

Chapter 3D – TRANSITION

E. Gerhard Storm, Ph.D
Personalamt der Bundeswehr, DEU
GerhardStorm@Bundeswehr.Org

3D.1 EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

This chapter presents a review of literature on the process of transition. The focus is on people joining the Military – the process of organizational entry – and the process of change within the Military.

The process of transition with respect to matching the individual and the organization is one of the most critical phases of organizational life. Hence, recently hired workers are the most likely to turn over. With respect to this, conceptual models were chosen from the research literature. These describe the underlying mechanisms, which are discussed and translated into practical implications. With respect to the latter, procedurally fair selection tools/processes with face validity and perceived predictive validity are recommended. Stress as the most relevant factor in the immediate post-entry period should be reduced by means of appropriate coping strategies. Socialization of newcomers is divided into stages and corresponding countermeasures for those stages are presented.

The process of transition with respect to changes within the Military affects the organizational context and the serving individuals. This is exemplified by the transition from compulsory service to all-volunteer forces. With respect to the national level, policy aspects (e.g., forms of military capability, social and institutional needs) and the arguments pro and contra this transition are discussed and a dual system is recommended. With respect to the organizational level, the consequences and necessary organizational adjustments are discussed and translated into practical implications. With respect to the latter, the costs of transition should be monitored carefully, armed forces shall be prepared to interact with other players on the labor market and recruitment and selection need to be adapted. In order to predict consequences like these, simulation programs are recommended.

3D.2 INTRODUCTION

The goal of the NATO Task Group on Recruiting and Retention (R&R) of Military Personnel is to foster a true understanding of the mechanisms that influence recruitment and retention outcomes. In order to achieve this goal, generic military models were developed, which are based on 10 topic areas within the framework of R&R literature. One of these topic areas addresses the process of transition, which will be discussed below.

3D.2.1 Introduction to Transition

The Armed Forces of the NATO nations are in a constant process of change. This in turn imposes specific requirements on their military personnel and as an outcome, recruiting and retaining military personnel has become a major concern. This, among others, addresses the concept of transition, which holds true for newcomers and for those who are already in the Armed Forces. One of the most negative outcomes of failed transition is early (voluntary) turnover and in fact, the Military is facing an important loss of personnel who choose to leave. If transition fails, then early turnover is one likely result, if it is successful, then it eases the entry of newcomers and helps to retain the incumbents.

In order to reach this important goal, it is crucial to understand the process of transition (Section 3). In Sections 3.2 and 3.3 classifications and models will be discussed. Section 3.4 addresses the process of change in the organization itself, exemplified by the transition from compulsory service to all-volunteer forces. Section 3.5 deals with how to translate the results of this literature review into appropriate action by means of practical implications.

3D.3 THE TRANSITION PROCESS

One major aspect of transition is matching the individual and the organization. As part of this, the early period following entry is one of the most critical phases of organizational life. Hence, recently hired workers are the most likely to turn over (Farber, 1994) before the organization has been able to realize returns on its investments. This holds true in very much the same way for private industry and the Armed Forces (Wanous, 1992). It also should be taken into account that the newcomers' initial attitudes, preferences, expectations and perceptions strongly influence their subsequent attitudes, behavior and self-perception (Adkins, 1995; Wanous, 1992).

3D.3.1 Definition of Transition

Transition as a process encompasses the positive or negative reactions to significant changes in life circumstances. The concept of transition relates to both, the individual and the organization. With respect to R&R, transition is structured in the following way:

a) Recruiting/Individual:

The culture shock of joining: This means the movement by individuals from a civilian to a Service culture, where assumptions, attitudes, expectations, and practices are different and unfamiliar.

b) Recruiting/Organization:

Organizational requirements: From the perspective of the organization, recruiting means finding sources to address qualified job candidates, attracting and selecting them.

c) Retention/Individual:

Changes in needs and wants during Service: Changes in attitudes, expectations, aspirations and behavior which an individual undergoes during his or her service. For example, an unmarried soldier may desire interesting operational postings, but once married, the same individual may feel reluctant to leave home for long periods. Reasons for staying in the Service change as these transitions take place.

d) Retention/Organization:

Effects of significant organizational change: Changes in the organization, brought about by technology, or by movement in policy or operational stance. Examples are post Cold War strategy changes such as force reductions, expeditionary missions, high-technology military operations, and transition from compulsory service to all-volunteer forces. Changes like these affect the organizational context in which individuals serve; hence appropriate organizational coping strategies are required.

3D.3.2 Phases of Organizational Entry

In order to understand the process of transition, it is necessary to conceptualize the move from outside to inside the organization and to identify the relevant factors of this step. Accordingly Wanous (1992) distinguishes four phases of this “organizational entry”, divided according to the perspective of the newcomer and the organization. He calls the first two pre-entry phases *recruitment* and *selection*, followed by the two post-entry phases *orientation* and *socialization*.

Although the phases are not as distinct and sequential as expected, they are helpful in breaking down the process of transition into meaningful chunks, as described below.

Phase 1 – Recruitment: Refers to the process of mutual attraction between a potential job candidate and the organization (see also *Realistic Information or Not? Short-term Consequences of (Mis)information* in this report).

According to Barber (1998), the organization has to conduct primarily those practices and activities by which potential employees can be identified and attracted. For the organization it is also of interest, how their marketing is evaluated by potential employees.

The individual on the other hand looks for job-relevant information, evaluates it and decides whether or not to apply.

Phase 2 – Selection: Refers to the process of mutual choice (see also chapters *Management of Recruitment, Selection, and Classification* and *Realistic Information or Not? Short-term Consequences of (Mis)information* in this report).

The organization selects from applicants and classifies newcomers who fit best. In order to predict future job performance, the match between required and given capabilities/abilities is assessed. The main aspects are job analysis, definition and realization of criteria and predictors and also validity and utility analysis. This increases the probability of finding the right person for the right job at the right time and represents the traditional approach of personnel selection research (Hom, Griffeth, Palich and Bracker, 1998; Avner, Gusastello and Aderman, 1982; Farber, 1994; Wanous, 1992).

Selection from the individual’s perspective means choosing among job offers, deciding to apply and coping with the selection procedure. An additional contribution to the predictive value of the selection procedure is provided by understanding the applicants’ perceptions and reactions to the selection process. The applicants’ initial attitudes, preferences, expectations and perceptions are relevant, because these strongly influence their subsequent attitudes, behavior and self-perception (Adkins, 1995; Anderson, 2001; Hausknecht, Day and Thomas, 2004; Wanous, 1992).

A comprehensive overview of this social process perspective is provided by Hausknecht et al.’s (2004) updated theoretical model of applicant reactions to selection, which is tested by means of meta-analysis. It considers antecedents (e.g., person characteristics), applicant perceptions (e.g., attitudes towards tests) and outcomes (e.g., self-perceptions). In contrast to the traditional approach, the focus is on the applicant’s perspective. This in turn enables the organization to take antecedents of selection and selection induced effects into account.

According to Hausknecht et al.’s (2004) model, the following can be concluded:

TRANSITION

- Applicants with positive perceptions of the selection procedure are more likely to view the organization favorably, report stronger intentions to accept job offers, perform well on selection tools and recommend the employer to others.
- Applicants' perceptions are positively correlated with actual and perceived performance on selection tools and with self-perceptions.
- Face validity (selection tool seems to be relevant for the job) and perceived predictive validity (correlation between predictor and criterion) of the selection procedure were strong predictors of many applicant perceptions (e.g., procedural and distributive justice, attitudes towards tests and selection).
- Interviews and work samples were perceived more favorably than cognitive ability tests. The latter were perceived more favorably than personality inventories, honesty tests, bio-data and graphology.

Selection is a process of mutual choice and hence should be considered from the perspective of the organization and the applicant. Hence, the choice for tools of a selection procedure on the one hand should suffice statistical demands (reliability, validity, etc.) and on the other hand should be based on research results about applicants' reactions toward these tools.

Phase 3 – Orientation: Newcomer orientation refers to the post-entry phase. In order to distinguish it from socialization, Wanous (1992) delimited its time frame and content. Hence newcomer orientation is restricted to the first week after entry and deals mainly with stress.

With respect to Wanous' matching model, stress is a relevant factor, which can originate from unrealistic expectations, concerns about the capability to fulfill the demanded job requirements, role transitions and significant change in life circumstances. Accordingly, the objective for the organization is to facilitate the orientation phase by means of stress management interventions (e.g., coping strategies).

Programs that are designed to deal with anticipated forthcoming stress are a better choice for this situation than those dealing with stress after it has occurred. Based on a review of specific programs for stress preparation, Wanous suggested Realistic Orientation Programs for new Employee Stress (ROPES) in order to reduce newcomer's stress. According to Wanous the guidelines for developing ROPES are as follows:

- Present realistic information (realism also can cause negative by-products like reducing pre-entry attraction or negative interpretation of post-entry experiences; Ganzach, Pazy, Ohayun and Brainin, 2002);
- Provide general support and reassurance;
- Use models to show coping skills and discuss the model's actions;
- Rehearse coping skills;
- Teach self-control of thoughts and feelings; and
- Target specific stressors for specific newcomers.

Phase 4 – Socialization: According to Wanous (1992, p. 194) "organizational socialization is the transmission of important norms and values to the newcomer by the 'insiders' in the organization," which clearly distinguishes it from newcomer orientation. Hence, organizational socialization refers mainly to the match between organizational climates and individual job wants. This match is of interest because of its influence on job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and job survival (see section below).

The phase of organizational socialization encompasses the first year, although it could last for longer. In order to conceptualize this phase, stage models are the method of choice. DeVos, Buyens and Schalk (2003) surveyed factors of newcomer perceptions during the socialization process and divided the latter into an encounter and an acquisition stage (Louis, 1980). The first stage roughly encompasses the first half year after entry. In this period of high role and status uncertainty (Ashforth and Meal, 1989), newcomers assess the difference between their anticipations and work reality. In order to overcome this more or less apparent reality shock, coping strategies like sense-making and adaptation of expectations are recommended (Morrison, 1993). The acquisition stage roughly encompasses the second half year after entry. In this period uncertainty is reduced because of more stable cognitive schemas about the employment relationship. The newcomers become more acquainted with their new job setting; hence sense-making is not as important as in the first stage.

Sense-making is a cognitive process which is employed to cope with novelty. It helps newcomers to understand, interpret and respond to their new environment (Louis, 1980). With respect to sense-making, DeVos et al. (2003) examined how changes in newcomers' perceived promises are associated with their interpretations of experiences encountered after organizational entry. According to their results, employers should 'set the stage' (e.g., provide information about their inducements), especially in the encounter stage, for what newcomers can realistically expect. This is indicated because at that period newcomers are more flexible to adapt their initial expectations. Furthermore, "employers can manage employees' perceptions of their own promises directly by providing them with concrete information and feedback about their own contribution within the work setting" (p. 555).

Wanous (1992) reviewed well-known stage models and integrated them into a model of four stages in socialization. The first three stages represent the socialization process and the last one refers to the transition from newcomer to insider. The stages are titled as follows:

- Stage 1: Confronting and accepting organizational reality.
- Stage 2: Achieving role clarity.
- Stage 3: Locating oneself in the organizational context.
- Stage 4: Detecting signposts of successful socialization.

The above 2-stage and this 4-stage socialization model enable organizations to anticipate which demands newcomers will encounter and what their reactions will probably be. These stage models are formulated in a general way and hold true for a variety of organizations. With the same intention, but with respect to a specific socialization, Bourne (1967) categorized the army basic training into four stages. These represent the first two stages of Wanous' (1992) stage model and reflect the match between the individual's specific job wants and the organizational climates Bourne's four stages are as follows: environmental shock, engagement, period of attainment and period of termination:

- Environmental shock: In this first stage (induction) two main factors are the sources of stress: the recruits' expectations are disconfirmed and the administrative processing is very time consuming, boring and ambiguous. Typical reactions are daze, apathy, over-reaction, and extended orientation towards authority.
- Engagement: In this second stage (basic training), the stress level decreases, because the procedures (e.g., haircut, wearing uniform, less privacy) reflect what was expected – but during the first four weeks, the level of anger and resentment rises, because of outsider feelings and because of lack of appreciation of skills.

TRANSITION

- Period of attainment: In this third stage recruits learn how to handle weapons. They receive positive feedback on acquired skills and this in turn leads to positive reactions of the recruits.
- Period of termination: In this fourth stage almost at the end of the basic training, there is a definite shift to feelings of euphoria and self-confidence (the experience could have been tougher).

3D.3.3 Models of Matching Individuals and Organizations

Two models are presented below, which conceptualize the step from outside to inside by means of interaction of the main factors that are relevant in this phase.

3D.3.3.1 Model by Wanous (1992)

Based on the Minnesota studies of vocational adjustment (Dawis and Lofquist, 1984), Wanous developed a matching model (p. 8), which focuses on organizations especially with respect to the entry process. This model expresses how individuals and organizations get matched to each other. Outcomes of these matches among others are job performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and voluntary turnover.

In this model, on the one hand, the person-job fit (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman and Johnson, 2005) is represented by the match of capabilities/potential abilities between individual and organization. It is assumed that job performance is directly affected by this match. This reflects the traditional viewpoint of the organization with respect to selection and classification. The person-organization fit (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005) on the other hand is represented by the match between specific job wants and the capacity of organizational climates/culture to reinforce those wants. It is assumed, that the impact is directly on job satisfaction and indirectly on organizational commitment, rather than on job performance.

The matching model is quite complex, hence no single study has tried to examine it in its entirety. Nevertheless, evidence is given for assumptions underlying parts of the model as follows:

- Job performance: Ghiselli (cited in Wanous, 1992, p. 14) summarized studies from 1920 – 1966 and concluded that it is easier to predict success in training ($R = 0.39$) than job performance ($R = 0.22$). Hunter and Hunter (1984) reviewed these data. With focus on mental ability tests predicting job performance, they found high validity coefficients ($R = 0.50$). The Army Ability Test Battery predicted on-the-job performance with higher coefficients ($R = 0.65$) by means of multiple regression (McHenry, Hough, Toquam, Hanson and Ashworth, 1990).
- Job performance, job satisfaction and turnover: Firstly, job satisfaction should be lower for those who quit voluntarily in comparison to those who quit involuntarily. Secondly, job performance ratings by supervisors should be higher for those who stay in the organization or who leave voluntarily in comparison with those who leave involuntarily. Thirdly, there should also be moderately strong correlations between job performance and involuntary turnover on the one hand, and job satisfaction and voluntary turnover on the other. All three predictions were confirmed by Wanous, Stumpf and Bedrosian (1979), although involuntary turnover is only of minor importance in this chapter. These results address the person-job fit and the person-organization fit separately, but not their relationship.
- Job performance and turnover: According to the matching model, McEvoy and Cascio (cited in Wanous, 1992, p. 14) found in a comprehensive review, that high performance is linked to staying in the organization, and poor performance is linked to having to leave. Besides this reasonable result,

sometimes high performance was also linked to high voluntary turnover; high performers leave because they can leave (Jackofsky, 1984).

- Commitment and turnover: In study reviews, the correlation between the rate of turnover and organizational commitment varied from $r = -0.20$ (Randall, 1990) up to $r = -0.28$ (Mathieu and Zajac, cited in Wanous, 1992, p. 13).
- Job satisfaction: Based on 440 Navy recruits, Farkas and Tetrick (1989) found that job satisfaction is a direct result of a newcomer's matching between his/her specific desires and the fulfillment of those by the organization's various climates.

3D.3.3.2 Model by Kammeyer-Mueller and Wanberg (2003)

In a longitudinal study of newcomers in seven organizations, Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2003) examined a set of predictors as antecedents of proximal and distal indicators of newcomer adjustment.

In distinction to the above mentioned matching model of Wanous (1992), Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2003) tested their structural model almost in its entirety by means of LISREL (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 2001), which estimated the standard path coefficients for the latent variables. The path coefficients confirmed most of the hypotheses, although some of them are lower than expected (see sub-section *Antecedents of Newcomer Adjustment* below).

Kammeyer-Mueller et al.'s (2003) model is based on a set of variables, which are described as follows (except for turnover, all data are self-reports):

- *Distal Adjustment Outcomes*: These should reflect important attitudinal (commitment) and behavioral (work withdrawal, turnover) reactions to the workplace. These are assumed to be influenced by proximal learning and social integration on the part of the employee. The following outcomes fall into already well-established categories.
 - *Organizational Commitment*: It consists of a belief in the organization's goals and values and the willingness to exert effort on behalf of the organization.
 - *Work withdrawal*: Is a combination of behaviors that reflect an attempt to psychologically disengage from work tasks (e.g., failing to attend meetings, avoiding work, etc.) and it also reflects poor task performance. Taken together, work withdrawal behaviors are ways to avoid one's job task while remaining within the organization. These behaviors are actually worse for the organization than if the person were to turn over.
 - *Turnover (part of work withdrawal)*: Is the complete withdrawal from a work setting. Turnover as an indicator of newcomer adjustment is often examined with respect to realistic job preview (see also topic chapter *Realistic Information or Not? Short-term Consequences of (Mis)information* in this report) and sometimes with respect to socialization.
- *Proximal Adjustment Outcomes*: Based on a literature review, Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2003) distilled the following four primary salient proximal outcomes and tested their relations to the above mentioned distal adjustment outcomes.
 - *Task Mastery*: Acquiring the necessary knowledge and skills to complete expected task behaviors is a major issue for newcomers. Meta-analytic evidence is given for a negative relationship between task performance and withdrawal behaviors (Bycio, 1992). Hence Kammeyer-Mueller et al. incorporated this in their model and found the expected negative correlation between task mastery and work withdrawal.

- *Role clarity*: Newcomers have to learn about their job's purpose and relationship to other jobs. Role clarity reflects having sufficient information about the responsibilities and objectives of one's job and having knowledge of behaviors to achieve these goals. Role clarity has been positively related to organizational commitment in studies of newcomer adjustment (Bauer and Green, 1998). Hence Kammeyer-Mueller et al. incorporated the latter relationship in their model and assumed additionally a negative correlation between role clarity and work withdrawal. With respect to the path coefficients, this hypothesis was supported.
- *Work group integration*: Developing a social sense of the new work environment is a critical antecedent of adjustment. Perceived approval from co-workers and inclusion in their activities can be a source of assistance and social support. The latter one was found to be related to organizational commitment (Fisher, 1985) and hence was incorporated into the model. This hypothesis was supported.
- *Political Knowledge*: Refers to the informal network of power and interpersonal relationships in an organization. For the model it is assumed that newcomer political knowledge is positively related to organization commitment. This hypothesis was not supported.
- *Antecedents of Newcomer Adjustment*: Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2003) incorporated the below listed antecedent variables into their model and tested their relations to the above mentioned proximal and partially to the distal adjustment outcomes.
 - *Pre-entry Knowledge*: This affects the newcomer's ability to select jobs that match their skills and abilities and facilitates the acquisition of information regarding the new environment. Hence it is assumed that pre-entry knowledge will be positively related to task mastery, role clarity, work group integration and political knowledge. This hypothesis was supported.
 - *Proactive Personality*: The newcomers' disposition toward proactive behavior increases their acquisition of knowledge of the work environment and their willingness to modify their work role to match their preferences. Hence it is assumed that proactive personality will be positively related to task mastery, role clarity, work group integration, and political knowledge. This hypothesis was supported, except for the relation of proactive personality and clarity.
 - *Influence of Socializing Agents*: Newcomers will encounter multiple messages coming from the organization, supervisors, mentors and co-workers.
 - a) *Organization Influence*: Institutionalized strategies involving significant formal organizational efforts have been associated with higher role clarity (Ashforth and Saks, 1996). Hence it is assumed that organizational socialization influence will be positively related to role clarity. This hypothesis was supported.
 - b) *Leader Influence*: A strong relationship has been found between leader clarification of job and task information and role adjustment and performance efficacy for newcomers (Bauer and Green, 1998). Supervisors or mentors have been found to be important in explaining how informal political processes work (Ostroff and Kozlowski, 1992). Hence it is assumed that leader socialization influence will be positively associated with task mastery, role clarity, and political knowledge. This hypothesis was only partially supported. The hypothesized relationship with political knowledge was confirmed, but not with task mastery and role clarity.
 - c) *Co-Worker Influence*: Research has shown that those who see co-workers as more helpful in the socialization process are more satisfied, more committed, and report greater intentions to remain (Louis, Posner and Powell, 1983). Also co-workers are significant sources of information with respect to knowledge about the workgroup (Ostroff and Kozlowski, 1992).

Hence it is assumed that co-worker socialization influence will be positively associated with task mastery, role clarity, work group integration, and political knowledge. This hypothesis was mostly rejected, only the relation to group integration was found.

- *Perceived Alternatives:* It is assumed that commitment is reduced among those with good alternatives (Moreland and Levine, 1988), but also those who believe they have poor alternatives may be reluctant to engage in work withdrawal behaviors because of the possibility of involuntary job loss. Hence it is assumed that perceived alternatives will be negatively related to commitment and positively related to work withdrawal. This hypothesis was only supported for the relation with organizational commitment, but not for the relation with work withdrawal.

Taking these hypotheses together, the above mentioned results can be summarized as follows:

- The first subset of hypotheses reflects the relationship between proximal and distal adjustment outcomes. All hypotheses were supported except for the relation of political knowledge with organizational commitment.
- The second subset of hypotheses reflects the relationship between antecedents of adjustment and proximal (9 – 12) adjustment outcomes. In this subset almost 66% of the hypotheses were supported. In particular the socialization influence variables were not related to the proximal adjustment outcomes as expected.
- When proximal outcomes were included in the model, organizational commitment is affected by pre-entry knowledge and proactive personality and work withdrawal is affected by organizational influence.
- Turnover has also been assessed as a distal outcome and it was intended to use proximal outcomes as predictors. Because of loss of data due to already occurred turnover, the antecedent variables of adjustment have been taken instead. Out of them only pre-entry knowledge and leader influence were both related negatively to turnover.

3D.3.4 Conscription versus All-Volunteer Forces

In distinction to the previous sections, the focus here is on effects of significant organizational change, which is exemplified by the transition from compulsory service to all-volunteer forces.

A significant number of NATO member countries ended/suspended conscription and transitioned to all-volunteer forces (Belgium, France, Italy, The Netherlands, Portugal, Slovenia, Spain, United Kingdom, United States, and others plan to phase it out), while other member countries keep or plan to keep conscription.

3D.3.4.1 General Aspects

The momentum of the continual debate for and against conscription increased due to the obvious policy change of about half of the 26 NATO member countries. In order to justify their decision, proponents of both parties take into account either different arguments or interpret overlapping arguments differently. In Williams' (2004) transatlantic roundtable report about *Filling NATO's Ranks: Military Personnel Policies in Transition*, the arguments of the discussion are summarized as follows (see also Klein, 1998).

According to Table 3D-1, the arguments of proponents of conscription refer to recruiting aspects, territorial defence and costs. With respect to democracy they emphasize duty and integration of the military into society. The proponents of all-volunteer forces on the other hand emphasize long term return of investment, legal aspects, expeditionary forces, military capability and efficiency.

Table 3D-1: Arguments Pro Conscription vs. Pro All-Volunteer Forces

| Pro Conscription | Pro All-Volunteer Forces |
|--|--|
| Recruitment | |
| Conscripts represent a critical pool of potential recruits; once in the military, young people develop a taste for military service and continue as volunteers. | Rising levels of draft resistance and refusal to serve reduce the size and quality of the pool of potential conscripts. |
| Military Strategy | |
| Conscript militaries are more in keeping with a recurring requirement for territorial defence. | Voluntary forces are more compatible with expeditionary missions. This is especially true in countries whose laws prohibit the military from sending conscripts abroad. |
| | Voluntary forces are better suited to high-technology military operations, because individuals can be selected for their cognitive skills, trained for a longer period of time, and grow in capability with longer experience. |
| Costs | |
| Troop for troop, conscript militaries cost less than all-volunteer militaries; as a result, for the same amount of money, they can be larger than volunteer forces, and therefore generate more robust reserve forces. | After a transition period, voluntary forces are more cost-effective from the point of view of the military budget, because volunteers stay in service longer (reducing the military's requirements for training new troops) and cause fewer discipline problems. In addition, high-technology equipment allows greater substitution of capital for labor, thus allowing for a reduction in force size and military infrastructure without a loss in capability. Savings that result from reduced force size and infrastructure can be reinvested in military equipment, thus adding more to capability. |
| Social and Legal Aspects | |
| Compulsory service is a duty of citizenship in a democracy. Being part of a state brings collective goods, and the individuals who share in those goods should share in the duties as well. | Military downsizing reduces the portion of the eligible youth population required to serve. As compulsory service becomes substantially less than universal, concerns about the equity of conscription grow. |
| Conscription distributes the burden of military service across society. In contrast, volunteers are too often drawn from the lower echelons of society, because the economic and job prospects the military offers are attractive to them. | |
| A volunteer military will attract too many individuals with an excess of military fervor or, in the worst case, ideologues with fascist tendencies. | |
| Public support for the military will wane as the armed forces become less representative of society at large. | |

Source: C. Williams, 2004, *Filling NATO's Ranks: Military Personnel Policies in Transition. Report of Transatlantic Roundtable*, 8-9 September 2003 Transatlantic Center of the German Marshall Fund of the United States Brussels, Belgium: p. 6 (re-arranged by author of this chapter).

Besides this debate, nations who are in transition to all-volunteer forces share the following challenges (Williams, 2004, p. 16):

- The level of military pay necessary to make the military competitive as an employer is higher than anticipated before the transition.
- Attracting high-quality recruits is more difficult than anticipated; the private sector puts up particularly stiff competition for information specialists and people with other technical skills.
- Poor working conditions and inadequate facilities scare recruits away; but improving them costs more money than anticipated.
- The costs to train longer-serving volunteers (thus capitalizing on a key advantage of volunteers) are higher than expected.
- Unanticipated costs, tight budgets, and budget cuts eat into the resources that are necessary to implement the reforms surrounding the transition (pay rises, enlistment and re-enlistment bonuses, advertising, closing bases made redundant by the lack of conscripts).
- Some uniformed leaders are not motivated to make the transition a success. The situation can be exacerbated when tight budgets and unanticipated costs prevent the improvements in equipment, infrastructure, and training that were touted as benefits to be gained from the shift to all-volunteer forces.

This list reflects obstacles to be taken into account during the transition process toward all-volunteer forces. The costs of the transition process have to be monitored carefully. Additionally, it can be expected that it will be comparatively harder to achieve recruitment goals. Hence it would be very helpful to simulate the transition in order to estimate its consequences. Accordingly, the Italian Armed Forces used a simulation program (Zanini, 2002) during their transition process in order to avoid these pitfalls. Zanini's dissertation provides an analytic framework for understanding the key policy issues and tradeoffs. By taking costs into account, it identifies transition paths that most likely lead to a balanced force. It also provides guidance on force management processes such as recruitment and identifies areas of improvement.

Every member of the Alliance retains its full sovereignty and hence defines its trade-offs among forms of military capability, social and institutional demands and preferences by itself. Being part of the Alliance, the Alliance's strategic concept also has to be considered. The Alliance is facing a new quality of threats and hence is reorienting its defence capabilities. As one part of the coping strategy, NATO's civilian leaders have expressed a preference for all-voluntary forces for all NATO countries and designated new members have been counseled in this direction (Williams, 2004). The justifying arguments for this preference are presented in the right-hand column of Table 3D-1. Taking into account the Alliance's strategic concept with respect to a national perspective, some experts emphasize arguments pro conscription, which are presented in the left-hand column of Table 3D-1.

The national (local) and NATO's (global) strategies do not necessarily contradict each other because of their overlap – but with regard to overall efficacy of the global strategy, there is room for improvement. This could be established by a mixed model, which incorporates the crucial advantages of conscription and all-volunteer forces. Accordingly Klein (1998) mentions a dual system, which consists of professional forces on the one hand and a militia for home defence on the other. By retaining the concept of conscription and its system of registration, it would be possible to reserve the option of calling up conscripts again in case of a national threat.

The next section exemplifies the transition experiences of the Royal Netherlands Army. It reflects the positive outcome of this project as well as the above mentioned challenges.

3D.3.4.2 Transition Experiences of the Royal Netherlands Army (RNLA) and Conclusions

In order to establish all-volunteer forces, in the RNLA conscription has been suspended since September 1996, but not abolished. This enables The Netherlands parliament to reintroduce conscription in case of emergency.

Van Gelooven (1996, p. 6) states “All in all, it has become clear that the new volunteers will be different from the conscript personnel of the past, not only different but also more homogeneous”. After a decade of transition, Major van Aarle (2001, p. 6) summarized that: “...transition led to problems...”, but: “... we have succeeded in creating armed forces that are well suited to their tasks...” In order to overcome the obstacles within the process of transition, various adjustments within the organization are necessary.

After suspension of conscription, the unlimited supply of personnel has to be replaced by recruitment of new personnel and efforts have to be undertaken to be attractive to this target group. With respect to van Gelooven (1996), research results were taken into account indicating that attraction is driven by these aspects: job content (variation, helping people), adventure, money and autonomy, but not by discipline and by being a soldier. The armed forces also should increase their value on the labor market through education or mediation. Successful recruitment and retention within the process of transition means that the armed forces should provide these opportunities (van Gelooven). This probably cannot be carried out immediately and hence drops in the manning levels of the armed forces are to be expected as in the RNLA, where the manning level has dropped to below 88% since 1997 (Moelker, Olsthoorn, Bos-Bakx and Soeters, 2005).

According to Moelker et al. (2005) the attractiveness of a job within the forces and the chance of successful recruitment are influenced by the following factors:

- Basic conditions of employment (length of contract, level of remuneration, fringe benefits, etc.);
- Unemployment rate;
- Demographic developments in the recruitment group; and
- Image of the organization as a whole.

Moelker et al. (2005) suggest the following measures to overcome the recruitment problem:

- Short contracts;
- Increased employment of women, minorities, recruits under eighteen and also, although controversial, foreigners;
- Reducing the number of recruits leaving during the time between selection and employment;
- Measures with respect to retaining personnel;
- Extended pre-recruitment measures;
- Extended military education and training;
- Lowered selection levels;
- Labor market monitoring system; and
- Marketing (armed forces portray themselves as an employer with interesting jobs, variety, challenge, possibility to take a degree, etc.).

According to Moelker et al. (2005), the educational level of volunteers has always been of concern and in fact it dropped after suspension, but not as much as expected. As a consequence, this led to more coaching-related extended training and leadership and more intensive guidance (van Aarle, 2001). Hence it is necessary to learn how to deal with the new soldiers and to avoid comparing them with the conscripts of the past. Furthermore, it is necessary to know about their way of thinking, their expectations and their informal culture (van Gelooven, 1996).

3D.3.5 Practical Implications

This section provides recommendations for improving R&R in the armed forces, separated for the different models presented above and a closing sub-section about transition from conscription to all-volunteer forces.

3D.3.5.1 Implications with Respect to the Model of Hausknecht et al. (2004)

With respect to selection, applicant reactions are related to organizational outcomes and hence shall be considered regarding the composition of the selection tools. Accordingly, the corresponding conclusions and practical implications are summarized by means of the Hausknecht et al.'s (2004) theoretical model of applicant reactions to selection as follows:

- It is favorable to implement selection tools/processes which are perceived as procedurally fair and job related, because if so, applicants:
 - View the organization favorably (more positive image perceptions of company);
 - Report stronger intentions to accept job offers; and
 - Recommend the employer to others.
- Applicants who hold favorable perceptions (e.g., procedural/distributive justice, attitudes towards test/selection, etc.):
 - Tend to perform well on selection tools (actual and perceived); and
 - Hold themselves in higher self-regard.
- Face validity (selection tool seems to be job relevant) and perceived predictive validity (correlation between predictor and criterion) of the selection procedure were strong predictors of many applicant perceptions (e.g., procedural and distributive justice, attitudes towards tests/selection).
- Applicants perceive selection tools more favorably, when the relationship between the content of the tool and the job duties is transparent (face validity). The corresponding descending order is as follows:
 - Interviews, work samples, resumes and references;
 - Cognitive ability tests;
 - Personality inventories and bio-data; and
 - Honesty tests and graphology.

3D.3.5.2 Implications with Respect to the Models of Wanous (1992) and Kammeyer-Mueller et al. (2003)

The conclusions and practical implications concerning the models of Wanous and Kammeyer-Mueller et al. are as follows:

- The study of the entry process of newcomers is crucial with respect to the costs of voluntary turnover. In this regard, Wanous' matching model describes a dual matching process between the individual and the organization. The first match refers to the individual's capabilities/potential and the requirements of a particular job. The direct consequence of this match is on job performance, and, indirectly, on involuntary turnover. The second match refers to the individual's specific job wants and the capacity of the organizational climates to fulfill them. The direct consequence of this match is on job satisfaction, and, indirectly on commitment and voluntary turnover.
 - These above-mentioned matches between the individual and the organization have to be optimized in order to foster more effective self-selection job choices. In this respect interviews, questionnaire surveys, audio-visual techniques, booklets, oral presentations and realistic work-samples are recommended.
 - Administering personality surveys early during the selection process may be useful either to select applicants with higher pro-activity or to identify those with low pro-activity who may need more assistance.
 - Newcomer entry refers to the immediate post-entry period (first week). Stress is an issue especially for newcomers; hence the objectives of newcomer entry programs should address stress coping strategies (e.g., ROPES).
 - Socialization in summary can be divided into the following stages: (a) confronting and accepting organizational reality, (b) achieving role clarity, (c) locating oneself in the organizational context, and (d) detecting signposts of successful socialization.
 - The rate at which newcomers proceed through the various stages of socialization is determined by the amount of interaction between newcomers and insiders. With this respect it has to be taken into account that initial favorable attitudes toward the organizations decrease the longer newcomers remain in them.
 - Supervisors and co-workers are transmitters of important socialization information and should be well trained for this role (e.g., peer and supervisory mentoring programs).
 - Recruits have inflated expectations for the most important job factors. According to DeVos et al. (2003) employers should 'set the stage' (e.g., provide information about their inducements) especially in the first half year after entry (encounter stage) for what newcomers can realistically expect, because at that time they are more flexible in adapting their initial expectations. Furthermore, "employers can manage employees' perceptions of their own promises directly by providing them with concrete information and feedback about their own contribution within the work setting" (p. 555).
 - With respect to the distal adjustment outcomes (Kammeyer-Mueller et al.) organizations may take the following into account:
 - a) Cooperation and coordination within work groups will induce a greater desire to fit with the organization which seems also to be true for individuals who have a clear sense of their job responsibilities.
 - b) It can be assumed, that those who are better able to complete their work tasks may gain a greater sense of accomplishment from work and in turn will have less interest in avoiding work.

3D.3.5.3 Implications with Respect to Conscription versus All-Volunteer Forces

With respect to the national level, a dual system that combines professional forces and a militia for home defence seems to be a promising compromise (Klein, 1998).

It is useful to predict the consequences of transition by means of simulation programs like the one from Zanini (2002).

With respect to the organizational level, Moelker et al. (2005, p. 46) concluded for the RNLA: "...the decision to form an all-volunteer Army has to be seen in the context of a changed security situation and the new tasks of the armed forces and the discussion, that preceded that decision." They summarized the following crucial success factors with respect to the transition process (p. 46):

- Forces reduction is crucial for the transition to all-volunteer forces. In The Netherlands, costs are kept within limits by reducing personnel.
- Manning the armed forces depends on their position on the labor market. Hence the armed forces need to learn to work together, to interact with other players on the labor market and to adapt to its dynamics. Finally, the entire organization needs to adapt.
- The image of the armed forces is crucial beyond advertising in itself. For a strong position on the labor market it is necessary to monitor its supply and demand, its ideas and the behavior of the target group. This implies physical presence on the market and a national network in order to communicate with other parties on the labor market.
- The organization of recruitment and selection needs to be adapted to the new conditions.
- The length of contracts must be flexible in order to meet the needs of potential employees and the organization itself.
- Offering education is crucial for social/political acceptance and for reinforcement of recruitment as well as extended training.

3D.4 CONCLUSIONS

The main goal of the task group on recruiting and retention is to foster a true understanding of the mechanisms that influence military R&R outcomes. With respect to this, an explanation is needed as to why people join/do not join the military and why they decide to stay in or leave.

With respect to the distinct aspects in the R&R process, recruitment; selection and classification; retention and turnover – papers for 10 specific topics in this area were written and contributed to the development of the two generic military models, one for recruiting and the other for turnover (retention).

One out of these 10 topics is transition. In this chapter, emphasis was placed on the process of organizational entry together with organizational orientation and socialization, based on models which describe, analyze, and predict R&R outcomes in a comprehensive way.

Changes affecting the organization are another issue of transition. With respect to this, the pros and cons of conscription versus all-volunteer forces were discussed (Moelker et al. 2005; Williams, 2004) and translated into practical implications.

