

**(Race/Ethnicity + Gender) Perceptions of Social Equality: A Preliminary Analysis of the
US Active Duty Force**



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Abstract

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The U.S. Military is a microcosm of the broader society; it reflects America's pattern of social inequality. Race in America has traditionally been defined in binary terms: black and white. Prior to the advent of the All-Volunteer Force (AVF), race/ethnic relations in the U.S. military was a mirror image of that which existed in the civilian sector. African Americans in racially segregated units and Hispanics were assigned to units in accordance with their skin color. Race relations had become paradigmatic in the U.S. military when the Department of Defense (DoD) took a zero tolerance stance toward racism and enforced compliance to the law through the Uniform Code of Military Justice (UCMJ). For decades, the American military had been at the forefront in implementing racial/ethnic equality.

As we enter the third decade of the Twenty-First Century, race has reemerged as a dominant theme in the United States. The year 2020 has been filled with demonstrations and protest against racial inequality. The state of race/ethnic relations has come under scrutiny both in the civilian sector as well as in the military. The current study is a working paper of perceptions of active-duty Service members of social inequality in the military. It represents the first draft of a work in progress. Multiple regression analyses were used to test demographic effects on Service members' perceptions of social inequality. Social inequality has been operationalized by the following seven variables: i) feelings of exclusion because the respondent is different; ii) perceptions that awards, recognition, and training are fairly distributed; iii)

feelings that decisions are made fairly; iv) trust that the immediate supervisor is fair; v) feelings that discipline is administered fairly; vi) perception of discrimination occurring in one's unit; and vii) observations of racial slurs and jokes being used in the workplace. Data for the preliminary analysis was drawn from the 2017-2020 Defense Equal Opportunity Climate Surveys (DEOCS). Among the findings, race was most significant in explaining variance in two of the dependent variables in the study. Gender and race combined were most significant in explaining unfavorable responses in the other five dependent variables. That is to say, responses were more unfavorable for African American, Hispanic, and White women in those variables than they were for men and women in the same race/ethnic category. Although the interaction between race and gender was not measured in this study, findings suggest that unfavorable perceptions may be more prevalent in women of color in some of the models than in White women.

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A Working Paper

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Introduction

Historical Background

Military service has historically been an obligation of citizens, and the status of citizenship was reserved for white males. Racial/Ethnic minorities and women were excluded from military service unless there was a conflict. During wars, women and racial minorities were recruited; after the conflict, their service was rejected. Seldom did they receive the benefits of citizenship when the war ended.

Nonwhite males participated in all of American wars in an effort to attain rights associated with citizenship. There are historical accounts of Asian participating in American war efforts as early as the Seventeenth Century. Filipinos helped to defend New Orleans against the British during the War of 1812. Chinese foreign nationals fought on both sides during the Civil War. Asians Americans helped served during both World Wars. The Japanese American 442nd Infantry Battalion sustained large number of casualties during WWII (Moore, 2003).

Similarly, Mexican Americans, Puerto Ricans, and Cuban Americans, among others, answered the call for military service in every American war. Some 53,000 Puerto Ricans and 350,000 Mexican Americans served during World War II (De Angelis, 2017). There has been an increase in accession rates of Hispanics in the military since 1977. The Naval and Marine Corps have experienced that largest increase in Hispanics; however, the increase has been occurring

across Service branches (De Angelis, 2017). Hispanics are the fastest growing population in the military, making up about 16% of all active-duty military, according to the Department of Defense. However, Latinos make up only 8% of the officer corps and 2% of general/flag officers (CRS, 2019).

Native Americans also participated in all of America's Wars. A reported 20,000 Native Americans fought in the Civil War; some on the side of the Union and others with the Confederacy (Meadows, 2017). Native Americans fought in the Spanish American War, the Filipino Revolution (1898-1902), the Boxer Rebellion in China (1900), and some served under the command of Brigadier General Pershing during the 1916 expedition against Pancho Villa in Mexico (Britten, 1997). Native Americans served as regular combat troops in World War I; some 17,000 registered for the Selective Service and more than 1,200 served in the war (Britten, 1997; Krouse 2007). When Japan bombed Pearl Harbor, approximately 4,000 Native American men were already serving in the military and another 44,000 entered the military during the war (Meadow, 2017). The Marine Corps recruited and trained members of the Navajo tribe to serve as code talkers: the largest code-talking program during WWII. Native Americans served in the Korean War, Vietnam, Desert Storm, Iraq, and Afghanistan.

Black soldiers fought on the side of the colonists during the American Revolution (Moskos, 1973). After George Washington succumbed to political pressure and prohibited additional Blacks to serve with the colonists, some twenty thousand Blacks (mostly slaves) served with the British in the hopes of being freed (Segal, 1989). Blacks served in the naval war against France (1798-1800), and thousands served in the War of 1812 (Stillman, 1968). After the Emancipation Proclamation, more than 185,000 Blacks were recruited by the Bureau of Colored Troops. Following the Civil War, six black units were formed by the U.S. Army: 9th

and 10th Cavalries, and the 38th, 39th, 40th, and 41st Infantries (later reduced to the 24th and 25th Regiments). During the Reconstruction Era, the U.S. Military Academy is reported to have opened its doors to a few token Blacks (Ambrose, 1966). Blacks fought in the Indian Wars, the Spanish American Wars, the two World Wars, the Korean Conflict, and Vietnam War, as well as the Wars in the Gulf. Simply put, African Americans participated in all of America's wars. Unlike other racial minorities, African Americans were racially segregated.

Desegregation in the Forties, Racial Turbulence in the Sixties

Change in the military racial segregation policy (Executive Order 9981 signed by President Truman in 1948) predated corresponding legislation in the civilian sector (namely, the Supreme Court's ruling in the 1954 Brown vs. the Board of Education case, ending school segregation). Still, desegregating the armed services did not insure racial equality. Black and White Service members were racially polarized in the 1960s. During the Vietnam Era, institutional and personal racism negatively affected the chances of black military personnel for good job assignments and promotion. Black soldiers were being thrown out of the military with dishonorable discharges, so called "bad papers." Racial conflict in the military mirrored those occurring in civilian society. Urban riots were taking place in the cities of Watts, Chicago, and Harlem as well as in the stockades of DaNang, Long Binh, and Goose Bay (Terry, 1984). Black Service members were also becoming more race conscious during that period in history. While African American civilians were singing "Say it Loud, I'm Black and I'm Proud," African American soldiers were being Court Martialed for doing the "dap" (Black handshake) or raising their fists in Black solidarity. Attitude surveys showed Black and White soldiers having conflicting views on the racial climate in the armed services (Nordlie, 1973). Studies confirmed

that Black enlisted men had slower promotion rates than their White counterparts; even when educational and mental group level were controlled for (Butler, 1992).

By the mid-Sixties, the U.S. federal government passed and began implementing Civil Rights Legislation in civilian society. There was the Civil Rights Acts of 1964 (providing for the integration of schools and other public facilities, and making employment discrimination illegal) and 1965 (outlawing discriminatory voting practices that had been adopted in many southern states after the Civil War, thereby enforcing African Americans' right to vote). In 1969, a human relations team headed by Deputy Assistant Secretary of Defense for Equal Opportunity Frank Render II, who was the highest ranking African American at the pentagon at the time, exposed the problem of racism in the military and was forced out of his position. The following year, an undeniable race problem was addressed by the Department of Defense (DoD). Secretary of Defense, Melvin Laird, established the Domestic Action Council in 1970 and charged it with developing major race relations programs. This led to the establishment of the Defense Race Relations Institute (DRRI), the predecessor to the Defense Equal Opportunity Management Institute (DEOMI).

The U.S. Military: A Paradigm for Racial Integration

Arguably, the military provided better opportunities for racial minorities by leveling the playing field through basic training. Taking a zero tolerance stand toward racial/ethnic discrimination and providing equal opportunity training. Since the advent of the All-Volunteer Force, the U.S. Military has been at the forefront in obliterating racial segregation and eliminating institutional forms of racism. In 1996, sociologists Charles Moskos and John Butler argued persuasively that the U.S. Army was unmatched in achieving racial integration. In their

words, “It is the only place in American life where whites are routinely bossed around by blacks (Moskos & Butler, 1996).” When the military draft ended in the early 1970s, African Americans made up 17% of the armed services. By the late 1970’s, the percentage of African Americans in the military had doubled. The percentage of White enlisted middle class men dwindled due to military competition with the labor force. The military started drawing from some of the poorest and toughest parts of the nation. Black Senior NCO’s in the start of the 70’s went from 14% to 26% by the end of the decade and on to 31% by the 1990’s. More black leaders emerged.

The United States armed services had traveled leaps and bounds in improving race relations over the years and, relative to other major institutions in the country, it had been in the vanguard of racial progress. What made the military exemplary in the 1980s and 1990s was not its policy of racial equality, which was found in every institution in the United States, but its ability and willingness to enforce this policy. Because of its formal, bureaucratic structure, the military was governed less by the subjective views of its leaders and more by institutional policies of zero tolerance, which was also reflected in the attitudes and laws of the civilian society at the time. Hence, it was not until racial equality was sanctioned by the state that we began to observe African Americans in leadership positions within the Armed Forces. And now, with a transition toward a society which values more the participation of women, we are observing more military women in leadership roles. And not until the state values full participation of professed homosexuals will we begin to see professed lesbians and gays holding leadership positions in the armed services. The genesis of change is external to the military, which merely upholds institutional policies.

Although the Services had done well in obliterating overt acts of racism in the Twentieth Century, there are new racial issues challenging the military in the Twenty-First century.

In their edited volume titled: *America Becoming*, Neil Smelser, William J. Wilson, and Faith Mitchell asserted that racial inequality is attributable to three kinds of causal mechanisms: (i) individual attributes and choices (i.e. “[d]ifferences in individual skills, motivation, attitudes, and self-selecting out—not taking advantage of opportunities—can stratify racial groups in society”); (ii) forces that operate directly to advantage or disadvantage racial/ethnic groups, including such things as discrimination in hiring and promotion, as well as other institutional practices that exclude people based on race/ethnicity; and (iii) indirect structural and cultural factors, those mediated by a group’s position in a stratified society. In their words:

Indirect cultural factors that affect racial group outcomes are in the domain of social interaction and collective experiences within a community—shared outlooks, shared modes of behaviour, traditions, belief systems, world views, values, skills, preferences, styles, and linguistic patterns. Several factors determine the extent to which communities differ in outlook and behaviour. These factors include the degree to which the community is socially isolated from the broader society; the material assets or resources controlled by members of the community; the benefits and privileges they derive from these resources; their accumulated cultural experiences from current as well as historical, political, and economic arrangements; and the influence members of the community wield because of these arrangements (Smelser, Wilson, and Mitchell, 2001:11).

Indirect structural factors are those beyond the control of the individual. An example would be the rise of new technology which require workers to have new skills. The social disadvantages

resulting from technological change are often without deliberate aims or intentions. Changes in the economy that require different types of labor skills, which, in turn, produce different social classes, fall into the category of structural factors. Class systems exist in societies where major social and economic rewards are determined by position in the economic system of production, distribution, and consumption. Class is usually defined by one's occupation; social class often sets limits on financial rewards, social status, stability of employment, chances for social mobility, authority and power, and the way people think about themselves and others.

As we advance more into the Twenty-First Century, the U.S. military has become more of an occupation than a civic duty. Effective managers prevail on workers to do just what they are supposed to do; nothing more. Service members are more extrinsically motivated; acting out of a desire for monetary pay. Decision making is reduced to a cost-benefit analysis and is external to the military (Moskos, 1977; 1993; Moskos and Wood, 1988). There is less emphasis placed on honor. The compliance structure is less coercive than it was during the early years of the AVF. Decision making is less in the hands of military professionals and no longer internal to the military. Consequently, the commitment the U.S. military initially gave to racial integration during the Zero-Tolerance Era has now waned.

Recent Studies and Current Events

Recent Reports of Racial Incidences in the US Military

Reports of racial disparities in how Service members are treated in the military justice system have recently been published in the *Washington Post* (Lamothe 2020). Military lawyers acknowledge data showing that Black Service members have faced investigations, courts-martial, and other forms of discipline more frequently than White Service members. The

hearing, titled “Racial Disparity in the Military Justice System — How to Fix the Culture,” was held after the nonpartisan Government Accountability Office and the nonprofit Protect Our Defenders released reports showing that Black Service members are punished more frequently than White Service members, and as protests against police brutality and racism following the police killing of George Floyd continued across the country. The officers spoke about the issue at a hearing of the House Armed Services Committee’s military personnel subcommittee after the release of reports detailing racial disparities in military justice. Rep. Jackie Speier (D-Calif.), the panel’s chairwoman, said senior defense officials must acknowledge biases in the system and look for solutions.

Another article, published in the *New York Times*, shows racial disparities in rank level. The article illustrates that the top commanders in the U.S. military are racially homogenous (white and male). Some 43 percent of the 1.3 million men and women on active duty are people of color; yet, the people making crucial decisions, such as how to respond to the coronavirus crisis and how many troops to send to Afghanistan or Syria, are almost entirely White and male (Cooper, 2020). Black and Hispanic Service members are less likely to become officers and, as a result, are, therefore, more likely to be seriously injured serving their country than their white colleagues (Cooper, 2020).

Results of a poll conducted by the *Military Times* in partnership with Syracuse University’s Institute for Veterans and Military Families conducted online between 23 October through 2 December 2019, revealed that more than one-third of all active-duty troops and more than half of minority Service members say they have personally witnessed examples of White nationalism or ideological-driven racism within the ranks in recent months. The poll surveyed 1,630 active-duty *Military Times* subscribers on their views about political leaders, global

threats, and domestic policy priorities. The survey found that 36% of troops who responded that they had seen evidence of white supremacist and racist ideologies in the military, which was a significant increase from the previous year when only 22% reported the same in a 2018 poll. Further, enlisted members were more likely than officers to witness the extremist views (37% to 27%). Minorities were significantly more likely to report cases of racist behavior than Whites (53% to 30%) (Shane, 2020).

A recent GAO report found that Black and Hispanic Service members are more likely than Whites to be tried in a court-martial proceeding. Race, however, was not a statistically significant factor for a conviction. It was further noted in the report that military Services do not record information on race and ethnicity the same way, making it difficult to identify disparities (GAO, 2020).

Hypothesis

Hypothesis 1: Non-White Service members perceive social inequality at a significantly greater rate than White Service members.

Hypothesis 2: White, Black and Hispanic Service women's perception of social inequality is the same as that of White, Black, and Hispanic men, respectively.

Data and Methods

Data

The data analyzed in this paper is drawn from the Defense Equal Opportunity Climate Surveys (DEOCS) 2017-2020. This instrument is designed to measure military equal opportunity climate factors as well as organizational effectiveness and civilian equal opportunity

issues. The strength of the questionnaire is its use as an assessment tool in examining shared perceptions of respondents regarding organizational policies and practices. Such a tool is beneficial to commanders.

The original dataset includes both military and civilian employees. For this study, active-duty military respondents were selected and civilian personnel were deleted from the file. The sample was stratified by rank level (enlisted and officers). Analyses were conducted on each file separately. As indicated in Table 1, Black women make up 3.6 percent of the enlisted members, Black men comprise 9.4 percent, Hispanic men are 17.3 percent, Hispanic women are 4.3 percent, White men comprise 56.2 percent and White women are 9.1 percent of the enlisted members. For a complete distribution of all of the demographic variables used in the enlisted models, see Table 1 in Appendix C. Table 2 shows the demographic distribution officer respondents. Black women make up 2.2 percent of the officers, Black men are 4.3 percent. Hispanic women make up 2.3 percent of the officers, and Hispanic men are 7.2 percent. White women comprise 15.2 percent of the officers, and White men are 68.9 percent (See Table 2 in Appendix C).

Variable Selection

The dependent variables were selected on one of the following four criteria: 1) Inclusion at work, which involves the ways in which organizations, groups, leaders, and military members/employees allow everyone (diverse in identities, cultures, and ways of thinking and acting) to participate, contribute, have a voice, and feel that they are connected and belong, all without losing individual uniqueness or having to give up valuable identities or aspects of themselves; 2) Trust in Leadership, which is the expectation that a leader will act in your

organization's best interest, that he or she will follow through with actions which affect the outcomes of others, and that he or she will act in a fair and equitable manner; 3) Organizational Processes, which is the perception that policies and procedures are informed, fair, and that leaders seek to achieve goals that are in military members'/employees' best interest (these reflect holistic organizational dynamics conducive to mission accomplishment); and 4) Discrimination, which is the perception that military members/employees of the organization are denied equal opportunity or are a victim of an unfair employment practice by virtue of their race, color, national origin, religion, sex, sexual orientation, age, disability, etc.

There were seven dependent variables tested in seven separate linear regression models for enlisted members and seven separate models for officers: 1) I feel excluded by my workgroup because I am different; 2) outcomes (e.g., training opportunities, awards, and recognition) are fairly distributed among military members/employees of my workgroup; 3) the decision-making processes that impact my workgroup are fair; 4) my immediate supervisor treats me fairly; 5) discipline is administered fairly; 6) discrimination based on race, color, or national origin does NOT occur in my workplace; and 7) racial slurs, comments, and/or jokes are used in my workplace.

The response scale for the dependent variable is as follows:

- 1 = Strongly Disagree
- 2 = Disagree
- 3 = Slightly Disagree
- 4 = Neither Agree nor Disagree
- 5 = Slightly Agree
- 6 = Agree
- 7 = Strongly Agree

Independent Variables

Gender in this study is binary and is defined as male or female. Ethnicity/Race refers to group identities based on notions of shared histories, culture, and kinship (Cornell and Hartmann, 2007). Race refers to a group of people who share physical and cultural traits as well as a common ancestry. Three racial/ethnic categories were used for this study: Black, White, and Hispanic. These categories are further defined in the Office of Management and Budget (1997) revised standards for the classification of federal data on race and ethnicity as described below:

- **Black or African American.** A person having origins in any of the black racial groups of Africa. Terms such as "Haitian" or "Negro" can be used in addition to "Black or African American."
- **Hispanic or Latino.** A person of Cuban, Mexican, Puerto Rican, Cuban, South or Central American, or other Spanish culture or origin, regardless of race. The term, "Spanish origin," can be used in addition to "Hispanic or Latino."
- **White.** A person having origins in any of the original peoples of Europe, the Middle East, or North Africa.

Additional independent variables include rank. All enlisted and officer ranks were used in this study. Warrant officers were excluded from the study. The active-Services: Army, Navy, Marine Corps, and Air Force, as well as the Coast Guard were entered into the regression models. See descriptive statistics for independent variables in Appendix B, Tables 1 and 2.

Methods

The data was cleaned and civilians were deleted from the working file. Service members who identified as multiracial, Asian/Pacific Islanders, or Native Americans were deleted from the file due to small frequencies. Only African Americans, Hispanics, and White Service members were retained for the final analysis. The data was stratified by rank level (enlisted and officers), dummy variables were created for race and gender categories (WHTWOM, WHTMEN, BLKWOM, BLKMEN, HISPWOM, HISPMEN). Rank categories were used for enlisted members and officers. Effects of race, gender, Service, and rank on perceptions of

inclusion, trust, discipline, and discrimination were examined. Seven regression models were constructed, one for each dependent variable and all of the independent variables. The data was stratified by enlisted and officers, and seven regression models were run for each rank level (See Tables 3 and 4 in Appendix B).

Results of Regression Analysis

In the regression models, race was significant for both enlisted members and officers. Responses of enlisted members are displayed in Appendix B, Table 3. Examining enlisted data revealed more of a gender effect on perceptions of inclusion, trust, discipline, and discrimination.

Inclusion variables reflect ways in which organizations, groups, leaders, and military members/employees allow everyone (diverse in identities, cultures, and ways of thinking and acting) to participate, contribute, have a voice, and feel that they are connected and belong, all without losing individual uniqueness or having to give up valuable identities or aspects of themselves.

Results of the regression models show that the responses of women of all racial categories were similar among the enlisted ranks. In other words, enlisted women, more so than men, responded that they feel excluded because they are different, feel that awards, recognition, and training are not fairly distributed, and feel that decision making is not fair. This is true of enlisted Service women, and is even more the case for female officers. African American female officers had higher coefficient for the inclusion variables (See Table 4, Appendix B) than Hispanic and White women. There is a similar finding for the “Trust in leadership” variable (whether or not the respondent was treated fairly by his/her supervisor), and the “Organizational Processes” variable (that discipline is administered fairly). As with the “Inclusion” variables, the

responses of women were more similar, and more unfavorable, than that of the men at both the enlisted and officer rank level. Still, the coefficients are greater for African American female officers than White and Hispanic female officers (See Table 4, Appendix B).

There are racial/ethnic differences in the perceptions of the presence of racism for Active duty personnel. The results for the “Discrimination” variables used in the model revealed a different pattern. For the question as to whether or not discrimination based on race occurs in respondent’s workplace, African American Service men and women and Hispanic men and women had more unfavorable responses than White men and women. This was true at the enlisted level as well as officer level. Similarly, Black and Hispanic male and female Service members, at both the enlisted and officer levels, were more likely to agree that racial slurs and jokes occur in the workplace than their white counterparts. When controlling for gender within race, African American women were more likely to reveal that discrimination based on race occurs in their units than any other racial category, with coefficients of $-.552$ for enlisted (Table 3, Model 7, Appendix B), and $-.828$ for officers (Table 4, Model 7, Appendix B). This pattern is also reflected in the descriptive data graphed in Figures 1 through 4 in Appendix A.

Limitation of the regression models

A limitation with the regression model is that the independent variables are skewed; some more so than others. Therefore, the normality assumption for OLS (the errors are independently and identically distributed as normal with a mean of 0 and some variance) may be compromised. The sample size of the DEOCS 2017-2020 is very large (Enlisted $N = 1126193$; Officers $N = 256075$). As the sample size increases, even the normality of errors becomes less important because the sampling distributions of the regression coefficients converge on the normal

(Wooldridge, 2020). However, the residual plots for the independent variable on racial slurs and jokes is quite skewed and will need to be addressed when this working paper is revised.

Concluding Remarks

In the regression models presented in this preliminary study, both race and sex shape perceptions of equality. For the inclusion, trust in leadership, and organizational processes variables, the differences between men and women are much larger than the differences by race. The coefficients for women look fairly similar, whether the women are Black, White, or Hispanic; similarly Black and Hispanic men look pretty similar. This may not be too surprising as gender inequality would be a big issue in the military. For the discrimination variables (race discrimination in the workplace, and racial slurs and jokes in the work place), there are much larger race differences than gender. Race and sex shape perceptions of discrimination and exclusion. Which matters more depends upon whether the response variable is in the “Inclusion at work,” “Trust in Leadership,” “Organizational Processes,” or “Discrimination” category.

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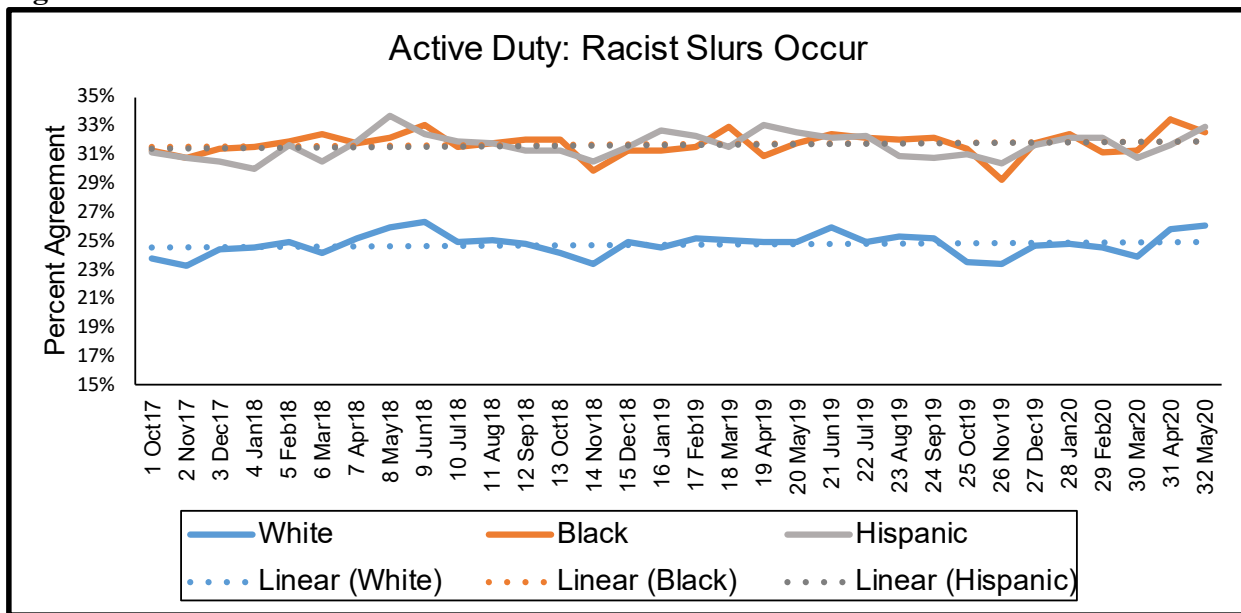
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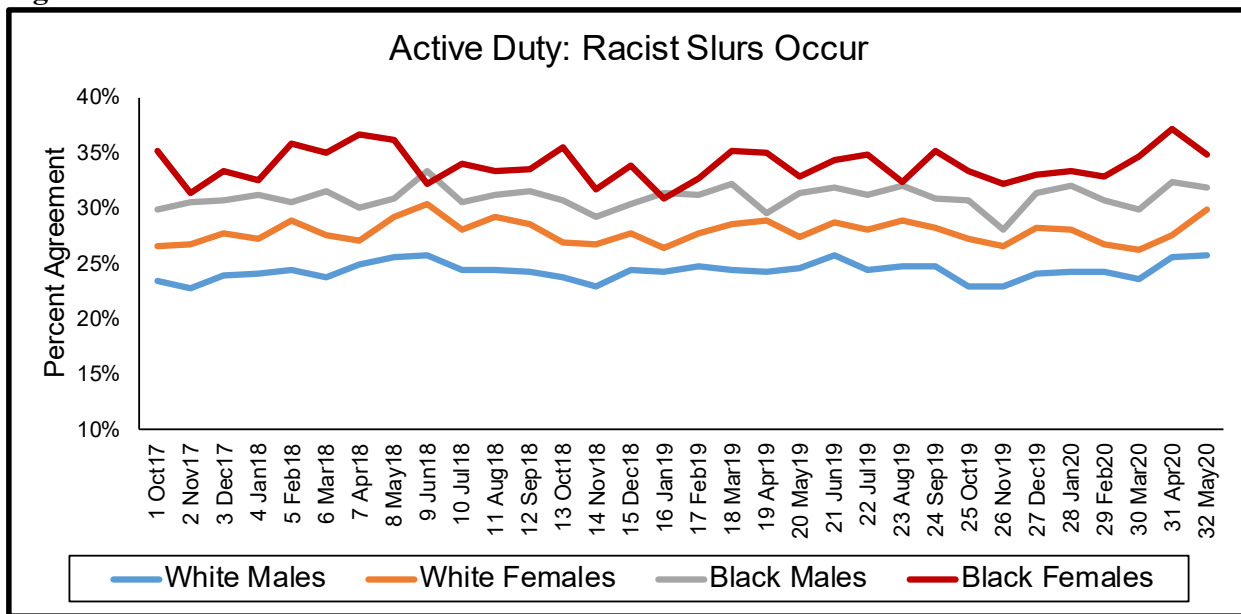
APPENDIX A

Figure 1



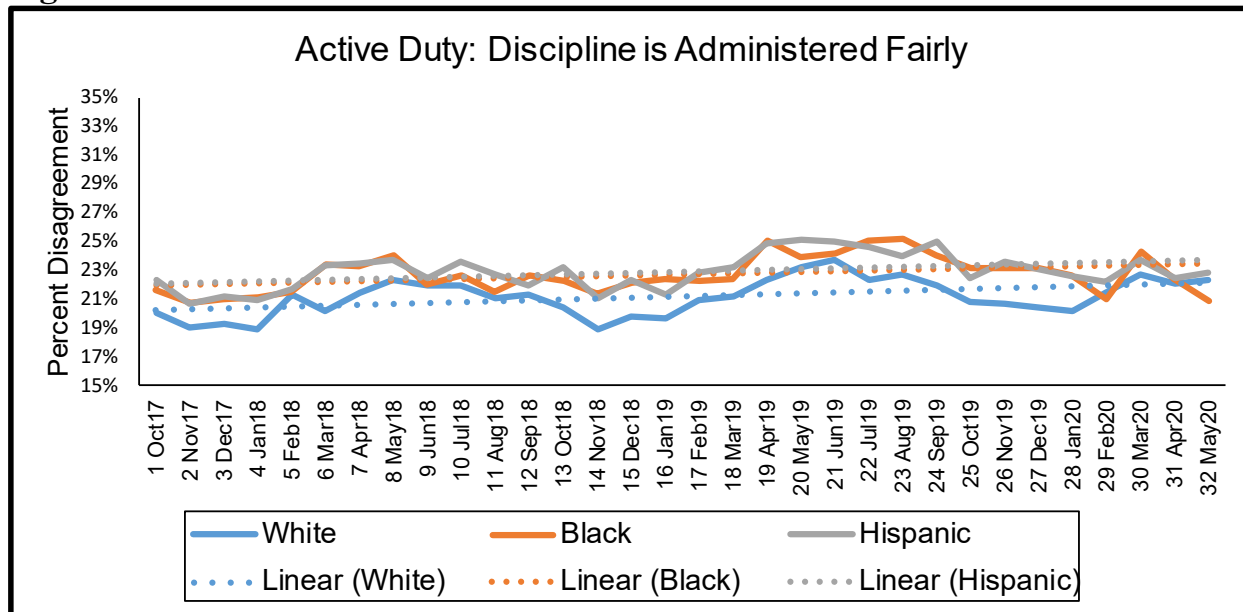
Source: DEOCS 2017-2020

Figure 2



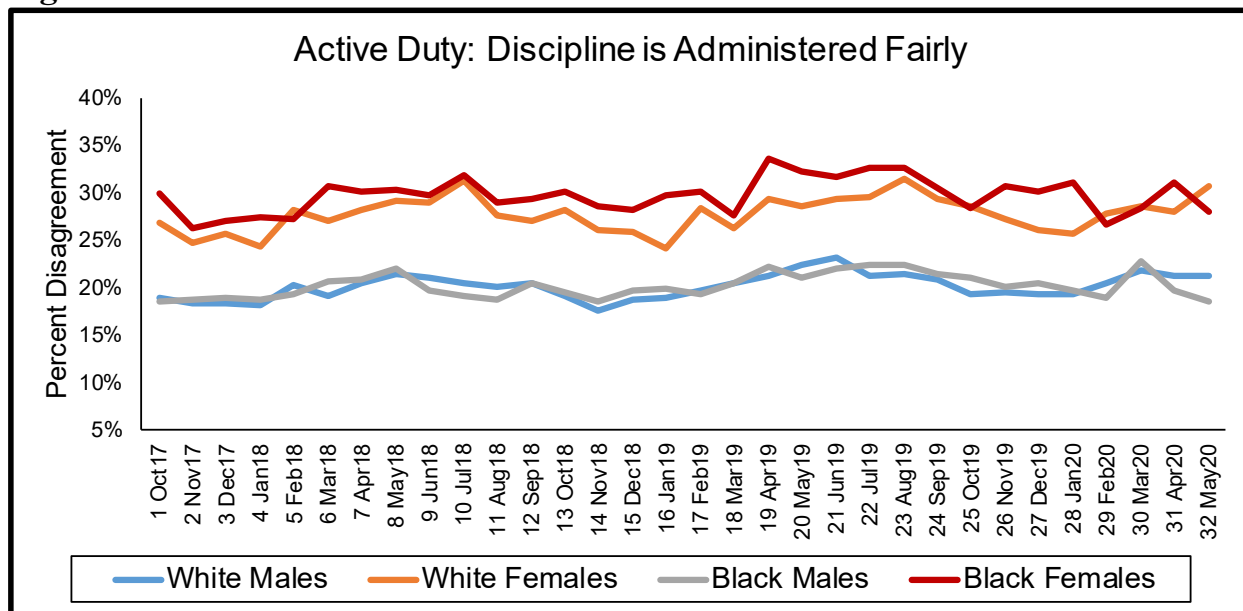
Source: DEOCS 2017-2020

Figure 3



Source: DEOCS 2017-2020

Figure 4



Source: DEOCS 2017-2020

APPENDIX B

Table 1. *Demographic Variables of Active Duty Enlisted (DEOCS FY 2017-2020)*

VARIABLE	FREQ	%
BLKWOM	42662	3.6
BLKMEN	110350	9.4
WHTWOM	106718	9.1
WHTMEN	656590	56.2
HISPWOM	49830	4.3
HISPMEN	202788	17.3
ARMY	549725	47.0
NAVY	197974	16.9
AIR FORCE	237425	20.3
MARINE CORPS	152688	13.1
COAST GUARD	31127	2.7
E1-E3	248866	21.3
E4-E6	733598	62.8
E7-E9	186475	16.0

Table 2. *Demographic Variables of Active Duty Officers (DEOCS FY 2017-2020)*

VARIABLE	FREQ	%
BLKWOM	5597	2.2
BLKMEN	10993	4.3
WHTWOM	39041	15.2
WHTMEN	176584	68.9
HISPWOM	5794	2.3
HISPMEN	18377	7.2
ARMY	112410	43.8
NAVY	53523	20.9
AIR FORCE	62513	24.4
MARINE CORPS	19760	7.7
COAST GUARD	8180	3.2
O1-O3	153591	59.9
O4-PLUS	102795	40.1

Table 3:

Results of Multiple Regression: Active Duty Enlisted (DEOCS 2017-2020)

	<u>MODEL 1</u> Inclusion 2: Feel excluded because different	<u>MODEL 2</u> Inclusion 5: Awards, Recognition, Training fairly distributed	<u>MODEL 3</u> Inclusion 6: Decision Making Fair	<u>MODEL4</u> TrustLead4: Immediate Supervisor fair	<u>MODEL 5</u> OrgProc2: Discipline Adm Fairly	<u>MODEL 6</u> Disagree Discrimin- ation Does not Occur	<u>MODEL 7</u> Discrim 10: Racial slurs, comments, jokes are used in my workplace
Variable	Coeff. SE Beta	Coeff. SE Beta	Coeff. SE Beta	Coeff. SE Beta	Coeff. SE Beta	Coeff. SE Beta	Coeff. SE Beta
BLKWOM	.240 .008 .030	-.158 .009 -.016	-.239 .008 -.027	-.197 .007 -.027	-.457 .009 -.046	-.552 .010 -.054	.492 .011 .041
BLKMEN	.096 .005 .019	.112 .006 .018	.050 .005 .009	.016 .004 .003	.032 .006 .005	-.466 .006 -.071	.334 .007 .044
WHTWOM	.260 .005 .050	-.201 .006 -.031	-.186 .005 -.033	-.205 .004 -.044	-.369 .006 -.057	-.038 .006 -.006	.270 .008 .035
HISPWOM	.191 .007 .026	-.185 .009 -.020	-.178 .008 .022	-.168 .006 -.025	-.342 .009 -.037	-.290 .009 -.030	.515 .011 .046
HISPMEN	.008 .004 .002	.026 .005 .005	.052 .004 .012	.015 .003 .004	.040 .005 .008	-.246 .005 -.049	.298 .006 .051
Navy	.067 .004 .017	-.139 .005 -.028	-.150 .004 -.035	-.138 .004 -.038	-.222 .005 -.045	.075 .005 .015	-.127 .006 -.021
Marine Corps	-.026 .004 -.006	.033 .005 .006	.070 .005 .015	-.024 .004 -.006	.033 .005 .006	.163 .006 .029	.055 .007 .008
Air Force	-.089 .004 -.024	.007 .005 .002	.040 .004 .010	.158 .003 .047	-.029 .005 -.006	.325 .005 .068	-.245 .006 -.044
Coast Guard	-.192 .009 -.021	.170 .011 .015	.181 .010 .018	.170 .008 .020	.092 .011 .008	.353 .011 .030	-.150 .013 -.011
E1-E3	.179 .004 .049	.242 .004 .054	.142 .004 .036	.014 .003 .004	.274 .004 .061	-.070 .005 -.015	.128 .005 .023
E7-E9	-.360 .004 -.088	.757 .005 .151	.569 .004 .129	.287 .004 .078	.600 .004 .118	.327 .005 .063	-.261 .006 -.043
Constant (Army, E4-E6, WHTMEN)	2.276 .003	4.676 .003	4.977 .003	5.874 .002	4.795 .003	5.651 .003	3.047 .004
	R Square = .017	R Square =.026	R Square =.021	R Square =.014	R Square = .024	R Square = .019	R Square = .013

Note: Significant at the .05 level; only the significant coefficients are reported
 Coeff. & SE = Unstandardized Coefficients Beta = Standardized Coefficients
 Constant = Army, E4-E6, White Enlisted Men
 N = 1126193

Table 4:
Results of Multiple Regression: Active Duty Officers (DEOCS 2017-2020)

	MODEL 1 Inclusion 2: Feel excluded because different	MODEL 2 Inclusion 5: Awards, Recognition, Training fairly distributed	MODEL 3 Inclusion 6: Decision Making Fair	MODEL 4 TrustLead4: Immediate Supervisor fair	MODEL 5 OrgProc2: Discipline Adm Fairly	MODEL 6 Disagree Discrimin- ation Does not Occur	MODEL 7 Discrim 10: Racial slurs, comments, jokes are used in my workplace
Variable	Coeff. SE Beta	Coeff. SE Beta	Coeff. SE Beta	Coeff. SE Beta	Coeff. SE Beta	Coeff. SE Beta	Coeff. SE Beta
BLKWOM	.469 .017 .054	-.435 .020 -.042	-.460 .019 -.049	-.367 .016 -.046	-.719 .020 -.071	-.828 .023 -.073	.662 .029 .046
BLKMEN	.179 .013 .029	.032 .015 .004	-----	-----	-.110 .014 -.015	-.527 .016 -.065	.428 .021 .042
WHTWOM	.300 .007 .085	-.372 .008 -.090	-.352 .008 -.093	-.262 .007 -.080	-.517 .008 -.126	-.202 .009 -.044	.222 .012 .038
HISPWOM	.359 .017 .042	-.390 .020 -.039	-.363 .018 -.040	-.292 .016 -.037	-.542 .020 -.054	-.455 .022 -.041	.554 .028 .039
HISPMEN	.103 .010 .021	-.050 .012 -.009	-.029 .011 -.006	-.028 .009 -.006	-.041 .011 -.007	-.179 .013 -.028	.329 .016 .041
Navy	-.027 .007 -.009	.052 .008 .014	.054 .007 .016	.068 .006 .023	.088 .008 .024	.095 .009 .024	-.183 .011 -.036
Marine Corps	-.043 .010 -.009	.072 .012 .013	.084 .011 .017	.034 .009 .008	.153 .011 .028	.041 .013 .007	-----
Air Force	-.057 .006 -.019	.026 .008 .008	.124 .007 .039	.158 .006 .058	.153 .007 .044	.206 .008 .054	-.242 .011 -.050
Coast Guard	-.021 .015 -.003	.112 .017 .013	.141 .016 .018	.164 .013 .025	.113 .017 .013	.128 .019 .014	-.215 .024 -.018
O4 PLUS	-.208 .005 -.081	.327 .006 .108	.284 .006 .103	.154 .005 .064	.197 .006 .065	.164 .007 .049	-.274 .009 -.065
Constant (Army, O1-O3, WHTMEN)	1.908 .005	5.389 .005	5.530 .005	6.120 .004	5.466 .005	6.058 .006	2.620 .008
	R Square = .019	R Square = .024	R Square = .025	R Square = .017	R Square = .029	R Square = .018	R Square = .015

Note: Significant at the .05 level; only the significant coefficients are reported
 Coeff. & SE = Unstandardized Coefficients Beta = Standardized Coefficients
 Constant = Army, O1-O3, WHTMEN
 N = 256075