	Veterans		Nonveterans	
In the last 3 months…	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
TP1. I was able to plan my work so that I finished it on time.	3.07	1.02	2.32	1.03
TP2. I kept in mind the work result I needed to achieve.	3.60	0.79	2.64	1.14
TP3. I was able to set priorities.	3.16	0.98	2.39	1.16
TP4. I was able to carry out my work efficiently.	3.08	1.00	2.27	1.08
TP5. I managed my time well.	3.10	0.90	2.21	1.09

Note. N = 105. Scales based on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 0 = *Seldom*, 1 = *Sometimes*, 2 = *Regularly*, 3 = *Often*, and 4 = *Always.* TP before the number stands for Task Performance and then the question number. *M* = sample mean; *SD* = standard deviation.

CP is the behavioral aspect of IWP; these are the behaviors that are essential to the organizational, psychological, and social atmosphere (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993; Koopmans et al., 2013b). Examples of CP are communication, adaptability, and demonstrating effort in the workplace (Campbell, 1990; Koopmans et al., 2011; Koopmans et al., 2013b; Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). The CP dimensions for veterans and nonveterans were based on the same Likert scale. The veterans' highest mean response was for question CP1: "I started new tasks when my old tasks were completed" (*M* = 3.35). The lowest mean response was for question CP7: "I continually sought new challenges in my work" (*M* = 2.72). The nonveterans' highest mean response was for question CP8: "I actively participated in meeting and/or consultations" (*M* = 2.78). The lowest mean response was for question CP7: "I continually sought new challenges in my

work" (*M* = 1.86). The descriptive statistics for the eight CP questions are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics of CP for Veterans and Nonveterans

	Veterans		Nonveterans	
In the last 3 months…	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
CP1. I started new tasks when my old tasks were completed.	3.35	0.86	2.35	1.25
CP2. I took on challenging tasks when they were available.	3.06	0.99	2.12	1.19
CP3. I worked on keeping my job-related knowledge up-to-date.	3.08	0.99	2.43	1.12
CP4. I worked on keeping my work skills up-to-date.	3.12	0.89	2.39	1.16
CP5. I came up with creative solutions for new problems.	2.83	1.06	2.00	1.09
CP6. I took on extra responsibilities.	2.78	1.12	1.99	1.22
CP7. I continually sought new challenges in my work.	2.72	1.18	1.86	1.20
CP8. I actively participated in meeting and/or consultations.	3.05	1.15	2.78	1.20

Note. N = 105. Scales based on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 0 = *Seldom,* 1 = *Sometimes*, 2 = *Regularly*, 3 = *Often*, and 4 = *Always.* CP before the number stands for Contextual Performance and then the question number. *M* = sample mean; *SD* = standard deviation.

The third scale associated with IWP is CWB, which are behaviors that are not good for the organization or others in the organization (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). These behaviors include absence from work, unproductive behavior, and untrustworthy behavior due to theft or other similar negative characteristics (Koopmans et al., 2011; Koopmans et al., 2014). The CWB dimensions for veterans and nonveterans were based

on a 5-point Likert scale from 4 to 0. A 5-point Likert method of 4 = *Never*, 3 = *Seldom,* 2 = *Sometimes*, 1 = *Regularly* and 0 = *Often.* The veterans' highest mean response was for question CWB2: "I made problems at work bigger than they were" (*M* = 3.68). The lowest mean response was for question CWB4: "I talked to colleagues about negative aspects of my work" (*M* = 2.85). The nonveterans' highest mean response was for question CWB2: "I made problems at work bigger than they were" (*M* = 3.01). The lowest mean response was for question CWB4: "I talked to colleagues about negative aspects of my work" (*M* = 2.34). The descriptive statistics for the five CWB questions are presented in Table 4.

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics of CWB for Veterans and Nonveterans

	Veterans		Nonveterans	
In the last 3 months…	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
CWB1. I complained about minor work-related issues at work.	2.90	0.94	2.44	0.97
CWB2. I made problems at work bigger than they were.	3.68	0.54	3.01	0.91
CWB3. I focused on the negative aspects of situation at work instead of the positive aspects.	3.11	0.86	2.62	1.02
CWB4. I talked to colleagues about negative aspects of my work.	2.85	0.99	2.34	1.01
CWB5. I talked to people outside the organization about the negative aspects of my work.	3.28	0.97	2.35	1.16

Note. N = 105. Scales based on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 4 = *Never*, 3 = *Seldom,* 2 = *Sometimes*, 1 = *Regularly* and 0 = *Often.* CWB before the number stands for Counter-Productive Work Behavior and then the question number. *M* = sample mean; *SD* = standard deviation.

The composite index of IWP is an aggregate of TP, CP, and CWB. These are attributes that are important to the organization. The veterans' highest mean response was

for TP, (M = 3.20), and the lowest mean response was for CP (M = 3.00). The nonveterans' highest mean response was for CWB (M = 2.55), and the lowest mean response was for CP (M = 2.18). The descriptive statistics for the composite index of IWP are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics of Composite Index IWP for Veterans and Nonveterans

	Veterans		Nonveterans	
In the last 3 months…	M	SD	M	SD
TP	3.20	0.75	2.36	0.96
CP	3.00	0.78	2.18	1.03
CWB	3.16	0.67	2.55	0.83
Aggregate/Composite Index IWP	3.12	0.58	2.36	0.83

Note. N = 105. CWB = Counterproductive Work Behavior; IWP = Individual Work Performance; M = sample mean; SD = standard deviation.

Statistical Assumptions

The underlying assumptions for a t test of means for two independent populations are independence and the populations are normally distributed. Participation of U.S. Army veterans and nonveterans was random, and the results from data were from each of the participants satisfying the assumption of independence (Green & Salkind, 2014).

A normal probability plot was performed to determine normal distribution with no outliners (Figures 1 through 12). Responses for the four dependent variables were tested to determine the normal distribution, and all the normal probability plots fell within the normal ranges (see Figure 1 through 12). There were no significant violations of the assumption of normality for any of the dependent variables.

Further examinations conducted on the skewness and the kurtosis values in assessing normality showed favorable results. Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) suggest that normality of assumption is met if the skewness and the kurtosis are between -2.0 and 2.0. All data for normality fell within the normal ranges for skewness and kurtosis (see Table 6 and 7).

Table 6

Results for Normality Testing of Dependent Variables for Veterans

						Shapiro-Wilk	
Subscales	*M*	*SD*	*F*	Skewness	Kurtosis	*S*	*Sig*
TP	3.20	0.75	14.62	-1.18	0.92	0.88	<.001
CP	2.99	0.78	11.02	-0.89	1.07	0.93	<.001
CWB	3.16	0.67	3.55	-0.86	0.82	0.92	<.001
Composite Index IWP	3.12	0.58	18.22	-1.09	1.31	0.92	<.001

Note. N = 105. Scales based on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 0 = *Seldom*, 1 = *Sometimes*, 2 = *Regularly*, 3 = *Often*, and 4 = *Always* for Task Performance & Contextual Performance. Scales based on a 5-point Likert scale ranged from 4 = *Never*, 3 = *Seldom,* 2 = *Sometimes*, 1 = *Regularly* and 0 = *Often* for CWB. CWB = Counterproductive Work Behavior; IWP = Individual Work Performance; *M* = sample mean; *SD* = standard deviation; *F* = *F* distribution; *S* = statistic; *Sig* = significance

Table 7

Results for Normality Testing of Dependent Variables for Nonveterans

						Shapiro-Wilk	
Subscales	*M*	*SD*	*F*	Skewness	Kurtosis	*S*	*Sig*
TP	2.36	0.96	14.62	0.24	-1.14	0.94	<.001
CP	2.18	1.03	11.02	0.00	-0.91	0.97	.020
CWB	2.55	0.83	3.55	-0.62	0.55	0.96	.003
Composite Index IWP	2.36	0.83	18.22	-0.11	-0.69	0.98	.066

Note. N = 105. Scales based on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 0 = *Seldom*, 1 = *Sometimes*, 2 = *Regularly*, 3 = *Often*, and 4 = *Always* for TP & CP. Scales based on a 5-point Likert scale ranged from 4 = *Never*, 3 = *Seldom,* 2 = *Sometimes*, 1 = *Regularly* and 0 = *Often* for CWB. CWB = Counterproductive Work Behavior; IWP = Individual Work Performance; *M* = sample mean; *SD* = standard deviation; *F* = *F* distribution; *S* = statistic; *Sig* = significance

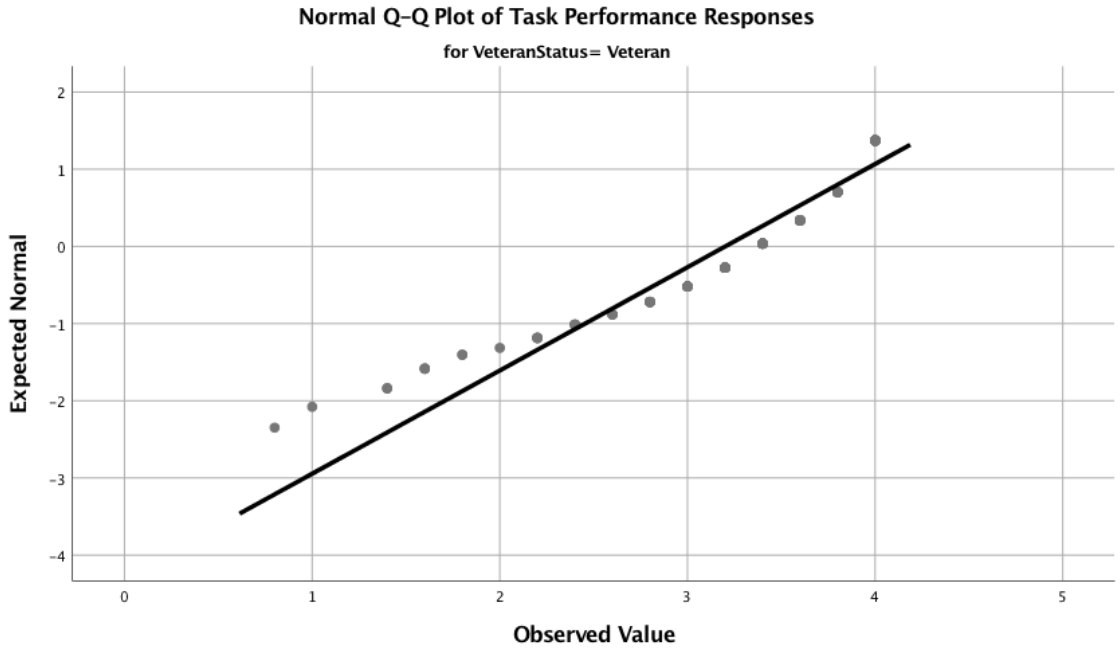

Figure 1. Normal probability plots of veterans' TP ($N = 105$).

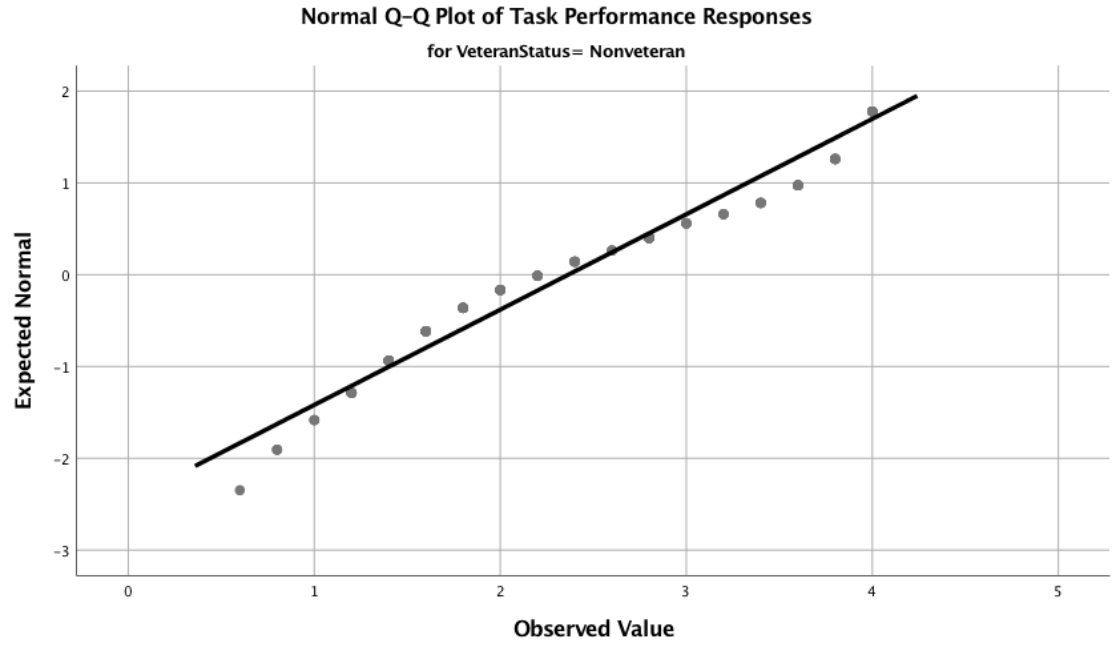

Figure 2. Normal probability plots of nonveterans TP ($N = 105$).

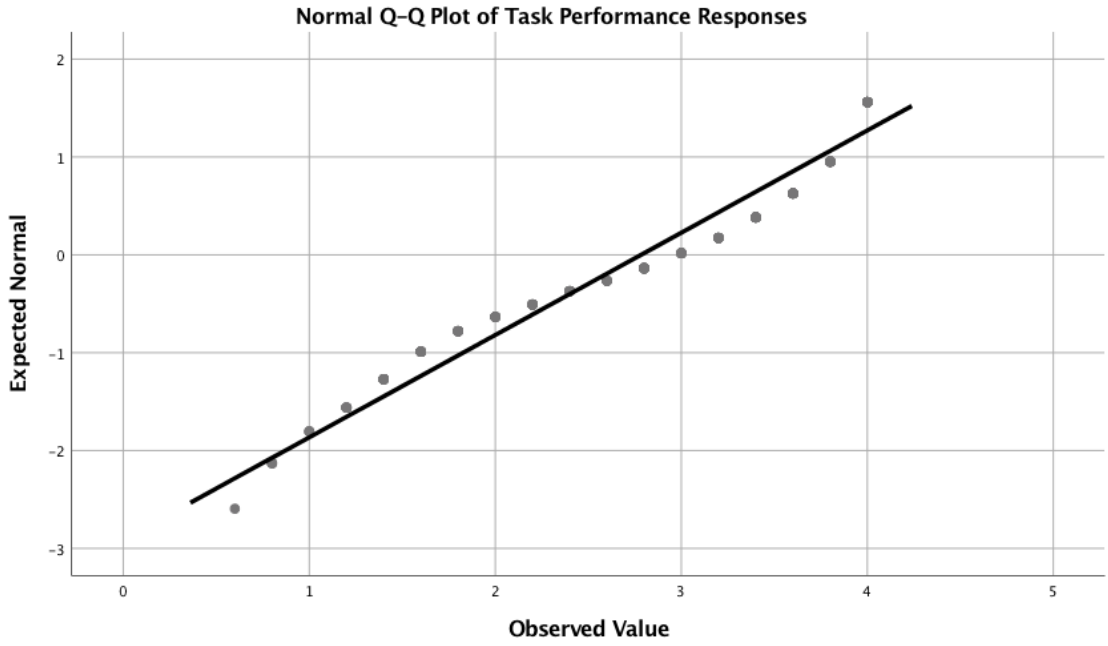

Figure 3. Normal probability plots for TP participant responses for veteran and nonveteran ($N = 210$).

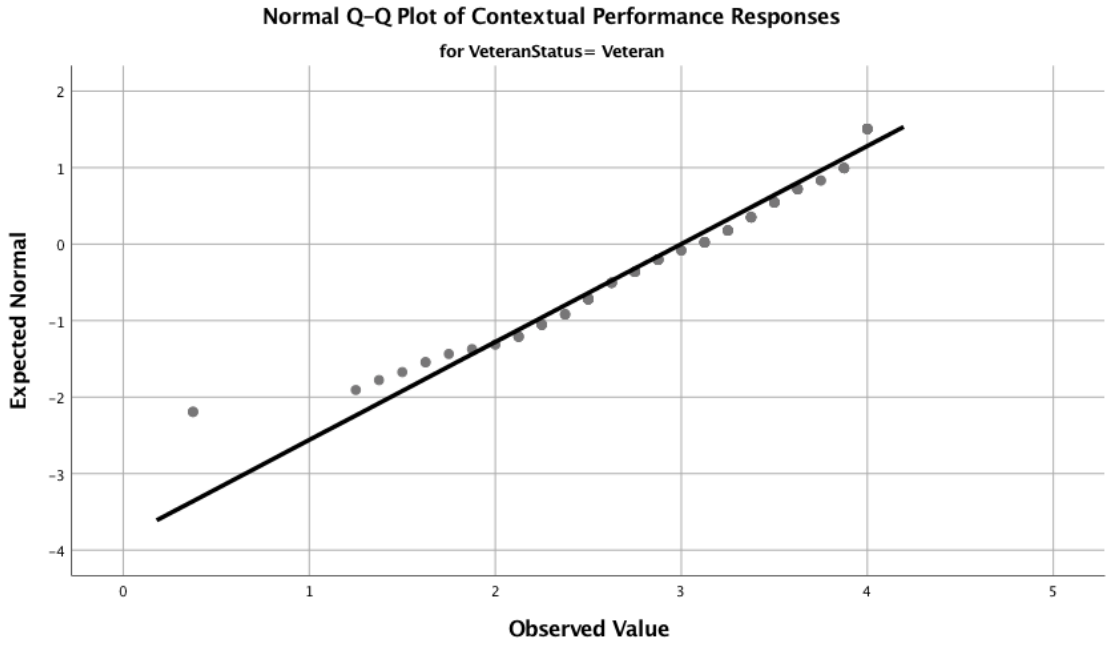

Figure 4. Normal probability plots of veterans' CP ($N = 105$).

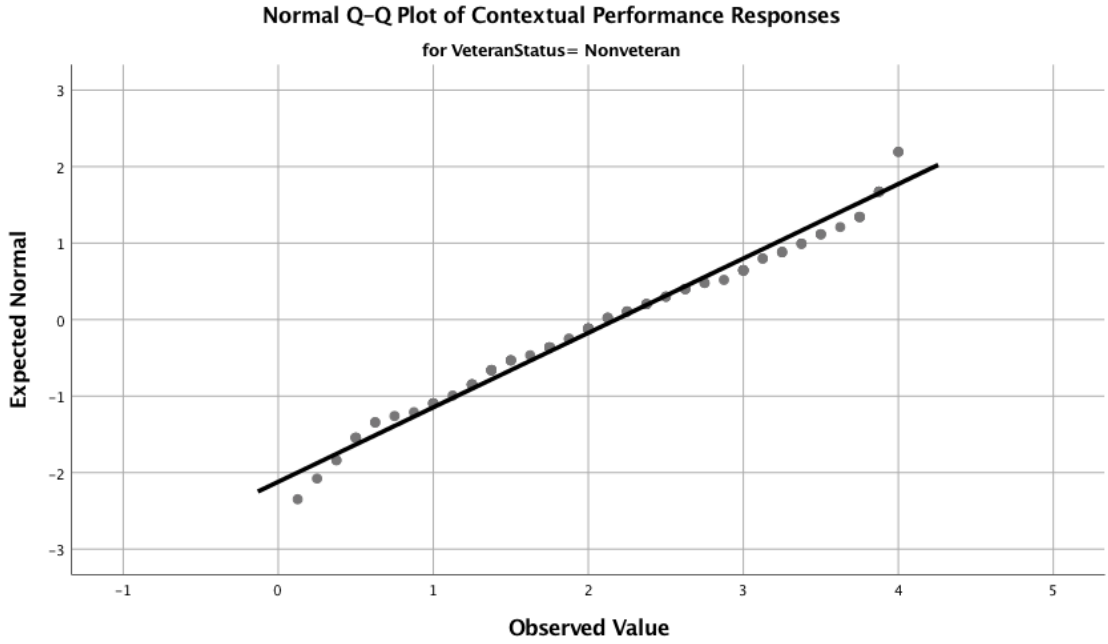

Figure 5. Normal probability plots of nonveterans' CP ($N = 105$).

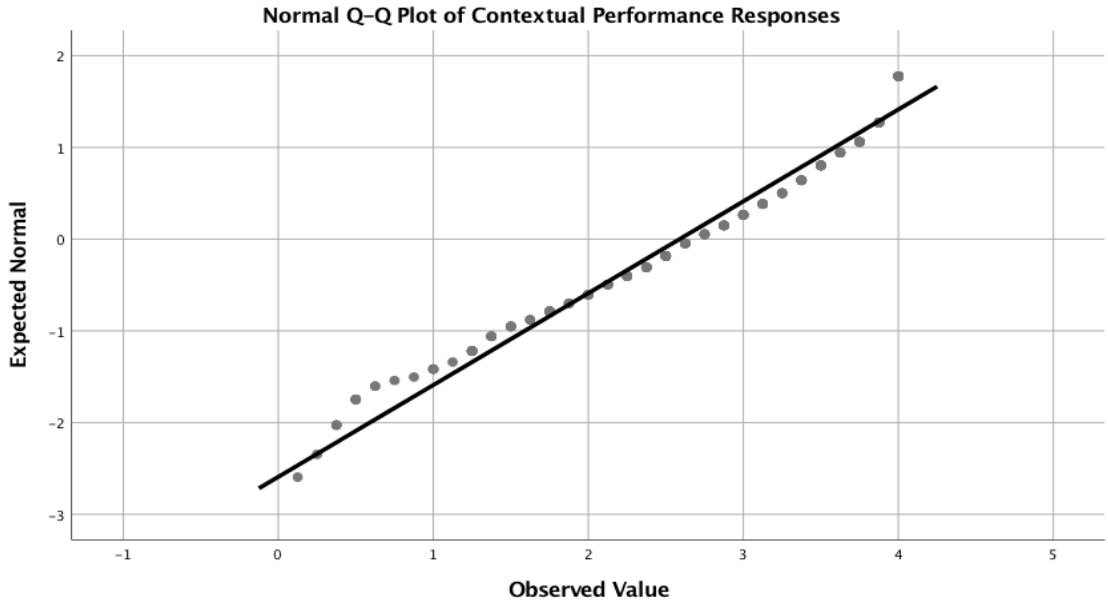

Figure 6. Normal probability plots for CP participant responses for veteran and nonveteran ($N = 210$).

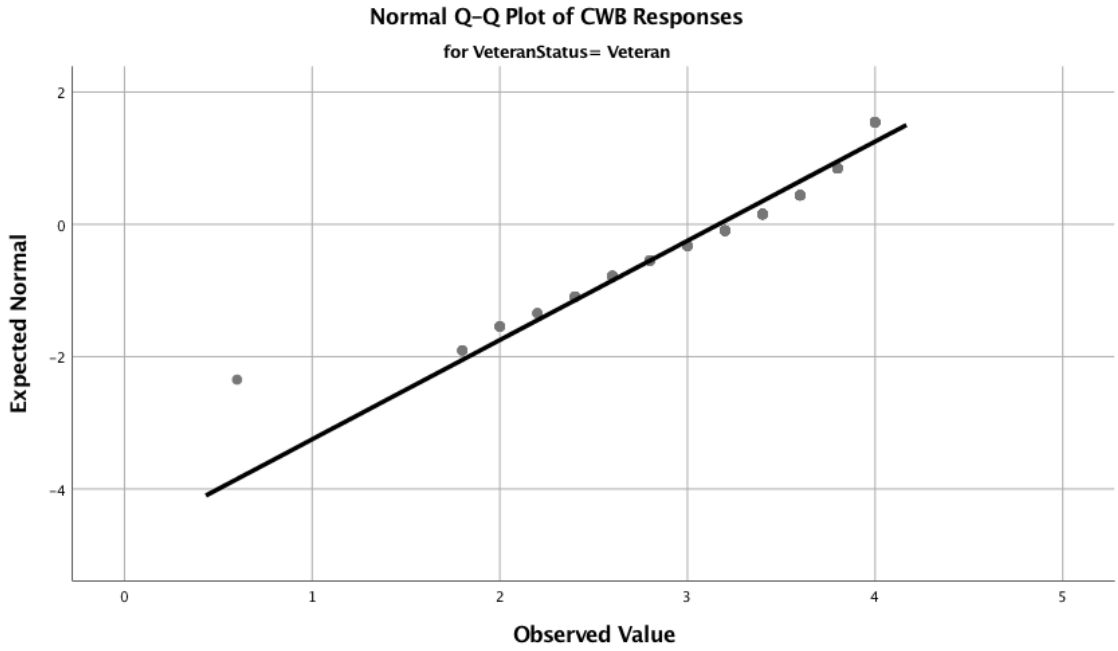

Figure 7. Normal probability plots for veterans CWB ($N = 105$).

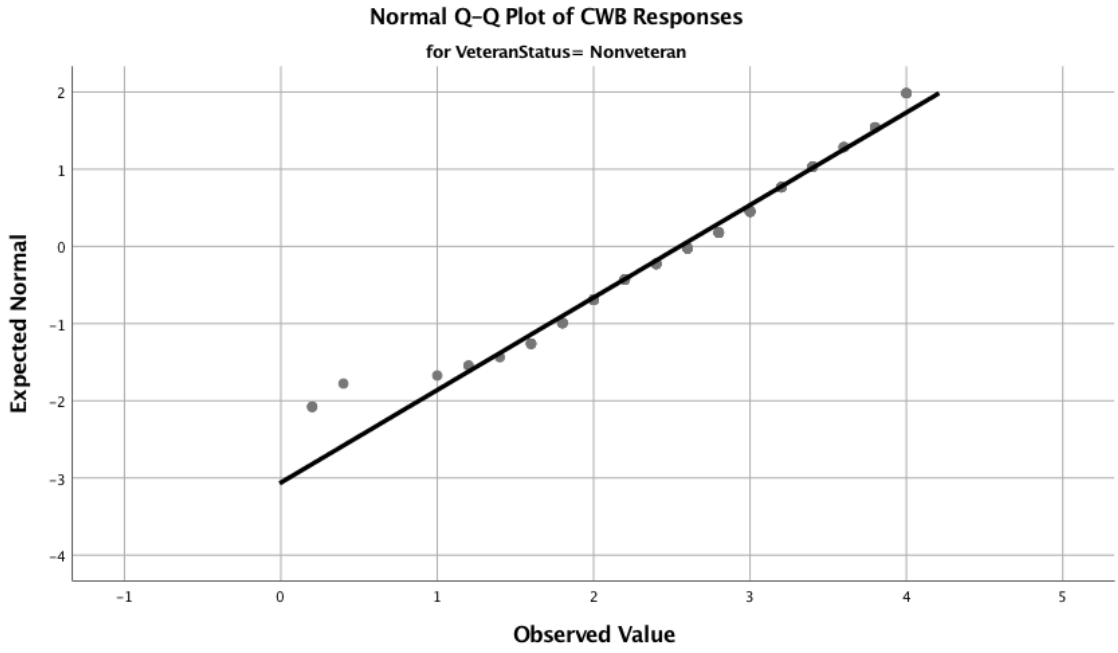

Figure 8. Normal probability plots for nonveterans CWB (*N* = 105).

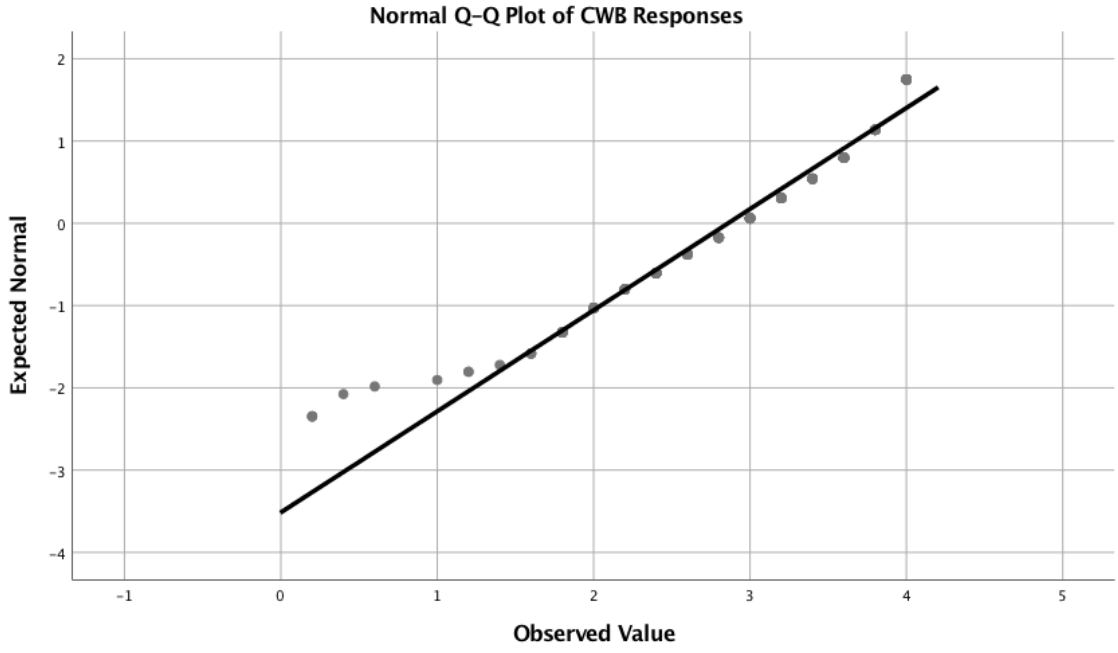

Figure 9. Normal probability plots for CWB participant responses for veteran and nonveteran (*N* = 210).

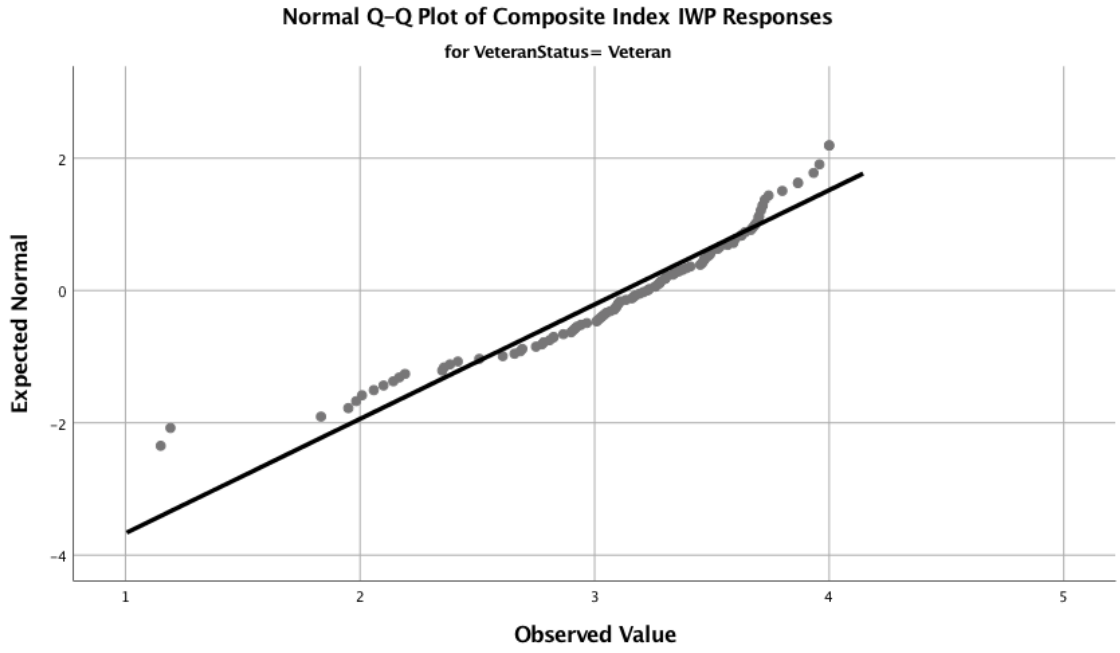

Figure 10. Normal probability plots for veterans composite index IWP ($N = 105$).

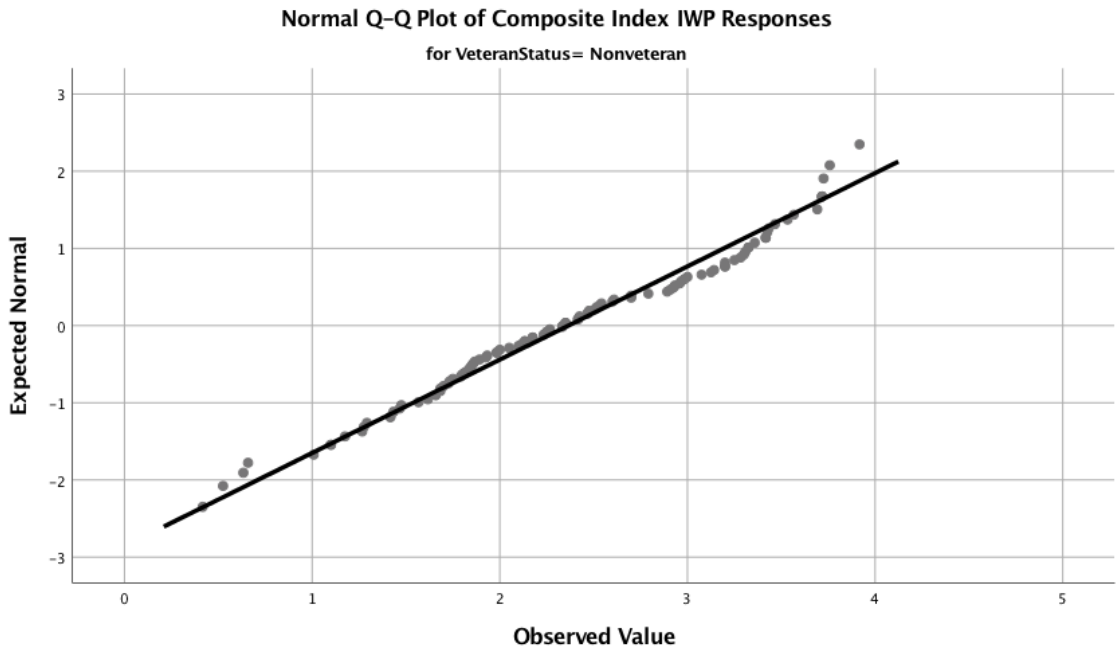

Figure 11. Normal probability plots for nonveterans composite index IWP ($N = 105$).

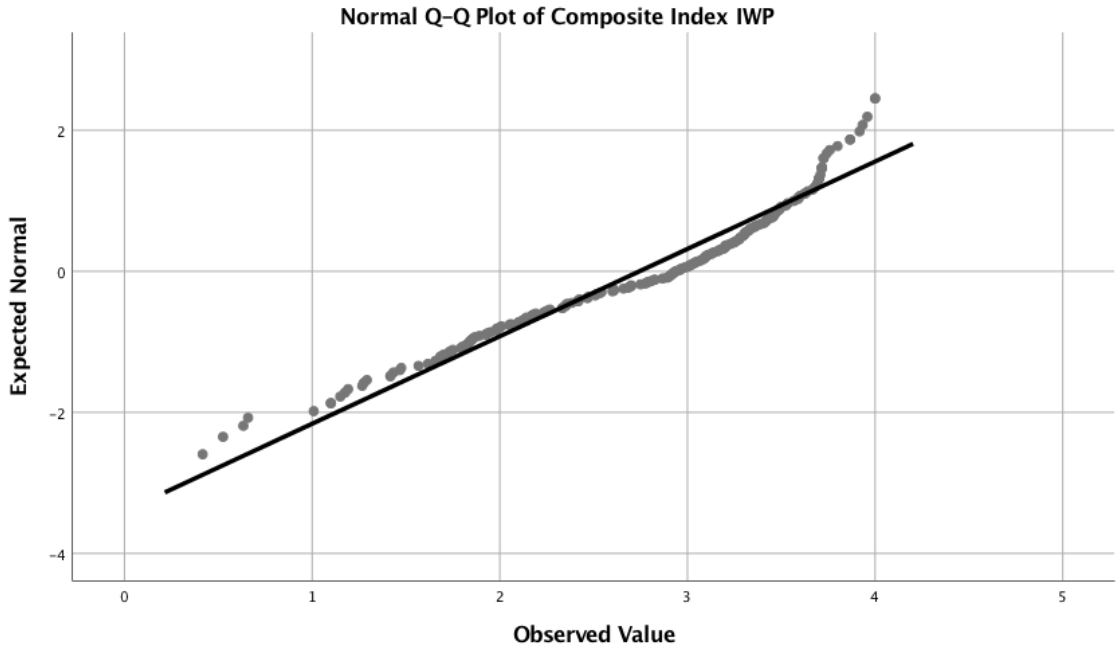

Figure 12. Normal probability plots for composite index IWP ($N = 210$).

To address the assumption of equal variance, Levene's Test for Homogeneity of Variance was employed (Field, 2013). The test was performed in SPSS as part of the independent samples *t* test. Equal variances assumed and equal variances not assumed were the two possible outcomes. If $p > .05$, then equal variances were assumed. If $p < .05$ equal variances were not assumed (see Table 8). Based on the outcome of Levene's test, I used the appropriate *t* test (equal or not equal variances).

Table 8

Levene's Test for Equality of Variances

	F	Sig	Equal/Not Equal
Composite Index IWP	18.22	<.001	Not Assumed
TP	14.62	<.001	Not Assumed
CP	11.02	0.001	Not Assumed
CWB	3.55	0.061	Assumed

Note. N = 210 (105 Veterans and 105 Nonveterans). Scales based on a 5-point Likert scale that ranged from 0 = *Seldom*, 1 = *Sometimes*, 2 = *Regularly*, 3 = *Often*, and 4 = *Always* for TP & CP. Scales based on a 5-point Likert scale ranged from 4 = *Never*, 3 = *Seldom,* 2 = *Sometimes*, 1 = *Regularly* and 0 = *Often* for CWB. IWP stands for Individual Work Performance. TP before the number stands for Task Performance and then the question number. CP before the number stands for Contextual Performance and then the question number. CWB before the number stands for Counter-Productive Work Behavior and then the question number. *F* = *F* distribution.

Statistical Analysis

Independent samples *t* test. I used SPSS to determine if there were differences between the means of the scores of the two groups (veterans and nonveterans) for the four dependent variables (TP, CP, and CWB), and for the aggregate/composite index. To test the null and alternative hypotheses an independent samples *t* test was performed on the means for each group. The analysis of the data used an alpha value of 0.05. The focus of the independent samples *t* test in interpreting the significance of four hypothesis tests was on the *p*-value compared to alpha.

Table 9 summarizes the independent samples *t* test significance results.

Table 9

Test Results

	Outcome
Composite Index IWP	There was a difference in the perceptions of veterans' and nonveterans' latent variable IWP.
TP	There was a difference in the perceptions of veterans' and nonveterans' work knowledge, quantity produced, and skills.
CP	There was a difference in the perceptions of veterans' and nonveterans' communication, adaptability, and demonstrating effort in the workplace.
CWB	There was a difference in the perceptions of veterans' and nonveterans of absence from work, unproductive, and untrustworthy behavior due to theft or other similar negative characteristics associated with CWB

Note. N = 210 (105 Veterans and 105 Nonveterans). Scales based on a 5 - point Likert scale that ranged from 0 = *Seldom*, 1 = *Sometimes*, 2 = *Regularly*, 3 = *Often*, and 4 = *Always* for TP & CP. Scales based on a 5-point Likert scale ranged from 4 = *Never*, 3 = *Seldom,* 2 = *Sometimes*, 1 = *Regularly* and 0 = *Often* for CWB. IWP stands for Individual Work Performance. TP before the number stands for Task Performance and then the question number. CP before the number stands for Contextual Performance and then the question number. CWB before the number stands for Counter-Productive Work Behavior and then the question number.

Research questions and hypotheses. The question and hypotheses that guided this research follow.

RQ: What are the differences between U.S. Army veterans' IWPs (TP, CP, CWB, and aggregate/composite index) and those of nonveterans?

H_o1: Veterans have a mean TP equal to nonveterans.

H_a1: Veterans have a mean TP not equal to nonveterans.

Table 10 shows the result of the unequal variance independent samples *t* test of TP. Participants who were veterans measured higher at their work job knowledge,

quantity produced, and skills (M = 3.20, SE = 0.07) compared to nonveterans (M = 2.36, SE 0.09). This difference, 0.84, 95% CI [0.60, 1.07], was statistically significant $t(196.00) = 7.03$, $p < .001$. Based on the independent samples t test, the null hypothesis H_o1 was rejected indicating there was sufficient evidence that the two groups of veterans and nonveterans had different means. The practical significance of the magnitude between the means is the effect size. The mean for veterans is 1.12 standard deviations higher than the mean for nonveterans. The effect size of 1.12 for TP is greater than 0.80, which is large in magnitude (Cohen; 1992).

Table 10

Independent t test Results for TP

					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	T	*Df*	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	*LL*	*UL*
TP	7.030	196	<.001	.836	.602	1.070

Note. N = 210 (105 Veterans and 105 Nonveterans). Scales based on a 5 - point Likert scale that ranged from 0 = *Seldom*, 1 = *Sometimes*, 2 = *Regularly*, 3 = *Often*, and 4 = *Always.* TP = Task Performance; p = Probability; t = t test statistic; *Df* = degrees of freedom; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* = upper limit.

H_o2_2: Veterans have a mean CP equal to nonveterans.

H_a2: Veterans have a mean CP not equal to nonveterans.

Table 11 shows the result of the unequal variance independent samples t test of CP. Participants who were veterans measured higher at communication, adaptability, and demonstrating effort in the workplace (M = 3.00, SE = 0.08) compared to nonveterans (M = 2.18, SE 0.10). This difference, 0.82, 95% CI [0.57, 1.07], was statistically significant $t(194.06) = 6.51$, $p < .001$. Based on the independent samples t test, the null hypothesis

H_o2 was rejected. The practical significance of the magnitude between the means is the effect size. The mean for veterans is 1.05 standard deviations higher than the mean for nonveterans. The effect size of 1.05 for CP is greater than 0.80, which is large in magnitude (Cohen; 1992).

Table 11

Independent Samples t test Results for CP

					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	t	*Df*	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	*LL*	*UL*
CP	6.513	194	<.001	.820	.572	1.070

Note. N = 210 (105 Veterans and 105 Nonveterans). 0 = *Seldom*, 1 = *Sometimes*, 2 = *Regularly*, 3 = *Often*, and 4 = *Always.* CP = Contextual Performance; *p* = probability; *t* = *t* test statistic; *Df* = degrees of freedom; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* = upper limit.

Results for Counter-Productive Work Behavior Individual Responses

H_o3: Veterans have a mean CWB equal to nonveterans.

H_a3: Veterans have a mean CWB not equal to nonveterans.

Table 12 shows the result of the unequal variance independent samples *t* test of CWB. Participants who were veterans measured higher which means that they have lower measures of absence from work, unproductive, and untrustworthy behavior due to theft or other similar negative characteristics associated with CWB ($M = 3.16$, $SE = 0.06$) compared to nonveterans ($M = 2.55$, SE 0.08). This difference, 0.61, 95% CI [0.41, 0.82], was statistically significant $t(208) = 5.89$, $p < .001$. Based on the independent samples *t* test, the null hypothesis H_o3 was rejected. The practical significance of the magnitude between the means is the effect size. The mean for veterans is 0.91 standard deviations

higher than the mean for nonveterans. The effect size of 0.91 for CWB is greater than 0.80, which is large in magnitude (Cohen; 1992).

Table 12

Independent Samples t test Results for CWB

					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	T	*Df*	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	*LL*	*UL*
CWB	5.886	208	<.001	.613	.408	.819

Note. N = 210 (105 Veterans and 105 Nonveterans). Scales based on a 5 - point Likert scale that ranged from 4 = *Never*, 3 = *Seldom,* 2 = *Sometimes*, 1 = *Regularly* and 0 = *Often.* CWB = Counter-Productive Work Behavior; *p* = probability; *t* = *t* test statistic; *Df* = degrees of freedom; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* = upper limit.

H_o4: Veterans have a mean aggregate IWP equal to nonveterans.

H_a4: Veterans have a mean aggregate IWP not equal to nonveterans.

Table 13 shows the result of the unequal variance independent samples *t* test of the composite index of IWP. Participants who were veterans measured higher for the composite index IWP (*M* = 3.12, *SE* = 0.06) compared to nonveterans (*M* = 2.36, *SE* 0.08). This difference, 0.76, 95% CI [0.56, 0.95], was statistically significant $t(186) = 7.68$, $p < .001$. Based on the independent samples *t* test, the null hypothesis H_o4 was rejected. The practical significance of the magnitude between the means is the effect. The mean for veterans is 1.31 standard deviations higher than the mean for nonveterans. The effect size of 1.31 for aggregate/composite index IWP is greater than 0.80, which is large in magnitude (Cohen; 1992).

Table 13

Independent Samples t test for Composite IWP

					95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
	T	*Df*	Sig (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	*LL*	*UL*
IWP	7.680	186	<.001	.756	.562	.951

Note. N = 210 (105 Veterans and 105 Nonveterans). Scales based on a 5 - point Likert scale that ranged from 4 = *Never*, 3 = *Seldom,* 2 = *Sometimes*, 1 = *Regularly* and 0 = *Often.* IWP = Individual Work Performance; *p* = probability; *t* = *t* test statistic; *Df* = degrees of freedom; *LL* = lower limit; *UL* = upper limit.

Summary

The results of the study show that veterans' and nonveterans' have differences in their work performance. The three dependent variable measures (TP, CP, and CWB) for veterans and nonveterans each has a midpoint value of 2 in the survey instrument. A value less than 2 implies negative attributes of TP, CP, CWB, and aggregate/ composite index and a value greater than 2 implies positive attributes of TP, CP, CWB, and aggregate/composite index. The data analysis assessed 210 responses (105 veterans and 105 nonveterans) for each dependent variable. All of the following results were statistically significant.

The dependent variable TP mean of 3.20 for veterans was above the midpoint test value of 2 and the nonveterans' mean of 2.36 which indicates positive attributes for both independent variables. TP positive attributes include work job knowledge, quantity produced, and skills.

The dependent variable CP mean of 3.00 for veterans was above the midpoint test value of 2 the nonveterans' mean of 2.18 which indicates positive attributes for both

independent variables. CP positive attributes include good communication, adaptability, and demonstrating effort in the workplace.

The dependent variable CWB mean 3.16 for veterans was above the midpoint test value of 2 and the nonveterans' mean of 2.55. CWB is a negative attribute, but in the survey, it is measured by a reverse scoring approach to be consistent with the other attributes. The higher the score, the more likely the variable is measuring positive attributes, the opposite of absence from work, unproductive, and untrustworthy behavior due to theft or other similar negative characteristics.

In summary, the research question and four hypotheses that guided the research were addressed based on the statistical analysis of an independent samples *t* test. The research question asked what the differences are between U.S. Army veterans' IWP (TP, CP, CWB, and aggregate/composite index) and those of nonveterans. The answer to the research question for each of the four hypotheses is provided as follows.

Veterans measured higher for positive attributes of TP than nonveterans. TP is defined as the attributes that concern work job knowledge, quantity produced, and skills. This measure was statistically significant indicating differences between the two groups.

Veterans measured higher for positive attributes of CP than nonveterans. CP is defined as the attributes that concern communication, adaptability, and demonstrating effort in the workplace. This measure was statistically significant indicating differences between the two groups.

Veterans measured higher for the positive attributes of CWB than nonveterans. CWB is defined as absence from work, unproductive, and untrustworthy behavior due to

theft or other similar negative characteristics. CWB scale is a negative attribute, but in the survey, it is measured by a reverse scoring approach to be consistent with the other attributes. The higher the score, the more likely the variable is measuring a positive attribute. This measure was statistically significant indicating differences between the two groups.

Veterans measured higher for the positive attributes for the aggregate/composite index, IWP. Aggregate composite index is the combination of TP, CP, and CWB, which are the positive attributes that align with goals of organization.

Chapter 5 provides the interpretation of findings from the research study limitations based on the generalizability of the research study, recommendations for future research, implications to positive social change, and conclusion capturing the essence of the research study.

Chapter 5: Discussion, Conclusions, and Recommendations

The purpose of this study was to determine whether there were differences between Army veterans' and nonveterans' transferable IWP (TP, CP, CWB, and aggregate/composite index). I used a nonexperimental, quantitative, cross-sectional research design. The study was grounded in Koopmans et al.'s (2011) theoretical IWP framework. The dependent variables were four measures of IWP (TP, CP, CWB, and a composite index), and the independent variable was veteran status with two values: veterans and nonveterans. The survey instrument consisted of 18 Likert-scale questions based on three different scales and some demographic questions.

This research was conducted to address the research problem, which was that managers do not understand how Army veterans fit in the private sector. This study was conducted to determine whether and to what extent Army veterans' IWPs differed from nonveterans'. Industry employers' understanding of veterans transferable IWPs may improve hiring opportunities for service members. The research question was the following: What are the differences between U.S. Army veterans' IWPs (TP, CP, CWB, and aggregate/composite index) and those of nonveterans? The mean differences between veterans' and nonveterans' TP, CP, CWB, and the composite index of IWP were statistically significant.

$H_o1$was rejected because there was sufficient evidence that the mean difference between the two groups of veterans and nonveterans was statistically significant. Per the effect size, the veterans' mean was 1.12 standard deviations higher than the nonveterans' mean for TP. The operational significance of the effect size of 1.12 was that veterans

were at the 86th percentile of nonveterans concerning their perceptions based on their work job knowledge, quantity produced, and skills.

H_o2 was rejected because there was sufficient evidence that the mean difference between the two groups of veterans and nonveterans was statistically significant. Per the effect size, the veterans' mean was 1.05 standard deviations higher than the nonveterans' mean for CP. The operational significance of the effect size of 1.05 was that veterans were at the 84th percentile of nonveterans concerning their perceptions of communication, adaptability, and demonstrating effort in the workplace.

H_o3 was rejected because there was sufficient evidence that the mean difference between the two groups of veterans and nonveterans was statistically significant. Per the effect size, the veterans' mean was 0.91 standard deviations higher than the nonveterans' mean for CWB. The operational significance of the effect size of 0.91 was that veterans were at the 90th percentile of nonveterans concerning their perceptions of communication, adaptability, and demonstrating effort in the workplace.

H_o4 was rejected because there was sufficient evidence that the mean difference between the two groups of veterans and nonveterans was statistically significant. Per the effect size, the veterans' mean was 1.31 standard deviations higher than the nonveterans' mean for the aggregate/composite index of IWP. The operational significance of the effect size of 1.31 was that veterans were at the 90th percentile of nonveterans concerning their work performance, which included TP, CP, and CWB. The results showed that the two groups of veterans and nonveterans had different means regarding their perceptions of their work job knowledge, quantity produced, and skills. This chapter includes the

interpretation of findings, limitations of the study, recommendations based on the study, implications of the research, and a conclusion. Recommendations for future research of veterans is also discussed.

Summary of Findings

The research question for this study was the following: What are the differences between U.S. Army veterans' IWP (TP, CP, CWB, and aggregate/composite index) and those of nonveterans? The results suggested a difference between veterans' and nonveterans' IWPs, for all the measures. The veterans' TP measure of 3.20 was in the 75^{th} - 90^{th} (3.00 - 3.32) percentile range ("high") compared to the nonveterans' measure of 2.36, which was in the 25^{th}-75^{th} (2.17 - 2.99) percentile range ("average"). Veterans' CP measure of 3.00 was in the 75^{th}-90^{th} (2.88 - 3.24) percentile range ("high") compared to the nonveterans' measure of 2.18, which was in the 25^{th}-75^{th} (1.88 - 2.87) percentile range ("average"). Veterans' CWB measure of 3.16 was in the 90^{th} (≥ 2.00) percentile range ("very high") compared to the nonveterans' measure of 2.55, which was also in the 90^{th} (≥ 2.00) percentile range ("very high").

TP veterans' highest (M = 3.35) question scored above average, and the lowest (M = 2.72) question scored within average. Nonveterans' highest (M = 2.78) and lowest (M = 1.86) questions scored within average. The IWPQ scores showed the average for CWB ranged from 0.80 to 1.59 when compared with the population. Veterans' highest (M = 3.68) and lowest (M = 2.85) questions scored above average. Nonveterans' highest (M = 3.01) and lowest (M = 2.34) questions scored above average. The scores indicated that in comparison to the national average, veterans at Large military site scored above average

for all three dependent variables (TP, CP, and CWB) on the survey. Nonveterans at Large military site scored average for TP and CP and above average for CWB on the survey. There was no interpretation of score for the aggregate composite index of IWP. Table 14 shows Koopmans et al.'s (2015) interpretation of the IWPQ scores.

Table 14

Interpretation of IWPQ Scores

	TP	CP	CWB
Interpretation			
"Very Low" ($\leq 10^{th}$ percentile)	≤ 1.83	≤ 1.37	≤ 0.40
"Low" (10^{th} – 25^{th} percentile)	1.84 – 2.16	1.38 – 1.87	0.41 – 0.79
"Average" (25^{th} – 75^{th} percentile)	2.17 – 2.99	1.88 – 2.87	0.80 – 1.59
"High" (75^{th} – 90^{th} percentile)	3.00 – 3.32	2.88 – 3.24	1.60 – 1.99
"Very High" ($\geq 90^{th}$ percentile)	≥ 3.33	≥ 3.25	≥ 2.00

Note. This table was reproduced from the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (Koopmans et al., 2015). TP = Task Performance; CP = Contextual Performance; CWB = Counterproductive Work Behavior.

Interpretation of Results

Data collected from the 210 respondents (105 veterans and 105 nonveterans) provided insight into the perceptions of factors that relate to IWP theory. In this section, I describe how the results were used to answer the research question by explaining how the results confirmed, disconfirmed, or extended findings from the peer-reviewed literature reviewed in Chapter 2. Harrell and Berglass (2012) examined issues surrounding veteran employees by conducting interviews with 87 individual private sector managers from 69 different private sector companies. Several reasons identified for hiring veterans were

their leadership skills; they are high performers with character and discipline; they are effective, resilient, loyal; and they value relations (Harrell & Berglass, 2012). Through the IWP theoretical framework, my research confirmed that veterans are highly skilled, disciplined, effective, and resilient performers.

Task performance is based on skills, knowledge, and discipline. Veterans scored high in the 75th - 90th percentile, and nonveterans scored average in the 25th - 75th percentile. Contextual performance is based on the behavioral aspect, which includes effective and resilient. According to study results, veterans scored higher than the theoretical average. Lin et al. (2013) suggested that organizational acquisitions are higher among CEOs who have prior military experience. CEOs with a military value system are valuable to businesses. Additionally, they are more likely to complete deals while lowering costs, and their negotiations lead to higher and better returns, which makes acquisition stocks attractive to stakeholders (Lin et al., 2013). The results of my research suggested that veterans have a higher measure in performing a task to completion compared to nonveterans, as well as a higher measure of contextual performance than nonveterans, which may be related to the psychological value system of CEOs with military experience.

Benmelech and Frydman (2015) found that CEOs with prior military experience are beneficial to organizations. Additionally, CEOs with military experience have solid management styles and a strong sense of ethics associated with their ability to deal with crises and maintain high levels of resiliency (Benmelech & Frydman, 2015). My research

based on the theoretical framework of IWP indicated that organizations benefit by hiring veterans because veterans' work ethic is higher than that of nonveterans.

Ozlen (2014) suggested that former-military employees do well in various positions within organizations, whether as leaders, members, or supporters. Organizations benefit from both the motivation and performance of the employees as well as the experience and knowledge that military employees transfer (Ozlen, 2014). Ozlen further suggested that military experience transfers to civilian industries. My research confirmed that veterans have higher performance measures than those of nonveterans, which include task, mental, and behavioral performance.

Yellin (2012) found that military service has a significant impact on veterans and identified essential mind-sets that influence their decisions after service. The two mind-sets that the Army rated the highest in were communicative and decisive (Yellin, 2012). My research confirmed that Army veterans have high communicative and decisive mindsets. Specifically, the communicative mind-set and conceptual performance basis is on the behavioral and social atmosphere. Veterans scored "high" for conceptual performance in the 75th - 95th percentile, and nonveterans scored "average" in the 25th - 75th percentile. The decisive mind-set and task performance both relate to decision-making. Veterans scored "high" for task performance, and nonveterans scored "average" in the 25th - 75th percentile (2.36). According to these results, the veterans scored higher than the theoretical average.

Kukla et al. (2015) noted that social norms attributed to veterans have an impact on employers' views concerning hiring them. To understand veterans and the military

culture veterans are associated with, private sector organizations must have proactive managers who research, learn, and educate employees to generate positive collaboration and shared organizational vision on perspectives and techniques related to hiring military veterans (Jacob, 2014; Nastase et al., 2012; Spencer & Ayoub, 2014). My research extended the knowledge about veterans based on the theoretical framework of IWP by adding new information on veterans IWP to the management literature.

Routon (2014) suggested that military experience transfers into the civilian workforce and compared military experience to civilian vocational learning. Routon noted that veterans who transfer their skills into the civilian workforce would exceed civilian-trained individuals in work performance within a 2-year time frame. My research confirmed that military experience does transfer and that veterans measured higher than nonveterans on most of the dimensions measured. The evidence was in the higher-than-average population scores for veterans compared to nonveterans in civilian industry.

Themes in private sector research included private industry's lack of knowledge about veterans and how they fit into the civilian industry. The differences in cultures affect military veterans' transition into the private sector, and a major theme in the literature review was stereotypes, stigmas, and biases affecting industry perceptions of veterans and impacting hiring managers' decisions. My research added to the knowledge about veterans through the theoretical framework of IWP, which is used to measures the technical, cognitive, and behavioral aspects of individuals.

Limitations of the Study

The planning and execution of this research study considered the limitations based on generalizability to population trustworthiness, validity (internal and external), and reliability. Two limitations could have affected internal validity. The two limitations focused on the assessment tool, a self-reporting survey. Veteran and nonveteran participants self-reported their perceptions based on 18 Likert Scale survey questions. Internal consistency mitigated through the self-reporting assessment tool required a response recollection of three months and to eliminate potential bias, the survey was anonymous. The participants of the study where voluntary and self-selected themselves as anonymous respondents; therefore, external validity was mitigated. The study can be generalized to the Large military site population. The 210 participants provided an equal sample size of 105 veterans and 105 nonveterans. The normality test of the data was tested and fell within the acceptable ranges. The sample was representative of the population as shown in the descriptive statistics.

Recommendations

Strengths and limitations associated with this study provide an opportunity for future research of veterans. Although differences related to veterans' and nonveterans' IWPs were mostly significant, future studies related to veterans are essential and needed. Research into IWP from different broadened populations (e.g., private sector industry) and other DoD branches (Air Force, Marines, Navy, or Coast Guard) may prove significant. Correlation and prospective studies on the relationships between veterans'

and nonveterans' IWPs, especially on factors that impact or increase IWP would extend knowledge.

Future research should address the limitations of this study. Self-reporting is associated with several different biases and was a limitation in this study that could affect internal validity. Analysis using alternate data collection processes from the methodologies used in this study would add to the knowledge of veterans and IWP. Larger sample sizes and broader populations, even within the Army, would extend the information yielded from my research.

Implications

Implications are the potential outcomes based on something implied ("implications," n.d.). My research showed that veterans' IWP based on the three of the four measures (TP, CP, CWB, and aggregate/composite index) were higher than that of nonveterans. The results indicate several implications that could help managers, veterans, and society.

Recommendations for Practice

Considering the results and available literature on veterans' and nonveterans' IWPs, the recommendation for professional practice is that the private sector and industry leaders, managers, employers, and employees further develop their knowledge and understanding of veterans. This research study could be a pamphlet, research article, briefing presentation or even a module in a transition program to further education and sharing of information. Education, training, and interactions with the veteran community should be available and encouraged to facilitate positive perceptions associated with

veterans in the civilian workplace which could facilitate return on investment individually, organizationally, and societally.

Managers who understand the higher IWP attributes of veterans could benefit by taking advantage of the higher IWP attributes that veterans transfer to their companies. These attributes include higher measures of time management, planning, prioritization, task participation, initiative, and problem-solving. IWP attributes also include lower measures of negative behaviors such as absenteeism, complaining over minor problems, and focusing on the negative aspects of work. These attributes point to gained efficiencies and higher production, which could have significant impacts for growth within their organizations.

Theoretical Implications

As managers internalize, veteran's attributes results could lead to hiring higher rates of veterans as well as providing greater numbers of promotion opportunities for veterans as companies adjust their talent management processes to leverage veterans' skill sets fully. Additionally, when veterans fully understand how they compare with their non-veteran counterparts concerning IWP, there is the potential for veterans to leverage more effectively their unique attributes, leading to better employment and promotion opportunities.

The peer-reviewed literature presented a private sector civilian culture with a lack of understanding of Army veterans. This lack of knowledge and understanding has led to a variety of negative misconceptions, stigmas, stereotyping, and bias toward veterans (Delbourg-Delphis, 2014). Cross-cultural knowledge enables better situational

understanding of all stakeholders and can bring positive change where career transition challenges exist (Brown & Lent, 2013), which could reduce private sector employers' misperceptions of veterans and add to the management literature.

Impact for Positive Social Change

The implication for positive social change is that, over time, there is an increased understanding of veterans' IWP resulting in a change in society's perception and attitudes toward veterans. This societal change could lead to lower unemployment rates for veterans as the result of new perceptions that being a veteran creates a competitive advantage in the private sector workplace. Cross-cultural understanding and shared cultural communication by people at all levels are where the impact of positive social change exists. Change happens through increased knowledge and greater understanding of different cultures.

Conclusions

The study showed that differences related to IWP exist between veteran and nonveteran civilian employees working at the military installation at Large military site, NC. The results showed that veterans have a higher aggregate composite index of IWP as well as higher dimensions of the positive attributes of TP, CP, and CWB than that of nonveterans. The outcome created new information concerning veterans' transferable IWP.

The research study consisted of an anonymous web-based survey with 210 participants (105 veteran and 105 nonveterans). The dependent variables were the aggregate index of IWP and the dimensions of TP, CP, and CWB. The independent

variable was the veterans' status (veteran and nonveteran civilian employees). The results of the independent-samples *t* tests suggested differences for veterans and nonveterans for all of the dependent variables.

Positive social change comes from the understanding of veterans' IWP. If the results of this study are internalized by hiring officials and managers throughout the country, the results could lead to a change in private sector perceptions of veterans as individuals with positive and sought-after work attributes and with a competitive advantage in the workplace. Consequently, this research could not only lead to lower unemployment of veterans but also lead to higher productivity of companies that hire veterans.

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Appendix A: Request Letter for Permission to use Garrison Email Enterprise

Mr. Mitchell

Deputy Garrison Commander

Subject: Permission to Conduct Research

Greetings Mr. Mitchell,

My name is Petrina Stack. I am a doctoral candidate at Walden University, in the Philosophy of Management, specializing in Leadership and Organizational Change Ph.D. program.

I am researching the individual work performance of veterans and nonveterans in the workforce..

The purpose of my study is to determine if there are differences in military veterans' transferable IWP: task performance, contextual performance and CWB compared to those of nonveterans.

I respectfully request permission to conduct a research study on the military Installation utilizing the Garrison Email Enterprise to distribute my survey to the sample frame.

The survey will be accessible by a link to SurveyMonkey sent out in an email explaining the participant population and study for those who voluntarily wish to participate. Before receiving access to the survey, the participants will give informed consent, as required by the Internal Revenue Board (IRB) in all research studies. The survey is completely voluntary and anonymous, so the participants' identity is protected.

The survey utilizes three validated scales, and requests the participant to answer 18 questions via a Likert Scale method. The three validated scale subjects are Task Performance, Contextual Performance, and Counterproductive Work Behavior.
I would be happy to share the results of my study with you.

Thank you in advance for your consideration,

Very Respectfully,

Petrina V. Stack

Appendix B: Permission Granted to use Government Server

From: ”Mitchell, Justin O CIV USARMY ID-READINESS (US)”

<justin.o.mitchell.civ@mail.mil>

To: ”Stack, Petrina V CIV USARMY ACC MICC (US)”

<petrina.v.stack.civ@mail.mil>, “Trowersimpkins, Barbara J CIV USARMY ID-READINESS (US)” <barbara.j.trowersimpkins.civ@mail.mil>

Cc: ”McCollum, Thomas D CIV USARMY ID-READINESS (US)”

<thomas.d.mccollum2.civ@mail.mil>

Bcc:

Date: Wed, 17 Oct 2018 12:16:49 +0000

Subject: survey

Mrs. Stack,

The SJA has approved your survey and the Union has not objected to sending to the employees. Please get with Ms. Trower-Simpkins or Mr. McCollum on how you would like to distribute your survey and get returns.

Take care

Justin

Appendix C: Recruitment Email for Participants

Hello,

My name is Petrina Stack. I am a doctoral candidate at Walden University, in the Philosophy of Management, specializing in Leadership and Organizational Change Ph.D. program. I am conducting research about individual work performance.

This is an offer to participate in a doctoral research survey that takes approximately six minutes to complete about veterans and nonveterans individual work performance: task performance, contextual performance, and counterproductive work behavior.

The potential benefits of the study to the larger population will be the positive social change that may come due to an increased awareness among employers of the transferable work performance of military veterans.

Participation is completely voluntary and your answers will be anonymous.

For those who are interested in participating please click on either of the following links for the survey and additional information:

Veterans Link: www.surveymonkey.com.

Nonveterans Link: www.surveymonkey.com.

If you have any questions or concerns, I can be contacted at petrina.stack@waldenu.edu.

Thank you for your time.

Petrina Stack

Doctoral Student

Walden University

This survey was approved for transmission on the Government network by installation Staff Judge Advocate (SJA), and command.

Appendix D: Demographic Survey for Participants

Are you a current employee at the Large military site Military Installation in North Carolina?

- o Yes
- o No

Have you ever served in any branch of the United States military?

- o Yes, I have
- o No, I have not

In which branch (or branches) of the United States military have you served? (Check all that apply)

- o Army
- o Marine Corps
- o Navy
- o Air Force
- o Coast Guard
- o None

How many years of service in United States military?

- 1 to 5 years
- 6 to 10 years
- 11 to 15 years
- 16 to 20 years
- 21 to 25 years
- 26 to 30 years
- Over 30 years
- None

How many years of service as a civilian employee?

- 1 to 5 years
- 6 to 10 years
- 11 to 15 years
- 16 to 20 years
- 21 to 25 years
- 26 to 30 years
- What is your age?

- 18 to 24
- 25 to 34
- 35 to 44

- 45 to 54
- 55 to 64
- 65 to 74
- 75 or older

What is the highest level of school you have completed or the highest degree you have received?

- Less than high school degree
- High school degree or equivalent (e.g., GED)
- Some college but no degree
- Associate degree
- Bachelor degree
- Graduate degree
- Post-Graduate degree
- Doctoral degree

End of Survey

Appendix E: IWPQ Survey for Participants

Individual Work Performance Questionnaire (IWPQ)

Instructions: The following questions relate to how you carried out your work during the past three months. In order to get an accurate picture of your conduct at work, it is important that you complete the questionnaire as carefully and honestly as possible. if you are uncertain about how to answer a question, please give the best possible answer. The questionnaire will take about five minutes to complete. the questionnaire is completely anonymous: your answers will not be seen by your supervisor(s) or colleagues.

Scale 1: Task performance (5 items)

In the past 3 months…		Seldom	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
1	I was able to plan my work so that I finished it on time.					
2	I kept in mind the work result I needed to achieve.					
3	I was able to set priorities.					

4	I was able to carry out my work efficiently.					
5	I managed my time well.					

Scale 2: Contextual performance (8 items)

In the past 3 months…		Seldom	Sometimes	Regularly	Often	Always
6	On my own initiative, I started new tasks when my old tasks were completed.					
7	I took on challenging tasks when they were available.					
8	I worked on keeping my job-related knowledge up-to-date.					

9	I worked on keeping my work skills up-to-date.					
10	I came up with creative solutions for new problems.					
11	I took on extra responsibilities.					
12	I continually sought new challenges in my work.					
13	I actively participated in meeting and/or consultations.					

Scale 3: Counter-productive work behavior (5 items)

In the past 3 months…		Never	Seldom	Sometimes	Regularly	Often
14	I complained about minor work-related issues at work.					

15	I made problems at work bigger that they were.					
16	I focused on the negative aspects of situation at work instead of the positive aspects.					
17	I talked to colleagues about negative aspects of my work.					
18	I talked to people outside the organization about the negative aspects of my work.					

End of Survey

Appendix F: Permission Request for the use of IWPQ

From: Petrina Stack [mailto:petrina.stack@waldenu.edu]

Sent: maandag 10 juli 2017 4:16

To: Koopmans, L. (Linda) <linda.koopmans@tno.nl>

Subject: Permission to use IWPQ

Hello Professor Koopmans,

My name is Petrina Stack, I am a doctoral candidate at Walden University in the College of Management and Technology PhD program.

I am preparing my doctoral research proposal and dissertation to examine transferrable individual work performance: task performance, contextual performance, and counter-productive work behavior of United States Army military veterans compared to nonveterans' in the workforce.

I am writing to request permission to use the Individual Work Performance Questionnaire in my study.

Please let me know if you have any questions or would like further information on my study. I look forward to hearing back from you.

Very Respectfully, Petrina Stack

Appendix G: Permission Granted for the use of IWPQ

Get Outlook for iOS

From: Koopmans, L. (Linda)

<linda.koopmans@tno.nl> Sent:

Monday, July 17, 2017 5:14:48 AM

To: Petrina Stack

Subject: RE: Permission to use IWPQ

Dear Petrina,

Thanks for your interest in the IWPQ, it should be very useful for your study. You have my permission to use the IWPQ for research purposes. I have attached the manual of the IWPQ for you, which includes the English version and instructions on how to use/analyze it. Good luck with your research!

Best regards, Linda

Appendix H: IRB Approval Letter

workflow@laureate.net

11 September 2018, 7:30 PM

Petrina Stack;

Sheryl A. Kristensen;

Branford J. McAllister

Inbox

Congratulations! Your Walden Institutional Review Board application has been approved. As such, you are approved by Walden University to proceed to the final study stage.

If you have questions about the final study process, please contact research@mail.waldenu.edu.