

THE EFFECTS OF VETERAN IDENTITY STRAIN, PTSD, AND SOCIAL SUPPORT
ON VETERANS' JOB SATISFACTION

by

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ABSTRACT

JOHN ARTHUR GORY. THE EFFECTS OF VETERAN IDENTITY STRAIN, PTSD, AND SOCIAL SUPPORT ON VETERANS' JOB SATISFACTION
(Under the direction of DR. REGINALD A. SILVER)

Military veterans transitioning from the Armed Forces to the civilian workforce face many challenges and obstacles such as anxiety, depression, unemployment, and unstable work relations. As of September 2017, there were over 4.2 million United States veterans from the post-9/11 era alone. More than 5 million U.S. veterans are expected to return to our communities and the civilian workforce by the year 2020 (Stern, 2017). The vast majority of Americans have little understanding of military service or the impact service may have on civilian employment outcomes (Taylor, Morin, & Parker, 2011). The present dissertation explores veteran reintegration by evaluating the association between veteran identity strain (Vet-IS) and job satisfaction. It also investigates how the relationship between Vet-IS and job satisfaction may be influenced by perceived social support and Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD). Data were collected via a 60-item electronic survey distributed to employed veterans (n=135) in the United States. The proposed research hypotheses were tested using partial least squares – structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM). Results from the analysis demonstrate a statistically significant direct effect of Vet-IS on job satisfaction. However, the moderating effects of both perceived social support and PTSD were found to be nonsignificant on the association between Vet-IS and job satisfaction. The findings are discussed in light of their theoretical and practical implications and suggestions are offered for future research on veteran employment and job satisfaction.

INDEX WORDS: Veteran Identity Strain, PTSD, Social Support, Job Satisfaction

DEDICATION

First and foremost, I want to thank my Lord and Savior for providing me with a sound mind and free spirit to withstand, endure and persevere through this very challenging process over the past two years. Through prayer and spiritual growth, all things are possible. Next, I want to send a special thanks to my parents James and Viola Gory, who gave me life and taught me everything there is about life, supporting others, making sacrifices, being obedient, and being a faithful servant through selfless service. To my wife Antoinette, for her untiring love, family support, and providing me with all the tools, patience, tolerance, time and space required to accomplish this mission, thank you. To Daniel and John, thank you for supporting me as I gave up much family quality time to work on my academic goals. Last, but not least, to my seven sisters and four brothers, thank you for your unconditional love and support throughout my military career, and for maintaining our Gory family legacy.

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ABBREVIATIONS

AF	Air Force
AF	Armed Forces
AA	Active Army
AO	Area of Operations
ARC	Army Reserve Component
BLS	Bureau of Labor Statistics
CAB	Combat Action Badge
CBT	Cognitive Behavioral Therapy
CBT	Combat
CD-RISC	Connor- Davidson Resilience Scale
COR	Conservation of Resources
CSSB	Combat Sustainment Support Battalion
CV	Control Variable
DA	Department of the Army
DAV	Disabled Veteran
DOD	Department of Defense
DRRI	Deployment Risk and Resilience Inventory
DSM-V	Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders-V
DV	Dependent Variable
FOIA	Freedom of Information Act
GT	Ground Theory
GWOT	Global War on Terrorism
HSL	Hopkins Symptom Checklist
IV	Independent Variable
JS	Job Satisfaction
JFC	Joint Forces Command
KLE	Key Leader Engagement
LDRSHIP	Loyalty Duty Respect Selfless Service Honor Integrity Personal Courage
MC	Marine Corps
MHAT	Mental Health Advisory Team
MOS	Military Occupation Specialty
MSPSS	Multidimensional Scale of Social Support
NATO	North Atlantic Treaty Organization
NG	National Guard
NVVRs	National Vietnam Veterans Readjustment Study
OS	Organizational Support
OEF	Operation Enduring Freedom
OIF	Operation Iraqi Freedom
PCM	Primary Care Manager
PSS	Social Support
PSS	Perceived Supervisor Support
PLS	Partial Least Square
PTSD	Posttraumatic Stress Disorder
SC	Service Connected

SCT	Stress and Coping Theory
SEM	Statistics Equation Model
SIT	Social Identity Theory
SKA	Skill, Knowledge, Abilities
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
SS	Supervisor Support
TAP	Transition Assistance Program
TBI	Traumatic Brain Injury
VA	Veterans Affairs
VBH	Veterans Bridge Home
Vet-IS	Veteran Identity Strain
VFW	Veteran of Foreign Wars
VRSO	Veteran Representative Service Officer
VSO	Veteran Service Organization
VOIA	Veteran Office of Information Act
WAC	Women Army Corps
W2P	Wounded Warrior Program

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

For the past 244 years, the United States Army has continuously fought and defended our country and the United States Constitution. Dating back to the U.S. Continental Army of 1776, Veterans have been at the tip of spear, providing the security blanket for our nation while protecting the freedoms of the American people and others around the world. As veterans unconditionally serve and eventually separate from military service, many are having a difficult time reintegrating back into the civilian sector following their service. Extant research on veteran reintegration has created awareness regarding the challenges that veterans face during reintegration. Early among this research was a study by Foa (1980) who educated the world about post-traumatic stress disorder or PTSD. While the body of PTSD-related research has grown, little emphasis has been placed on other factors that may inhibit successful veteran reintegration.

Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) is a mental health problem that some people develop after experiencing or witnessing a life-threatening event, like combat, a natural disaster, a car accident, or sexual assault (McAllister et al. 2015). Social support research has been hampered by a lack of clarity both in the definitions of social support and in the conceptualization of its effects on health outcomes (Schaefer, Coyne & Lazarus 1981). Social support refers to the experience of being valued, respected, cared about, and loved by others who are present in one's life (Lazarus et al., 1981). Social support is frequently derived from different social strata with some social support coming from personal connections and other support coming from professional connections such as supervisors and peers.

Important among these other factors is the ability for veterans to find congruence between their military identities and the identities that they must assume in civilian life (Smith & True, 2014). Veteran identity strain (Vet-IS), the perceived stress and resultant strain caused by an incongruence between veterans' military identities and their civilian work environments (McAllister et al., 2015), can have far-reaching repercussions that are manifested in several aspects of daily life, ranging from interpersonal relationships to work performance. Research has shown that former military personnel often exhibit less job satisfaction than their civilian counterparts (Alpass et al. 2010). The purpose of this study was to help fill a gap in the veteran reintegration literature by exploring Vet-IS as a potential predictor for lower levels of job satisfaction among employed veterans.

Additionally, the present study aimed at extending veteran reintegration research by exploring how PTSD might influence the job satisfaction of veterans who experience Vet-IS. Furthermore, perceived social support was included in the theoretical model in an effort to explore potential variables that might enhance the relationship between Vet-IS and job satisfaction. Support in the workplace has been demonstrated to predict job satisfaction among veterans with PTSD (Harris et al. 2017). Studies from other sectors have demonstrated the importance of social support in a high-stress work environment (Ulleberg & Rundmo 1997). Prior theories seemed to suggest that the relationship between Vet-IS and job satisfaction would be negatively moderated by PTSD but positively moderated by social support.

Understanding the dynamics between Vet-IS and job satisfaction is important for both theoretical and practical reasons. There are more than 11 million veterans in the workforce and approximately 175,000 service members discharged each year from

active service, making the overall contribution of veterans to the U.S. economy significant (Schafer, 2016). While prior efforts to improve the transitioning process of veterans have focused on unemployment rates and hiring (Schafer, 2016), the present study looks beyond initial hiring data to examine the perceptions that veterans have regarding job satisfaction. Little theory and research in human resource management has focused on understanding the factors that affect job satisfaction among veterans (Schafer, 2016) and how veteran job satisfaction may be influenced by factors like veteran identity strain, PTSD, and social support.

My research study examined a gap in existing literature by exploring the relationship between Vet-IS and job satisfaction by incorporating the perceptions of veterans from all branches of military service, including the Army, Air Force, Navy, Marine, Coast Guard, National Guard, and Army Reserves. Through collaboration with multiple veteran support organizations, my research efforts were aimed at advancing both theory and practice for future research. The transition from active duty service to civilian life in the private sector marks a significant milestone that usually arrives after having encountered numerous obstacles and challenges such as depression, unemployment or unstable work relations (Lazarus et al., 1981). There have been numerous research studies on perceived social support and perceived organizational support among civilian employees in the workforce, and how these support mechanisms effect employee job satisfaction. However, little research has been conducted on how perceived social support, or perceived supervisor support effect veteran employees working in the civilian environment. This study demonstrated the importance of examining how Vet-IS, perceived overall support, and PTSD, as related to job satisfaction, may have manifested when veterans worked in the civilian

workplace. Perceived overall support is a combination of both social and supervisor support. Perceived overall support serves as a composite measure of social support derived from perceived social support. The Perceived Overall Support construct is comprised of support from family, friends, and personal relationships, while perceived supervisor support is comprised of support from an immediate supervisor. Perceived social support and perceived supervisor support serve to make Perceived Overall Support a higher-order construct that is measured by a total of 16 survey items. In an attempt to measure social support, Zimet et al. (1988) developed the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support (MSPSS), which has been widely used in both clinical and non-clinical samples. I draw on the work of Zimet et al. and the MSPSS that they proposed in order to measure perceptions about social support in my study.

Though the social support and organizational support constructs are highly correlated among civilian employees, they are very distinct when measuring the effect among military veteran employees. Subjects included 135 employed military veterans from all branches of service. Three subscales, each addressing a different source of support, were identified and found to have strong factorial validity: (a) family, (b) friends, and (c) significant other. In addition, perceived supervisor support was added to capture four items of support by supervisors. The research demonstrated that the MSPSS has good internal and test-retest reliability as well as moderate construct validity.

For the purpose of this study, in order to establish a clearer lens to explore the association between perceived overall support, and perceived supervisor support the two combined under one construct named perceived overall support. Despite the acknowledgment of this strain, little research has been conducted regarding how it

affects veterans in the workplace. I found that the perceptions of lower job satisfaction were more prevalent for veterans with higher levels of Vet-IS, which implies that higher identity strain is associated with lower job satisfaction. Higher levels of Perceived Overall Support) were more predominant for veterans with more social support from family, friends, significant others, and perceived supervisor support implied more job satisfaction. I believe that this construct will be of benefit to future research, particularly for scholars interested in developing an understanding of possible interventions that may help alleviate the effects of Vet-IS. Further, I used the prior research of McAllister et al. (2015) to adapt a measure for veteran identity strain from Kraimer, Shaffer, Harrison and Ren, (2012) and empirically demonstrated its effects on workplace outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction). The negative relationship between Vet-IS and these outcomes provided an initial verification of the efficacy of the measure in predicting the effects of the strain associated with the long-term conflict inherent in veterans' work-related identities.

Scientific interest in the social environment as a source of stress has gradually broadened to include the social environment as a resource which mediates the relationship between stress and health (Schaefer, Coyne & Lazarus 1981). It is generally argued that people will fare better when faced with stressful life conditions if they have social support; conversely, lack of social support contributes to physical illness and psychopathology (Schaefer, Coyne & Lazarus 1981). Much of the impetus for current research on this has come from recent theoretical statements interpreting the health consequences of social disconnection (e.g., losing social ties because of death or separation, being unmarried, or being geographically or socio-culturally mobile) in light of the "social support hypothesis" (Cassel, 1976; Cobb, 1976; Dean and Lin,

1977; Kaplan et al., 1977; Syme, 1981). There are now a number of empirical studies in which low social support has been implicated in negative health outcomes including neurosis (e.g., Henderson et al., 1978), complications of pregnancy (Nuckolls et al., 1972), and all-cause mortality (Berkman and Syme, 1979).

The purpose of this research was to support what people already know intuitively, but in the absence of theory and data, they do not know for sure. So, my work and research is needed to further examine and make a contribution to the existing body of knowledge by answering three posited research questions. Through this research effort, my intent and overarching purpose was to examine the who, what, when, where, and how the results of veteran identity strain, perceived overall support, PTSD, and supervisor support effect military veterans job satisfaction in the civilian workplace. Although they fall within the same general rubric, these and other published studies differ greatly in how they conceptualize and measure social support (Schaefer, Coyne & Lazarus 1981). This can be expected in a new area of research in which issues are not yet well formulated and instruments are not cross validated. However, some of the most frequently cited studies treat social network, psychosocial assets, and perceived social support as interchangeable concepts, suggesting a more basic confusion about the nature of social support. This limits the extent to which existing findings can be integrated, the potential for well-designed future research, and the generalizations that can be made about the effects of social support.

Significance of the Research

Veterans' issues have received much attention in the last decade. Research studies have highlighted the physical and psychological effects of war (Black & Papile, 2010; McFarlane, 2009; Spelman, Hunt, Seal, & Burgo-Black, 2012) and the challenges of re-

joining civilian life — such as work opportunities, impact of unemployment, recruitment issues, military skills applied to civilian jobs, veterans’ employment preferences, consequences of psychological and physical impairments, and vocational counseling needs (Adler, Bliese, McGurk, Hoge, & Castro, 2011); Bullock, Braud, Andrews, & Phillips, 2009; Clemens & Milsom, 2008; King, 2011).

Overall, reintegration of veterans into civilian society is acknowledged as highly important, and civil employment is a reintegration milestone. Research on veterans’ reintegration into the workplace details the difficulties veterans face as they return to civilian employment (McAllister, Mackey, Hackney, & Perrewé, 2015). These employment difficulties can arise from post-traumatic stress disorder PTSD (Kukla, Bonfils, & Salyers, 2015), from comorbidity of medical and mental health challenges (i.e., anxiety disorders), and from substance abuse problems (Humensky, Jordan, Stroupe, & Hynes, 2013) — conditions that have been documented as more prevalent in veteran than nonveteran populations. Importantly, these challenges do not have to amount to levels high enough to constitute clinical diagnoses or severe psychological impairments for these issues to still cause negative impact on veterans’ search for civilian jobs and, once employed, on their perceptions of civilian workplaces (e.g. Redmond et al., 2015; see Teclaw et al., 2016, for an overview).

Other challenges veterans face in rejoining the civilian workforce may reflect disability-related issues. In a focus group study (Lee, VanLooy, Young & Stern, 2016), disabled veterans revealed the difficulties they faced related to community reintegration and transition to employment. The primary challenges revolved around system fragmentation and issues associated with identity, such as being a veteran in a civilian environment and also being newly disabled. Overall, Lee et al.’s (2016) participants felt

they were not equipped to re-enter the civilian workforce, whether because of poor computer skills required for finding jobs, or because transition classes were taught by military personnel who lacked private sector experience. The participants also perceived the civilian workforce expectations as being unclear, which enhanced the complexity of transition. The selection and hiring of veterans into the civilian workforce may also be difficult for both veterans and employers (Lee et al., (2016).

Since September 11, 2001, 2.4 million military personnel have deployed to Iraq and Afghanistan. Today, roughly 1.44 million people have separated from the military and approximately 772,000 of these veterans have used health care services administered by the Department of Veterans Affairs, referenced hereafter as VA. The sheer volume of personnel separated from the military is merely one dimension to consider when attempting to understand the impact that these separations have on VA resources.

In 2016, there were over 10.6 million veterans employed in the U.S. civilian labor force, of which 3.2 million had served on active duty since September 2001 (U.S. Department of Labor, 2017). Veterans bring to the workplace unique experiences derived from military culture, training, and combat. These experiences may sometimes blend or at other times conflict with traditional workplace norms, particularly in settings that are largely populated by non-veterans who may or may not relate to veteran experiences (U.S. Department of Labor, 2017). An increased understanding of the perceived transferability of military skills enables veterans to enjoy a more fulfilling work life and career (Stone, 2015). Because some of these skillsets may not be commonly found in the private sector, veterans represent a talent pool whose potential has yet to be maximized in the private sector workforce.

Military veterans experience numerous problems gaining and maintaining jobs in the United States, and their unemployment rates are consistently higher than those of non-veterans (Bureau of Labor Statistics). The existence of macro-level factors such as post-military reintegration into the civilian workforce and the associated difficulties with this process spark the motivation behind this research study. It was the goal of this research study to add to the body of knowledge that pertains to factors that influence veteran job satisfaction. My proposed theoretical model suggested that Veteran Identity Strain (Vet-IS) negatively impacts job satisfaction among veterans. Perceived Overall Support and PTSD moderated this relationship. Specifically, perceived social support was proposed to weaken the relationship and PTSD was proposed to strengthen the negative relationship between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction.

Social support may help ease veteran transitions from military roles to working in civilian workplaces and organizations (McAllister et al., 2015). Social support is conceptualized as an interpersonal effectiveness construct that reflects individuals' abilities to secure resources and influence others (Munyon, 2013). To this end, the past decade of research on social support has demonstrated its association with reduced psychological and physiological stress (Perrewé, 2004), increased self-confidence, and improved ratings of employees' job performance (Ahearn, Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas, & Ammeter, 2004; Douglas, & Ammeter, 2004). Perhaps most importantly, social support is a trainable skill that can be improved through use and mentorship (Ferris et al., 2007). It is possible that part of a veteran's experienced identity strain may be alleviated by the amount of perceived overall support that they receive from family, friends, or significant others, and supervisors (McAllister, Mackey, Hackney, & Perrewé, 2015; Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014). The more social support that veterans

‘perceive’ they receive from their support network such as from family, friends, significant others, community members, and supervisors corresponds with increased overall satisfaction in the workplace. Perceived Overall Support acts as a buffering mechanism for veterans, this greatly increase their perceptions of self, and feelings of accomplishment in their endeavors.

The transactional model of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) suggests that resources (e.g., social support) may help attenuate the effects of perceived stressors (such as Vet-IS) experienced during the primary transitioning process on coping and strain experienced during the onset of the transitioning process. Possessing conflicting and/or incompatible identities is a potential source of both actual and perceived resource loss. The present study postulated that higher levels of Vet-IS have a negative direct effect on job satisfaction. This proposition was supported by the findings of my study.

Military veterans, especially war combat veterans, often experience a plethora of unseen perceptions of perceived stressors, anxieties, fear, lack of perceived social support from family, friends, significant others, and supervisor support. Perceived Overall Support acts as a buffer from the potentially pathogenic influence of stressful events (Cohen & Wills, 1985). These attributes, and coping characteristics, positively enhance veterans’ ability to cope with the stressors as they go through the transformation process of transitioning between a military identity and a civilian identity after completion of their military service. The effects that come from general uncertainty, lack of Perceived Overall Support, a PTSD diagnosis, turnover intention, leaving intention, staying intention, and job satisfaction can have a resounding effect on both a veteran’s military identity as well as their civilian identity. Cohen and Wills (1985) proposed that support is related to well-being only (or primarily) for persons under stress.

Numerous studies have shown that social support is linked to psychological and physical health outcomes. Most important from the standpoint of health psychology, several prospective epidemiological studies have shown that social support is related to mortality. This was shown in 9- to 12-year prospective studies of community samples by Berkman and Syme (1979) and House, Robbins, and Metzner (1982) and in a 30-month follow-up of an aged sample by Blazer (1982). In these studies, mortality from all causes was greater among persons with relatively low levels of social support. Similarly, several prospective studies using mental health outcome measures have shown a positive relation between social support and mental health (Aneshensel & Frerichs, 1982; Billings & Moos, 1982; Henderson, Byrne, & Duncan-Jones, 1981; Holahan & Moos, 1981; Turner, 1981; Williams, Ware, & Donald, 1981).

During recent years, interest in the role of social support in health maintenance and disease etiology has increased (e.g., G. Caplan, 1974; Cassel, 1976; Cobb, 1976; Dean & Lin, 1977; Gottlieb, 1981, 1983; Kaplan, Cassel, & Gore, 1977; Sarason & Sarason, 1985). Numerous studies indicate that people with spouses, friends, and family members who provide psychological and material resources are in better health than those with fewer supportive social contacts (Broadhead et al., 1983; Leavy, 1983; Mitchell, Billings, & Moos, 1982). Although the many correlational results do not by themselves allow causal interpretation, these data in combination with results from animal research, social-psychological analogue experiments, and prospective surveys suggest that social support is a causal contributor to well-being (cf. S. Cohen & Syme, 1985b; House, 1981; Kessler & McLeod, 1985; Turner, 1983; Wallston, Alagna, DeVellis, & DeVellis, 1983).

Veterans often have multiple identities because they consider themselves members of multiple social groups (Blader, Wrzesniewski, & Bartel, 2007). Possessing multiple identities is not necessarily a source of stress, unless conflict arises from incongruences between identities and/or different environments (Burke & Reitzes, 1991). Because of the training they received while in the military, veterans tend to develop identities that may make them uncomfortable in the civilian work environment. After more than a decade of war, there is a constant stream of U.S. veterans transitioning from military life to civilian life, and almost 44% of those who have served since the September 11, 2001 terrorist attacks report having a difficult time reintegrating back into civilian life (Morin et al., 2011). Because of the nearly 6 million veterans having difficulty in the civilian sector (Department of Veterans Affairs, 2013), research needed to be conducted to examine the sources of veterans' problems transitioning from military to civilian life and from military to civilian work environments. Understanding the relationship between the constructs of Vet-IS, Perceived Overall Support, PTSD and job satisfaction has both academic and practical implications. This research empirically demonstrates relationships in a field of study that has predominantly relied on qualitative research. For the practitioner, this research informs of the need to understand the nuances associated with identity strain, not in a way that stigmatizes veterans, but in a way that might help improve the reintegration process of veterans as they transition into the civilian workforce after leaving the military.

Research Questions

I proposed a theoretical model and three associated hypotheses that are grounded in major streams of literature from the areas of research dedicated to identity strain, job satisfaction, Perceived Overall Support, and PTSD. The first of these hypotheses

investigated the direct association between job satisfaction and Vet-IS. H₁) Higher levels of veteran identity strain have a negative association with Job Satisfaction. The subsequent hypothesis investigated the moderating effects that PTSD or Perceived Overall Support have on this link between Vet-IS and job satisfaction. H₂) Perceived Overall Support has a positive moderating effect on the association between veteran identity strain and job satisfaction. H₃) PTSD has a negative moderating effect on the association between veteran identity strain and job satisfaction.

I drew on existing literature from McAllister, Yanchus, and Zimeth (2015) in relation to these constructs. A novel contribution of this study to the literature was the addition of the potential moderating effects of PTSD and Perceived Overall Support. The mechanisms through which social support is related to mental health outcomes and to serious physical illness outcomes, however, remains to be clarified (Cohen & Wills, 1985). At a general level, it can be posited that a lack of positive social relationships leads to negative psychological states such as anxiety or depression (Cohen & Wills, 1985).

Research shows that support groups offer practical help to both men and women (Boivin, 2003), strategies for coping (Sadler, 1987), a reduction in psychological distress (Barr, 2004; Fukui, Kugaya, & Okamura, 2001), and, even in child survivors of suicide, diminished anxiety and depressive symptoms (Pfeffer, Jiang, Kakuma, Hwang, & Metsch, 2002). Conversely, bereaved individuals who perceive inadequate social support following the death of a loved one are at an increased risk of poor outcomes (Sheldon, 1998). Additionally, support groups can foster a sense of community for the bereaved (Fast, 2003; Neukrug, 2004) and may be particularly important to women (DeFrain, 1986; Hurdle, 2001). The apparent popularity of support groups can be attributed to

commonly shared painful or traumatic experiences between members (Griefzu, 1996; Muller & Thompson, 2003; Neukrug, 2004; Rodale & Stocker, 1994). In a supportive group milieu, the bereaved may experience the four types of support outlined by Glanz, Rimer, and Lewis (2002): affiliation or emotional support (a sense of belonging), instrumental support (a safe place for dialogue), informational support (practical aid), and appraisal (normalization and social comparison). A strong sense of social support can mitigate feelings of disenfranchisement for the bereaved and increase individual perceptions of long-term happiness (Anke & Fugl-Meyer, 2003; Kish & Holder, 1996) and hope.

Social support networks, identified to promote health benefits, also buffer the effects of stress, reduce mortality rates, increase the likelihood that the individual will seek help, and assist in developing personal coping abilities (Hurdle, 2001; Lensing, 2001; Neukrug, 2004). The benefits of a support group setting, wherein members tell and retell their stories, include the process of desensitization to the trauma, as well as a “communalization” (Tedeschi & Calhoun, 1995). The connection between two or more human beings reduces feelings of disenfranchisement, isolation, and helps the mourner create and recreate meanings in their experiences. Parents of children who have experienced violent deaths report that monthly support groups are their “predominant source” of aid (Murphy et al., 1996). Research conducted by the American Mental Health Counselor’s Association found that “person-centered counseling” along with “sharing memories” about the deceased are a way for the bereaved to make meaning out of the death (Muller & Thomson, 2003).

My study confirmed Hypothesis 1, Vet-IS showed a direct negative affect on job satisfaction. The more identity strain that veterans experience, the less they are satisfied

on the job. This and other findings will be elaborated on in subsequent chapters. At a high level, what my finding suggests is that the grounding theories of social identity theory and stress and coping theory were effective choices to underpin my theoretical model.

Much of the recent literature on social networks and wellbeing is epidemiological in nature, and utilizes a model based on the concept of the social network as a stress-buffering mechanism. According to this perspective, a person's wellbeing is to a large extent determined by the interplay of two psychological processes: the incidence of stressful life events (or 'stressor situations') and the availability of social support (Dean and Lin, 1977; Caplan, Cassel and Gore, 1977). Stressor situations can take various forms, ranging in scale from natural disasters to the loss of a job by an individual. Lieberman and Glidewell (1978: 407-408) distinguish three relevant categories of events: 1) relatively unexpected crises, such as separation, divorce, unemployment, demotion; 2) transitions associated with life-cycle changes, such as marriage or the birth of a child, and 3) role-strains, that is, the often chronic strains embedded in particular roles or relationships, such as work overload or marital strains.

The effects of stressful events are said to be mediated by the individual's social environment, seen in terms of his or her network of supportive relationships. Perceived social support, overall support from family, friends, supervisor, and significant other, acts as a buffer to ease the impact of the transitioning processes. The purpose of this study is shed light on the darkness, and daunting strains which veterans face as they transition into their civilian environments. The more overall support that veterans perceive implies that they will realize more job satisfaction.

CHAPTER 2: LITERATURE REVIEW

To ground the present study in the extant scientific debate, an extensive review of the literature on Folkman and Lazarus, (1984), social identity; and Tajfel and Turner (1985), coping and stress theories was conducted, the details of which are provided in Appendix 1. The literature review also served to ground my hypotheses and solidify my theoretical model in this study. The purpose of the literature review was to: 1) develop a basis of knowledge to inform the present study; 2) organize in one place a categorization of studies that can be referenced for future research, and 3) provide the foundation for publication based on a systematic review of extant literature associated with important themes that affect veterans; and 4) highlight the underrepresentation of studies in extant literature associated with Vet-IS. My model was grounded in social identity theory, and stress and coping theory.

According to Lazarus and Folkman, (1985), social identity theory posits that people tend to classify themselves and others into various categories such as organizational members, religious affiliation, gender, and age cohort (1985). Stress coping as described by researchers such as Lazarus and Folkman (1985), implies a more specific process of cognitive appraisal to determine whether an individual believes he or she has the resources to respond effectively to the challenges of a stressor or change (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988; Lazarus & Folkman, 1987). Stress arises when one appraises a situation as threatening or otherwise demanding and does not have an appropriate coping response (cf. Lazarus, 1966; Lazarus & Launier, 1978). Psychological stress refers to a relationship with the environment that the person appraises as significant for his or her well-being and in which the demands tax or exceed available coping resources' (Lazarus and Folkman 1986). The theory identified two processes, cognitive appraisal

and coping, as critical mediators of stressful person-environment relations and their immediate and long-range outcomes. Cognitive appraisal is a process through which the person evaluates whether a particular encounter with the environment is relevant to his or her well-being, and if so, in what ways. Coping is defined as the person's constantly changing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the person's resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984b). The literature review was conducted on major search engines, involving Google, Google Scholar, and the Atkins Library Database at the University of North Carolina at Charlotte. Key words and search strings used to identify literature included the following terms: “Identity Strain”, “Veteran Identity Strain”, “Social Support”, “Organizational Support”, “PTSD”, and “Job Satisfaction”. The search criteria used in the literature search also included a constraint that publications were primarily peer-reviewed journal articles. To give the reader an idea of the underrepresentation of studies that deal with Vet-IS, the review identified that of 79 peer-reviewed articles obtained using the search parameters above, only four studies were directly related to the concept of Vet-IS (Table 1).

Table 1. Distribution of Major Studies on Key Constructs

Key Construct	Number of Articles	% of Total
Vet-IS	4	5.06%
Perceived Organizational Support	7	8.86%
Perceived Social Support	5	6.33%
PTSD	30	37.97%
Job Satisfaction	33	41.77%
	79	100.00%

To further ground my research and emergent conceptual ideas, I also incorporated the social identity theory of Hogg and Terry (2000). While researchers have investigated

social identity theory and stress and coping theory as discrete theoretical constructs, few, if any studies, have adopted elements from both theories and combined them into a single study. For a few exceptions, see (Hogg and Terry, 2000); stress and coping theory, Folkman and Lazarus, 1984; Tajfel & Turner, 1985). Social identity theory is useful in conceptualizing the concept of identity strain, more specifically, Vet-IS, because it is frequently used to conceptually ground research surrounding veterans (Folkman & Lazarus, 1984).

Social Identity Theory

According to social identity theory, people tend to classify themselves and others into various social categories, such as through organizational membership, religious affiliation, gender, and age cohort (Tajfel & Turner, 1985). As these examples suggest, different individuals may utilize different categorization schemes. Categories are defined by prototypical characteristics abstracted from the members (Turner, 1985). It is argued that (a) social identification is a perception of oneness with a group of persons; (b) social identification stems from the categorization of individuals, the distinctiveness and prestige of the group, the salience of outgroups, (c) the factors that traditionally are associated with group formation (cite). Social identification leads to activities that are congruent with the identity, support for institutions that embody the identity, stereotypical perceptions of self and others, and outcomes that traditionally are associated with group formation, all while reinforcing the antecedents of identification (cite). This perspective has been applied to organizational socialization, role conflict, and intergroup relations (Ashforth & Mael, 1989).

According to Kreiner and Ashforth, (2004) identity is defined as how an individual sees one's self in relation to social groups as the foundation of many social

psychological theories (see Tajfel, 1981). Social identifications are self-descriptions based on a perceived overlap of individual and group identities. As Steele (1997) explained, one is identified with an entity or domain ‘in the sense of its being a part of one’s self-definition, a personal identity to which one is self-evaluatively accountable’ (Steele 1997, p. 613). Previous research by Tajfel and Turner, (1985), has had little to say about individual-level antecedents of organizational identification and disidentification.

Hogg and Terry (2000) explain, however, that aspects of social identity theory are familiar to organizational psychologists. According to Hogg and Terry (2000), self-categorization, social categorization, and prototype-based depersonalization actually produce social identity effects. Some of the key theoretical innovations Hogg and Terry (2000) promote are based on the ideas that (1) social identity processes are motivated by subjective uncertainty reduction, (2) prototype-based depersonalization lies at the heart of social identity processes, and (3) groups are internally structured in terms of perceived or actual group prototypicality of members. Social identity theorists extend the theory’s conceptual and empirical focus on intergroup phenomena to incorporate a focus on what happens within groups; known as an expanded *social identity theory* (Hogg & Terry, 2000).

Tajfel (1985) first introduced the concept of social identity—“the individual’s knowledge that he belongs to certain social groups together with some emotional and value significance to him of this group membership” (1972: 292)—to move from his earlier consideration of social, largely intergroup, perception (i.e., stereotyping and prejudice) to consideration of how self is conceptualized in intergroup contexts: how a system of social categorizations “creates and defines an individual's own place in

society” (Tajfel, 1972: 293). Social identity rests on intergroup social comparisons that seek to confirm or to establish in group-favoring evaluative distinctiveness between in group and outgroup, motivated by an underlying need for self-esteem (Turner, 1975). Tajfel (1974a, b) developed the theory to specify how beliefs about the nature of relations between groups (status, stability, permeability, legitimacy) influence the way that individuals or groups pursue positive social identity. Tajfel and Turner (1979) retained this emphasis in their classic statement of social identity theory. The emphasis on social identity as part of the self-concept was explored more fully by Turner (1982). In a comprehensive coverage of relevant research, Hogg and Abrams (1988) then integrated and grounded intergroup, self-conceptual, and motivational emphases. At about the same time, Turner and colleagues (Turner, 1985; Turner et al., 1987) extended social identity theory through the development of self-categorization theory, which specified in detail how social categorization produces prototype-based depersonalization of self and others and, thus, generates social identity phenomena. Social identity theory and/or self-categorization theory has been described by social identity theorists in detail elsewhere (e.g., Hogg, 1992, 1993, 1996b; Hogg & Abrams, 1988; Hogg, Terry, & White, 1995; Tajfel & Turner, 1986; for historical accounts see Hogg, in press; Hogg & Abrams, 1999; Turner, 1996).

Stress and Coping Theory

According to Lazarus (1993), coping is a key concept for theory and research on adaptation and health. Lazarus (1993) focused on contrasts between two approaches to coping, one that emphasizes style—that is, it treats stress and coping theory, he defined coping as a personality characteristic—and another that emphasizes process—that is, efforts to manage stress that change over time and are shaped by the adaptational context

out of which it is generated, Lazarus (1993). In the late 1970s, a major new development in coping theory and research occurred in which the hierarchical view of coping, with its trait or style emphasis, was abandoned in favor of a contrasting approach, which treated coping as a process. From a process standpoint, coping is defined as ongoing cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage specific external and/or internal demands that are appraised as taxing or exceeding the resources of the person (Lazarus, 1993). The definition can be simplified— though with a loss of some information—by saying merely that coping consists of cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage psychological stress (Lazarus, 1993).

From a measurement and research standpoint, this type of formulation emphasizes that the coping effort is independent of the outcome so that its role in influencing adaptational outcomes can be independently assessed (Lazarus, 1993). From a process perspective, coping changes over time and in accordance with the situational contexts in which it occurs (Lazarus, 1993).

Zhang (2019) provided a meta-analytic examination of the regulatory strategies that employees adopt to cope with different types of stressors in the workplace and how these strategies are linked to work and personal outcomes. Drawing from regulatory focus theory, Zhang et al. (2019) introduced a new taxonomy of promotion- and prevention- focused coping that complements the traditional taxonomy of problem- and emotion- focused coping in the transactional theory of stress (Zhang et al., 2019). In addition, Zhang et al. (2019) proposed that challenge stressors tend to evoke promotion-focused coping, whereas hindrance stressors tend to evoke prevention-focused coping. As a pair of important coping mechanisms in the work stress process, promotion-focused coping is positively related to employees' job performance, job attitudes, and personal

well-being, whereas prevention-focused coping is negatively related to these outcomes (Zhang et al., 2019). Stress occurs when environmental demands exceed or tax one's resources (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Transactional theory Lazarus and Folkman, (1984) identifies two central mechanisms in the stress process— appraisal, defined as the cognitive evaluations of the nature of specific demands and one's own resources, and coping, defined as one's goal-directed cognitive and behavioral efforts to manage the demands (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Coping is identified as a crucial component in stress transactions that follows appraisals and is more proximally relevant to outcomes (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

Social identity theory and stress and coping theory provide sound bases for investigating the challenges that veterans face after their military careers. Veterans spend years adopting an identity that is predicated upon group inclusion (Hogg, Terry & White, 1995). This group inclusion, however, may be starkly different than that found in civilian life. Identity theory and social identity theory are two remarkably similar perspectives on the dynamic mediation of the socially constructed self between individual behavior and social structure (Hogg, Terry & White, 1995). Though identity theory, and social identity theory share similarities, there is no complete reciprocity between these two perspectives. They occupy parallel but separate universes (Hogg, Terry & White, 1995). Identity theory (e.g., Burke 1980; McCall and Simmons 1978; Stryker 1968; R.H. Turner 1978) and social identity theory (e.g., Hogg and Abrams 1988; Tajfel and Turner 1979; J.C. Turner 1982, 1985; J.C. Turner et al. 1987) are two perspectives on the social basis of the self-concept and on the nature of normative behavior. These two perspectives have many similarities. Both address the social nature of self as constituted by society and eschew perspectives that treat self as independent of and prior to society (Hogg, Terry & White,

1995). Both regard the self as differentiated into multiple identities that reside in circumscribed practices (e.g., norms, roles), and they use similar words and a similar language-but often with quite different meanings (e.g., identity, identity salience, commitment). Social identity theory is intended to be a social psychological theory of intergroup relations, group processes, and the social self. It has its origins in early work in Britain by Henri Tajfel on social factors in perception (e.g., Tajfel 1959, 1969a) and on cognitive and social belief aspects of racism, prejudice, and discrimination (e.g., Tajfel 1963, 1969b, 1970), but was developed and fully formulated in collaboration with John Turner and others in the mid- to late 1970s at the University of Bristol (e.g., Tajfel, 1974, 1978, 1982; Tajfel and Turner 1979; J.C. Turner 1982).

Identity theory (Stryker 1968, 1980, 1987; Stryker and Serpe 1982; also see Burke 1980; McCall and Simmons 1978; R. H. Turner 1978) explains social behavior in terms of the reciprocal relations between self and society. It is strongly associated with the symbolic interactionist view that society affects social behavior through its influence on self (Mead 1934; also see Blumer 1969) and was developed in part in order to translate the central tenets of symbolic interactionism into an empirically testable set of propositions (Stryker 1980, 1987; Stryker & Serpe 1982). Identity theory, however, rejects the symbolic interactionist view of society as a "relatively undifferentiated, cooperative whole" (Stryker and Serpe 1982: 206), arguing instead that society is "complexly differentiated but nevertheless organized" (Stryker & Serpe 1982:206). As such, the transition from active duty to civilian life has the potential to exacerbate social identity strain in the veteran context. Stress and coping theory becomes an important framework in helping to conceptualize how veterans may cope with the identity strain created by their transition from active duty to the civilian workforce. Building from the

promise that stress and coping theory holds as a developmental framework to help manage identity strain, the present study utilizes social support received from family and supervisors, as one specific coping mechanism that veterans may use in dealing with identity strain.

Veteran Reintegration into the Civilian Workforce

Military culture emphasizes physical and mental fitness and well-being, a mind-set noted to possibly contribute to identity challenges for veterans with physical and other disabilities. Veterans may perceive disability as weakness or failure, and thus would be less likely to identify as disabled or downplay the extent to which they experience disability (Griffith & Stein, 2015). A study of post 9/11 Army and Marine Corps veterans suggested that members did not disclose disability for fear they would be perceived as weak (65%), treated differently by leadership (63%), or that others would have less confidence in them (59%) (Hoge et al., 2004).

Another reason for veterans' employment challenges is that they may lack civilian work experience, and employers do not always understand how military experience transfers to private sector jobs (www.whitehouse.gov, 2011). Although there has been reintegration research on United States military service members returning from deployments and other related services with health problems such as PTSD (Sayer et al., 2010), little research has focused on veterans who have returned to the United States and integrated into the workforce to make positive contributions to the U.S. civilian society.

Sayer et al. (2010) reported that 25–41% of Iraq and Afghanistan veterans stated they experienced “some” to “extreme” productivity problems, “including problems keeping a job and completing the tasks needed for home, work, or school” (p. 593). Despite challenges of reintegrating into the civilian workforce, civilian employment can

also provide significant benefit to veterans following deployment. For example, Griffith (2015) found that reservists who returned to their pre-deployment job following a period of deployment had decreased financial difficulties compared to those who did not resume their pre-deployment job and resuming the job both mitigated negative effects of post-deployment suicide thoughts and amplified positive effects of deployment social support on changes in financial difficulties (Griffith, 2015). Civilian employment can provide a variety of critical resources to returning veterans and service members, including not only financial support but social and emotional support, as well. As reported in a survey of veteran employment challenges, based on a random sample of 1,845 post-9/11 veterans (Prudential Financial, 2012) 80% indicated that flexible leave from work was important to deal with health issues that veterans face, and 64% identified flexible work schedules as important for employers to provide, whereas 66% rated workplace veteran support programs as “critical” or “important” to their success at work.

It has been argued that if the workplace is not supportive of returning veterans, they will likely experience high levels of stress, work, and family conflict (Hammer, Cullen, Marchand, & Dezsofi, 2005). They will also be less likely to remain in the civilian workplace (Hammer, Kossek, Anger, Bodner, & Zimmerman, 2011). Most conceptualizations of support, however, limit the phenomenon to transactions among service members of the same network or military organization (cf. Cobb, 1976; Forland & Pancoast, 1978; Hirsch, in press; Pilisuk & Minkler, 1980; Wellman, in press). Thoits (1982), for example, the military chain of command), defines the support system as "that subset of persons in the individual's total social network upon whom he or she relies for socioemotional aid (family support groups), instrumental aid (battle buddies), or both" (p. 148). Social support usually occurs between people who are members of the same

network, such as the U. S. military. In the military however, when service members and veterans are in distress or faced with uncontrollable circumstances, social networks such as the American Red Cross, Chaplain services, Army Community Services, and other organizations may be used as substitutes for known sources of support (Thoits, 1982).

It is therefore important to identify the critical behaviors that civilian supervisors should engage in to demonstrate support for their current and former service member employees. In an effort to increase employment opportunities for veterans, Congress recently passed legislation that offers employers tax credits for hiring veterans (www.whitehouse.gov). In addition, a larger number of employers have made a compelling business case for hiring veterans because they often have high levels of performance. For instance, 29 percent of private sector employers designed specialized programs to recruit veterans (e.g., Amazon, General Electric, Wal-Mart, Charles Schwab, USAA, Dupont, JB Hunt, etc.). Research consistently showed that employees' military service was positively related to performance on civilian jobs (Berglass and Harrell, 2012) and other studies found that veterans with disabilities perform as well as nonveterans without a disability (Gurchiek, 2011). Research also revealed that compared to nonveterans, veterans are more likely to: (a) have advanced technology training, (b) be adept at skills that transfer across contexts and tasks, (c) display good teamwork skills, (d) exhibit cultural sensitivity and acceptance of diversity, and (e) possess high levels of resiliency, integrity, and loyalty (Syracuse University, Institute for Veterans and Military Families, 2012). These results suggested that many of the stereotypes attributed to veterans (e.g., rigidity, bitter, lack of adaptability to new contexts) may be unfounded and that hiring veterans may be quite beneficial for organizations (Stone & Stone, 2015).

Research shows that veterans may negatively perceive civilian employers.

Military veterans as well as active duty service members are accustomed to having only one employer throughout their military tenure (time in service) in the United States Armed Forces. The military organizational structure is drastically different in comparison to civilian organizational structure/design. In the military service branches, military employers are embedded within the succession of rank order hierarchy known as the 'chain of command'. In the military context, the chain of command is the line of authority and responsibility along which orders are passed within and between units. The chain of command is the succession of leaders through which command is exercised and executed. Orders are transmitted down the chain of command, from a responsible superior, such as a commissioned officer, to lower-ranked subordinates, including junior officers and noncommissioned officers (NCOs) who either execute the order personally or transmit it down the chain as appropriate, until it is received by those expected to execute it (enlisted members). "Command is exercised by virtue of office and the special assignment of members of the Armed Forces holding military rank who are eligible to exercise command." (Army Regulation 600-20, 1986). Overall, the chain of command is the conduit, and acts as the primary buffering resource for all military service personnel, starting from basic entry initial training all the way through their military careers, which could be up to 36 plus years of active federal service. Also, the buffering mechanisms, and characteristics of the chain of command are important for veterans to cope and deal with the stressors they experience throughout their military service. The amount of perceived overall social support military veterans and service members' have, and their perception of the chain of command, could actually regulate the amount of Vet-IS and PTSD, and increase veterans job satisfaction in the military and the civilian work

environment. As mentioned earlier by Turner 1975, and Tajfel 1974, social identity rests on intergroup social comparisons that seek to confirm or to establish in group-favoring evaluative distinctiveness between in group and outgroup, motivated by an underlying need for self-esteem (Turner, 1975 & Tajfel, 1974a, b). Over time, military veterans also adopt and develop categorizations to specify their individual beliefs about the nature of relations between groups (rank, unit, status, disability, leadership role, employability, retirement) influence the way that veterans or groups pursue positive social identity (Turner & Tajfel, 1975).

According to Castro and Atuel (2018), post-9/11 veterans reported beliefs that civilian employers did not understand military veterans' needs, did not think military veterans have necessary skills, considered veterans to be dangerous and physically broken, and did not want to hire veterans (Castro & Atuel, 2018). On the other hand, civilian employers may misunderstand or misperceive potential veteran employees. Stone and Stone (2015) reported that civilian employers may stereotype physically disabled veterans as also having psychological disabilities and few private-sector job skills (Stone, 2015). A study by (Stone, Lengnick-Hall, & Muldoon, 2017) found that the stereotyping of veterans in the hiring process was more complex than previously considered. Results of that study showed that, in general, veteran status was positively related to human resource professionals' perceptions of job suitability. However, although veterans were perceived as having greater leadership and teamwork skills, they were also viewed as having poorer social skills. These variables interacted with veteran status such that leadership skills indirectly, positively impacted job suitability rating whereas social skills had an indirect, negative effect. The findings suggest that veteran status is not automatically perceived negatively in the hiring process and that other factors play a role.

My research study consisted of the military population across all service branches of the Armed Forces of the United States. The U.S. military is a diverse, multicultural segment the American society. In order to gain a better understanding of my study topic and answer the posited research questions to how the effects of Vet-IS, Perceived Overall Support, and PTSD relate to job satisfaction in the civilian working environment, sampling the military population was appropriate for this examination. The U.S. military, as studies have shown, is a fairly accurate cross-section of America. It is a diverse blend of race, religion, education, creed and—increasingly—gender. Women, now eligible to compete for assignment in all military occupational specialties and positions, are the fastest-growing subpopulation of the military and veteran communities. As of 2017, there were 1.6 million female veterans in the United States according to the 2017 American Community Survey. Women comprise almost 20 percent of the active-duty armed forces, Reserve and National Guard and 10 percent of the total veteran population. The population of women in these communities is growing more rapidly than the systems we have in place to support them. This has created an environment in which women's service to the nation is often less recognized, less respected and less valued than their male counterparts. It has led to a culture that, in many ways, continues to tell women they don't quite belong. In the last decade alone, we have witnessed some of the most significant milestones for women in military service, and it is understandable that with such rapid evolution there will be growing pains as the nation's infrastructure adapts to accommodate gender-specific needs. Cultural lag has hindered the progress necessary to effectively serve this population, and that must change. U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs (2014), National Center for Veterans Analysis and Statistics.

Women have served in the United States military with distinction for

generations— from Women’s Army Corps, Women Accepted for Volunteer Services and Women Airforce Service Pilots (better known as the WACs, WAVEs and WASPs) of World War II to combat nurses in Korea and Vietnam to Female Engagement Teams in Afghanistan. Women’s equitable capabilities were recognized in 2013 with the lifting of the ban on women in combat and fully realized in December 2015 when all combat positions were opened to women. Since then, two women have graduated from U.S. Army Ranger School, the U.S. Army Infantry Basic Officers Leader Course, and the U.S. Marine Corps Infantry Officer Course. As of 2015, women make up 15.5 percent of active-duty military and 19 percent of the Guard and Reserve, U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs (2017), National Center for Veterans Analysis and Statistics. Currently, women are 10 percent of all veterans, a number expected to increase to 16.3 percent within the next 25 years. As recruits, both men and women were promised that a grateful nation would care for those “who shall have borne the battle,” providing them with benefits and health care services for a lifetime to address both the visible and invisible wounds of military service, (U.S. Department of Veterans Affairs, 2017). There appears to be a certain amount of distrust, confusion, and uncertainty coming from both veterans and civilian employers about hiring veterans, which may impede the successful transition of veterans into this important aspect of civilian life (Yanchus, Osatuke, Carameli, Barnes, & Ramsel, 2018).

United States (U.S. Department of Labor) service members who served in the wars in Afghanistan and Iraq faced long and often multiple deployments and a constant risk of injury and death (Manderscheid, 2007; Seal, Bertenthal, Miner, Sen, Marmar, 2007). In addition to exposure to many traumatic events, service members experienced repeated disruption of connections with family members and friends. These disrupted

connections, and changes to both their individual and home social environments during separation led to a difficult homecoming transition (Schuetz, A., 1945; Wecter, D., 1944; Faulkner, R., McGaw, D., 1977; Borus 1975; Dao, J., 2011); (Bureau of Labor Statistics; U.S. Department of Labor). With the formal end of the war in Iraq in late 2011 and a continued disassembling of the large US military presence there, veterans are transitioning back to civilian life and it is critical to understand and support their homecoming transition (Bureau of Labor Statistics; U.S. Department of Labor).

Overall, reintegration of veterans into civilian society is acknowledged as highly important, and civil employment is a reintegration milestone (Spelman et al., 2012). Research on military veterans' reintegration into the workplace details the difficulties that nearly 44% of veterans face as they return to civilian employment (McAllister et al., 2015). These employment difficulties can arise from post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD) (Kukla et al., 2015), from comorbidity of medical and mental health challenges (i.e., anxiety disorders), and from substance abuse problems (Humensky, Jordan, Stroupe, & Hynes, 2013) — conditions that have been documented as more prevalent in veteran than nonveteran populations. Importantly, these challenges do not have to amount to levels high enough to constitute clinical diagnoses or severe psychological impairments for these issues to still cause negative impact on veterans' search for civilian jobs and, once employed, on their perceptions of civilian workplaces (Redmond et al., 2015). Even once employment is obtained, it may be more challenging for these individuals to maintain any level of job satisfaction. Existing literature has shown that job satisfaction is an employee attitude of theoretical and practical importance in the workplace (Organ & Ryan, 1995). Job satisfaction has been defined as “a positive or negative evaluative judgment of one's job situation” (Weiss and Cropanzano 1996:2). In particular, job

satisfaction has significant impact on employee turnover and performance (e.g., Hom & Griffeth, 1995; Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001). Insufficient consideration has been given as to why perceived supervisor support and perceived overall support have both been found to be related to employee withdrawal behaviors. According to organizational support theory, perceived supervisor support should decrease voluntary employee turnover by increasing. Organizational support theory (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli and Lynch, 1997; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa, 1986; Rhoades and Eisenberger, in press; Shore & Shore, 1995) supposes that to meet socioemotional needs and to determine the organization's readiness to reward increased work effort, employees develop global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being (perceived organizational support,). The perceived organizational support resulting from perceived supervisor support would strengthen veteran employees' felt obligation to help the organization reach its goals and increase affective organizational commitment, with a resultant reduction in turnover and other withdrawal behaviors (Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Eisenberger et al., 1986; Rhoades et al., 2001; Shore & Shore, 1995). Malatesta (1995) maintained that based on the reciprocity norm, perceived supervisor support should increase obligations to the supervisor and to the organization. Malatesta (1995) found evidence for both relationships: Perceived supervisor support increased extra-role performance beneficial to supervisors, and perceived supervisor support increased perceived organizational support, which, in turn, led to greater extra-role performance beneficial to the organization. Concerning veteran employee turnover, Malatesta (p. 23) suggested that when perceived supervisor support was low, veteran employees would believe that they could deal with the unpleasant

situation by switching to a new supervisor or, they would add, minimizing contact with the supervisor while continuing to carry out usual job responsibilities. However, by reducing perceived organizational support, low perceived supervisor support would have generally unfavorable implications for the veteran employees' future job satisfaction (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

Although previous studies have found that perceived supervisor support and perceived or organizational support can respectively lead to employee job satisfaction (Dulebohn et al., 2012; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Riketta, 2005; Riketta & van Dick, 2005), a theoretical perspective clarifying the relationships among these constructs is still somewhat lacking in existing veteran reintegration literature. Just as employees form global perceptions concerning their valuation by the organization, they develop general views concerning the degree to which supervisors' value their contributions and care about their well-being (perceived supervisor support; Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988).

On the basis of organizational support theory, findings of a positive relationship between perceived supervisor support and perceived organizational support have usually been interpreted to indicate that perceived supervisor support leads to perceived organizational support (e.g., Hutchison, 1997a; Malatesta, 1995; Rhoades et al., 2001; Yoon et al., 1996; Yoon & Lim, 1999). Yoon and Thye (2000) suggested that causality might also occur in the reverse direction, with perceived organizational support increasing perceived supervisor support: veteran employees' perception that the organization values their contribution and cares about their well-being might lead them to believe that supervisors, as agents of the organization, are favorably inclined toward them. A relationship between the initial value of one variable and changes in a second variable over time provides stronger causal evidence than is afforded by the simultaneous

measurement of the two variables (Finkel, 1995). (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Dutton, Dukerich, & Harquail, 1994; Elsbach, 1999; Haslam, van Knippenberg, Platow, & Ellemers, 2003; Pratt, 1998). Organizational members are said to identify with the organization when they define themselves at least partly in terms of what the organization is thought to represent. It is this implication of the self-concept (Pratt, 1998) and perception of oneness (Ashforth & Mael, 1989) that distinguishes identification from related constructs like person–organization fit and organizational commitment: one identifies with a specific organization (and would feel a deep existential loss if forced to part from the organization) whereas one may discern good fit with a set of similar organizations and could come to feel committed to any of them. It is important to note that just as individuals may be satisfied with their jobs at a the specific job level (‘I am satisfied with my job’) and at a facet-specific level (‘I am satisfied with my co-workers’), individuals also identify with their organization at a corporate level (‘I identify with IBM’) and with specific aspects of the organization (‘I identify with IBM’s innovativeness’). If veterans have conflicts with supervisors and they perceive a lack of quality supervision, they are more likely to have turnover intention. Veterans' pre-knowledge of the job characteristics often affect their conflict with supervisors because employees have a tendency to keep their beliefs or knowledge obtained from previous experiences (Kim, 2014).

Veteran Identity Strain (Vet-IS)

Veterans tend to have a difficult time reintegrating back into the civilian sector following their military service (McAllister et al. 2015). The experienced stress and resultant strain associated with this reintegration may be caused by an incongruence

between veterans' military identities and their civilian work environments, a form of strain termed veteran identity strain Vet-IS (McAllister et al., 2015).

In an effort to ameliorate the negative psychological outcomes of combat experiences and to develop effective interventions, researchers have strived to understand the stress that soldiers experience both while deployed (Adler, Huffman, Bliese, & Castro, 2005) and when returning home (Bartone, 2006). The majority of this stream of research focused on the effects (Smith, Benight, & Cieslak, 2013) on the soldier (e.g., posttraumatic stress disorder, PTSD (Vinokur, Pierce, Lewandowski-Romps, Hobfoll, & Galea, 2011) and its associated consequences which include depression, increased drug and alcohol abuse, and suicide (McAllister et al. 2015). Identity strain likely affects not only the employability of veterans, but also their workplace outcomes, such as their ability to devote energy to assigned tasks at work (McAllister et al. 2015).

McAllister et al. (2015) examined the incongruence between civilian and military identities as a challenge in successful job attainment and retention. Borrowing from the work of Kraimer, Shaffer, Harrison, and Ren (2012) on the identity strain experienced by repatriating employees, the authors offered "veteran identity strain" (Vet-IS) as a term to describe the incongruence between a veteran's identity as former military personnel and a new employee in a civilian work environment. In a similar vein, Smith and True (2014) referred to "warring identities," defined as the struggle some veterans face in an attempt to resolve conflicting identities during their readjustment and transition.

A "renegotiated identity" was proposed by (Kukla, Bonfils and Salyers, 2015), suggesting the transition from service member to civilian employee requires an individual's identity to convert or to change. Rausch (2014) discussed identity as a social construct. She posited military identity as one rich in culture, values, and cohesion and

encouraged civilian career counselors and counseling educators to broaden their understanding of the military identity as a necessary skill for providing successful employment counseling and employment-related services for veterans. A successful reintegration into civilian society can be obstructed by a culture perceived by veterans as having a limited understanding of the military or collective veteran experiences. The veteran–civilian identity conflict was noted to be an important and understudied phenomenon that deserves further exploration (McAllister et al., 2015; Smith & True, 2014; Stern (2017).

Social Support

Since the mid-1970s, there has been increasing interest in the role of social support as a coping resource. A number of researchers have demonstrated that the adequacy of social support is directly related to the reported severity of psychological and physical symptoms and/or acts as a buffer between stressful life events and symptoms (Andrews, Tennant, Hewson, & Vaillant, 1978; Barrera, 1981; Brandt & Weinert, 1981; Gore, 1978).

Social support has since been identified as a coping resource that can act as an antidote to workplace stressors (Meurs, Gallagher, & Perrewé, 2010); Perrewé, 2004). Social support is defined as “the ability to effectively understand others at work and to use such knowledge to influence others to act in ways that enhance one’s personal and/or organizational objectives” (Ahearn, Ferris, Hochwarter, Douglas, & Ammeter, 2004, p. 311). Not all prior research, however, has agreed with the nature, type, and direction of effects resulting from social support. Shumaker and Brownell (1984), for instance, characterized social support as "an exchange of resources between at least two individuals perceived by the provider or the recipient to be intended to enhance the well-

being of the recipient", (Shumaker & Brownell, 1984, p. 13). There are several ways in which this definition differs from others. First, it includes the concept of exchange, the perceptions of at least two participants, and a broad outcome measure. Further, because the outcome is tied to the perceived intentions of either participant, the actual effects of support may be positive, negative, or neutral (Shumaker & Brownell, 1984, p. 13).

Cohen and Syme (1985) stated that the resources provided by others can have either a negative or positive effect. Focusing on the subjective—objective dimension, Lin (1986) defined social support as "perceived or actual instrumental and/or expressive provisions supplied by the community, social networks, and confiding partners", (Lin, 1986, p. 18). Tardy (1985) suggested that the best way to clarify differences in definition and approach to social support is by breaking it down into five key dimensions of 1) direction (support can be given and/or received), 2) disposition (availability vs. utilization of support resources), 3) description of support versus evaluation of satisfaction with support, 4) content (what form does the support take?), and 5) network (what social system or systems provide the support?).

The question remains, however, as to how social support operates (Lin, Simeone, Ensel & Kuo, 1979). Some important hypotheses and dimensions with respect to this issue have been explored, including: a) direct effect versus buffering, b) the nature of the support, c) the focus of the curative effect of support, and d) the action by which social supports operate to enhance health (Monroe, Imhoff, Wise, and Harris, 1983; Procidano & Heller, 1983). Some scholars have argued that social support acts primarily as a buffer, protecting individuals from the harmful effects of stress (Cohen & McKay, 1984; Gore, 1981; House, 1981). Thoits (1986) suggested that social support operates primarily as "coping assistance." Specifically, Thoits (1986) hypothesized that the deleterious impact

of a stressful situation is modified when other people help someone change the situation itself (e.g., providing child-care assistance to an overworked parent), alter the meaning it has (e.g., helping a friend see a stressful situation from a different, less distressing perspective), and/or change the individual's affective response to the stressor (e.g., providing someone who is anxious and cannot sleep with sleeping pills) (Sarason, Levine, Basham, & Sarason, 1983; Sarason, Sarason, Potter, & Antoni, 1985; Schaefer, Coyne, & Lazarus, 1981; Wilcox, 1981). Others have proposed that by enhancing self-esteem and a sense of control over the environment, social support helps to engender positive emotional experiences, thereby reducing the negative effects of stress (Pearlin, Lieberman, Menaghan, & Mullan, 1981). As in the direct effect versus buffering issue, the proposals are not mutually exclusive. Instrumental, concrete aid provided by others and less concrete emotional support and self-esteem enhancement may both be important aspects of social support functioning.

Social support was addressed in some detail by Cohen and Syme (1985), who examined the impact of social support on disease etiology and on recovery from illness. Social support is conceptualized by these authors as a positive factor that aids in the maintenance of health as well as in disease recovery. There have been several proposals regarding the mechanism of social support's positive effects on health (the final issue just mentioned). By enhancing self-esteem and positive feelings, social support may indirectly strengthen the immune system, thereby speeding recovery from illness and reducing susceptibility to disease (Cohen & Syme, 1985; Jemmott & Locke, 1984). Supportive relationships with others may also aid in health maintenance and recovery by helping to promote healthy behaviors (e.g., compliance with prescribed health care, smoking cessation, etc.; Brownell & Shumaker, 1984).

A number of scales designed to measure social support have been described in the literature (for reviews of these measures, see Bruhn & Philips, 1984; House & Kahn, 1985; and Tardy, 1985). Both quantitative measures of support (e.g., the number of friends one can turn to in a crisis) and qualitative measures (e.g., perceptions of social support adequacy) have been investigated. For this research study, The Multidimensional Scale of Social Support (MSPSS) by Zimet et al. (2010) adapted from Kraimer, Shaffer, Harrison and Ren (2012) was used. The instrument is a brief self-report questionnaire with 12 items that subjectively measure perceived social support using three subscales namely: a Family subscale, a Friends subscale and a Significant Others subscale. In addition, the research demonstrated that the MSPSS has good internal and test-retest reliability as well as moderate construct validity. As predicted, high levels of perceived overall social support were associated with low levels of Vet-IS, and PTSD symptomatology as measured by the Hopkins Symptom Checklist (Zimet et al. 2010). Some researchers have reported a significant inverse relationship between quantitative measures of social support and psychological states such as depression and anxiety (Andrews et al., 1978; Brandt & Weinert, 1981; Sarason et al., 1983; Sarason et al., 1985; Schaefer et al., 1981; Wilcox, 1981). However, most authors have found social support to be a better predictor of psychological status than objectively measured social support (Barrera, 1981; Brandt & Weinert, 1981; Sarason et al., 1985; Schaefer et al., 1981; Wilcox, 1981). As Sarason et al. (1983) suggested, it may be that the size of a social support system and the satisfaction with the support received from that system are two different dimensions of social support, each of which is independently important in terms of coping with stress.

Social support may help ease veterans' transitions from military roles to working

in civilian workplaces and organizations. The social organization of all life domains (that is, neighborhood/community, workplace, family, school, recreational) will influence the types of networks that emerge, as well as our ability to effectively utilize available support resources Shinn et al. (1984). From a military service member's perspective, the ready availability of resources, such as perceived social support from the chain of command, family, friends, social networks, superiors, and supervisors are the foundational pillars, the cornerstone that is the bedrock that determines resilience, perseverance, vigor, and grit of veterans and active duty members serving in the American Armed Forces. Social support is conceptualized as an interpersonal effectiveness construct that reflects individuals' abilities to secure resources and influence others (Munyon, Summers, Thompson, & Ferris, in press). To this end, the past decade of research on social support has demonstrated its association with reduced psychological and physiological stress (Perrewé et al., 2004), increased self-confidence (Zellars et al., 2008) and improved ratings of employees' job performance (Ahearn et al., 2004). Perhaps most importantly, social support is a trainable skill that can be improved through use and mentorship (Ferris et al., 2007). It is possible that part of veterans' experienced identity strain may be alleviated by their levels of social support because social support from family, friends, and or significant others can serve as a resource (McAllister et al., 2015 and Halbesleben et al., 2014) that aids in stress resistance. The transactional model of stress (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984) suggests that resources (e.g., social support) may help attenuate the effects of perceived stressors experienced during the primary transitioning process on coping and strain experienced during the onset transitioning process. Possessing conflicting and/or incompatible identities is a source of actual or potential resource loss. This notion about the relationship between Social

Support and Vet-IS shapes the primary focus for this research. Specifically, the present research investigates the manner in which Social Support moderates the relationship between veterans' perceived levels of identity strain and their perceived levels of job satisfaction in the civilian sector.

Social Support as a Need

Maslow's concept of basic needs provides a theoretical framework for understanding social support (Maslow, 1968). Maslow (1968) observed that most of the neuroses encountered in his psychotherapeutic work were due to deficiencies or lack of satisfaction in security, belongingness, love, respect, and self-esteem. Healthy people were noted to have sufficient gratification for their basic needs for security, belongingness, love, respect, and self-esteem so that they are motivated, primarily, by trends toward unity or integration within the person (i.e., self-actualization). Maslow (1968) proposed that the individual is dependent upon the social environment and its sources to supply his needed gratifications (Maslow, 1968). The individual must be "other-directed" and sensitive to other people's approval, affection, and good will, lest he/she jeopardize his/her sources of supply (Maslow, 1968). The individual must adapt and adjust by being flexible and responsible and by changing himself/herself to fit the external situation. The person is the dependent variable; the environment is the fixed, independent variable (Maslow, 1968). Support resources exist in varying degrees in an individual's social environment. The individual must perceive the availability of these resources and activate them in order to satisfy his/her basic need for affiliation and affection.

According to Maslow (1968), the aim is not always to get rid of or alleviate a need; indeed, since different basic needs are related to each other in hierarchical order,

the alleviation of one may bring about the emergence of another "higher" need. The gratification of needs can heighten an individual's motivation to satisfy new needs (Maslow, 1968). Maslow proposes that some individuals are growth motivated and are interested in, attached to, and desirous of interactions with their social environment, while other individuals are deficit motivated and are afraid of, and dependent upon, their social environment. Social support (in Maslow's terms, belongingness, love, and respect) is important in satisfying the needs of both growth-motivated and deficit-motivated individuals; the former, however, is more likely to generate social support, while the latter consumes social support.

Strain and Social Support

According to Yang, Schorpp and Harris (2014), social relationships have long been held to have powerful effects on health and survival, but it remains unclear whether such associations differ by function and domain of relationships over time and what biophysiological mechanisms underlie these links (Yang et al., 2014). This study addressed these gaps by examining the longitudinal associations of persistent relationship quality across a ten-year span with a major indicator of immune function. Yang, Schorpp and Harris (2014), examined how social support and social strain from relationships with family, friends, and spouse at a prior point in time are associated with subsequent risks of inflammation, as assessed by overall inflammation burden comprised of five markers (C-reactive protein, interleukin-6, fibrinogen, E-selectin, and intracellular adhesion molecule-1) from the Midlife Development in the United States (1995–2009). Yang, Schorpp and Harris (2014) found evidence to suggest that support from family, friends, and spouse modestly protected against risks of inflammation. Family, friend, and total social strain substantially increased risks of inflammation, and the negative associations

of social strain were stronger than the positive associations of social support with inflammation (Yang, Schorpp & Harris, 2014). The findings highlight the importance of enriched conceptualizations, measures, and longitudinal analyses of both social and biological stress processes to elucidate the complex pathways linking social relationships to health and illness (Yang et al., 2014).

Social support has the potential to enhance quality of life and provides a buffer against adverse life events (Cohen & Hoberman, 1983). Lin (1986) defined social support as “perceived or actual instrumental and/or expressive provisions supplied by the community, social networks, and confiding partners” (p.18). There is a present study that used a modified existing model of the treatment of persons with disabilities to explain factors that influence job satisfaction among veterans (Stone & Colella, 1996). A great deal of research has been conducted that attempts to link employee and job attitudes with work outcomes (Shore & Martin, 1989). Early research tended to focus on job satisfaction as the key attitude to employee behaviors such as job performance and turnover (Locke, 1976).

To date, little research has focused on understanding factors that influence job satisfaction among veterans or, specifically, how veteran job satisfaction may be influenced by veteran identity strain, PTSD, and social support. The present study examines how perceived overall support from family, friends, and significant others, along with perceived supervisor support, interacts with veteran identity strain, PTSD, and overall job satisfaction. A large and growing body of social, demographic, and epidemiologic research has firmly established the important role of social relationships and connections in shaping social and physical functioning and well-being of individuals. Social ties and support have been linked to improved mental and physical health (George

et al., 1989; Cornwell and Waite, 2009), a greater capacity to cope with stress (Aneshensel and Stone, 1982; Thoits, 2011), and increased longevity (Berkman and Syme, 1979; House et al., 1988). As the empirical evidence for these links continues to accrue, recent studies have increasingly attended to various social, psychological, and behavioral processes linking social relations to health (Smith and Christakis, 2008; Thoits, 2011; Umberson et al., 2010). However, important gaps exist in measurements of social relationships, specifications of biophysiological mechanisms, and study designs. Additionally, there has not been much research into how these factors influence outcomes such as job satisfaction. To address these gaps, the current study examined how both perceived social support and social strain from relationships with family, friends, and spouses are associated with veteran reintegration outcomes, specifically job satisfaction. By assessing both the positive and the negative qualities of social relationships and associating different domains of such relationships with a more comprehensive measurement of them, the current study provides unique insight into the multifaceted and dynamic links between one's social support, a sense of one's overall well-being, and one's ability to realize job satisfaction while accounting for perceived Vet-IS.

Many studies have reported a significant association between organizational commitment and turnover intentions (Ferris & Aranya, 1983; Hom, Katerberg, & Hulin, 1979; Mowday, Steers, & Porter, 1979; O'Reilly & Caldwell, 1980; Steers, 1977; Stumpf & Hartman, 1984; Wiener & Vardi, 1980). Other research has established a relationship between job satisfaction and turnover intentions (Angle & Perry, 1981; Bedeian & Armenakis, 1981). Studies of job satisfaction also have reported significant correlations between turnover intentions and satisfaction with the work itself (Hom et al., 1979; Kraut, 1975; Waters, Roach, & Waters, 1976) and pay and promotion (Horn et al., 1979;

Waters et al., 1976). To date, little research has focused on understanding factors that influence job satisfaction among veterans or, specifically, how veteran job satisfaction may be influenced by Vet-IS, PTSD, and Perceived Overall Support. The present study examines contributes to the literature by empirically exploring these relationships.

PTSD

Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) is an anxiety disorder that can occur following the experience of witnessing of a traumatic event. A traumatic event is a life-threatening occurrence such as military combat, natural disasters, terrorist incidents, serious accidents, physical or sexual assault (Hamblen, 2009). Hundreds of studies have been published about the effects of disasters on mental health. To date, posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD) has been the condition most often measured and observed in these studies (Norris and Elrod 2006; Norris et al. 2002). However, some people will have stress reactions that do not go away on their own or may even worsen over time (Norris et al. 2002). Veterans with PTSD experience three different kinds of symptoms. The first set of symptoms involves reliving the trauma in some way such as becoming upset when confronted with a traumatic reminder or thinking about the trauma when you are trying to do something else (Hamblen, 2009). The second set of symptoms involves either staying away from places or people that remind you of the trauma, isolating from other people, or feeling numb. The third set of symptoms includes things such as feeling on guard, irritable, or startling easily. These individuals may develop PTSD with manifestations of three major types of symptoms: 1) reexperiencing symptoms, 2), avoidance symptoms, and 3) arousal symptoms.

Reexperiencing Symptoms

Reexperiencing symptoms are symptoms that involve reliving the traumatic event.

There are a number of ways in which people may relive a trauma (Ehlers, & Clark, 2000). They may have upsetting memories of the traumatic event. These memories can come back when they are not expecting them (Foa, Riggs, Massie & Yarczower, 1995). At other times the memories may be triggered by a traumatic reminder such as when a combat veteran hears a car backfire, a motor vehicle accident victim drives by a car accident or a rape victim sees a news report of a recent sexual assault (Foa et al. 1995; Foa & Rothbaum, 1998). These memories can cause both emotional and physical reactions. Sometimes these memories can feel so real that it may seem as if the event is actually happening again. People who go through these reexperiencing phenomena often refer to having "flashbacks" (Steil & Ehlers, 2000). Reliving the event may cause intense feelings of fear, helplessness, and horror similar to the feelings that they had when the event took place.

Avoidance and Numbing Symptoms

Avoidance symptoms are displayed when a person consciously avoids people, circumstances, or even environments that they believe might foster a potentially traumatic event. Individuals with PTSD may try to avoid situations that trigger memories of past traumatic events (Foa, Keane & Friedman, 2000). They may avoid going near places where past trauma occurred, or they may avoid seeing TV programs or news reports about similar events. They may avoid other sights, sounds, smells, or people that are reminders of past traumatic events. Some people find that they try to distract themselves as a way to avoid thinking about the traumatic event. Numbing symptoms are another way to cope with past traumatic events. Individuals with numbing symptoms may find it difficult to be in touch with their feelings or express emotions toward other people. For example, they may feel emotionally "numb" and may isolate from others. They may

be less interested in activities that they once enjoyed. Some people forget, or are unable to talk about, important parts of past events. Others who exhibit numbing symptoms as a result of PTSD sometimes indicate that they think that they will have a shortened life span or will not reach personal goals such as having a career or family (VA National Center for PTSD).

Arousal Symptoms

People with PTSD may feel constantly alert after a traumatic event. This is known as increased emotional arousal, and it can cause difficulty sleeping, outbursts of anger, irritability, and difficulty concentrating. People who display arousal symptoms as a result of PTSD may find that they are constantly “on guard” and on the lookout for signs of danger. They may also find that they are easily and frequently startled (Weathers, Litz, Herman, Huska, & Keane, 1993).

In addition to the symptoms described above, we now know that there are clear biological changes that are associated with PTSD. PTSD is complicated by the fact that people with PTSD often may develop additional disorders such as depression, substance abuse, problems of memory and cognition, and other problems of physical and mental health. These problems may lead to impairment of the person’s ability to function in social or family life, including occupational instability, marital problems and family problems. PTSD can be treated with psychotherapy (“talk” therapy) and medicines such as antidepressants. Early treatment is important and may help reduce long-term symptoms. Unfortunately, many people do not know that they have PTSD or do not seek treatment.

PTSD was once considered a disorder primarily affecting veterans of war. This partial conceptualization of PTSD focused heavily on veterans because of the possibility

of experiencing events that include but are not limited to physical assault such as rape, kidnapping or torture, natural or man-made disaster, vehicular accidents or military combat; events that are linked to warfare. Acts of terrorism, school shootings, and mass executions during ethnic warfare can also be counted among the many traumatic events an individual might experience in our world today. It is now understood that PTSD can affect any individual exposed to a traumatic event (Weathers, Litz, Herman, Huska, & Keane, 1993).

Distinguishing symptoms of post-traumatic stress disorder and diagnostic criteria for PTSD can be found in the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders-V (Bureau of Labor Statistics), published by the American Psychiatric Association (Association, 2013). This manual contains a listing of psychiatric disorders and their corresponding codes as well as each disorder diagnostic criteria, related features, prevalence, differential diagnosis, etc.

PTSD Prevalence

PTSD has become a common disorder. An estimated 6.8% of Americans will experience PTSD at some point in their lives. Women (9.7%) are more than two and a half times as likely as men (3.6%) to develop PTSD. About 3.6% of U.S. adults (5.2 million people) have PTSD during the course of a given year (VA National Center for PTSD). This is only a small portion of those who have experienced at least one traumatic event. In people who have experienced a traumatic event, about 8% of men and 20% of women develop PTSD after a trauma and roughly 30% of these individuals develop a chronic form of PTSD that continues on throughout their lifetime. The traumatic events

most often associated with PTSD for men are rape, combat exposure, childhood neglect, and childhood physical abuse. The most traumatic events for women are rape, sexual molestation, physical attack, being threatened with a weapon, and childhood physical abuse. PTSD is more common in “at-risk” groups such as those serving in combat. About 30% of the men and women who served in Vietnam experience PTSD (VA National Center for PTSD). An additional 20% to 25% have had partial PTSD at some point in their lives. More than half of all male Vietnam veterans and almost half of all female Vietnam veterans have experienced "clinically serious stress reaction symptoms." PTSD has also been detected among veterans of other wars. Estimates of PTSD from the Gulf War are as high as 10%. Estimates from the war in Afghanistan are between 6 and 11%.

Implications of PTSD for Veterans

Current estimates of PTSD in military personnel who served in Iraq range from 12% to 20%. Vogt and Johnson (2011) state that the impact of pre-deployment and deployment experiences on formation of PTSD symptoms can be mediated by post-deployment factors, such as social support (Vogt & Johnson, 2011). Social support also predicts PTSD severity in the post-deployment phase (Possemato, McKenzie, McDevitt-Murphy, Williams, & Ouimette, 2014).

Combat traumas precipitate posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD); however, nontraumatic deployment and post deployment factors may also contribute to PTSD severity. The Deployment Risk and Resilience Inventory (DRRI) was used to investigate pre-, peri-, and post deployment factors associated with current PTSD severity in 150 recent combat veterans with PTSD and hazardous alcohol use. Hierarchical linear regression analyzed what factors independently predicted PTSD severity when controlling for sociodemographic characteristics and combat specific variables. Four post

deployment factors independently predicted PTSD severity: unemployment, alcohol use, social support, and stressful (nontraumatic) life events. The centrality of trauma in the maintenance of PTSD and clinical implications for treatment providers are discussed (Possemato et al., 2014). According to Balderrama-Durbin et al. (2013) social relationships have a bidirectional relationship with PTSD that can either serve as a buffer to prevent the formation of PTSD in combat veterans or can worsen the development of PTSD. Although previous research has shown a negative relationship between partner support and PTSD symptom severity among military service members following deployment, the mediating mechanisms of this effect remain poorly understood. Previous research has examined the willingness to disclose deployment- and combat-related experiences as a mediating mechanism underlying the linkage between intimate partner support and PTSD symptom severity in a sample of 76 U.S. Air Force service members deployed to Iraq in a year-long, high-risk mission (Balderrama-Durbin et al., 2013). Airmen's reports of overall social support, and partner support specifically, significantly predicted concurrent post deployment PTSD symptom severity. Subsequent mediation analyses demonstrated that level of disclosure of deployment- and combat-related experiences by service members to their intimate partners accounted for a significant portion of the relation between partner support and post deployment PTSD symptom severity. The level of PTSD disclosures among airmen was also inversely related to levels of relationship distress. Implications of these findings for prevention and intervention strategies and for further research are discussed (Balderrama-Durbin et al., 2013).

Additionally, higher levels of relationship satisfaction have been shown to predict higher levels of disclosure. Interventions that focus on disclosure to family and peers lead to less

psychological distress in supportive relationships. However, if the relationship is unsupportive, then further negative psychological impact can occur. Wilcox (2010) states that veterans distinguish between sources of support, such as family, significant others, and peers, indicating that support systems surrounding veterans are not equal in significance to each other and are not global. All levels of surrounding support were demonstrated to act as buffers against PTSD symptomatology (Wilcox, 2010). However, as PTSD symptoms worsen, social support may decrease, in turn making PTSD symptoms worse; therefore, training couples in successful techniques can help facilitate functional relationships (Sautter, Armelie, Glynn, and Wielt 2011).

The number of Veterans with PTSD varies by service era:

- **Operations Iraqi Freedom (OIF) and Enduring Freedom (OEF):** About 11-20 out of every 100 Veterans (or between 11-20%) who served in OIF or OEF have PTSD in a given year.
- **Gulf War (Desert Storm):** About 12 out of every 100 Gulf War Veterans (or 12%) have PTSD in a given year.
- **Vietnam War:** About 15 out of every 100 Vietnam Veterans (or 15%) were currently diagnosed with PTSD at the time of the most recent study in the late 1980s, the National Vietnam Veterans Readjustment Study (NVVRS). It is estimated that about 30 out of every 100 (or 30%) of Vietnam Veterans have had PTSD in their lifetime.

Other factors in a combat situation can add more stress to an already stressful situation. This may contribute to PTSD and other mental health problems. These factors include what you do in the war, the politics around the war, where the war is fought, and the type of enemy you face. Another cause of PTSD in the military can be military sexual

trauma (MST). This is any sexual harassment or sexual assault that occurs while you are in the military. MST can happen to both men and women and can occur during peacetime, training, or war.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is the most widely researched job attitude and among the most extensively researched subjects in Industrial/Organizational Psychology (Judge & Church, 2000). Several work motivation theories have corroborated the implied role of job satisfaction.

Work satisfaction theories, such as Maslow's (1943) Hierarchy of Needs, Herzberg's (1968) Two-Factor (Motivator-Hygiene) Theory, Adam's (1965) Equity Theory, Porter and Lawler's (1968) modified version of Vroom's (1964) VIE Model, Locke's (1969) Discrepancy Theory, Hackman and Oldham's (1976) Job Characteristics Model, Locke's (1976) Range of Affect Theory, Bandura's (1977) Social Learning Theory, and Landy's (1978) Opponent Process Theory, have tried to explain job satisfaction and its influence. Such expansive research has resulted in job satisfaction being linked to productivity, motivation, absenteeism/tardiness, accidents, mental/physical health, and general life satisfaction (Landy, 1978). A common theory within the research has been that, to an extent, the emotional state of an individual is affected by interactions with their work environment. People identify themselves by their profession, such as a doctor, lawyer, or teacher. Hence, an individual's personal well-being at work is a significant aspect of research (Judge & Klinger, 2007).

Job satisfaction has emotional, cognitive, and behavioral components (Bernstein & Nash, 2008). The emotional component refers to job-related feelings such as boredom, anxiety, acknowledgement and excitement. The cognitive component of job satisfaction

pertains to beliefs regarding one's job, whether it is respectable, mentally demanding / challenging and rewarding. Finally, the behavioral component includes people's actions in relation to their work such as tardiness, working late, or faking illness in order to avoid work (Bernstein & Nash, 2008).

Job satisfaction refers to the positive attitudes or emotional dispositions people may gain from work or through aspects of work. Employees' job satisfaction becomes a central focal point in the research and discussions about work and organizational psychology because it is believed to have an association with job performance.

For adults, work plays a critical role in individual identity (Ashforth & Mael, 1989), regardless of that work stemming from a civilian or military career. We spend more time at work than in other areas of our life, such as with family (Gini, 1998). In fact, it is proposed that we experience some work-related identity loss when work ceases or is terminated (Conroy & O'Leary-Kelly, 2014). Because work is central to the core sense of self, it is important that work is a satisfying and fulfilling experience. For veteran employees, this may require merging two frames of reference (military and civilian) in determining what constitutes workplace satisfaction.

The purpose of this study was to examine how veteran identity strain Vet-IS, Perceived Overall Support, and PTSD effect military veterans on job satisfaction. First, I posited three hypotheses to guide the framework of this study: Hypothesis 1) higher levels of veteran identity strain Vet-IS have a negative association with Job Satisfaction, Hypotheses 2) perceived social support has a positive moderating effect on the association between veteran identity strain and job satisfaction, and Hypotheses 3) PTSD has a negative moderating effect on the association between veteran identity strain and

job satisfaction. These three hypotheses can be visualized by the conceptual model presented in Figure 1.

Conceptual Model

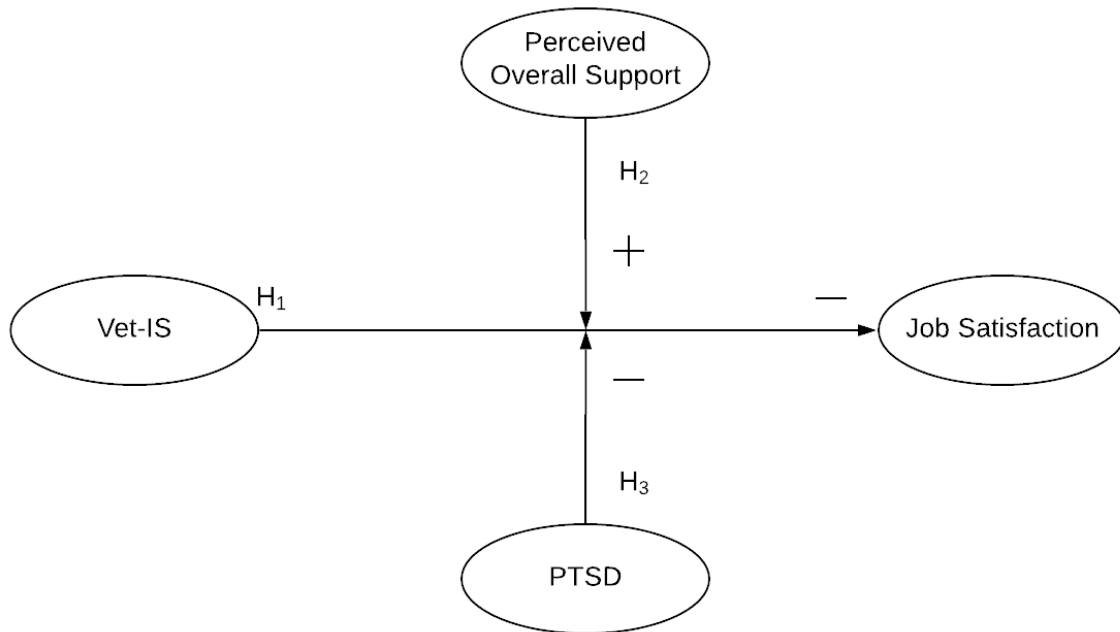


Figure 1. Theoretical Model and Research Hypotheses

CHAPTER 3: HYPOTHESES

Hypotheses Development

The current study draws upon and extends identity theory from Tajfel and Turner (1985); stress and coping theory from Lazarus and Folkman (1987). I examine the importance of identity strain (i.e., veteran identity strain) related to veterans' identities as they transition into the civilian work environments. I also draw on identity theory to further examine why military veterans who transition from military service into civilian life, experience identity conflicts (Kraimer, Schaffer, & Bolino, 2009). This creates identity strain when veterans perceive job deprivation relative to their military occupation specialty (MOS), compared to their civilian job (Kraimer et al., 2012). Identity strain, in turn, promotes turnover. Yet, less research has been devoted to understanding the underlying mechanisms of veterans' decisions to quit their civilian job after leaving their military careers (Kraimer et al. 2012). I draw further on identity theory, and stress and coping theory as grounding theories for this current study (Tajfel & Turner, 1985; Lazarus & Folkman, 1987).

This study aimed to empirically evaluate the association between Vet-IS and job satisfaction and how this relationship is affected by Perceived Social Support and PTSD. The theoretical model proposed that higher levels of Vet-IS are associated with lower levels of job satisfaction. This relationship will improve (i.e., will be less negative) when social support is high, and it will worsen (i.e., will be more negative) when PTSD is high. Both social identity theory, and stress and coping theory literature seem to support these hypotheses (Folkman & Lazarus, 1988; Lazarus & Folkman, 1987). I posit that Vet-IS is negatively associated with job satisfaction. I anticipated that veterans who indicated for themselves high degrees of identity strain, these same veterans would indicate in their

survey responses that they also have lower job satisfaction. In essence, I anticipated a negative inverse correlation between Vet-IS and job satisfaction. My first hypothesis, hypothesis one suggests that higher levels of veteran identity strain have a negative association with job satisfaction. It is possible that part of veterans' experienced identity strain may be alleviated by their levels of social support because social support can serve as a resource (Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014) that aids in stress resistance (McAllister et al., 2015) and coping. I tested for this positive moderating effect of overall social support in my model.

The incongruence between a veteran's work environment and their military identity can create feelings of tension, discomfort, or identity strain (Feldman, Leana & Turnley, 1997). Vet-IS, can have deleterious effects on work environments (Kraimer, Shaffer, Harrison, & Ren, 2012). Identity serves as a reference point that imbues meaning into an individuals' social roles and helps them determine "who they are" (Burke & Reitzes, 1991). Identity theory can help explain how life experiences associated with significant work role transitions (i.e., leaving the military, retiring) can alter a veteran's sense of self and their subsequent attitudes and behaviors toward their supervisor, or organization (Andreason & Kinneer, 2005; Nicholson, 1984). According to identity theory (Burke, 1991; Stryker, 1980; Thoits & Virshup, 1997), an individual's self-concept can be derived from his or her position in an organized structure of relationships such as social roles (e.g., parent, spouse) or social types (e.g., military leader, first line supervisor). Salient role identities are those that are meaningful to the individual and are more likely to be invoked in a variety of situations (Stryker, 1980; Thoits, 1991). Recent research on multiple identities indicates that individuals think of themselves as members of numerous social groups simultaneously (Blader, 2007; Chiu & Cheng, 2007) and that

individuals differ in their experiences and self-construal of their multiple role identities (Downie, Koestner, ElGeledi, & Cree, 2004).

I posit the following three research questions: 1) What impact does veteran identity strain have on job satisfaction?, 2) How does perceived social support influence the relationship between veteran identity strain and job satisfaction? , and 3) How does PTSD influence the relationship between veteran identity strain and job satisfaction?

My study draws upon and extends both identity theory (Tajfel and Turner 1985), and stress and coping theory (Lazarus and Folkman, 1987). Stryker's (1980) social structural perspective and Burke's (1991) internal dynamics perspective are two closely related viewpoints in identity theory. Both researchers attempt to explain how social structure affects sense of self and associated behaviors, but they differ in their explanatory mechanisms and focus (Stryker & Burke, 2000). Stryker (1980) is concerned with how the social environment influences social identity and how that identity in turn influences behaviors. Burke's (1991) model explains why people are motivated to engage in identity-consistent behaviors. First, I attempt to replicate the findings on the effects and association between Vet-IS and veterans' job satisfaction. I also, illuminate the importance of Vet-IS by investigating the congruence between a veteran's military identity and their civilian identity in the work environment. I further explore, how this understudied identity strain effects military veterans reintegrating into the civilian workplace (Burke, 1991; Stryker, 1980; Swann, 1990).

More specifically, I examine how military veterans' perceptions of social support from family, friends, significant others, and supervisors effects their satisfaction on the job in the civilian workplace. Lastly, I extend identity theory (veteran identity strain) by examining how perceived social support influences the perceptions of veterans as it

relates to the socialization processes that they experience in the civilian work environment. This study intended to expand what is known about the importance of the role that support plays in workplace outcomes such as job satisfaction. As a starting point, my work benefitted from the contributions of previously studied by theorists, social scientists, and researchers such as Maslow 1988; Lazarus and Folkman, 1987; Tajfel and Turner, 1985; Hogg and Terry, 2000; Burke et al., 1991; Stryker, 1980; McAllister et al., 2015; Kraimer et al., 2012; Pieper et al., 2018; Vandenberg & Stanley, 2009; and Silver, 2013.

Hypotheses

H₁) Higher levels of veteran identity strain have a negative association with Job Satisfaction.

H₂) Perceived social support has a positive moderating effect on the association between veteran identity strain and job satisfaction.

H₃) PTSD has a negative moderating effect on the association between veteran identity strain and job satisfaction.

Veteran Identity Strain Vet-IS

As established earlier, Vet-IS is an incongruence between a veteran's military identity and the identity that they take on in their current work environments (Kraimer, Shaffer, Harrison, & Ren, 2012). Identity serves as a reference point that imbues meaning into an individuals' social roles and helps them determine "who they are" (Burke & Reitzes, 1991). A four-stage identity feedback loop is activated when individuals enter into a new environment (Burke, 1991). Specifically, individuals enter with a standard set of beliefs (e.g., veteran identity), receive input from the environment (e.g., civilian workplace), compare their identity to their perceptions of the environment, and enact

behaviors resulting from the comparison (Burke, 1991). However, if comparisons between identities and environments are incongruent, feelings of distress begin to manifest (Zanna & Cooper, 1976). This distress can be mitigated over time by working toward establishing congruence between identities and environments.

Achieving congruence can be especially difficult for veterans who develop a specific military identity while serving in the military. Typically, new recruits are broken down and then built back up with a specific set of values and ideals during basic training (Arkin & Dobrofsky, 1978). The military environment provides a stark contrast to civilian life, and much of the treatment that service members endure would be unacceptable in the modern civilian workplace. Further, individuals living within the bounds of military life tend to form a strong sense of camaraderie, especially during combat deployment (Mitchell, Gallaway, Millikan, & Bell, 2011). However, those same feelings of camaraderie often are not present in the civilian work environment (Hinojosa & Hinojosa, 2011).

Society's perception of the veteran identity adds to the difficulty associated with transitioning from the military to civilian life (Linn, 2012). Employers may associate veterans with PTSD or other issues that appear so often in the media (Linn, 2012). Many veterans are aware that a lack of social support from family, friends, co-workers, and supervisor in the workplace may associate them with PTSD or some other type of chronic strain. The difficulty of avoiding stereotypes is compounded by the need for veterans to focus on "fitting in" within their new environments, which may involve evaluating their own identities while simultaneously managing the perceptions of others (McAllister et al, 2015).

Lazarus's (1966) theory of psychological stress and coping focuses on two

processes (i.e., cognitive appraisal and coping) that explain how individuals react to perceived stressors within their environments (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984). Lazarus's theory is inherently interactional in nature because it conceptualizes both the person and the environment as interacting dynamically through a bidirectional relationship to influence individuals' experienced stress (Folkman, Lazarus, Gruen, & DeLongis, 1986). Individuals perceive potential threats in their environment through the process of cognitive appraisal, which allows them to evaluate the nature of perceived threats and how perceived threats may affect them. Specifically, cognitive appraisal is defined as "a process through which the person evaluates whether a particular encounter with the environment is relevant to his or her well-being, and if so, in what ways" (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen, 1986, p. 992). As the definition suggests, cognitive appraisals are comprised of two parts: primary and secondary appraisals. Social support, which is a personal characteristic resource that has demonstrated the ability to buffer the negative effects of job stress (e.g., Meurs, Gallagher, & Perrewé, 2010; Perrewé et al., 2004).

When veterans leave the military, they are faced with the task of integrating their identities into their new environment. Determining whether or not they can succeed in new environments constitutes their primary appraisal of this stressor (i.e., integration). If veterans do not feel equipped to integrate adequately, then their levels of stress likely will increase (McAllister et al, 2015). Veterans with additional resources to use for coping likely experience less strain than veterans with fewer resources. For these reasons, I hypothesize that the higher level of Vet-IS that veterans experience, the lower their job satisfaction in the civilian workplace.

Hypothesis 1: *Higher levels of Vet-IS will have a negative association on job satisfaction.*

Perceived Social Support

Perceived social support is a unique coping resource that acts as a buffer for veterans in time of need or crisis (Meurs et al., 2012; Perrewé et al., 2004). Perceived social support is defined as “the extent to which veterans perceived that their contributions are valued by their supervisor and that the organization cares about them (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Social support is “the ability to effectively understand others at work and to use such support from family, friends, significant others, and supervisors influence that enhances veterans’ personal, professional, and objectives”. (Ahearn et al., 2004, p.311). Veterans with an abundance of perceived social support are better able to combine social astuteness with the capacity to adjust their behavior to changing and demanding life circumstances that appear to be sincere and inspire both support and trust (Ferris et al., 2007). Trust is an attribute that speaks to the core U.S. military doctrine. Trust is foundational to the level of commitment that each veteran makes to his or her service.

Research has demonstrated that social support helps maintain a sense of awareness to social cues that enables people to navigate life situations and understand their environment and the people within their perceived social support network (Ferris et al., 2002). Prior research has found that perceived social support can actually reduce perceived and felt stress in the workplace (Meurs et al., 2010). Perceived organizational support is “the extent to which veterans perceive that their contributions are valued by their supervisor and that the supervisor cares about their well-being”. By example, survey

item 47, “My supervisor really cares about my well-being” is one of the items that I measure in my study.

For military veterans, entry into the workplace carries with it an identity that may still be linked to the value, ethics and trust in which it was indoctrinated in while serving in the military (McAllister et al., 2015). These veterans may experience role conflict if their military identity is incompatible with their civilian identity (Khan, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). The amount of perceived social support may help reduce identity strain, including Vet-IS experienced by veterans attempting to reduce or rectify incongruities between their military identities and their civilian identities in work environments (McAllister et al., 2015). Not all military veterans have access to important resources such as supportive families, friends, significant others, or supervisors which would likely lessen experienced Vet-IS (McAllister et al., 2015). Understanding the civilian work environment is a critical component of Vet-IS because the stressors inherent in any work environment are amplified for veterans who attempt to manage multiple potentially incongruent identities (McAllister et al., 2015). Veterans who are able to identify and follow the social norms of their new environments are more likely to integrate successfully into the civilian workplace and experience better job satisfaction (McAllister et al., 2015).

Hypothesis 2: *Social support has a positive moderating effect on the association between veteran identity strain and job satisfaction. In other words, the negative relationship between veteran identity strain and job satisfaction will be less negative when social support is high.*

PTSD

Individual differences can affect exposure and reactions to stressful stimuli (Perrewé & Spector, 2002), as well as influence social perception and behavior (e.g.,

Judge & Ilies, 2002). Prior research has demonstrated that social support is a personal characteristic type of resource that can aid in stress resistance by neutralizing the effects of stressors on strain (Perrewé et al., 2004, 2005). Thus, employees' social support can alter their perception of their environments and how they respond to these perceptions. In the present study, employees' levels of social support (i.e., resource) likely will influence how their experiences drive their perceptions of their current environments (i.e., Vet-IS), and how they respond to these perceptions regarding job satisfaction (McAllister et al., 2015). Combat-related injuries often result in veterans experiencing both, traumatic brain injury (TBI), and PTSD (Burke et al., 2009). TBI is characterized by trauma to the head, resulting in concussive, or closed, and penetrating injuries (Defense and Veterans Brain Injury Center, 2007). Military veterans specifically combat veterans may experience differently the sources of perceived social support which may have an impact on posttraumatic stress disorder PTSD symptomatology (Wilcox, 2010). The level of PTSD is related to the amount and type of support received from family, friends, significant others, and supervisors. In general, the higher levels of support from each category may be associated with lower levels of PTSD.

A recent meta-analysis (Ozer, Best, Lipsey, & Weiss, 2003) found that social support was among the strongest predictive factors of PTSD. Brewin, Andrews, and Valentine (2000) investigated risk factors for PTSD and found social support to have the strongest weighted average effect size ($r = .40$). Other studies on victims of combat have found that social support is significantly related to the severity of PTSD symptoms (Barrett & Mizes, 1988; Jankowski et al., 2004, 2005; Solomon, Waysman, & Mikulincer, 1990). Moreover, research has found that greater levels of social support predicted lower PTSD symptoms in combat veterans as well as other populations who

have experienced traumatic events (Barrett, 1988; Boscarino, 2006; Haden, Scarpa, Jones, & Ollendick, 2007; Stephens, Long, & Miller, 1997).

Combat veterans are exposed to higher than normal rates of traumatic experiences, which increases their stress levels and may cause the development of PTSD (Kulka, Schlenger, & Fairbank, 1990). Because of the large number of military personnel who are being sent to combat zones in Iraq and Afghanistan, there will be an increase in the number of the newer generation of veterans who will develop PTSD (Gray, Bolton, & Litz, 2004). Recent research by Hoge and colleagues (2004) found that 17% of veterans returning from Iraq suffered from an emotional problem (i.e., PTSD) and the prevalence of PTSD among veterans has increased at a linear relationship with combat exposure. Not surprisingly, research has found that those with PTSD experience a reduced quality of life (Magruder et al., 2004; Stein, Walker, Hazen, & Forde, 1997). With a new generation of combat veterans emerging and an increased rate of PTSD developing, it is critical to examine factors that may impact PTSD development in combat veterans and ways to reduce and prevent PTSD (Friedman, 2004; Hoge et al., 2004; Jones, 2004). It is equally important to better understand the impact that PTSD has on the veteran during his or her life after the military. It is this need for understanding that underpins an integral hypothesis in my research. I explored the effect that PTSD might have on the relationship between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction. I theorized that when a veteran perceives himself or herself to exhibit high PTSD, they will accordingly experience an exacerbation of the negative association between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction. My final hypothesis posited that PTSD has a negative moderating effect on the association between veteran identity strain and job satisfaction. In other words, the negative

relationship between veteran identity strain and job satisfaction will be more negative when PTSD is high.

Hypothesis 3: *PTSD has a negative moderating effect on the association between veteran identity strain and job satisfaction. In other words, the negative relationship between veteran identity strain and job satisfaction will be more negative when PTSD is high.*

CHAPTER 4: METHODS

Study Sample and Procedure

Participants for this research study were 135 employed military veterans from across all service branches of the Army, Air Force, Navy, Marine, Coast Guard, National Guard, and Reserves. Data collection occurred via an electronic 60-item survey. I initially launched and distributed the survey via Qualtrics® link by direct email. I then posted the survey link on various social media sites such as LinkedIn, Instagram, Facebook, and Twitter. The faculty, the student resource center, and the Veteran's Services Office on University of North Carolina's campus distributed the survey on my behalf by email and campus newsletter. To cast a broader net, the Veteran's Bridge Homes also distributed the Qualtrics link across their social networks and community-based platforms. These distribution channels and email lists were confirmed by a combination of requisite letters of support from the participating organizations and reviewed by UNC Charlotte's IRB (IRB protocol #: 19-0101). I emailed some potential participants directly via email but was not able to determine when or if recipients of the email actually responded to the survey. I did not track responses from participants to whom the survey was emailed to via distribution channels. The recruitment email had the URL link to the Qualtrics survey https://lnkd.in/eyXm_ak embedded in it. I emailed the recruitment script with the survey link transcribed in it as well.

Participants were identified by an item code i.e. (1-3000). I decided to not conduct in-person recruitment as part of the study design. Emails were sent to respondents for whom the researcher already had a compiled email address list. Responses to the email recruitment, however, were not tracked and the researcher was not able to determine specifically who took the survey. I made several in person face-to-

face meetings and email communications with four different governmental agencies that focus on the concerns of veterans. There was partial participation by some of these agencies in distributing the email link to the survey. For the purposes of maintaining anonymity among survey respondents, I was unable to determine per-agency responses rates for the survey.

Survey

The purpose of conducting the survey for this research study was to obtain veteran perceptions about the related theoretical constructs in my proposed model, Vet-IS, PTSD, Perceived Overall Support and Job Satisfaction. A total of 286 surveys was obtained from the electronic distribution of the survey. After cleansing the data set of incomplete surveys, and filtering the data set for employed veterans, the resulting sample size available for analysis was 135. The majority of survey responses came from veterans who served in the U. S. Army 69.63%, (see Table 10). There was an equal number of veterans who were enlisted in both the U. S. Navy (8.89%) and the U. S. Marines (8.89%). The third largest branch of the military that was represented in this survey sample was from the U. S. Air Force (5.83%).

The survey contained a filtering item (PTSD1) that was included so that respondents could indicate whether or not they had been medically diagnosed with PTSD. The original intent behind including this item was to be able to filter the dataset so that an analysis of the data could be conducted that relied only on the responses of veterans who self-identified as having been diagnosed with PTSD. Removing the responses of survey participants who answered “No” to the filtering item would result in a dramatically smaller sample size. Iterations of the analysis were completed using this smaller sample size ($n = 49$) and the overall relationships derived from analyzing the full

sample of 135 respondents were consistent. The results demonstrated acceptable reliability with the values for Cronbach's Alpha exceeding the commonly accepted threshold of .70 (Nunnally, 1978); (Revelle & Li 2005). Additionally, the results for composite reliability exceeded .60 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). All the values for average variance extracted (AVE), with the exception of Perceived Overall Support exceed the threshold of .50. Although, the AVE for Perceived Overall Support was .48 which fell below the recommended threshold of .50, the measurement was deemed acceptable because the corresponding composite reliability of .94 was greater than .60 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Military veterans first enter the military profession during basic entry training. Usually basic training, commonly called initial entry training or IET, is a 6 to 8 week physically demanding, grueling, exhaustive process. This is the first eye-opening, real-life preview of the military experience and culture transformation that young adults ranging from 18 to 26 years old experience as they are challenged to quickly adapt to military culture, policy, rules, regulations, standards, and acquire their military identity. Even though the acquisition and attainment of their new role as a soldier, sailor, airmen, marine, coast guardsman, or service member, his/her military identity manifests itself in less than two months, however, sustaining and maintaining his/her military identity lasts a lifetime. This temporal difference in forming the identity and sustaining the identity could perhaps add to the incongruence that veterans who transition from their military service into the civilian environment experience after leaving the military with having served for as much as 30 plus years in some instances.

Measures

To operationalize the constructs in the theoretical model, the study relied on previously published measures. In doing so, we built upon extant research, and, in some cases adjusted the scales to better match the specific context of veterans in the workforce. The complete scales are provided in Appendix 3.

As stated earlier, many veterans report that they experience difficult times reintegrating back into the civilian life following their military service (McAllister et al. 2015). The level of military rank, for example (officers, compared to enlisted service members) is possibly associated with the amount of grit, vigor, grind, and perseverance that military veterans experience throughout their military career and tenure. Position in the military could very well act as buffering resources to aide in mitigating the overwhelming taxation of resources that veterans face during civilian reintegration. An example of how this transition might be manifested would be the transition of an officer to a wage and hour job in the civilian sector. Instead of giving orders, the veteran is now receiving orders, resulting in a type of Vet-IS associated with lesser “rank” in the civilian sector. The sources of stress, identity strain, and incongruences between veterans’ military identities and their civilian identities is an important issue as an additional one million veterans join the other 10.5 million veterans already working or seeking work in the civilian workforce (Dewan, 2011). Identity strain will affect not only the employed veterans, but also their civilian workplace outcomes, such as their abilities to devote energy, grit, and perseverance at work (McAllister et al. 2015).

After over a decade of war, there is a constant stream of U.S. veterans transitioning from military life to civilian life, and almost 44% of those who have served since the September 11, 2001, terrorist attacks report having a difficult time reintegrating

back into civilian life (Morin, 2011). Because of the nearly 6 million veterans having difficulty in the civilian sector (Department of Veterans Affairs, 2013), research needs to be conducted to examine the sources of veterans' problems transitioning from military to civilian life and from military to civilian work environments. When veterans leave the military, they are faced with the task of integrating their identities into their new environment. Determining whether or not they can succeed in new environments constitutes their primary appraisal of this stressor (i.e., integration). If veterans do not feel equipped to integrate adequately, then their levels of stress will likely increase. Similarly, their secondary appraisal (e.g., how to cope with the stressor) may also be affected by their rank. Veterans with additional resources, such as perceived overall support, social support from family, friends, significant others, and supervisors to use for coping likely experience less veteran identity strain than veterans with fewer resources. Vet-IS was measured using an adapted version of Kraimer et al.'s (2012) 5-item veteran identity scale ($\alpha = .89$). Example items from this measure include "sometimes, I feel like my military experience doesn't fit my current job" and "there is a tension between who I am on my current job and who I was while in the military." Please see Appendix for a full list of items.

Today, the military of the United States is deployed in more than 150 countries around the world, with approximately 170,000 of its active-duty personnel serving outside the United States and its territories. These warfighting combat veterans comprise of the Army 399,460; Navy 281,529; USMC 146,952; and USAF 261,033. The effects of combat (Smith, Benight, & Cieslak, 2013) on the soldier (e.g., posttraumatic stress disorder, PTSD; Vinokur, Pierce, Lewandowski-Romps, Hobfoll, & Galea, 2011) and its associated consequences (e.g., depression, increased drug and alcohol abuse, suicide)

helped to shape, positively or negatively, a veteran's military identity. There is a resulting strain on the veteran when he or she separates from the military and this resulting identity strain has been demonstrated to result in negative job-related effects. Veterans enter the workplace with an identity that may still be linked to the values and ethics they espoused while in the military. Thus, veterans may experience role conflict if their military and civilian work identities are incompatible (Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, & Rosenthal, 1964). Understanding the work environment is a critical component of Vet-IS because the stressors inherent in any work environment are amplified for individuals who attempt to manage multiple potentially incongruent identities. Veterans who are able to identify and follow the social norms of their new civilian environments are more likely to integrate successfully into the civilian workplace after transitioning from their military careers (McAllister et al. 2015).

Identity strain has been demonstrated to result in increased turnover intentions among a broad cross-section of international employees who return home from international assignments (Kraimer et al. 2012). Identity strain has been shown to be associated with job stress and job dissatisfaction (Ullerberg & Rundmo, 1997). Similarly, correlations have been found between a worker's identity and job satisfaction (Sabanciogullari & Dogan, 2015).

It is possible that part of veterans' experienced identity strain may be alleviated by the levels of social support that they receive because social support can serve as a resource (Halbesleben, Neveu, Paustian-Underdahl, & Westman, 2014) that aids in stress resistance (McAllister et al., 2015) and coping. I attempt to describe why veterans with higher levels of social support, because of the presence of personal resources such as familial support, support from friends, and support from significant others, should

intuitively report higher levels of job satisfaction than veterans who indicated that they lacked these social support resources.

In addition to social support from personal relationships, an important source of support in the professional setting is the support that comes from supervisors. Supervisors act as agents of the organization, who have responsibility for directing and evaluating subordinates' performance, veteran employees would view their supervisor's favorable or unfavorable orientation toward them as indicative of the organization's support (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Levinson, 1965). Additionally, veteran employees understand that supervisors' evaluations of subordinates are often conveyed to upper management and influence upper management's views, further contributing to veterans' association of supervisor support with perceived overall support. For the purpose of this study, I suggest that perceived supervisor support is an important dimension of support that veterans can rely upon in the civilian workplace (Hutchison, 1977a, 1997b; Kottke & Sharafinski, 1988; Malatesta, 1995; Rhoades, Eisenberger, & Armeli, 2001; Yoon, Han, & Seo, 1996; Yoon & Lim, 1999; Yoon & Thye, 2000) (e.g., Allen, 1995; Hutchison, Valentino, & Kirkner, 1998). Because of the hierarchical rank system that is an integral part of the military, veterans who take on civilian work should find a high degree of familiarity with supervisory support.

Because supervisors act as organizational agents in their treatment of subordinates, perceived supervisor support should contribute to perceived overall support (Levinson, 1965). The strength of this relationship would depend on the degree to which veterans identify the supervisor with the organization. Supervisors who appear to be highly valued and well treated by the organization would be highly identified with the organization's basic character and would therefore strongly influence perceived overall

support. Veterans may attribute a supervisor's high perceived status to the organization's misperception of the supervisor's character. But, on average, supervisors who appear to be highly regarded by the organization would be assumed by veteran employees to strongly embody the organization's character (Levinson & Shefner, 1965).

Veteran employees' perception of the status accorded their supervisor by the organization, and therefore the employees' belief that supervisor support also represents organizational support, would increase with employees' perceptions concerning a) the organization's positive valuation of the supervisor's contributions and its concern about the supervisor's well-being, b) the supervisor's influence in important organizational decisions, and c) the autonomy and authority accorded the supervisor in his or her job responsibilities. The supervisor's informal organizational status, as conveyed by these features of the organization's favorable treatment of supervisors. Perception is a process of making sense out of the environment in order to make an appropriate behavioral response. Perception does not necessarily lead to an accurate portrait of the environment, but rather to a unique portrait, influenced by the needs, desires, values, and disposition of the perceiver (Kretch, Crutchfield, & Ballachey, 1962).

In anticipation of the possibility of a high degree of correlation between the measurement items for perceived social support and perceived supervisor support, I present a higher-order construct of Perceived Overall Support. The use of a higher-order construct is recommended in instances where the researcher wishes to represent a construct in more abstract terms (Sarstedt et al. 2019). For the purposes of this dissertation, Perceived Overall Support will be used to measure social support with two underlying dimensions, 1) perceived social support (PSS) from personal connections and 2) perceived supervisor support (PSV).

Perceived Overall Support may help ease veterans' transitions from military roles to working in civilian organizations. Perceived Overall Support is conceptualized as an interpersonal effectiveness construct that reflects individuals' abilities to secure resources and influence others (Munyon, Summers, Thompson, & Ferris, in press). Perceived Overall Support provides many benefits to individuals that help them to reduce stress, including increased perceived control over their situation and increased self-confidence (Zellars et al., 2008), increased confidence in the security of their position (Ferris et al., 2007), and reduced frequency of perceptions of threats in the workplace (Ferris, Kane, Summers, & Munyon, 2011). Prior research has found that Perceived Overall Support can actually reduce perceived and felt stress in the workplace (Meurs et al., 2010). Drawing from prior research on the role of social support and job satisfaction, I hypothesize that Perceived Overall Support will have a positive moderating effect on the relationship between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction. In other words, the negative relationship between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction will be less negative when Perceived Overall Support is high.

Several screening tools are available for assessing PTSD. These screening tools vary in merit when compared on stringent psychometric and utility standards. Of all the screening tools, the Clinician-Administered PTSD Scale (CAPS-1) appears to satisfy these standards most uniformly (Blake, Weathers, Nagy, Kaloupek, Gusman, Charney & Keane, 1995). The CAPS-1 is a structured interview for assessing core and associated symptoms of PTSD. It assesses the frequency and intensity of each symptom using standard prompt questions and explicit, behaviorally anchored rating scales. The CAPS-1 yields both continuous and dichotomous scores for current and lifetime PTSD symptoms. Intended for use by experienced clinicians, it also can be administered by appropriately

trained paraprofessionals. Data from a large-scale psychometric study of the CAPS-1 have provided impressive evidence of its reliability and validity as a PTSD measurement instrument. A number of structured interviews are now available for diagnosing post-traumatic stress disorder (PTSD). These include stand-alone interviews such as the Structured Interview for PTSD (SI-PTSD; Davidson, Kudler, & Smith, 1990; Davidson, Smith, & Kudler, 1989), the PTSD Interview (PTSI-I; Watson, Juba, Manifold, Kucala, & Anderson, 1991), the PTSD Symptom Scale Interview (PSS-I; Foa, Riggs, Dancu, & Rothbaum, 1993), and the Clinician-Administered PTSD Scale--Version 1 (CAPS-1; Blake et al., 1990; Blake et al., 1992), as well as PTSD modules of comprehensive diagnostic interviews such as the Diagnostic Interview Schedule (DIS; Helzer, Robins, & McEvoy, 1987; Robins, Helzer, Croughan, Williams, & Spitzer, 1981a, 1981b), the Structured Clinical Interview for the Diagnostic and Statistical Manual- Third Edition, more commonly referred to as the DSM-III-R (SCID; Spitzer & Williams, 1985; Spitzer, Williams, Gibbon, & First, 1990), and the Anxiety Disorders Interview Schedule n Revised (ADIS-R; DiNardo & Barlow, 1988). The researcher used as part of this study The Hopkins Symptom Checklist in 25 items (HSCL-25), helps to assess anxiety and depression in Primary Care. Anxiety and depression show considerable overlap in primary care. Drawing from prior research on the effects that perceptions about PTSD have on job satisfaction, I hypothesize that PTSD will negatively moderate the relationship between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction. In other words, the negative relationship between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction will be more negative when PTSD is high.

The following sections detail the measurement items and methodology that were employed to test the hypotheses described above. In addition to the measurement items

associated with each construct in our model, we detail a number of control variables that, while held constant in this study, may be instrumental in future research to identify additional interactions between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction.

Veteran Identity Strain

Veteran Identity Strain (Vet-IS) consisted of 9 measurement items on a slider scale ranging from 0 “strongly disagree” to 100 “strongly agree”. Survey items were borrowed from McAllister et al. (2015) who in turn borrowed these items from Kraimer, Shaffer, Harrison, and Ren (2012). Each item related to Vet-IS was labeled with the prefix, “VIS” and then sequentially indexed (for example, VIS1-After transitioning from my military assignment, I have been having trouble defining who I am at my company.*)

Perceived Social Support

Perceived Social Support (PSS) was measured by 12 items that were adopted from the Multidimensional Scale of Perceived Social Support Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, and Farley, (1988) and measured on a seven-point scale ranging from 1 “very strongly disagree” to 7 “very strongly agree” (Zimet, Dahlem, Zimet, & Farley 1988). Each of these items was labeled with the prefix PSS and sequentially indexed (for example, PSS1-My family really tries to help me).

Perceived Supervisor Support

Perceived Supervisor Support (PSV) was measured by four items adopted from POS (Survey of Perceived Organizational Support, or SPOS; Eisenberger et al., 1986, 1990; Shore & Tetrick, 1991; Shore & Wayne, 1993), and assessed on a scale ranging

* Original Vet-IS scale items indicated with * (I took these from McAllister, C. P., Mackey, J. D., Hackney, K. J., & Perrewé, P. L. (2015), but they adapted them from Kraimer, M., Shaffer, M., Harrison, D. A., & Ren, H. (2012). [No place like home? An identity strain perspective on repatriate turnover. *Academy of Management Journal*, 55, 399-420]).

from 1 “strongly disagree” to 5 “strongly agree” (Rhoades, Eisenberger, and Armeli 2001; Shore and Tetrick 1991). Each of these items was labeled with the prefix “PSV” and sequentially indexed (for example, PSV1-My supervisor takes great pride in accomplishments).

Perceived Overall Support

Perceived Overall Support serves as a composite measure of social support derived from perceived social support (PSS) - support from family, friends, and personal relationships and perceived supervisor support (PSV) - support from an immediate supervisor. Perceived social support and perceived supervisor support serve to make Perceived Overall Support a higher-order construct that is measured by a total of 16 survey items.

To measure social support, I incorporate the work of Zimet et al. (1988) into my study by using their three MSPSS subscales for family, friends, and significant others. In addition, perceived supervisor support was added to capture four items that measured support from supervisors. Prior research has demonstrated that the MSPSS has good internal and test-retest reliability as well as moderate construct validity. Higher levels of perceived social support have been associated with lower levels of depression and anxiety symptomatology as measured by the Hopkins Symptom Checklist (Zimet et al. 1988).

Posttraumatic Stress Disorder

Posttraumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) was measured by four items adapted from Blake et al. (1995) and assessed on a scale ranging from 1 “not at all” to 5 “very much”. Each of these items was labeled with the prefix “PTSD” and sequentially indexed (for example, PTSD1-Have you been diagnosed with having PTSD?).

There are a number of structured interviews now available for diagnosing PTSD. To measure PTSD, I used CAPS-1, and the Hopkins Symptom Checklist-25 (HSCL-25) screening instrument, the most used in primary care. Developed at the National Center for PTSD, the CAPS-1 (Blake et al., 1995) was designed to overcome the limitations of other available PTSD interviews. The CAPS-1 is intended for use by clinicians and clinical researchers who have a working knowledge of PTSD. It assesses the 17 symptoms of PTSD outlined in the DSM-III-R, as well as eight associated symptoms. Five additional items involve: (a) the impact of symptoms on social and occupational functioning, (b) improvement in PTSD symptoms since a previous CAPS-1 assessment, (c) overall response validity, and (d) overall PTSD severity (Blake et al., 1990). The frequency and intensity of each symptom is rated on separate 5-point Likert scales. Standard prompt questions suggested follow-up questions, and behaviorally anchored rating options were provided for each item. These interviews varied in merit when compared on stringent psychometric and utility standards. Of all the interviews, the Clinician-Administered PTSD Scale (CAPS-1) appears to satisfy these standards most uniformly. The CAPS-1 is a structured interview for assessing core and associated symptoms of PTSD. It assesses the frequency and intensity of each symptom using standard prompt questions and explicit, behaviorally anchored rating scales (Blake et al. 1995). The CAPS-1 yields both continuous and dichotomous scores for current and lifetime PTSD symptoms. Intended for use by experienced clinicians, it also can be administered by appropriately trained paraprofessionals. Data from a large-scale psychometric study of the CAPS-1 have provided impressive evidence of its reliability and validity as a PTSD interview (Blake et al. 1995).

Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction (JS) was measured by four items adopted from the Job Descriptive Index. The five-factor varimax factor analytic solution was the same as that obtained by Smith, Kendall, and Hulin (1969) for the original Job Descriptive Index (Gregson, 1987), and assessed on a scale of 1 “strongly disagree” to 5 “strongly agree” (Gregson (1987)). Each of these items was labeled with the prefix “JS” and sequentially indexed (for example, JS1-My work is satisfying).

Control Variables

Eleven control variables were selected that may affect job satisfaction, specifically 1) age, 2) gender, 3) race, 4) family status, 5) employment status, 6) veteran status, 7) number of times deployed, 8) military branch of service, 9) military rank, 10) disability status, and 11) resilience. The first four control variables – age, gender, race, and family status – represent traditional demographic controls used in person-organization research, and each has been found to be correlated with organizational and individual identification (e.g., Lee, 1971; Schaubroeck & Jones, 2000; Wan-Huggins et al., 1998). These control variables are particularly important for veterans, because they determine decision-making processes veterans make throughout their military careers, whether serving 30 days or 30 years of military service. These can be considered veterans’ “identification hooks” (Ashford, Saks, & Lee, 1998), affecting job satisfaction, staying intentions, leaving intentions, and turnover intentions. Research has routinely linked exposure to combat environments with stress-related outcomes. Collecting these control variables of employment status, veteran status, number of times deployed, military branch of service, military rank, disability status, and resilience will be important to future research that delves into more sophisticated analysis of the interactions between

Vet-IS, Job Satisfaction, PTSD, and Social Support. The focal points for this dissertation are the relationship between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction as moderated by Perceived Overall Support and PTSD (Figure 2).

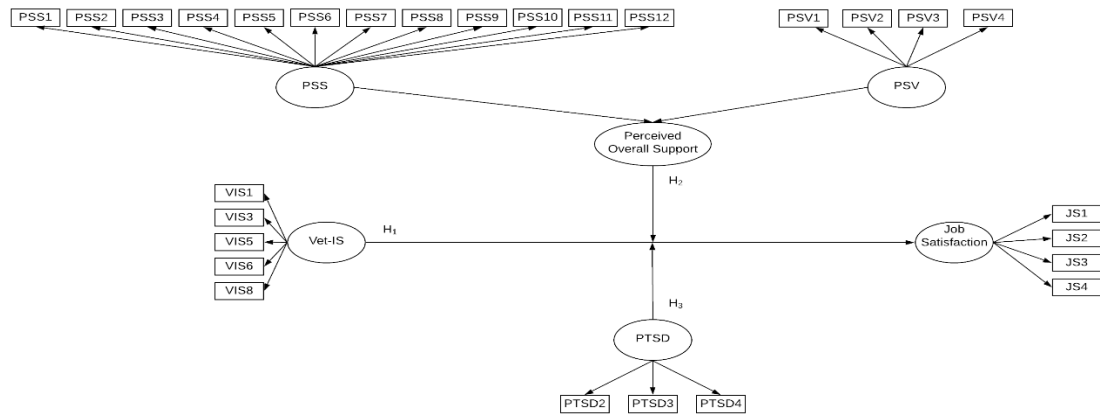


Figure 2. Structural Equation Model

For the purpose of this study, we will use partial least square-structural equation modelling (PLS-SEM), as our primary method of examination. PLS-SEM has been widely adopted in business research fields such as information systems, consumer performance, and marketing (Hair et al., 2016). PLS-SEM is an appropriate method of analysis when attempting to advance theory and prediction (Hair et al., 2016). PLS-SEM is also an effective method for the simultaneous analysis of multiple equations (Lee et al., 2011).

CHAPTER 5: RESULTS

This chapter of the dissertation presents the results from the analysis of the data collected during the study. The chapter starts with an overview of the data cleansing techniques, sample size, descriptive information about the respondents, and a descriptive summary of the survey responses. We include an assessment of reliability (Cronbach's alpha), composite reliability, and average variance extracted (AVE). We present a summary of discriminant validity and a full path analysis of our empirical model. Lastly, we present the empirical model derived from the results of the PLS-SEM analysis.

Survey Responses

A total of 286 surveys were obtained from the electronic distribution of the survey via Qualtrics®. After cleansing the data set of incomplete surveys, and filtering the data set for employed veterans, the resulting sample size available for analysis was 135 (Table 2).

Table 2. Description of Survey Responses

Initial Surveys Emailed	286
Incomplete Surveys	26
Completed Surveys	260
Employed Veteran Surveys Used for Analysis	n=135

Utilizing the rule of thumb for minimal sample size equal to ten times the largest number of measures connected to a single theoretical construct (Hair, Ringle, & Sarstedt, 2011), a minimum sample size of 120 (i.e., 10 x 12) was calculated. A second convention to estimate minimum sample size was also used. The minimum R^2 method of estimating sample size was first popularized by Cohen (1988); and later by Hair et al. (2011; 2014). This method of sample size estimation relies on the use of power tables.

According to the minimum R^2 method, a significance level of .05, a power of .8, a minimum R^2 value of .25, and a maximum of six arrows pointing at any one model construct would call for a minimum sample size of 75 observations. The sample size of 135 surpassed the minimum sample size suggested by this second method of sample size estimation.

Handling of Missing Values

After removing surveys with incomplete responses, we used the sentinel value of -9999 to replace missing values in the dataset. When importing into SmartPLS, -9999 was selected as the identifier for missing values. For analysis in SmartPLS, all missing values were addressed by the mean replacement option which filled each cell flagged by -9999 with the mean of the values for the column in which the missing value was located. Mean replacement is frequently used method for the treatment of missing values (Chan & Dunn, 1972).

While PLS has been found to be robust in the face of missing values (Cassel et al., 1999, 2000), accuracy will be increased in PLS or any procedure if values are imputed rather than the default taken (listwise deletion of cases with missing values) (Hair et al., 2014). As a rule of thumb, imputation of a variable is often called for when more than 5% of its values are missing. If missing values are too numerous, however, the variable should simply be dropped from analysis (Hair et al., 2014). Missing data imputation methods provide an alternative to deletion methods. Through imputation missing data elements are replaced with well informed “guesses”, obtained through various algorithms, leading to fewer reductions in sample size (Newman, 2014).

Reverse Coded Items

Reverse coding is a commonly used procedure in the development of multi-item measurement scales for the purpose of incorporating reversed-polarity items that control for and/or identify acquiescence response bias (Herche & Engelland, 1996). Reverse coding means that the numerical scale for items run in the opposite direction. For example, strongly disagree = 5, disagree = 4, neutral = 3, agree = 2 and strongly agree = 1 (Ringle, Wende and Becker, 2015). Reverse coding schemes were applied to the survey responses for PSS, PSV and JS. The scales for PSS, PSV, and JS were all 7-point scales that were administered in the following way: 1 = very strongly agree, 2 = strongly agree, 3 = mildly agree, 4 = neutral, 5 = mildly disagree, 6 = strongly disagree, and 7 = very strongly disagree. Because of the sentiment captured by these survey items, the scales for each of these items were reversed so that the proper direction of the sentiment was captured with a revised scale that was administered as follows: 7 = very strongly agree, 6 = strongly agree, 5 = mildly agree, 4 = neutral, 3 = mildly disagree, 2 = strongly disagree, and 1 = very strongly disagree.

Description of Survey Respondents

The majority of survey respondents were male (87.41%), then female (12.59%) (Table 3). The gender distribution for this study is heavily biased toward men and this sampling bias will be discussed in greater detail later in the paper as a limitation to the study.

Table 3. Veteran Gender Distribution

Gender	Frequency	%
Female	17	12.59%
Male	118	87.41%
Totals	135	100.00%

This sampling bias is a result of the overall gender distribution of the U. S. military. The number of male veterans was estimated to be approximately 16,311,444 in 2018 with a much smaller estimated number of female veterans equal to nearly 1,657,798 (<https://www.statista.com/statistics/250271/us-veterans-by-gender/>). These numbers translate into a gender distribution of approximately 91% male and 9% female. This drastically uneven distribution of gender emphasizes the challenge in trying to obtain a more even gender distribution among veterans.

Age was captured as a continuous variable. Respondents entered their age in years as opposed to checking a box for an age group. Veteran's ages ranged from a minimum of 23 years to a maximum of 71 years (Table 4). The range of ages spans 48 years. The median age of veterans surveyed for this study was 46 and the mean age was approximately 44 years ($\bar{x} = 43.84$, $\sigma = 11.23$).

Table 4. Veteran Ages

	Age (years)
Maximum	71
Q3	53
Median	46
Mean	43.84
Q1	34.75
Minimum	23
Standard Deviation	11.23

The first quartile (Q1) which is equivalent to the 25th percentile of the age range is approximately 35 years of age. Near the other end of the age range, the third quartile (Q3) which represents the 75th percentile of the age range is 53.

Tenure, the number of years of military service, was also captured as a continuous variable. The mean tenure of survey respondents was 6.85 years (Table 5). Tenure ranged from .2 years (2.4 months) to 33 years.

Table 5. Veteran Tenure

	Tenure (years)
Maximum	33
Q3	10
Mean	6.35
Median	3
Q1	1
Minimum	0.2
Standard Deviation	7.54

The number of times that a veteran was deployed was self-reported as a continuous variable. The maximum number of deployments was 33 and the minimum number of deployments was 0.00 (Table 6). On average, veterans experienced approximately 3 deployments. The number of deployments represents the number of opportunities that veterans may be exposed to high-risk situations that can trigger PTSD.

Table 6. Veteran Deployments

	Deployments
Maximum	35
Q3	4
Mean	3.05
Median	2
Q1	1
Minimum	0
Standard Deviation	3.77

While the mean number of deployments may seem small at only 3 deployments reported. I noted that the mean number of deployments varies drastically by race. Black or African American veterans averaged 4.21 deployments and White veterans averaged only 2.64 deployments (Table 7).

Table 7. Mean Number of Deployments by Race

Race	Mean Deployments
Asian	1
Black	4.21
Other	1.71
White	2.64

More research is needed to substantiate this drastic difference in the mean number of deployments but if this difference in deployments holds true in a broader context, it may suggest that Black or African American veterans will have had nearly twice as many opportunities to be exposed to events or circumstances that might cause or trigger PTSD, when compared to their White counterparts. At the very least, it is notable that Black veterans average more deployments while comprising a smaller percentage of the veterans in the study sample. Race was self-reported as White, Black

(African/American), American Indian or Alaskan Native, Asian, Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander or Other (Table 8). The majority of veterans surveyed in this study identified as White (60.74%). The second largest group of veterans identified as Black (31.11%).

Table 8. Distribution of Race

Race	Frequency	%
Asian	2	1.48%
Black	42	31.11%
Other	9	6.67%
White	82	60.74%
Totals	135	100.00%

The distribution of race in this study sample is similar to that of the broader U. S. veteran population. In the larger population, most veterans identify as White (57%) and the second largest group identify as Black or African American (16%). Other races such as American Indian or Alaskan Native, Asian, or Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander are not represented in this study. We discuss this as a limitation later in the paper.

Family status was captured as a categorical variable with each status represented as either “Married”, “Widowed”, “Divorced”, “Separated”, or “Single” (Table 9). The majority of veterans in the survey were married (65.19%). The next largest group of veterans was the group who were single (16.30%), followed by the group who were divorced (12.59%).

Table 9. Family Status

Family Status	Frequency	%
Divorced	17	12.59%
Married	88	65.19%
Separated	4	2.96%
Single	22	16.30%
Widowed	4	2.96%
Totals	135	100.00%

Because the majority of veterans in this sample report being married, this sample of veterans are likely to identify with high levels of perceived social support. In particular, we would expect these respondents to score highly on the PSS questions on the survey.

The majority of survey responses, 69.63%, came from veterans who served in the U. S. Army (Table 10). There was an equal number of veterans who were enlisted in both the U. S. Navy (8.89%) and the U. S. Marines (8.89%). The third largest branch of the military that was represented in this survey sample was from the U. S. Air Force (5.83%).

Table 10. Branches of Service Represented.

Branch	Frequency	%
Air Force	8	5.93%
Army	94	69.63%
Coast Guard	2	1.48%
Marines	12	8.89%
National Guard	4	2.96%
Navy	12	8.89%
Reserves	3	2.22%
Totals	135	100.00%

As part of the collection of demographic data, the survey included an item by which veterans could record the highest rank that they had attained. Traditionally, higher

ranks are associated with longer tenure in the armed services. The highest rank recorded among veterans surveyed in this study was the rank of Lieutenant General (Table 11).

Table 11. Highest Rank Achieved

Rank	Frequency	Percentage
Officer	53	39.26%
Enlisted	82	60.74%
	135	100.00%

Noncommissioned officer NCOs are enlisted soldiers with specific skills and duties such as training, recruiting, technical or military policing. The Army refers to NCOs as the "backbone" of the Army. Commissioned officers are management. Officers disseminate orders and instructions to NCOs and subordinate their orders, missions, assignments and tasks to conducted. Enlisted rank ranges from Private PVT (E1) to Command Sergeant Major CSM (E9). Warrant Officer (WO) to Chief Warrant Officer (CW5), are generally considered technicians or technical advisors. Commissioned officers usually enter active duty directly from a military academy and are often expected to have a university degree. Officer rank ranges from Second Lieutenant 1LT (O1) to General Officer GO (O10). Ranks from Second Lieutenant onward are known as commissioned officer ranks. In general terms, the commissioned ranks are viewed as the "management" layer of most armed services. The distribution of rank among survey respondents is skewed toward the enlisted ranks which 82, comprise over 60.74% of the survey respondent group. The officer ranks comprise of 53 approximately 39.26% of the survey respondent group and the remainder of survey respondents did not report their rank.

Reliability Analysis

In order to assess the reliability of the constructs in the theoretical model, we evaluated the Cronbach's Alpha, Composite Reliability, and Average Variance Extracted (AVE) in accordance with established standards for PSL-SEM (Hair et al., 2016). These reliability measures are reported in conjunction with the mean and standard deviation for each measurement item in our model (Table 12).

Table 12. Mean Item Scores and Reliability Statistics

Model Construct	Number of Survey Items	Mean (SD)	Cronbach's Alpha	Composite Reliability	Average Variance Extracted (AVE)
Job Satisfaction	4 items	4.98(1.27)	0.83	0.88	0.66
PTSD	3 items	2.58(.995)	0.71	0.83	0.62
Perceived Social Support	12 items	5.42(1.19)	0.93	0.94	0.56
Perceived Supervisor Support	4 items	5.14(1.39)	0.94	0.96	0.85
Veteran Identity Strain	5 items	39.94(25.68)	0.78	0.85	0.53

Mean responses scores for Job Satisfaction indicate that veterans included in this sample were not particularly satisfied with their current jobs. On average, veterans in this sample only “mildly agree” that they are satisfied with their current job ($\bar{x} = 4.98$, $\sigma = 1.27$). With a narrow standard deviation of 1.27, overall sentiment does not drastically vary across responses.

The mean response for items associated with PTSD is 2.58 most closely reflecting an overall sentiment of “mildly disagree”. This result suggests that veterans indicated that they are less than neutral in their responses to the PTSD-related items on the survey. This result may partially be explained by only 36% of survey respondents self-identifying

as having ever been diagnosed with PTSD (Table 13).

Table 13. PTSD Filtering Question

PTSD Diagnosis	Frequency	%
Yes	49	36.30%
No	81	60.00%
No Response	5	3.70%
Totals	135	100.00%

The survey contained a filtering item (PTSD1) that was included so that respondents could indicate whether or not they had been medically diagnosed with PTSD. The original intent behind including this item was to be able to filter the dataset so that an analysis of the data could be conducted that relied only on the responses of veterans with PTSD. Removing the responses of survey participants who answer “No” to the filtering item would result in a dramatically smaller sample size. Iterations of the analysis were completed using this smaller sample size ($n = 49$) and the overall relationships derived from analyzing the full sample of 135 respondents were consistent. For the purposes of maintaining a quality sample, the full sample of 135 respondents is reported for this study. I later report a post hoc analysis of some additional findings with a focus on employed veterans who confirmed a PTSD diagnosis.

Survey respondents reported better than neutral perceptions about the level of Perceived Social Support that they receive from family and personal relationships. The mean of the 12 items that measured Perceived Social Support was 5.42 on a scale of 1 to 7. Perceptions of social support lean more toward “mildly agree”, indicating that most veterans surveyed perceive some level of social support. Perceptions about Supervisor Support are similar to those of Perceived Social Support in that the mean response for these items was also slightly better than neutral. The mean response score for this

construct was 5.14 which aligns closely with “mildly agree”. Responses for Vet-IS indicate that survey respondents are somewhat neutral in their perceptions about Vet-IS. For the five items used to measure Vet-IS, the mean was 39.94 on a scale of 0 to 100. The mean survey response for Vet-IS fell between “disagree” and “neither agree nor disagree”.

Cronbach’s alpha is a measure of internal consistency, that is, how closely related a set of items are as a group (Cronbach & Meehl, 1955). It is considered to be a measure of scale reliability. A relatively “high” value for alpha does not imply that the measure is unidimensional (Nunnally, 1978). It has been proposed that Cronbach’s Alpha can be viewed as the expected correlation of two tests that measure the same construct (Nunnally, 1978). The results of our present study demonstrate values for Cronbach’s alpha that all exceed the commonly accepted threshold of .70 (Nunnally, 1978) as shown in Table 12.

Composite reliability (sometimes called construct reliability) is a measure of internal consistency in scale items, much like Cronbach's alpha (Netemeyer, 2003). It can be thought of as being equal to the total amount of true score variance relative to total scale score variance (Brunner & Süß, 2005). Alternatively, it’s an “indicator of the shared variance among the observed variables used as an indicator of a latent construct” (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The results of this study indicate that all of the values for Composite Reliability exceed .60 (Revelle, 1979). This indicates an additional level of reliability in the survey results.

The second step in evaluating reflective indicators is the assessment of validity. Validity is examined by noting a construct’s convergent validity and discriminant validity (Arthur, Woehr, & Maldegen, 2000). Support is provided for convergent validity when

each item has outer loadings above 0.70 and when each construct's average variance extracted (AVE) is 0.50 or higher Henseler, Ringle, & Sarstedt, (2015). The AVE is the grand mean value of the squared loadings of a set of indicators (Hair et al., 2014) and is equivalent to the communality of a construct. An AVE of 0.50 shows that the construct explains more than half of the variance of its indicators. For this study, all of the AVEs exceed the threshold of .50 (Fornell & Larcker, 1981).

Multicollinearity Assessment

Variance inflation factors (VIFs) are used to measure the correlation between predictor variables in a given model (Lowry & Gaskin, 2014). The VIF measures how much the behavior (variance) of an independent variable is influenced, or inflated, by its interaction/correlation with the other independent variables (Hair et al., 2016). Variance inflation factors allow a quick measure of how much a variable is contributing to the standard error in the regression (Hair et al., 2016). The variance inflation factor (VIF) is the quotient of the variance in a model with multiple terms by the variance of a model with one term alone (James, Witten, Hastie, & Tibshirani 2017). Variance inflation factor (VIF) quantifies the severity of multicollinearity in an ordinary least squares' regression analysis.

Table 14. Variance Inflation Factors

	Job Satisfaction	Moderating Effect: Perceived Overall Support	Moderating Effect: PTSD	Perceived Overall Support	PTSD	Perceived Social Support	Perceived Supervisor Support	VET-IS
Job Satisfaction								
Moderating Effect: Perceived Overall Support	1.62							
Moderating Effect: PTSD	1.38							
Perceived Overall Support	1.59							
PTSD	1.47							
Perceived Social Support					1.69			
Perceived Supervisor Support					1.69			
VET-IS	1.54							

All Variance Inflation Factors (VIFs) fell below 3.3 (Knock & Lynn 2012), indicating that multicollinearity was not a concern. To further assess the

multicollinearity assessment, bi-variate correlations between latent variables were reviewed. Bi-variate correlations above .74 point to a potential problem with multicollinearity (Hair et al. 2016). None of the correlations between the latent variables in my model exceeded .74 (Table 15).

Table 15. Latent Variable Correlations

	JS	Moderating Effect: PTSD	Moderating Effect: Perceived Overall Support	Perceived Overall Support	PSS	PSV	PTSD	Vet-IS
JS	1.00	0.06	0.10	0.42	0.32	0.48	-0.13	-0.42
Moderating Effect: PTSD	0.06	1.00	-0.36	0.00	0.01	-0.03	0.21	0.19
Moderating Effect: Perceived Overall Support	0.10	-0.36	1.00	0.26	0.25	0.18	0.00	-0.12
POS	0.42	0.00	0.26	1.00	0.95	0.69	-0.29	-0.38
PSS	0.32	0.01	0.25	0.95	1.00	0.44	-0.30	-0.33
PSV	0.48	-0.03	0.18	0.69	0.44	1.00	-0.14	-0.32
PTSD	-0.13	0.21	0.00	-0.29	-0.30	-0.14	1.00	0.40
Vet-IS	-0.42	0.19	-0.12	-0.38	-0.33	-0.32	0.40	1.00

Discriminant Validity

Discriminant validity is a metric used to ensure that items are not measuring constructs that they are not intended to measure (Hair et al., 2016). Campbell and Fiske (1959) introduced the concept of discriminant validity within their discussion on evaluating test validity. They stressed the importance of using both discriminant and convergent validation techniques when assessing new tests. A successful evaluation of discriminant validity shows that a test of a concept is not highly correlated with other tests designed to measure theoretically different concepts (Fornell & Larcker, (1981).

Discriminant validity is assessed by comparing the square root of the AVE with the latent variable correlations (Fornell & Larcker, 1981). The rationale is that a construct should share more variance with its related indicators than with any other construct (Hair et al., 2014). I evaluated the discriminant validity of my model by assessing the Heterotrait-Monotrait (HTMT) ratios for each construct (Campbell & Fiske, 1959) (Table 16).

Table 16. Heterotrait-Monotrait Ratios

	JS	Perceived Overall Support	PSS	PSV	PTSD	Vet-IS
JS						
Perceived Overall Support	0.33					
PSS	0.27	1.04				
PSV	0.41	0.84	0.65			
PTSD	0.31	0.37	0.39	0.22		
Vet-IS	0.45	0.43	0.39	0.4	0.59	

As suggested by Campbell and Fiske (1959), the HTMT approach is an estimate of the correlation between the constructs. HTMT ratio analysis is a method for assessing

discriminant validity in PLS-SEM modeling and considered one of the key building blocks of model evaluation (Henseler, Ringle & Sarstedt, 2014). All of the HTMT ratios, except for PSS, are below .90 which is the recommended threshold for discriminant validity according to Hair et al. (2016). An HTMT ratio that falls below .90 establishes that model constructs are not highly correlated with each other. The HTMT ratio of 1.04 for Perceived Overall Support is explained by the fact that Perceived Overall Support is a higher-order construct that is comprised of both PSS and PSV. Because PSS consists of 12 items, the HTMT ratio demonstrates that PSS and Perceived Overall Support are highly correlated. This correlation effect is less of an issue with PSV because PSV is measured with only 4 items.

Path Analysis

The term "path coefficient" derives from Wright (1921), where a particular diagram-based approach was used to consider the relations between variables in a multivariate system.

Path coefficients are standardized versions of linear regression weights which can be used in examining the possible causal linkage between statistical variables in the structural equation modelling approach. The standardization involves multiplying the ordinary regression coefficient by the standard deviations of the corresponding explanatory variable: these can then be compared to assess the relative effects of the variables within the fitted regression model. (Kaufman, 1996). The idea of standardization can be extended to apply to partial regression coefficients.

I found a significant main effect between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction ($\beta = -0.37$, $t = 4.73$, $p < 0.00$). Vet-IS is negatively correlated with Job Satisfaction which means that

when Vet-IS is high, job satisfaction is low. The full path analysis for my model is provided in Table 17.

Table 17. Path Analysis

Dependent Variable	R ²	Independent Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	T Statistic	P Values	Hypothesis	Supported? (Yes/No)
Job Satisfaction	0.28	Moderating Effect: Perceived Overall Support -> Job Satisfaction	0.05	0.09	0.24	0.81	H ₂	No
		Moderating Effect: PTSD -> Job Satisfaction	0.10	0.07	1.42	0.16	H ₃	No
		Perceived Overall Support -> Job Satisfaction	0.31	0.10	2.94	0.00		
		PTSD -> Job Satisfaction	0.80	0.04	22.54	0.00		
		PSS-> Perceived Overall Support	0.34	0.03	10.47	0.00		
		PSV-> Perceived Overall Support	0.04	0.08	0.91	0.36		
		Vet-IS -> Job Satisfaction	-0.37	0.08	4.73	0.00	H ₁	Yes

Hypotheses 3 was not supported; PTSD did not have a moderating effect on the association between veteran identity strain and job satisfaction ($\beta = 0.10$, $t = 1.42$, $p = 0.16$). Hypothesis 2, the moderating effect of Perceived Overall Support on the association between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction, was not supported ($\beta = 0.05$, $t = .24$, $p = 0.81$). Our model explains 28% ($R^2 = 0.28$) of the variance in Job Satisfaction (Figure 3). The R^2_{Adjusted} value is 0.25, indicating that 25% of the variance in Job Satisfaction is explained by the statistically significant relationships in the model.

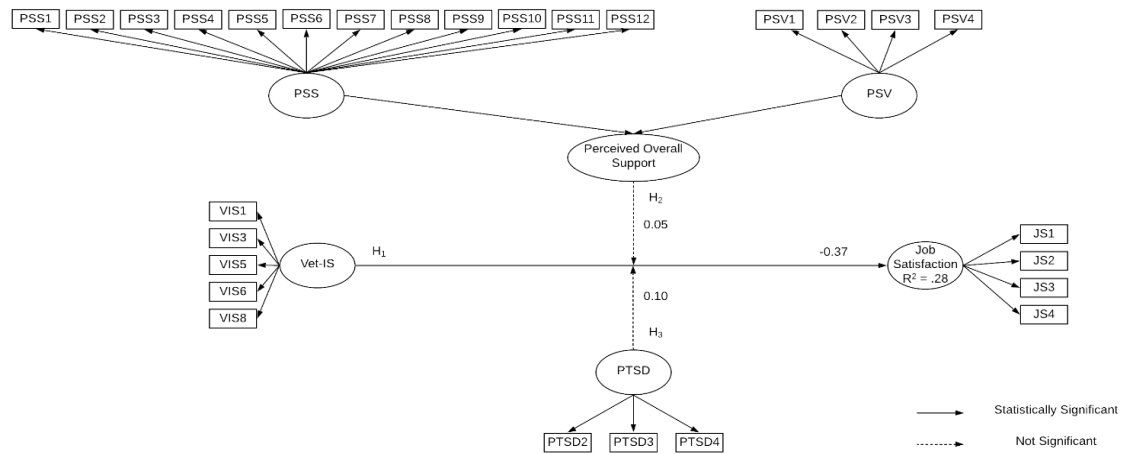


Figure 3: Empirical Model

In addition to evaluating the R^2 values of the endogenous variables in the structural equation model, a review of the f^2 effect size for each endogenous variable in the model was conducted. The f^2 effect size represents the change in R^2 that occurs when a specific endogenous variable is removed the model. This measurement gives an indication of the impact that the specific endogenous variable has on the model, the size of the effect or rather effect size.

According to prior research, thresholds for effect size are as follows: 0.02 indicates a small effect size, 0.15 indicates a medium effect size, and 0.35 indicates a large effect size (Cohen, 1988 and Henseler et al. 2009).

The moderating effect of Perceived Overall Support on the relationship between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction had an effect size of 0.00. This value indicates no effect size. Visually, the impact of the moderating relationship on Vet-IS and JS can be seen in (Figure 4). At three different levels of POS (at -1σ = low, at \bar{x} = medium, at $+1\sigma$ = high), the relationship between Vet-IS and JS does not appear to change. This is also visually

supported by the fact that the slopes of the three lines do not cross, indicating no interaction.

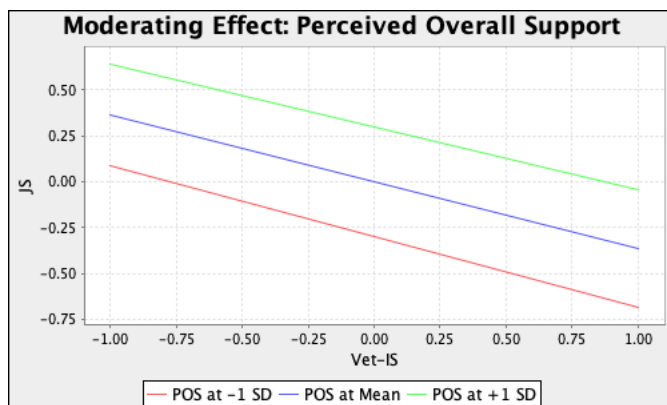


Figure 4. Moderating Effect of Perceived Overall Support on Vet-IS → JS

The moderating effect of PTSD on the relationship between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction had an effect size of 0.02 (Figure 5). Although determined to be nonsignificant, the moderating effect of PTSD on the relationship between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction qualifies as a small effect size. An interaction effect can be seen where the three levels of PTSD intersect near -0.75 on the x-axis and 0.30 on the y-axis (Figure 5). Again, although nonsignificant, the analysis suggests that Vet-IS → PTSD may be negatively impacted by PTSD.

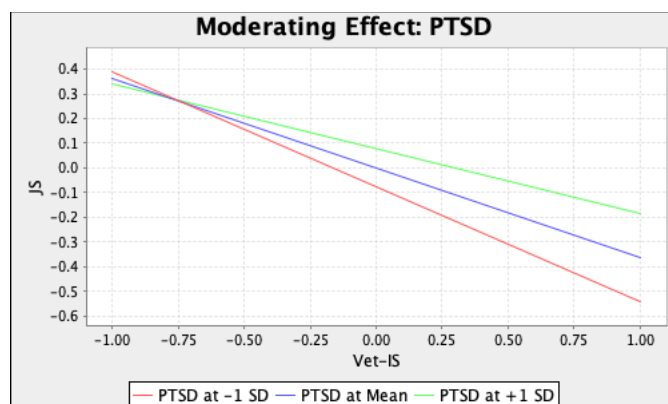


Figure 5. Moderating Effect of PTSD on Vet-IS → JS

The f^2 effect size for Perceived Overall Support to Job Satisfaction is 0.09, suggesting a small-to-medium effect size. Surprisingly, PTSD has no effect on Job Satisfaction (f^2 effect size = 0.01). Vet-IS has the largest effect size among on the variables in the model and its corresponding f^2 effect size of 0.14 can be considered to be a medium effect size.

Predictive relevance of a model can be determined by calculating the Q^2 statistic. SmartPLS® includes this calculation as part of a blindfolding algorithm in which each dependent variable in a model is removed over multiple runs. This process produces an estimated model that is then used to predict values for dependent variables based on any independent variables in the model. Q^2 statistics that fall below zero are considered to have very low predictive relevance. A small degree of predictive relevance occurs when $0 \leq Q^2 \leq 0.25$. The predictive relevance value of Job Satisfaction falls within this range, $Q^2_{\text{Job Satisfaction}} = 0.17$. The predictive relevance of perceived overall support is high at $Q^2_{\text{Perceived Overall Support}} = 0.47$ because it is a higher order construct that reflects the value of lower order constructs that appear to measure it well.

Another robustness check for the predictive capability of the structural model was conducted by computing the Q^2 predicted values for each latent variable, Perceived Overall Support and Job Security. This computation was carried out by using the PLS Predict function in SmartPLS®. The algorithm creates randomized samples it attempts to predict using the model provided. According to Hair et al. (2019) and Shmueli et al. (2019), negative values for Q^2 predicted indicate low predictive power for these random samples (Hair, et al. 2019 & Shmueli et al., 2019). The $Q^2_{\text{Predicted}}$ result for Job Satisfaction was .19 and the $Q^2_{\text{Predicted}}$ result for Perceived Overall Support was 1.00. The high result for Perceived Overall Support, similar to other high values for Perceived

Overall Support reported in earlier parts of this paper, is caused by the fact that it is a higher order construct measured by multiple items that are correlated.

As a final assessment of the PLS-SEM results, the q^2 effect size was calculated to give an indication of the relative impact of the predictive relevance measures. The calculations of q^2 effect size require that an endogenous construct is removed from the model and the blindfolding algorithm is reapplied to the model to obtain a Q^2 statistic with that value excluded from the model. This value is then denoted as Q^2_{excluded} . The previous Q^2 statistic that was calculated with the construct in the model is then denoted as Q^2_{included} . What follows is a manual calculation, wherein:

$$q^2 = \frac{Q^2_{\text{included}} - Q^2_{\text{excluded}}}{1 - Q^2_{\text{included}}}$$

Applying this procedure to the Perceived Overall Support, PTSD, and Vet-IS constructs, results in the following:

$$q^2_{\text{Perceived Overall Support} \rightarrow JS} = \frac{.17 - .12}{1 - .17} = 0.062$$

$$q^2_{\text{PTSD} \rightarrow JS} = \frac{.17 - .16}{1 - .17} = 0.012$$

$$q^2_{\text{Vet-IS} \rightarrow JS} = \frac{.17 - .11}{1 - .17} = 0.07$$

Similar to the thresholds for f^2 effect size, values for q^2 are evaluated with the following thresholds, small effect size: 0.02, medium effect size: 0.15, and large effect size: 0.35. All of the calculated values for q^2 qualify as small effect sizes. The changes in R^2 were also noted during each iteration of the calculations for q^2 . When Perceived Overall Support was removed from the model, the resulting R^2 was 0.238. When PTSD was removed from the model, the resulting R^2 was 0.2611. When Vet-IS, was removed from the model, the resulting R^2 was 0.1781.

The purpose of this research study was to examine the effects of Vet-IS, PTSD, and Perceived Overall Support on the job satisfaction of veterans who have transitioned into the civilian work environment. More specifically, we studied how the relationship between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction was moderated by Perceived Overall Support. Perceived Overall Support was deemed to be nonsignificant as a moderator ($\beta = 0.05$, $t = 0.24$, $p = 0.81$). Perceived Overall Support was measured by perceived social support from family and personal connections (PSS, $\beta = 0.8$, $t = 22.54$, $p < 0.000$) and support from supervisors (PSV, $\beta = .034$, $t = 10.47$, $p < 0.000$).

PTSD did not significantly moderate the relationship between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction ($\beta = 0.10$, $t = 1.42$, $p = 0.16$), according to the path analysis of the structural model. Interestingly, however, there appears to be a minute interaction that occurs when Vet-IS increases and Job Satisfaction decreases.

As previously discussed, Vet-IS is shown to lower Job Satisfaction. This finding extends what prior research has identified in the broader research context of identity strain. I demonstrate how identity strain can have deleterious effects in a veteran context which is important because whereas broader identity strain literature discusses identity conflict in areas where changes in identity may not be readily apparent, the veteran context provides two discrete identities that can be starkly different; the veteran identity and the civilian identity.

Post Hoc Analyses

Perceived Overall Support and JS

Although not an original hypothesis developed in this research study, the analysis of the data presented an interesting finding. I had anticipated that Perceived Overall Support would act as a moderator on the relationship between Vet-IS and Job

Satisfaction. This moderating effect was not supported, but a direct effect between Perceived Overall Support and Job Satisfaction was identified during the path analysis of the structural model ($\beta = 0.31$, $t = 2.94$, $p < 0.000$). This finding emphasizes the importance of social support among veterans as it relates directly to their job satisfaction.

PTSD and Job Satisfaction

In the absence of finding a significant moderating effect of PTSD on Vet-IS → JS, I conducted an independent samples t Test to further investigate whether there are differences in Job Satisfaction between people who identified as having a PTSD diagnosis and people who identified as not having a PTSD diagnosis. The findings from the t Test analysis indicate that there are significant differences in the mean responses scores for items JS1R, JS2R, and JS3R. There was no significant difference in the mean scores for JS4R (Table 18).

Table 18. Independent Samples t Test Results

	PTSD Mean(Std. Dev.)	Non-PTSD Mean(Std. Dev.)	t	p
JS1R	5.59(1.189)	5.11(1.449)	1.957	0.053
JS2R	5.61(1.239)	5.01(1.504)	2.35	0.02
JS3R	5.16(1.375)	4.58(1.792)	2.097	0.038
JS4R	4.73(1.630)	4.499(1.776)	0.773	0.441

Ironically, it is the group of respondents who reported as having been diagnosed with PTSD who report having the higher levels of job satisfaction across the three items, JS1-“My work is satisfying”, JS2 – “My work gives me a sense of accomplishment”, and JS3 – “There are good opportunities for advancement at my company”.

CHAPTER 6: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

Chapter Overview

This chapter consists of five sections. The first section provides an overview of the chapter. The second section, research findings, highlights the research contribution of this work and how it fills gaps in the existing body of literature that are concerned with Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction. The third section discusses practical implications of our research findings. The fourth section discusses the limitations of this study and offers considerations for future research. The fifth section summarizes the research study with a conclusion and offers concluding remarks to complete the study.

Research Findings

As a result of having conducted this study, I found that there is a positive and statistically significant relationship between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction. This finding, while not necessarily novel, is important within the context in which it was observed. Our study extends extant identity and job satisfaction research into the domain of veterans, highlighting some of the challenges that veterans face as they transition from military careers into civilian careers. Higher levels of Vet-IS are associated with lower job satisfaction. This relationship between Vet-IS and job satisfaction is moderated by self-observed perceptions of PTSD. Veterans with higher levels of PTSD realize a strengthening of the inverse relationship between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction. In effect, higher levels of PTSD worsen the association between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction.

While not an original hypothesis in our study design, the finding of the significance of the direct effect between Perceived Overall Support and Job Satisfaction extends what is known from extant literature about the positive effect that constructs like support from family, friends, significant others, and supervisors can have on job

satisfaction. Observing this effect in the veteran context helps to extend the generalizability of this direct effect to a different study population.

Contributions and Practical Implications

From a theoretical perspective, this research study extends what is known about the effects of identity strain on job satisfaction. There is an urgent need for this research study to further examine the residual effects on our military combat veterans and how the debilitating factors of veteran identity strain affect job satisfaction of veterans entering into the civilian work environments. Among these other factors is the ability for veterans to find congruence between their military identities and the identities that they must assume in civilian life (Smith & True, 2014). This strain that veterans experience between their two identities can have far-reaching repercussions that are manifested in several aspects of daily life. Veteran identity strain (Vet-IS) can impact everything from interpersonal relationships to work performance. Research has already shown that former military personnel often exhibit less job satisfaction than their civilian counterparts (Alpass et al. 2010). The purpose of this study was to help fill a gap in the veteran reintegration literature by exploring the relationship between Vet-IS and job satisfaction. Currently, based on my findings, there are only four scholarly references that were identified by online search results. I demonstrate a significant inverse relationship between identity strain, in the veteran context, and job satisfaction. This research study also signals the importance of PTSD management by demonstrating how PTSD can potentially moderate the relationship between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction. Similarly, I show a significant relationship between Perceived Overall Support and Job Satisfaction which clarifies the importance of social support for veterans, not as an indirect moderating effect, but a significant direct effect on Job Satisfaction. My research study

examined a gap in existing literature by exploring the relationship between Vet-IS and job satisfaction by incorporating the perceptions of veterans from all branches of military service of the Army, Air Force, Navy, Marine, Coast Guard, National Guard, and Reserves.

I believe that the need to better understand veteran identity strain will have an important impact on future research dedicated to studying the factors affecting veterans as they reintegrate into the civilian workplace. My findings suggest that more social support and better PTSD management, to the extent that it can be managed, will improve the level of job satisfaction that veterans who are experiencing identity strain can realize. These findings lead to a number of practical, management implications: 1) provision of therapy or counseling services to address Vet-IS and thereby improve Job Satisfaction, 2) support for activities that foster social support from personal connections, 3) support for activities that foster support from supervisors, and 4) provision of services that aid in the management of PTSD. Results from this study suggest that investment in these four management tactics will serve to improve job satisfaction among veterans who exhibit Vet-IS and suffer from PTSD.

Limitations and Future Research

Limitations

This study is not without limitations. This study consisted of military veterans from across all seven branches of the military services including the Army, Air Force, Navy, Marines, Coast Guard, National Guard, and Reserves. This was a convenience sample of 286 participants with findings that may not generalize to the entire veteran workforce population. Similarly, the findings from this study may not necessarily generalize to the general civilian population.

From an empirical standpoint, one of the primary limitations of this study was the reliance on single source self-report data, which may increase the likelihood of common method bias (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff 2003; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, & Podsakoff 2012). Only three indicators were used to measure PTSD in veterans. There are several screening tools available for medically trained professionals to use, such as the Hopkins Symptom Checklist-25 (HSCL-25) screening instrument used in Primary Care; and The Clinician-Administered PTSD Scale (CAPS). The results may be impacted due to perceptions of the veteran respondents.

In summary, the study is primarily limited by its reliance on self-report, snapshot data and a distribution process that, while convenient, sacrificed some tracking capabilities for the sake of both convenience and privacy. In situations where the author was known by or acquainted a survey respondent, there is a possibility that response bias may have occurred; respondents may respond more favorably to certain questions when they have a connection with the surveyor.

Recommendations for Future Research

The present research study suggests several recommendations for future research of veterans and how the effects of Vet-IS, Perceived Overall Support, and PTSD, affect job satisfaction among veterans in the civilian workplace. The study could be strengthened through replication using a larger veteran population sample. A larger sample of veterans from all military service branches could provide a more holistic viewpoint while enhancing the breadth and depth of knowledge about the strains, stressors, and challenges that reintegrating veterans face. In addition to a larger sample size, replicating this study over different time period might demonstrate some longitudinal effects that are not readily apparent from using a snapshot survey design.

Future research into the relationship between Vet-IS and Job satisfaction should examine the role that control variables such as age, race, gender, time in service, number of deployments, military branch of service, and disability status, might play in affecting the relationships that we identified between Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction. Including control variables in a study of this kind will likely uncover nuances in the behavior of Vet-IS and Job Satisfaction that are not readily apparent from this study. This future research design might illuminate whether the relationships identified in this study hold true across different demographic strata or whether these relationships are affected by attributes such as age, race, gender, rank, and others.

The results of the present study suggest that veterans with higher levels of social support from family, family, significant other, and supervisors experience less Vet-IS and greater levels of job satisfaction. The level of veteran identity strain that is experienced by veterans could be further attenuated for veterans who have higher levels of social support from family, friends, significant others, and supervisors. Social support acts a

resource and a buffer for veterans during their transition from military service and reintegration into civilian work environments.

The overall objective for the researcher in conducting this study was to bring attention to some of the recurring issues affecting veterans today and to provide empirical support to phenomenon that have been primarily researched through qualitative means. As a testament to the importance of support from family, friends, significant others, and supervisors, we highlight how more positive reintegration outcomes like job satisfaction can be with high levels of different types of support.

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Appendices

Appendix 1. Summary of Literature

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
1.	McAllister, C. P., Mackey, J. D., Hackney, K. J., & Perrewé, P. L. (2015).	From combat to khakis: An exploratory examination of job stress with veterans. <i>Military Psychology</i> , 27(2), 93-107.	Online social media platform and e-mail requests	LinkedIn Survey	Transactional Model of Stress and the Conservation of Resources Theory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Rank • Political Skills • Vet-IS • Work Intensity • Vigor 	The results corroborated findings from prior research (e.g., Meurs et al., 2010; Perrewé et al., 2005) that demonstrate that political skill is a resource capable of mitigating the negative effects of stressors on workplace outcomes.	Veteran Identity Strain
2.	Kraimer, M. L., Shaffer, M. A., Harrison, D. A., & Ren, H. (2012).	No place like home? An identity strain perspective on repatriate turnover. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i> , 55(2), 399-420.	Qualitative Research	Survey	Burke's (1991) Model of Identity Theory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job embeddedness • International employee identity • Perception of Job Deprivation • Identity Strain • Turnover 	We found that, through an international employee identity and identity strain process, repatriates who had become highly embedded in their expatriate job assignments experienced higher rates of turnover when they returned home.	Veteran Identity Strain

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
3.	Connor, K. M., & Davidson, J. R. (2003).	Development of a new resilience scale: The Connor-Davidson resilience scale (CD-RISC). <i>Depression and Anxiety</i> , 18(2), 76-82.	A random-digit dial based general population sample	Self-report surveys	A brief self-rated assessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resilience • Anxiety • Depression • Stress Reaction • Stress Coping • Wellbeing • PTSD 	The findings of this study demonstrate the following: resilience is quantifiable and influenced by health status (i.e., individuals with mental illness have lower levels of resilience than the general population); resilience is modifiable and can improve with treatment; and greater improvement in resilience corresponds to higher levels of global improvement.	Veteran Identity Strain
4.	Duckworth, A.L., & Quinn, P.D. (2009).	Development and validation of the Short Grit Scale (GritS). <i>Journal of Personality Assessment</i> , 91(2), 166-174.	Short Grit Scale	Self-report and informant-report versions of the Grit Scale	Two-Factor model of Grit, the model fit of the Grit-O	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Grit • Perseverance • U.S. Military Academy • West Point Cadets Class 2008 	We found evidence that Grit-S is relatively stable over time. In sum, this investigation presents the Grit-S, a more efficient measure of grit. Findings	Veteran Identity Strain

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
							suggest that grit can reliably be assessed by informants.	
5.	Rhoades, L., & Eisenberger, R. (2002).	Perceived organizational support: A review of the literature. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 87(4), 698-714.	Mixed Methods	Literature Review	Meta-analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organizational Reward • Perceived Organizational Support • Procedural Justice • Affective Commitment 	Findings suggest that POS leads to affective commitment. POS was related to outcomes favorable to employees (e.g., job satisfaction, positive mood) and the organization (e.g., affective commitment, performance, and lessened withdrawal behavior).	Perceived Supervisor Support

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
6.	Eisenberger, R., Huntington, R., Hutchison, S., & Sowa, D. (1986).	Perceived organizational support. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 71(3), 500-507.	Survey of Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS) 7-point Likert Scale	Survey	Literature Review	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived Organizational Support • Commitment • Employees' Effective Attachment • Personified Organization Readiness 	These findings support the social exchange view that employees' commitment to the organization is strongly influenced by their perception of the organization's commitment to them. Our findings indicate the heuristic value of viewing organizational commitment as a consequence of social exchange processes.	Perceived Supervisor Support
7.	Moorman, R. H., Blakely, G. L., & Niehoff, B. P. (1998).	Does perceived organizational support mediate the relationship between procedural justice and organizational citizenship behavior?. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i> , 41(3), 351-357.	OCB Scale Perceived Organizational Support (SPOS) Scale	Survey	Theoretical Model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Procedural Justice • Perceived Organizational Support • Organizational Citizenship Behavior 	This finding is consistent with a recent study by Settoon, Bennett, and Liden (1996) that suggested that the mediator between procedural justice and OCB might best be represented by leader-member exchange rather than by	Perceived Supervisor Support

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
							perceived organizational support.	
8.	Russell, D. W., Altmaier, E., & Van Velzen, D. (1987)	Job-related stress, social support, and burnout among classroom teachers. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 72(2), 269-274.	Empirical Studies	Questionnaire Survey	Literature Review	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Relational psychological • Burnout • Social Support • Job-Related Stressful Events 	Teacher characteristics such as age, sex, and grade level taught were predictive of burnout. The number of stressful events experienced and social support were predictive of teacher burnout.	Perceived Supervisor Support
9.	Shore, L. M., & Tetrick, L. E. (1991).	A construct validity study of the survey of perceived organizational support. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 76(5), 637-643.	Mixed Methods	Survey	Perceived employer commitment that they called the Survey of Perceived Organizational	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job Satisfaction • Pay • Growth • Attitude Measures • Co-worker 	Greater construct explication is needed, particularly given the present findings with regard to satisfaction.	Perceived Supervisor Support

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
					Support (SPOS).			
10.	Herman, J. L., & Tetrick, L. E. (2009)	Problem-focused versus emotion-focused coping strategies and repatriation adjustment. <i>Human Resource Management: Published in cooperation with the School of Business Administration, the University of Michigan and in alliance with the Society of Human Resources Management</i> , 48(1), 69-88.	Mixed Methods	Literature Review	Empirical Analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Stress • Health and safety • Careers • Coping • Adjustment 	Findings regarding repatriate adjustment provide a distinct contribution. Further research exploring those factors that facilitate individual success in cross-cultural transition is critical, and these findings provide insight into behaviors that may affect a more diverse population of international sojourners.	Perceived Supervisor Support

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
11.	Zimet, G. D., Dahlem, N. W., Zimet, S. G., & Farley, G. K. (1988).	The multidimensional scale of perceived social support. <i>Journal of Personality Assessment</i> , 52(1), 30-41.	Multidimensional Scale of Social Support (MSPSS) and the Hoskins Symptom Checklist	Literature Review	Review of Literature	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social Support • Family • Friends • Significant Others 	The findings confirm and extends Prociano and Heller's (1983) demonstration of friends and family as independent and internally consistent resource of social support.	Social Support
12.	Cohen, S., & Wills, T. A. (1985).	Stress, social support, and the buffering hypothesis. <i>Psychological Bulletin</i> , 98(2), 310-357.	Buffering Model	Main- or Direct- Effect Model	Prospective Analytic Models	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social Support • Stress Buffering 	We report findings of significant main effect and interaction, realizing that the meaning of the statistical main effect is ambiguous. the observed findings are consistent with our theoretical model predictions.	Social Support

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
13.	Vinokur, A., Schul, Y., & Caplan, R. D. (1987)	Determinants of perceived social support: Interpersonal transactions, personal outlook, and transient affective states. <i>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology</i> , 53(6), 1137-1145.	Longitudinal Panel Design	Simplified Longitudinal model	Using structural modeling techniques (LISREL vi)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived Support • Interpersonal Transactions • Personal outlook • Transient affective states 	The findings suggest that affective states also play a role in the perception of this interpersonal phenomenon. The findings of our analyses appear consistent and robust.	Social Support
14.	Gore, S. (1978)	The effect of social support in moderating the health consequences of unemployment. <i>Journal of Health and Social Behavior</i> , 19 (2), 157-165.	Longitudinal Investigation	Effect of Social Support	Rural and Urban Terminées	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Perceived Economic Deprivation • Social Support • Job Loss • Depression • Self-Blame 	These findings indicate that sense of economic deprivation should be seen as an additional affective response to unemployment, which is buffered by social support, but uncorrelated with measures of illness behavior and physiological change.	Social Support

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
15.	DeConinck, J. B., & Johnson, J. T. (2009).	The effects of perceived supervisor support, perceived organizational support, and organizational justice on turnover among salespeople. <i>Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management</i> , 29(4), 333-350.	Meta-Analysis	Ethical work climate	three dimensions of organizational justice on salesperson	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Supervisory Trust Support • Organizational Identification • Organizational Commitment • Turnover 	One of the important findings is how an ethical work climate is related to turnover. The results indicate that one aspect of ethical climate impacts turnover directly.	Social Support
16.	Foa, E. B., Cashman, L., Jaycox, L., & Perry, K. (1997).	The validation of a self-report measure of posttraumatic stress disorder: the Posttraumatic Diagnostic Scale. <i>Psychological Assessment</i> , 9(4), 445-451.	Development and Validation of a Self-Report measure of Posttraumatic Diagnostic Scale (PTDS)	Post Traumatic Diagnostic Scale	PTSD Symptom Scale-Interview (PSS-I)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Avoidance • Arousal • Intrusion • High Risk Trauma 	The results of the present study suggest that the PTDS provides reliable and valid information on both PTSD diagnosis and symptom severity.	PTSD

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
17.	Frueh, B. C., Henning, K. R., Pellegrin, K. L., & Chobot, K. (1997).	Relationship between scores on anger measures and PTSD symptomatology, employment, and compensation-seeking status in combat veterans. <i>Journal of Clinical Psychology</i> , 53(8), 871-878.	PTSD Symptomatology	PTSD self-report	Diagnostic and Statistical Manual, Third Edition-Revised (DSM-III-R; <i>American Psychiatric Association</i> , 1987) criteria.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Combat Veterans • Combat Related PTSD • Anger • Hostility 	Combat veterans with PTSD were found to be an angry group of men who are likely to demonstrated difficulty modulating their expression of that anger. These findings are consistent with the results of Chemtob et al. (1994).	PTSD
18.	Smith, M. W., Schnurr, P. P., & Rosenheck, R. A. (2005).	Employment outcomes and PTSD symptom severity. <i>Mental health services research</i> , 7(2), 89-101.	Cross sectional correlation analysis between PTSD severity and employment types	PTSD Scales CAPS Subscales	National Comorbidity Survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PTSD • Earnings • Paid Work • Employment • Unemployed 	Our findings suggest that even modest reductions in PTSD symptoms may lead to employment gains, even if the overall symptom level remains severe.	PTSD

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
19.	Resnick, S. G., & Rosenheck, R. A. (2008).	Posttraumatic stress disorder and employment in veterans participating in Veterans Health Administration compensated work therapy. <i>Journal of Rehabilitation Research & Development</i> , 45(3), 427-436.	Cross-Sectional Study	Multivariate Modeling Regression analysis of factors influencing employment outcomes	Consistent with past research demonstrated vocational deficits for veterans with PTSD, including veterans with combat-related PTSD	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • CWT • Employment, • Combat-Related PTSD • Vocational Rehabilitation 	These findings suggest that PTSD is a significant obstacle to employment, even after adjusting for potentially confounding factors including service era and service in various theaters of operations.	PTSD
20.	Smith, D. L. (2015).	The relationship of disability and employment for veterans from the 2010 Medical Expenditure Panel Survey (MEPS). <i>Work</i> , 51(2), 349-363.	Chi Square Analyses	Medical Expenditure Panel Survey (MEPS)	A multivariate model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PTSD • TBI • Disability policy • Veteran policy • Education • Income 	Significant differences in employment were found between veterans with and without a disability; however, no significant differences existed in employment between veterans and nonveterans with a disability.	PTSD

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
21.	Ehlers, A., & Clark, D. M. (2000).	A cognitive model of posttraumatic stress disorder. <i>Behavior Research and Therapy</i> , 38(4), 319-345.	Cognitive model of PTSD	Persistent PTSD	Appraisal of the traumatic event	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PTSD • Memory • Cognitions • Cognitive behavior therapy • Appraisals of trauma sequelae 	Low intellectual ability may be related to a less conceptual and more data-driven processing (see McNally & Shin's, 1995, findings of an association of low intelligence and PTSD). Murray, Ehlers and Mayou found that memory fragmentation predicted PTSD persistence.	PTSD
22.	Rauch, S. A., Favorite, T., Giardino, N., Porcari, C., Defever, E., & Liberzon, I. (2010).	Relationship between anxiety, depression, and health satisfaction among veterans with PTSD. <i>Journal of Affective Disorders</i> , 121(1-2), 165-168.	Archival data from a clinical sample of combat veterans	Collection Analysis and Interpretation of Data	Clinician Administered PTSD Scale (CAPS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Depression • Anxiety • PTSD • Health • Veterans • Combat Exposure • CAPS 	Found that both higher depression and posttraumatic stress symptoms significantly contributed to more negative health perceptions.	PTSD

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
23.	Meyer, J. P., & Herscovitch, L. (2001).	Commitment in the workplace: Toward a general model. <i>Human Resource Management Review</i> , 11(3), 299-326.	Clinician Administered PTSD Scale (CAPS)	Combat Scale-Revised (CS-R)	Meyer and Allen three-component model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work-Related • Organizational Commitment • Occupational Goal • Organizational Behavior 	Commitment has a “core essence” (i.e., a binding force) it is possible to develop a general model of workplace commitment.	PTSD
24.	Mittal, D., Drummond, K. L., Blevins, D., Curran, G., Corrigan, P., & Sullivan, G. (2013).	Stigma associated with PTSD: Perceptions of treatment seeking combat veterans. <i>Psychiatric Rehabilitation Journal</i> , 36(2), 86-92.	Qualitative Methods	Combination of inductive /deductive approaches	Stigma Research Grounded Theory Methods	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Combat-related PTSD • PTSD-Related Stigma • Mental Illness • Peer Support 	This finding suggests that group therapy or peer counseling may be a particularly useful approach in facilitating engagement of PTSD veterans in treatment.	PTSD
25.	Stern, L. (2017).	Post 9/11 veterans with service-connected disabilities and their transition to the civilian workforce: A review of the literature. <i>Advances in Developing</i>	Exploratory Literature Review	Transition to the Civilian Workforce	Literature Analysis Chart	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Service-Connected Disabilities • Veteran • Transition • Civilian Workforce • Veterans' Career Identity 	The study found that more than one third believed employers think veterans are dangerous, and even more believed employers think veterans are physically broken or damaged, whether or not a	PTSD

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
		<i>Human Resources, 19(1), 66-77.</i>					disability is present or identified.	
26.	Kelley, A. M., Athy, J. R., Cho, T. H., Erickson, B., King, M., & Cruz, P. (2012)	Risk propensity and health risk behaviors in US Army soldiers with and without psychological disturbances across the deployment cycle. <i>Journal of Psychiatric Research, 46(5), 582-589.</i>	Cross-Sectional Study	Comprehensive model of PTG	17-item PTSD Checklist-Military	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Posttraumatic stress disorder (PTSD), • Concussion and traumatic brain injury (TBI) • Perceived invincibility • Self-Regulatory Competence 	The results of this study showed that cognitive regulation was predictive of rational decision making (i.e., cost-benefit analysis) and emotion regulation was predictive of actual risky behaviors (e.g., cigarette smoking and alcohol use).	PTSD

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
27.	Calhoun, L. G., & Tedeschi, R. G. (2014).	The foundations of posttraumatic growth: An expanded framework. In <i>Handbook of Posttraumatic Growth</i> (pp. 17-37).	Qualitative and Quantitative Research	Cross sectional method	Posttraumatic Growth Inventory (PTGI) (1996)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Trauma • Crisis • Major Stressor • Stress-Related Growth 	PTG is an area of study that future investigations need to consider. It seems important to continue to investigate growth from the perspective of traditional quantitatively oriented positivistic science.	PTSD
28.	Rosenheck, R. A., & Fontana, A. F. (2007).	Recent trends in VA treatment of post-traumatic stress disorder and other mental disorders. <i>Health Affairs</i> , 26(6), 1720-1727.	VA's Patient Treatment File	Descriptive data	Evidence-based Psychotherapies	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PTSD • Mental Health • The Fivefold Greater Growth • Persian Gulf-era Veterans 	The number of Persian Gulf-era veterans diagnosed with PTSD grew by 8,000 veterans per year from 2003 to 2005. Since 1997, however, the average annual growth in all users of VA specialty mental health services has averaged 37,000 veterans per year, including 22,000 per year with PTSD.	PTSD

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
29.	Bonfils, K. A., Lysaker, P. H., Yanos, P. T., Siegel, A., Leonhardt, B. L., James, A. V., ... & Davis, L. W. (2018).	Self-stigma in PTSD: Prevalence and correlates. <i>Psychiatry Research</i> , 265(1), 7-12.	Clinician Administered PTSD scale (CAPS)	Beck Depression Inventory	Cross-Sectional Study	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Self-stigma • PTSD • Schizophrenia • Depression • Discrimination 	There were some unexpected findings. First, we expected that those with PTSD would be more able to resist stigma than those with schizophrenia, but our results showed no significant difference between groups for this variable.	PTSD
30.	Maguén, S., Stalnak, M., McCaslin, S., & Litz, B. T. (2009).	PTSD subclusters and functional impairment in Kosovo peacekeepers. <i>Military Medicine</i> , 174(8), 779-785.	Hierarchical Regression Analyses	Survey	The Life Events Checklist (LEC), Clinician Administered PTSD Scale (CAPS)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Peacekeepers • Post deployment • Employment • Family Relationship • Social Functioning • PTSD sub clusters 	This measure was adapted from the National Vietnam Veterans Readjustment Study (NVVRS). We found that the four PTSD sub clusters were differentially associated with various functional impairment outcomes.	PTSD

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
31.	Bliese, P. D., Wright, K. M., Adler, A. B., Cabrera, O., Castro, C. A., & Hoge, C. W. (2008).	Validating the primary care posttraumatic stress disorder screen and the posttraumatic stress disorder checklist with soldiers returning from combat. <i>Journal of Consulting and Clinical Psychology</i> , 76(2), 272-281.	Structured Interview	Item Response Theory (IRT)	Department of Defense's Post Deployment Health Reassessment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Primary Care-PTSD Screen (PC-PTSD) • Posttraumatic stress disorder • Validation • Assessment • Military 	The results of the study demonstrated that both the PC-PTSD and the PCL performed well as clinical screening instruments for PTSD in an active duty military population returning from combat.	PTSD
32.	McClendon, J., Perkins, D., Copeland, L. A., Finley, E. P., & Vogt, D. (2019).	Patterns and correlates of racial/ethnic disparities in posttraumatic stress disorder screening among recently separated veterans. <i>Journal of Anxiety Disorders</i> , 68(1), 102145.	Primary Care PTSD Screen for DSM-5	Veterans Metrics Initiative	PTSD screening	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Posttraumatic stress disorder • Race and ethnicity • Disparities • Stress • Social support • Trauma 	Findings suggest that Black, Hispanic/Latinx and multiracial veterans may be at higher risk for PTSD shortly following separation from the military.	PTSD

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
33.	Thoits, P. A. (2011).	Mechanisms linking social ties and support to physical and mental health. <i>Journal of Health and Social Behavior</i> 52(2) 145 –161.	Standardized Screening Instruments	Theoretical Pathways	Theoretical Processes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social ties • social influence • social control • role-based purpose and meaning • sense of control • Stress-buffering 	Despite robust findings over more than three decades, reviewers have pointed out repeatedly during the same time period that we do not know how social ties or social support actually work to sustain or improve health and well-being.	Job Satisfaction
34.	Delbourg-Delphis, M. (2014).	A Relational Approach to Hiring Veterans " <i>Employment Relations Today</i> , 41(1), 11-17.	Survey	Application Tracking System	Building Relationships	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Veterans Opportunity to Work to Hire Heroes Act • Multiple veterans' organizations • Core values • Learn-and-grow Ethos 	If you are effective, veterans will be your advocates and bring in more qualified candidates through their very active network.	Job Satisfaction

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
35.	Meyer, J. P., & Allen, N. J. (1991).	A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. <i>Human Resource Management Review</i> , 1(1), 61-89.	Model of Commitment	Organizational Commitment	Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • desire • a need • an obligation 	Allen and Meyer noted that employees who acquire transferable skills during their tenure with an organization might be in a better position to leave the organization than their younger, less experienced counterparts.	Job Satisfaction
36.	Allen, N. J., & Meyer, J. P. (1990).	The measurement and antecedents of affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization. <i>Journal of Occupational Psychology</i> , 63(1), 1-18.	Affective, Continuance and Normative Commitment Scales	Organizational Commitment Questionnaire (OCQ)	Three-Component Model of Commitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Affective • Continuance • Normative • Affective attachment, • Perceived costs • Obligation 	Results of canonical correlation analysis suggested that, as predicted by the model, the affective and continuance components of Organizational commitment are empirically distinguishable constructs with different correlates.	Job Satisfaction

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
37.	Yanchus, N. J., Osatuke, K., Carameli, K. A., Barnes, T., & Ramsel, D. (2018).	Assessing workplace perceptions of military veteran compared to nonveteran employees. <i>Journal of Veterans Studies</i> , 3(1), 37-50.	Qualitative	Thematic Content Analysis	Traditional Training Model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job Satisfaction • Job Selection • Leadership • Promotion • Social skills 	The findings suggest that veteran status is not automatically perceived negatively in the hiring process and that other factors play a role.	Job Satisfaction
38.	Judge, T. A., Heller, D., & Mount, M. K. (2002)	Five-factor model of personality and job satisfaction: A meta-analysis. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 87(3), 530-541.	Big Five traits in combination with job satisfaction	Meta-Analysis	Relationships of the Big Five Traits with Job Satisfaction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job Satisfaction Scale (JSS) • Emotional Intelligence Inventory (EII) • Big Five Inventory (BFI) 	One typology that has been in this research literature is the positive affectivity (PA)-negative affectivity (NA) taxonomy of affective temperament.	Job Satisfaction

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
39.	Judge, T. A., & Bono, J. E. (2001)	Relationship of core self-evaluations traits—self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability—with job satisfaction and job performance: A meta-analysis. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 86(1), 80-92.	Qualitative	Meta-Analysis	Theory of core self-evaluation and job performance	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job Satisfaction • Job Performance • Emotions • Stability • Locus of Control • Self-Efficacy 	Results of the study indicate that self-esteem, locus of control, neuroticisms, and generalized self-efficacy are significant predictors of both job satisfaction and job performance.	Job Satisfaction
40.	Judge, T. A., Thoresen, C. J., Bono, J. E., & Patton, G. K. (2001).	The job satisfaction–job performance relationship: A qualitative and quantitative review. <i>Psychological Bulletin</i> , 127(3), 376-407.	Qualitative & Quantitative Review	Meta-Analyses	Expectancy-Based Theories	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Adopting a new identity standard • Job Satisfaction • job performance 	<p>A recent meta-analysis supports the link between job satisfaction and citizenship, finding nonzero correlations between job satisfaction and the two major dimensions of organizational citizenship behaviors—altruism</p>	Job Satisfaction

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
41.	Gregson, T. (1990)	Measuring job satisfaction with a multiple-choice format of the job descriptive index. <i>Psychological Reports</i> , 66(3), 787-793.	Survey Questionnaire Sample	Job Descriptive Index (JDI)	Five Sub-Scales: Work, Pay, Promotions, Supervision, and Coworkers.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Turnover • Tenure • Job Satisfaction • Work • Promotions 	This study introduced a modified way of measuring job satisfaction.	Job Satisfaction
42.	Stone, D. L., & Colella, A. (1996).	A model of factors affecting the treatment of disabled individuals in organizations. <i>Academy of Management Review</i> , 21(2), 352-401.	Multidisciplinary Perspective Model	Department of Labor Glass Ceiling Report	The model was designed to provide a framework for understanding and studying the way persons with disabilities are perceived and treated at work	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Disabled Individuals • Environmental Factors • Stereotypes • Categorization • Expectancies 	The authors argue that persons with disabilities have numerous talents that have been undervalued and underutilized in the work organizations.	Job Satisfaction

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
43.	Stone, C., & Stone, D. L. (2015).	Factors affecting hiring decisions about veterans. <i>Human Resource Management Review</i> , 25(1), 68-79.	Modified Multidisciplinary Perspective Model	Self-Efficacy and Self-Esteem	Disability Model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Attributes of veterans • Nature of the job • Characteristics of the Observer • Perceived transferability of skills • Organizational Culture 	The authors' hope is that the model and review of research on veterans will foster additional research on the topic and uncover the issues that place limits on their ability to secure jobs.	Job Satisfaction
44.	Meyer, J. P., Allen, N. J., & Smith, C. A. (1993).	Commitment to organizations and occupations: Extension and test of a three-component conceptualization. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 78(4), 538-551.	Unidimensional Construct	Organizational Commitment	Three Component Model of Organizational Commitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Affective • Continuance • Normative • Professional Activity • Work Behavior 	The findings contribute to a growing body of research that illustrates the need to take a multidimensional approach to the study of commitment.	Job Satisfaction

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
45.	Schafer, A. (2016).	<i>Onward and upward: Understanding veteran retention and performance in the workforce.</i> Center for a New American Security. <i>Military, Veterans & Society 2016.</i>	Quantitative and Qualitative	Mixed-Methods	Survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The Military, Veterans, and Society (MVS) • Transition Skills Match • Veteran Wellness • Retention 	This study was designed to collect corporate human resources data in order to analyze objective data about hiring, retention, and performance of veterans within the private-sector workforce.	Job Satisfaction
46.	Tett, R. P., & Meyer, J. P. (1993).	Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and turnover: path analyses based on meta-analytic findings. <i>Personnel Psychology</i> , 46(2), 259-293.	Cross-Study	Path Analysis Based on Meta-Analytic Findings	Organizational Commitment Questionnaire	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job Satisfaction • Turnover Intention • Organizational Commitment • Withdrawal Cognitions 	Present findings permit several conclusions regarding the role of work attitudes in predicting withdrawal intention / cognitions.	Job Satisfaction

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
47.	Bureau of Labor Statistics (2020).	Labor Force Statistics from the Current Population Survey. <i>Bureau of Labor Statistics</i> . The employment situation, 1-39.	Job Opening and Labor Turnover Survey	Survey	Bureau of Labor Statistics Sample of Nonfarm Business and Government Establishments	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Quit Rate • Layoffs • Job Openings • Hires • Not Employed 	The number of job openings was little changed for total private and for government.	Job Satisfaction
48.	Butts, M. M., & Ng, T. W. (2009)	Chopped liver? OK. Chopped data? Not OK. Statistical and methodological myths and urban legends: Chapter: 15, 361-386.	ANOVA	Literature Review	Dichotomization Strategies, Extreme Group Approach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Chopped Data • Dichotomizing • Polytomizing • Mean Split • Tertiary Split • Median Split • Cutoff Split 	To examine the use of chopped data in the organizational and social sciences literature in order to evaluate the perpetuated urban legends and underlying myths and/or kernels of truth associated with this practice.	Job Satisfaction

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
49.	Kock, N. (2017)	Which is the best way to measure job performance: Self-perceptions or official supervisor evaluations?. <i>International Journal of e-Collaboration (IJeC)</i> , 13(2), 1-9.	Questionnaires	Structural Equation Modeling (SEM)	Partial Least Squares (PLS) Method	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job Performance • Measurement Instrument • Electronic Collaboration • Social Networking • Structural Equation Modeling • Partial Least Squares 	The results of the assessments discussed here not only suggest that the self-reported job performance measurement instrument used in our illustrative study is more than adequate, but also that it is probably a better measure than official annual performance evaluation scores received from immediate supervisors.	Job Satisfaction
50.	Klein, H. J., Cooper, J. T., Molloy, J. C., & Swanson, J. A. (2014).	The assessment of commitment: Advantages of a unidimensional, target-free approach. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 99(2), 222-238.	Organizational Commitment Questionnaire	Validation Strategy KUT Klein et al., Unidimensional, Target-free measure.	Goal Commitment Scale	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commitment, • Measurement • Validation 	This study provides substantial initial evidence for the validity of the KUT commitment measure, paving the way for future research examine commitment in a consistent manner across targets, unencumbered by	Job Satisfaction

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
51.	Hussey et al., (2016).	Resources and capabilities of the Department of Veterans Affairs to provide timely and accessible care to veterans. <i>Rand Health Quarterly</i> , 5(4), 14.	VA Office of Inspector General investigated the timeliness of VA health care	VA has long played a national leadership role in measuring the quality of health care. Assessment of Quality of VA Care	Survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Expanded use of telehealth • Accelerated hiring • Full nurse practice authority • Workforce and human resources • Interorganizational relationships • Information resources 	<p>hinderances that have constrained commitment scholarship.</p> <p>Finding that some VA staff regularly entered false information regarding patients' preferred dates of care to minimize reported wait times between the preferred date and the actual date of appointments.</p>	Job Satisfaction

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
52.	Morin, R. (2011).	<i>The difficult transition from military to civilian life.</i> Washington, DC: Pew Research Center.	Pew Research Center Survey	Logistic Regression Analysis	Survey	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Demographic • Attitudinal • Commissioned Officer • Major Conflicts • Combat Zone 	These findings underscore the strain that deployments put on a marriage before a married veteran is discharged and after the veteran leaves the service to rejoin his or her family.	Job Satisfaction
53.	Stets, J. E., & Burke, P. J. (2000)	Identity theory and social identity theory. <i>Social Psychology Quarterly</i> , 63(3), 224-237.	Macro and Micro processes that emerge from identities based on category/group and on role	Analysis of the group/role, self-esteem, self-efficacy, and authenticity	Core components of identity theory and social identity theory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identity theory • Social identity theory • Self-categorization • Depersonalization and Self-verification 	We think that a merger of identity theory with social identity theory will yield a stronger social psychology that can attend to macro-, meso-, and micro-level social processes.	Social Identity Theory

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
54.	Bekoe, J. (2015)	<i>Quality of Life of Veterans with Post Traumatic Stress Disorder in New York City, New York: A Comparative Study between African American and Caucasian Veterans</i> (Doctoral dissertation, Monroe College).	Research study of Social Cognitive Theory SCT	Cross-sectional research	Quantitative, cross-sectional approach	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Post-traumatic Stress Disorder (PTSD) • Quality of Life • Flashbacks 	The present study examined the association between CA and AA veterans diagnosed with PTSD in terms of quality of life relating to the level of combat exposure.	Social Identity Theory
55.	Chatman, J. A., & Spataro, S. E. (2005)	Using self-categorization theory to understand relational demography-based variations in people's responsiveness to organizational culture. <i>Academy of Management Journal</i> , 48(2), 321-331.	Research Site, Design, and Data Sources	Survey	Cross-evaluations Cooperative behavior in organizations	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Organizational Culture Profile • Cooperative behavior • Social categorization processes • Individualistic /collectivistic business-unit culture 	Above and beyond our findings for inciting cooperation within organizations, the results of this study suggest that requiring or expecting behavioral adherence to cultural values of all types may vary for demographically similar and different people.	Social Identity Theory

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
56.	Chattopadhyay, P., Tluchowska, M., & George, E. (2004).	Identifying the ingroup: A closer look at the influence of demographic dissimilarity on employee social identity. <i>Academy of Management Review</i> , 29(2), 180-202.	Social Identity Theory and Stress and Coping Theory	Meta-Analysis	The Influence of Legitimacy, Stability, and Permeability on the Social Identity Enhancement Strategies of Lower-Status Employees	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Commitment • Absenteeism • Turnover intentions • Social creativity 	Institutional theory suggests that stable organizational practices take on a patina of legitimacy because they become taken for granted (Baron, Dobbin, & Jennings, 1988).	Social Identity Theory
57.	Hogg, M. A., & Terry, D. I. (2000).	Social identity and self-categorization processes in organizational contexts. <i>Academy of Management Review</i> , 25(1), 121-140.	Social Categorization and prototype-based depersonalization	Literature Review	Social Identity Phenomena	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social Identity Theory • Self-Categorization • Leadership • Mergers and acquisitions 	When one is deriving predictions from a social identity perspective on organizational behavior, one finds the results from laboratory-based social psychological research invaluable, as are the insights that have been gained from field research in the organizational context.	Social Identity Theory

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
58.	Kreiner, G. E., & Ashforth, B. E. (2004).	Evidence toward an expanded model of organizational identification. <i>Journal of Organizational Behavior: The International Journal of Industrial, Occupational and Organizational Psychology and Behavior</i> , 25(1), 1-27.	Organizational Identification	Survey	Cross-Sectional Design	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Identification • Disidentification • Ambivalent identification • Neutral identification 	The pattern of findings demonstrates the discriminability of the four forms of identification, both in their operationalization and in their sets of organizational, job-related, and individual difference antecedents..	Identity Theory
59.	Miscenko, D., & Day, D. V. (2016).	Identity and identification at work. <i>Organizational Psychology Review</i> , 6(3), 215-247.	Conceptual and Empirical Literature Review	Longitudinal study	Conceptual model of Organizational Identification, mechanisms and moderating processes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Multiple identities • Occupational identity • Organizational identity • Team identification • Work identity 	This literature is presently dominated by qualitative approaches; therefore, additional consideration for future empirical research would be to use quantitative methodologies to further generalize and validate the qualitative findings.	Identity Theory

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
60.	Ricketta, M. (2005).	Organizational identification: A meta-analysis. <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i> , 66(2), 358-384.	A Meta-Analysis	Mael Scale and the Organizational Identification Questionnaire	Mael scale, data were available for all correlates considered in the overall analyses except for OCQ and absenteeism	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Work behavior • Ability • Job satisfaction • Work motivation • Organizational Identification 	The findings suggest that OI generally correlates with some variables that play a crucial role in theorizing on OI, such as organizational prestige, intent to leave, and in-role and extra-role performance.	Social Identity Theory
61.	Zhang, Y., Zhang, Y., Ng, T. W., & Lam, S. S. (2019).	Promotion-and prevention-focused coping: A meta-analytic examination of regulatory strategies in the work stress process. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 104(10), 1296-1323.	Meta-Analytic Examination	Meta-analytical path analyses	Transactional Theory of Stress	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coping • Work stress • Regulatory focus • Appraisal • Job Attitude 	The findings support our theory that challenge, and hindrance stressors are differentially associated with promotion- and prevention-focused coping.	Coping Theory

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
62.	Folkman, S., & Lazarus, R. S. (1988).	Coping as a mediator of emotion. <i>Journal of Personality and Social Psychology</i> , 54(3), 466-475.	Ways of Coping Questionnaire	Four Regression Analyses	Questionnaire	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Coping • Emotion • Person-Environment Encounter • Reappraisal 	Although the design of this study precludes definitive causal statements about the relationship between coping and emotion, the findings suggest possible mechanisms of affect that are consistent with previous research and clinical observation.	Coping Theory
63.	Hom, P. W., & Griffeth, R. W. (1991).	Structural equations modeling test of a turnover theory: Cross-sectional and longitudinal analyses. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 76(3), 350-366.	Cross-Sectional	CFA Methodology Survey Longitudinal analogue	Structural Equations Turnover Model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job satisfaction • Thoughts of quitting • Expected utility of withdrawal • Search intentions • Job search • Comparison of alternatives • Intentions to quit 	Our findings also support a more complex conception of structural transformation of turnover models during newcomer assimilation, contradicting simplistic growth models.	Turnover Intentions

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
64.	Jaros, S. J. (1997).	An assessment of Meyer and Allen's (1991) three-component model of organizational commitment and turnover intentions. <i>Journal of Vocational Behavior</i> , 51(3), 319-337.	Cross-Sectional	Literature Review	Three-Component Model of Organizational Commitment	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Turnover Intentions • Staying Intentions • Leaving Intentions • Search Intentions • Intent to Quit 	These findings and the findings of prior research suggest that an employee's affective commitment to the organization is the most important component of organizational commitment in predicting turnover intentions and imply that organizations interested in reducing voluntary turnover behavior can do so indirectly (i.e., through turnover intentions) by fostering affective commitment.	Turnover Intentions

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
65.	Adler, A. B., Huffman, A. H., Bliese, P. D., & Castro, C. A. (2005).	The impact of deployment length and experience on the well-being of male and female soldiers. <i>Journal of Occupational Health Psychology</i> , 10(2), 121-137.	Mental Health Screening Program	Survey	Symptom Check List (SCL-90)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Deployment length • Number of deployments • Deployment experience 	The findings demonstrate the importance of considering the impact of exposure to long-term occupational stressors and confirm, in part, previous research that has demonstrated a different stress response pattern for men and women.	PTSD
66.	Ahearn, K. K., Ferris, G. R., Hochwarter, W. A., Douglas, C., & Ammeter, A. P. (2004).	Leader political skill and team performance. <i>Journal of Management</i> , 30(3), 309-327.	Political Skill and Team Performance Study	Survey	Political skill inventory (PSI)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Team performance • Leader political skill • Team member experience • Leader experience • Team empowerment 	This study examined the role of leader political skill in the performance of casework teams in a large state child welfare system.	Social Support

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
67.	Alpass, F., Long, N., Chamberlain, K., & MacDonald, C. (1997).	Job satisfaction differences between military and ex-military personnel: The role of demographic and organizational variables. <i>Military Psychology</i> , 9(3), 227-249.	Psychological Climate Questionnaire developed by Jones and James (1979)	Work and Life Attitudes Survey (Warr, Cook, & Wall, 1979)	Hierarchy of Authority and Index of Participation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Psychological climate Organizational structure Job satisfaction 	The findings of this research need to be interpreted cautiously due to the reliance on self-report measures. These findings suggest that important factors in determining an individual's job satisfaction are that the job be perceived as challenging, autonomous, and important and that job conflict and pressure be minimized.	Job Satisfaction
68.	Atuel, H. R., & Castro, C. A. (2018).	Military cultural competence. <i>Clinical Social Work Journal</i> , 46(2), 74-82.	Exhaustive review of the PTSD literature	Warrior identity	Multidimensional model of cultural competence (MDCC)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Military Veteran Military cultural competence Attitudinal, cognitive, behavior 	Research findings on combat-related trauma (e.g., Magruder and Yeager 2009) and transition out of military service (e.g., Castro et al. 2014) have shaped and are continuing to shape the political, programmatic, and	PTSD

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
							practice agendas of various stakeholders.	
69.	Balderrama-Durbin, C., Snyder, D. K., Cigrang, J. A., Talcott, G. W., Tatum, J., Baker, M., Cassidy, D., Sonnek, S., Heyman, R. E., & Smith Slep, A. M. (2013).	Combat disclosure in intimate relationships: Mediating the impact of partner support on posttraumatic stress. <i>Journal of Family Psychology</i> , 27(4), 560-568.	Clinical-Administered PTSD Scale (CAPS-5)	Overall Social Support	Cross-sectional	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Duration • Tempo • Social support • Relationship distress • Combat experiences • Combat disclosure 	Findings suggest that higher levels of partner support may promote a safe context for vulnerable disclosure, and that it is specifically through the disclosure of deployment- and combat-related experiences that the detrimental effects of combat exposure are mitigated after returning from deployment.	PTSD

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
70.	Black, T., & Papile, C. (2010).	Making it on civvy street: An online survey of Canadian veterans in transition. <i>Canadian Journal of Counselling and Psychotherapy</i> , 44(4), 383-401.	Canadian Veterans in Transition Survey (CVITS)	Survey	Pilot Testing	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • School-to-work transition • Peacekeepers • Characterization of transition • Transition 	Findings highlight that although the majority of veterans feel they have made a successful transition, a large number of Canadian Forces veterans do not believe this to be the case. These findings highlight the significance that public opinion and understanding can have on the well-being and re-integration of veterans into civilian society.	PTSD
71.	Burke, P. J., & Reitzes, D. C. (1991).	An identity theory approach to commitment. <i>Social Psychology Quarterly</i> , 54, (3), 239-251.	Identity Theory Approach to Commitment	Identity Theory	Principal Component Analysis	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Active Self • Commitment • Identity • Bases of Commitment • Consequences of Commitment 	<p>The results of our analyses are in accord with the expectation that people pursue lines of activity which sustain and support their identities to the extent they are committed to those identities.</p>	Social Support

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
72.	Clemens, E. V., & Milsom, A. S. (2008).	Enlisted service members' transition into the civilian world of work: A cognitive information processing approach. <i>The Career Development Quarterly</i> , 56(3), 246-256.	Cognitive information processing (CIP) theory	Life Values Inventory	CASVE cycle	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Problem space • Problems solving • Career decision making • Career development 	The significant number of enlisted service members in transition from the U.S. military to the civilian sector illustrates a need for career counselors to develop an awareness of the needs and the strengths of this unique population.	Veteran Identity Strain
73.	Ferris, G. R., Treadway, D. C., Perrewé, P. L., Brouer, R. L., Douglas, C., & Lux, S. (2007).	Political skill in organizations. <i>Journal of Management</i> , 33(3), 290-320.	General mental ability (GMA)	Political Skill Inventory (PSI)	Meta-Theoretical Framework	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social astuteness • Interpersonal influence • Networking ability • Apparent sincerity 	The present conceptualization of political skill in organizations is an attempt to respond to these earlier appeals, report on contemporary efforts to shed light on this construct and present a model to guide future research in this important area.	Social Support

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
74.	Halbesleben, J. R., Neveu, J.-P., Paustian-Underdahl, S. C., & Westman, M. (2014).	Getting to the “COR” understanding the role of resources in conservation of resources theory. <i>Journal of Management</i> , 40(5), 1334-1364.	Cross-Sectional	Conservation of resources (COR) theory	Basic Tenets of Conservation of Resources Theory	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Resource Processes • Motivation • Stress • Decision making 	These findings suggest that individuals may perceive signals that an investment of resources will lead to a higher likelihood that one's goals will be achieved, thus increasing the value of the resource one is seeking to attain; this idea has parallels in appraisal-based stress theories, which suggest an investment of resources in coping is more likely when the person perceives that the coping will have a positive impact (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).	Social Support

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
75.	Hammer, L. B., Kossek, E. E., Anger, W. K., Bodner, T., & Zimmerman, K. L. (2011).	Clarifying work–family intervention processes: The roles of work–family conflict and family-supportive supervisor behaviors. <i>Journal of Applied Psychology</i> , 96(1), 134–150.	Surveys	Pre-Intervention /Post-Intervention Survey Measures	Conceptual model	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • work-family interventions • social support • supervisory training • family-friendly practices • work-family conflict 	First, our findings suggest that work-family interventions may be most effective if they target individuals in organizations that have higher need (higher family-to-work conflict). Second, our findings also appear to indicate that, while the training was particularly beneficial for those higher in family-to-work conflict, we see an opposite effect for those who are low in family-to-work conflict for the outcomes of job satisfaction and turnover intentions. Third, many workplace interventions are more individually-focused than organizationally-	Social Support

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
							focused (Hurrell, 2005).	
76.	Humensky, J. L., Jordan, N., Stroupe, K. T., & Hynes, D. M. (2013).	How are Iraq /Afghanistan-era veterans faring in the labor market? <i>Armed Forces & Society</i> , 39(1), 158-183.	Current Population Survey (CPS)	Annual Social and Economic (ASEC) Supplement of the CPS	CPS samples	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Veterans • Employment • Labor Market • Labor market performance (LMP) 	This study finds variation in the labor market status of Iraq/Afghanistan-era Veterans. Among the youngest Veterans (ages 18–24), Iraq/Afghanistan-era service is associated with higher earnings and school enrollment, but also higher unemployment.	Job Satisfaction

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
77.	Sarstedt, M., Hair Jr, J. F., Cheah, J. H., Becker, J. M., & Ringle, C. M. (2019).	How to specify, estimate, and validate higher-order constructs in PLS-SEM. <i>Australasian Marketing Journal (AMJ)</i> , 27(3), 197-211.	Partial least squares structural equation modeling (PLS-SEM).	LOC = lower-order component; HOC = higher-order component	Higher-order constructs HOC	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • The two-stage approach • Specifying higher-order constructs • Estimating higher-order constructs • Validating higher-order constructs • Empirical illustration 	In light of these findings, researchers should use Mode A for a reflectively specified higher-order constructs (i.e., reflective-reflective and formative-reflective types) and Mode B for formatively specified higher-order constructs (i.e., reflective-formative and formative-formative types).	
78.	Ulleberg, P., & Rundmo, T. (1997).	Job stress, social support, job satisfaction and absenteeism among offshore oil personnel. <i>Work & Stress</i> , 11(3), 215-228.	Data collection sample	Self-completion questionnaire survey	Stress questionnaire	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Job stress • Absenteeism • Offshore oil personnel • Strain • Stress caused by job situation • Perceived risk • Social Support 	Consistent with the findings of Cohen and Wills (1985), where buffering effects of social support were only found when there was a close tie between the support offered and the nature of the source of stress.	Social Support

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
79.	Harris, J. I., Strom, T. Q., Ferrier-Auerbach, A. G., Kaler, M. E., Hansen, L. P., & Erbes, C. R. (2017).	Workplace social support in job satisfaction among veterans with posttraumatic stress symptoms: A preliminary correlational study. <i>PloS ONE</i> , 12(8), 1-10.	Clinician Administered PTSD Scale CAPS	Questionnaire PTSD Checklist	Job Demands and Resources JD-R	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Social Support • Job Satisfaction • Vocational Adjustment • Work Performance 	Given the convergence of findings that workplace social support is associated with better vocational adjustment, along with this finding that this relationship generalizes to Veterans seeking treatment for PTSD, it appears that there is ample reason to explore the potential for increasing social support as a rehabilitation intervention.	PTSD

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
80.	Smith, R. T., & True, G. (2014).	Warring identities: Identity conflict and the mental distress of American veterans of the wars in Iraq and Afghanistan. <i>Society and Mental Health</i> , 4(2), 147-161.	Life story interviews	One on one interviews	Medical sociology and Social psychology	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PTSD • Social Distance • Warring Identity 	These recent findings we believe speak, in part, to the conflict we analyze; the transition from the soldier identity—forged within the military's total institution—into the civilian identity can serve as the basis for significant psychological distress.	Veteran Identity Strain
81.	Henseler, J., Ringle, C. M., & Sinkovics, R. R. (2009).	The use of partial least squares path modeling in international marketing. <i>Advances in International Marketing</i> , 20, 277-319.	Partial Least Square PLS	Structural equation modeling (SEM)	Partial least squares (PLS) path modeling	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Outer model assessment • Inner model assessment 	Our paper illustrates the PLS path modeling methodology and typical criteria for the assessment of results. Moreover, we introduce several advances in evaluating PLS model estimations, such as a novel approach for multigroup comparison (PLS-MGA).	Job Satisfaction

ID No	Author(s) Year	Title	Methods	Typology	Model Design	Variable(s)	Key Findings	Major Construct
82.	Shmueli, G., Sarstedt, M., Hair, J. F., Cheah, J. H., Ting, H., Vaithilingam, S., & Ringle, C. M. (2019).	Predictive model assessment in PLS-SEM: Guidelines for using PLSpredict. <i>European Journal of Marketing</i> , 53(11), 2322-2347.	Prediction-oriented model evaluations	Structural equation modeling (SEM)	PLS predict	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • PLS-SEM • Structural equation modeling • Predictive power 	<p>the findings of our paper are deemed to help researchers in international marketing to adopt a more holistic perspective and to make informed decisions about the SEM method based on the nature and key objectives of their study.</p> <p>The paper advances PLSpredict and offers guidance on how to use this prediction-oriented model evaluation approach. Researchers should routinely consider the assessment of the predictive power of their PLS path models.</p>	Perceived Social Support

Appendix 2. Online Survey Instrument

Title: Veterans in the Workforce Survey

We would like to invite you to take a voluntary survey that John Gory is using to capture data for his DBA dissertation. Veterans represent an important and growing segment of the U.S. workforce. Their military background, and in many cases their combat experience, provides critical, real-time problem-solving capability to address the increasingly complex and often unpredictable issues faced in today's business environment. The purpose of this survey is to better understand the perceived challenges and coping strategies used by veterans who transition into civilian careers after the military. Your participation is voluntary and greatly appreciated. If you choose to take this survey, it will require approximately 10 minutes of your time. We do not believe that you will experience any risks from participating in this study. While you will not benefit directly from this study, you and the veteran community might benefit in the long term as we learn more about the factors and strategies that facilitate the transition and adjustment to civilian employment.

Thank you very much for your support!

To get started, please tell us about yourself:

Q1 – What is your age? Please write in your answer (in years) below:
_____years of age.

Q2 – How do you identify?

- ☐ Male (1)
- ☐ Female (2)
- ☐ Other (3)

Q3 – What is your race?

- ☐ White (1)
 - ☐ Black or African American (2)
 - ☐ American Indian or Alaska Native (3)
 - ☐ Asian (4)
 - ☐ Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander (5)
 - ☐ Other (6)
-

Q4 – What is your family status?

- ☐ Married (1)
 - ☐ Widowed (2)
 - ☐ Divorced (3)
 - ☐ Separated (4)
 - ☐ Single (5)
-

Q5 – Are you currently employed?

- ☐ Yes (1)
 - ☐ No (2)
-

Q6 – How many years have you been in your current job?

Please write in your answer in the space provided below.
_____months/years.

Q7 – How many years have you been unemployed since your last job?

Please write in your answer in the space provided below.

_____ months/years.

Q8 – Do you work for a family business?

A family business is any organization, regardless of size or age, where one or several members of one or multiple families lead or control the business as employees, managers, directors or owners.

- ☐ Yes (1)
 - ☐ No (2)
-

Q9 – Is the family business for which you work owned by a veteran?

- ☐ Yes (1)
- ☐ No (2)

Q10 – Is your immediate supervisor a veteran?

- ☐ Yes (1)
 - ☐ No (2)
-

Q11 – What is your veteran status?

- ☐ Veteran (1)
 - ☐ Non-Veteran (2)
-

Q12 – Are you a disabled veteran?

- ☐ Yes (3)
 - ☐ No (4)
-

Q13 – Do you use services at the VA?

- ☐ Yes (1)
 - ☐ No (2)
-

Q14 – Do you still use facilities on military installations (i.e., Post Exchange (PX), commissary, chaplain services, NCO/Officer Club)?

- Yes (1)
 - No (2)
-

Q15 – How many times have you been deployed?
Please write in your answer below.

Q16 –What is your branch of service?

- Army (1)
 - Air Force (2)
 - Navy (3)
 - Marine (4)
 - Coast Guard (5)
 - National Guard (6)
 - Reserves (7)
-

Q17 – What was the highest rank that you achieved?

- ☐ General (O10)
- ☐ Lieutenant General (O9)
- ☐ Major General (O8)
- ☐ Brigadier General (O7)
- ☐ Colonel (O6)
- ☐ Lieutenant Colonel (O5)
- ☐ Major (O4)
- ☐ Captain (O3)
- ☐ First Lieutenant (O2)
- ☐ Second Lieutenant (O1)
- ☐ Warrant Officer (W5)
- ☐ Warrant Officer (W4)
- ☐ Warrant Officer (W3)
- ☐ Warrant Officer (W2)
- ☐ Warrant Officer (W1)
- ☐ Sergeant Major (E9)
- ☐ First Sergeant/Master Sergeant (E8)
- ☐ Sergeant First Class (E7)
- ☐ Staff Sergeant (E6)
- ☐ Sergeant (E5)
- ☐ Corporal/Specialist (E4)
- ☐ Private First Class (E3)
- ☐ Private (E1, E2)

For the next set of questions, please choose the option that best describes how you see yourself.

Q18 – I am able to adapt to change.

- ☐ Not true at all (1)
- ☐ Rarely true (2)
- ☐ Sometimes true (3)
- ☐ Often true (4)
- ☐ True all the time (5)

Q19 – I tend to bounce back after illness or hardship.

- ☐ Not true at all (1)
- ☐ Rarely true (2)
- ☐ Sometimes true (3)
- ☐ Often true (4)
- ☐ True all the time (5)

Q20 – I can deal with whatever comes.

- ☐ Not true at all (1)
- ☐ Rarely true (2)
- ☐ Sometimes true (3)
- ☐ Often true (4)
- ☐ True all the time (5)

Q21 – Coping with stress strengthens me.

- ☐ Not true at all (1)
 - ☐ Rarely true (2)
 - ☐ Sometimes true (3)
 - ☐ Often true (4)
 - ☐ True all the time (5)
-

Q22 – Under pressure, I focus and think clearly.

- ☐ Not true at all (1)
 - ☐ Rarely true (2)
 - ☐ Sometimes true (3)
 - ☐ Often true (4)
 - ☐ True all the time (5)
-

Q23 – I am not easily discouraged by failure.

- Not true at all (1)
- Rarely true (2)
- Sometimes true (3)
- Often true (4)
- True all the time (5)

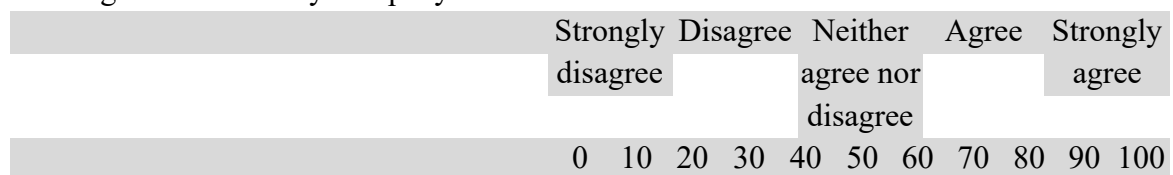
Q24 – I have a strong sense of purpose.

- Not true at all (1)
- Rarely true (2)
- Sometimes true (3)
- Often true (4)
- True all the time (5)

For the following questions, please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement provided, using the scale indicated below.

For each item, please drag the slider to a certain spot that best represents your response.

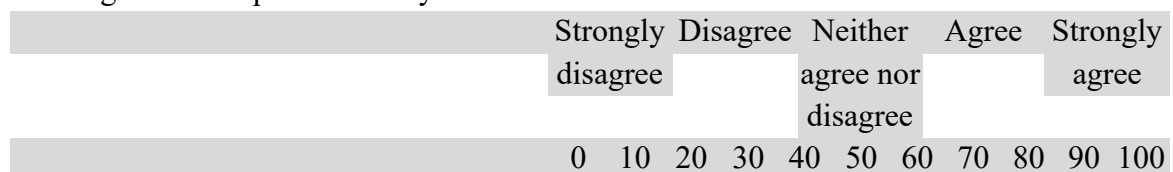
Q25 – After transitioning from my military assignment, I have been having trouble defining who I am at my company.



Slide Scale to answer



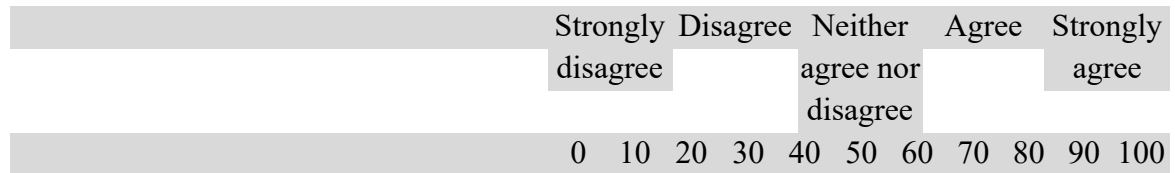
Q26 – After transitioning from my military assignment, I have been having trouble defining who I am professionally.



Slide Scale to answer



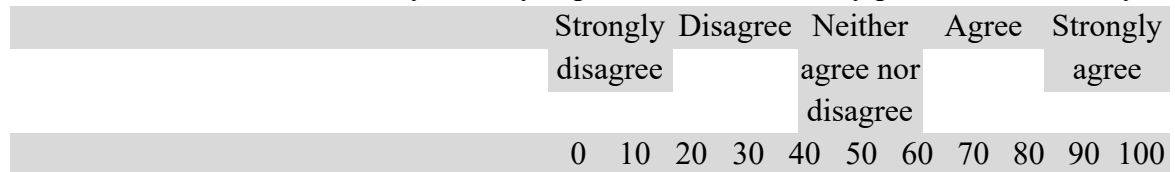
Q27 – Sometimes, I feel like my military experience doesn't fit my current job.



Slide Scale to answer



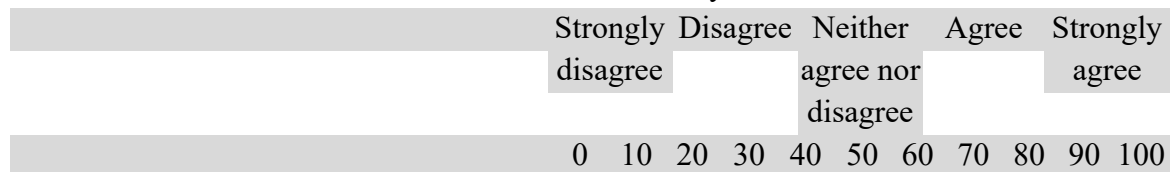
Q28 – Sometimes, I feel like my military experience doesn't fit my professional identity.



Slide Scale to answer



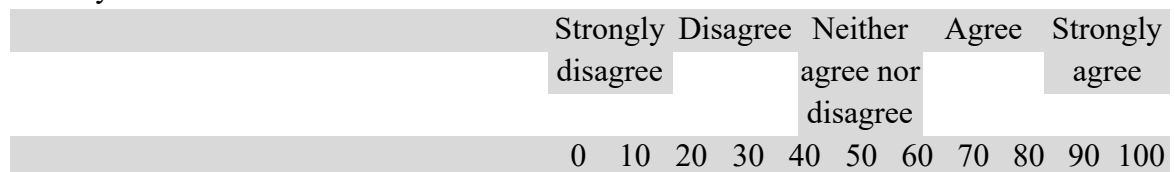
Q29 – There are times when there seems to be a conflict between what I am asked to do now and what I had learned as a member of the military.



Slide Scale to answer



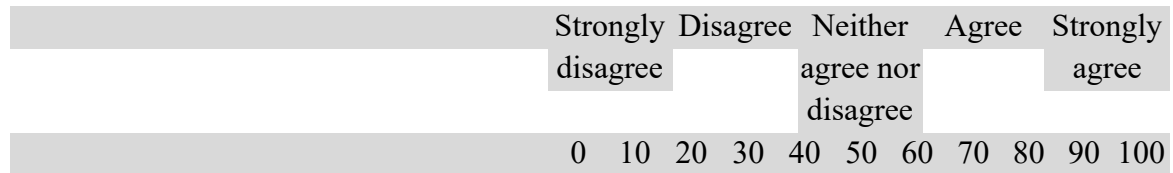
Q30 – There is a tension between who I am on my current job and who I was while in the military.



Slide Scale to answer



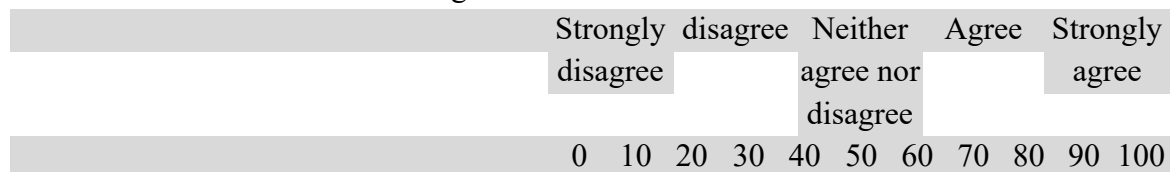
Q31 – There is a tension between who I am professionally and who I was while in the military.



Slide Scale to answer



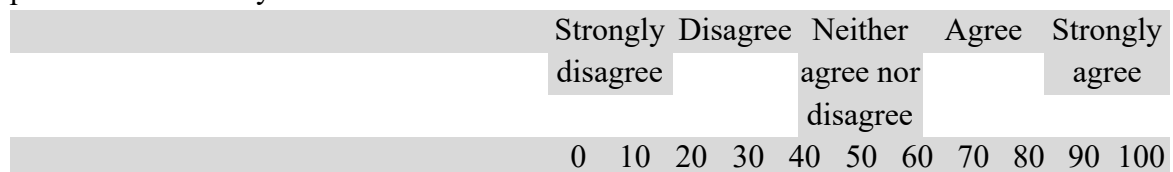
Q32 – I feel that my role as a former member of the military is not compatible with my current role as a member of this organization.



Slide Scale to answer



Q33 – I feel that my role as a former member of the military is not compatible with my professional identity.



Slide Scale to answer



Please answer the following questions by selecting the answer that best describes your situation.

Q34 – My family really tries to help me.

- Very strongly agree (1)
 - Strongly agree (2)
 - Mildly agree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Mildly disagree (5)
 - Strongly disagree (6)
 - Very strongly disagree (7)
-

Q35 – I get the emotional help and support I need from my family.

- Very strongly agree (1)
 - Strongly agree (2)
 - Mildly agree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Mildly disagree (5)
 - Strongly disagree (6)
 - Very strongly disagree (7)
-

Q36 – I can talk about my problems with my family.

- Very strongly agree (1)
 - Strongly agree (2)
 - Mildly agree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Mildly disagree (5)
 - Strongly disagree (6)
 - Very strongly disagree (7)
-

Q37 – My family is willing to help me make decisions.

- Very strongly agree (1)
- Strongly agree (2)
- Mildly agree (3)
- Neutral (4)
- Mildly disagree (5)
- Strongly disagree (6)
- Very strongly disagree (7)

Q38 – My friends really try to help me.

- Very strongly agree (1)
 - Strongly agree (2)
 - Mildly agree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Mildly disagree (5)
 - Strongly disagree (6)
 - Very strongly disagree (7)
-

Q39 – I can count on my friends when things go wrong.

- Very strongly agree (1)
 - Strongly agree (2)
 - Mildly agree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Mildly disagree (5)
 - Strongly disagree (6)
 - Very strongly disagree (7)
-

Q40 – I have friends with whom I can share my joys and sorrows.

- Very strongly agree (1)
 - Strongly agree (2)
 - Mildly agree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Mildly disagree (5)
 - Strongly disagree (6)
 - Very strongly disagree (7)
-

Q41 – I can talk about my problems with my friends.

- Very strongly agree (1)
 - Strongly agree (2)
 - Mildly agree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Mildly disagree (5)
 - Strongly disagree (6)
 - Very strongly disagree (7)
-

Q42 – There is a special person who is around when I am in need.

- Very strongly agree (1)
 - Strongly agree (2)
 - Mildly agree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Mildly disagree (5)
 - Strongly disagree (6)
 - Very strongly disagree (7)
-

Q43 – There is a special person with whom I can share my joys and sorrows.

- Very strongly agree (1)
 - Strongly agree (2)
 - Mildly agree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Mildly disagree (5)
 - Strongly disagree (6)
 - Very strongly disagree (7)
-

Q44 – I have a special person who is a real source of comfort to me.

- Very strongly agree (1)
 - Strongly agree (2)
 - Mildly agree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Mildly disagree (5)
 - Strongly disagree (6)
 - Very strongly disagree (7)
-

Q45 – There is a special person in my life who cares about my feelings.

- Very strongly agree (1)
 - Strongly agree (2)
 - Mildly agree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Mildly disagree (5)
 - Strongly disagree (6)
 - Very strongly disagree (7)
-

Q46 – My supervisor takes great pride in my accomplishments.

- Very strongly agree (1)
 - Strongly agree (2)
 - Mildly agree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Mildly disagree (5)
 - Strongly disagree (6)
 - Very strongly disagree (7)
-

Q47 – My supervisor really cares about my well-being.

- Very strongly agree (1)
 - Strongly agree (2)
 - Mildly agree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Mildly disagree (5)
 - Strongly disagree (6)
 - Very strongly disagree (7)
-

Q48 – My supervisor strongly considers my goals and values.

- Very strongly agree (1)
 - Strongly agree (2)
 - Mildly agree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Mildly disagree (5)
 - Strongly disagree (6)
 - Very strongly disagree (7)
-

Q49 – My supervisor is willing to help me if I need help.

- ☐ Very strongly agree (1)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (2)
 - ☐ Mildly agree (3)
 - ☐ Neutral (4)
 - ☐ Mildly disagree (5)
 - ☐ Strongly disagree (6)
 - ☐ Very strongly disagree (7)
-

Q50 – Have you been diagnosed with having PTSD?

- ☐ Yes (1)
 - ☐ No (2)
-

Q51 – How often do you avoid activities or situations?

- ☐ Not at all (1)
 - ☐ A little bit (2)
 - ☐ Moderately (3)
 - ☐ Quite a lot (4)
 - ☐ Very much (5)
-

Q52 – How often do you have feelings of detachment or estrangement from others?

- ☐ Not at all (1)
 - ☐ A little bit (2)
 - ☐ Moderately (3)
 - ☐ Quite a lot (4)
 - ☐ Very much (5)
-

Q53 – How often are you less interested in participating in important activities?

- ☐ Not at all (1)
 - ☐ A little bit (2)
 - ☐ Moderately (3)
 - ☐ Quite a lot (4)
 - ☐ Very much (5)
-

The following questions refer to your job and/or the work you do in your job.
Please select the answer that best fits your level of agreement with each of the statements provided.

Q54 – My work is satisfying.

- ☐ Very strongly agree (1)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (2)
 - ☐ Mildly agree (3)
 - ☐ Neutral (4)
 - ☐ Mildly disagree (5)
 - ☐ Strongly disagree (6)
 - ☐ Very strongly disagree (7)
-

Q55 – My work gives me a sense of accomplishment.

- ☐ Very strongly agree (1)
 - ☐ Strongly agree (2)
 - ☐ Mildly agree (3)
 - ☐ Neutral (4)
 - ☐ Mildly disagree (5)
 - ☐ Strongly disagree (6)
 - ☐ Very strongly disagree (7)
-

Q56 – There are good opportunities for advancement at my company.

- Very strongly agree (1)
 - Strongly agree (2)
 - Mildly agree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Mildly disagree (5)
 - Strongly disagree (6)
 - Very strongly disagree (7)
-

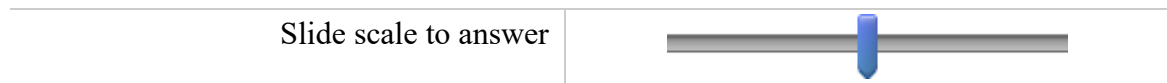
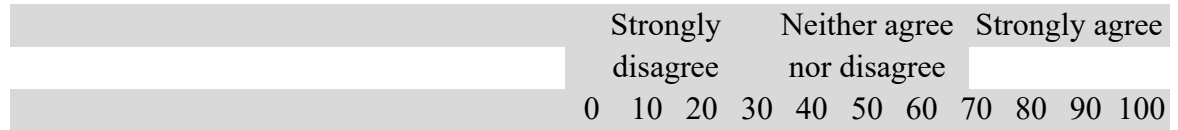
Q57 – There is a good chance for promotions at my company.

- Very strongly agree (1)
 - Strongly agree (2)
 - Mildly agree (3)
 - Neutral (4)
 - Mildly disagree (5)
 - Strongly disagree (6)
 - Very strongly disagree (7)
-

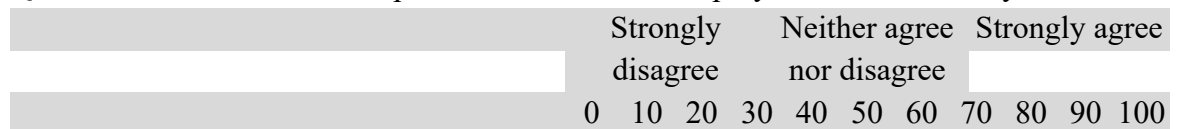
For the following questions, please rate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement provided, using the scale indicated below.

For each item, please drag the slider to a certain spot that best represents your response.

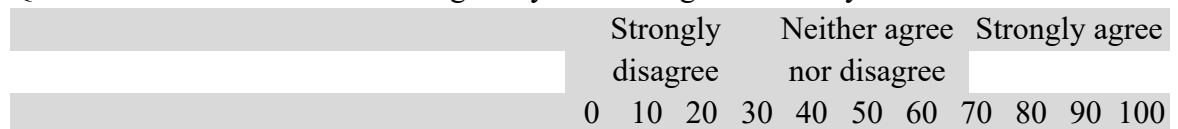
Q58 – I often think about quitting this organization.



Q59 – I intend to search for a position with another employer within the next year.



Q60 – I think I will still be working at my current organization 2 years from now.



Appendix 3. Survey Item and Model Construct Mapping

Veteran Identity Strain VET-IS:

- Q25 **VIS1** – After transitioning from my military assignment, I have been having trouble defining who I am at my company.
- Q26 **VIS2** – After transitioning from my military assignment, I have been having trouble defining who I am professionally.
- Q27 **VIS3** – Sometimes I feel like my military experience doesn't fit my current job.
- Q28 **VIS4** – Sometimes I feel like my military experience doesn't fit my professional identity.
- Q29 **VIS5** – There are times when there seems to be a conflict between what I am asked to do now and what I had learned as a member of the military.
- Q30 **VIS6** – There is a tension between who I am on my current job and who I was while in the military.
- Q31 **VIS7** – There is a tension between who I am professionally who I was while in the military.
- Q32 **VIS8** – I feel that my role as a former member of the military is not compatible with my current role as a member of this organization.
- Q33 **VIS9** – I feel that my role as a former member of the military is not compatible with my professional identity.

Perceived Social Support:

- Q34 **PSS1** – My family really tries to help me.
- Q35 **PSS2** – I get the emotional help and support I need from my family.
- Q36 **PSS3** – I can talk about my problems with my family.
- Q37 **PSS4** – My family is willing to help me make decisions.
- Q38 **PSS5** – My friends really try to help me.
- Q39 **PSS6** – I can count on my friends when things go wrong.
- Q40 **PSS7** – I have friends with whom I can share my joys and sorrows.
- Q41 **PSS8** – I can talk about my problems with my friends.
- Q42 **PSS9** – There is a special person who is around when I am in need.
- Q43 **PSS10** – There is a special person with whom I can share my joys and sorrows.
- Q44 **PSS11** – I have a special person who is a real source of comfort to me.
- Q45 **PSS12** – There is a special person in my life who cares about my feelings.

Perceived Supervisor Support:

- Q46 **PSV1** – My supervisor takes great pride in accomplishments.
- Q47 **PSV2** – My supervisor really cares about my well-being.
- Q48 **PSV3** – My supervisor strongly considers my goals and values.
- Q49 **PSV4** – My supervisor is willing to help me if I need help.

Post Traumatic Stress Disorder-PTSD:

- Q50 PTSD1 – Have you been diagnosed with having PTSD?
- Q51 PTSD2 – How often do you avoid activities or situations?
- Q52 PTSD3 – How often do you have feelings of detachment or estrangement from others?
- Q53 PTSD4 – How often are you less interested in participating in important activities?

Job Satisfaction:

- Q54 JS1 – My work is satisfying.
- Q55 JS2 – My work gives me a sense of accomplishment.
- Q56 JS3 – There are good opportunities for advancement at my company.
- Q57 JS4 – There is a good chance for promotions at my company.

Turnover Intentions:

- Q58 TI1 – I often think about quitting this organization.
- Q59 TI2 – I intend to search for a position with another employer within the next year.
- Q60 TI3 – I think I will still be working at my current organization 2 years from now.