Civil Service Journal

Vol. 2 No. 3 January–March 1962

In This Issue:

SPECIAL:

President Kennedy Sets Career Service Goals for 1962

UNITED STATES CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

Civil Service *Journal*

Volume 2 **Number 3**

January–March 1962

CONTENTS

Articles *Page*

Departments

Worth Noting

FEDERAL EXECUTIVE BOARDS: Federal Executive Boards, established by direction of the President in the 10 cities where Civil Service Commission regional offices are located, will begin to function soon in the interests of strengthening management of executive-branch activities in the field. Heads of departments and agencies have been asked to designate field agency heads in the 10 cities as members of the Boards and to notify the Chairman of the Civil Service Commission by January 17, 1962. CSC regional directors are initiating action to organize the Boards and will report on their continuing activities and progress. Purpose of the Boards is to facilitate closer working relationships and communications among Federal agencies in the field. Boards will be located in Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Atlanta, Chicago, Dallas, St. Louis, Denver, Seattle, and San Francisco.

WOMEN'S AFFAIRS: In establishing the new President's Commission on the Status of Women, President Kennedy declared his intention of maintaining the Federal career service free of any discrimination and called on CSC Chairman John W. Macy, Jr., "to review pertinent personnel policies and practices affecting the employment of women and to work with the various departments and agencies to assure that selection for any career position is hereafter made solely on the basis of individual merit and fitness, without regard to sex." Mr. Macy immediately asked agencies to check their personnel policies and operations to assure that initial employment and advancement of women are handled strictly on merit principles. He told agencies that any future requests for certification of eligibles from CSC examination lists on a "men only" or "women only" basis must include a statement of specific reasons for limiting consideration to the specified sex. He further requested copies of any internal policy statements developed or revised by agencies to reflect the President's policy and intent. . . . Sixty-five outstanding Government career women have been nominated for the second annual Federal Woman's Award by the heads of 33 Federal agencies. The nominations represent a wide range of career fields, including medicine and nursing, home economics, law, physical and biological science, editing, statistics, economics, and administration. Final selections by a special panel of judges will be announced about the first of February. The awards will be presented to the six winners at a banquet at the Statler Hilton Hotel in Washington, D.C., on February 27.

RECRUITING: Early returns from the recently opened Federal-Service Entrance Examination point to another successful year in Federal recruitment on campus. With agencies making about 10,000 appointments from the bumper crop of eligibles produced by the 1960–61 series of examinations, the 1961–62 FSEE has attracted even greater numbers of applicants for the first two written tests given to date. . . . NASA's current national recruiting drive to staff America's space exploration

(Continued—See Inside Back Cover.)

The *Civil Service Journal* is published quarterly by the U.S. Civil Service Commission. Editorial inquiries should be sent to: James C. Spry, Public Information Office, Room 269, U.S. Civil Service Commission, Eighth and F Streets NW., Washington 25, D.C. Telephone: DUdley 6–5172 or Code 129, Extension 5172. No special permission necessary to quote or reprint materials contained herein; however, when materials are identified as having originated outside the Civil Service Commission, the source should be contacted for reprint permission. The *Journal* is available on subscription from the Superintendent of Documents, Government Printing Office, Washington 25, D.C., $1 a year domestic, 25 cents additional for foreign mailing. Single copy 25 cents. Use of funds for printing this publication approved by the Director of the Bureau of the Budget by letter of January 19, 1961.

ab-
vice
in
ties
to
rds
ary
the
ess.
and
be
las,

nis-
ion
and
per-
and
ion
ual
ked
that
on
tifi-
or
for
pies
s to
ing
ual
The
tine
nce,
by
ary.
the

vice
uit-
ents
s of
s of
A's
tion

: In-
129,
rigi-
the
ingle

President Kennedy Sets

Goals for "Lean, Fit, Efficient" Federal Establishment in 1962

Our first year of partnership in the hard tasks and decisions of Government has been, in my view, a most productive one.

When I called, at the very outset of my administration, for initiative, responsibility and energy in serving the public interest, the response from the career service was enthusiastic and eager. Federal career managers and employees have proved in the past 12 months that they are not wedded to static methods, that they welcome constructive change, and that they can contribute in full measure to the reshaping of our organizations and processes in the interest of greater effectiveness.

Much has already been accomplished and many things are in the process of change as we move toward the lean, fit and efficient establishment which I have set as a goal. Some management objectives I would like to stress for the coming year are these:

1. All possible economy of operation, consistent with the effective discharge of proper Governmental responsibilities.

2. Better coordinated utilization of Government resources on an interagency basis at every level.

3. Continued efforts to draw forth the best ideas, energies, and performance of all those engaged in Government work through effective manpower utilization and employee-management cooperation.

4. A continued and intensified search for quality in personnel recruitment and assignment, aided by strict application of the principle of equal employment opportunity in Government service.

Today our concern with man's environment ranges from the ocean floor to the stars. Since there are virtually no limits to the physical dimensions of the tasks set for us, we must identify and unshackle limitless creativity in the Government's career service. In every phase of Government operations we must be certain that we provide today's solution to today's problem.

Let me express my personal appreciation to the men and women of the Government's career work force as one eventful year ends and we enter upon a new year of challenge and opportunity. This month of January, which marks the 79th anniversary of the career civil service, is a most appropriate time for rededication to the basic values which characterize the best traditions of that service.

SEAL OF THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES

"NEW ERA" IN EMPLOYEE-MANAGEMENT RELATIONS

by JOHN W. MACY, Jr., *Chairman*
U.S. Civil Service Commission

"a forward-looking program keyed to current needs"

—President Kennedy

PRESIDENT KENNEDY'S adoption of the recommendations of his Task Force on Employee-Management Relations signals the start of a new era in personnel management in Government. Whether the intended benefits will be realized depends largely on how well Federal managers respond to the challenges and opportunities presented by the new Presidential policy and program.

As a first step, these managers will need to become thoroughly familiar with the philosophy underlying the Task Force Report, the provisions of the Executive orders, and the timetable for action. If they clearly understand these basic documents, I am sure they can meet the challenges, contribute much to the further advancement of Federal personnel administration, and help employee-management relations in Government to come of age.

TASK FORCE PHILOSOPHY

In his memorandum of June 22, 1961, establishing the Task Force, President Kennedy stated his belief that: "The right of all employees in the Federal Government to join and participate in the activities of employee organizations, and to seek to improve working conditions and the resolution of grievances should be recognized by management officials at all levels in all departments and agencies. The participation of Federal employees in the formulation and implementation of employee policies and procedures affecting them contributes to the effective conduct of public business. . . . We need to improve practices which will assure the rights and obligations of employees, employee organizations, and the executive branch in pursuing the objective of effective labor-management cooperation in the public service."

This was the guiding principle for the Task Force as it set about developing Government-wide policies and practices. The Task Force and its staff recognized from the outset the necessity for an impartial approach to this issue. The abundance of unknown factors precluded any prior convictions or fixed "positions" on the part of the members. In truth, the facts about relationships with unions and other organizations among our 2,400,000 workers had never before been assembled from the 70-odd departments and agencies of the Government. Four of the five months allotted to our task were devoted to a rapid but broad-gaged fact-finding effort that included a study of the literature in the field and the experience in other public jurisdictions and in private industry, questionnaires to organizations and agencies, and public hearings to obtain views of all interested parties.

CONSIDERATIONS AND FINDINGS

Out of the mass of data assembled, three fundamental facts came into focus as core considerations in the development of an employee-management relations policy for the Federal Government—

- Government's responsibility to the public is paramount; therefore, the test of any proposal must be whether it is in the public interest.
- The merit system is and should remain the essential basis of the personnel policy of the Government; it must not be modified or compromised.
- Government has a special obligation to recognize the rights of *non-organized* employees as well as those affiliated with employee organizations.

None of these basic considerations was challenged. It was recognized that labor-management relations in Government must be different in some respects from relations in the private sector. But the study revealed a diversity of opinion on many questions and spotlighted a number of problems for which there were no easy answers.

Although it has long been public policy to encourage workers in private industry to organize and bargain collectively, there has been no general acceptance nor any established doctrine for organized employee relationships in the Federal Government. Most of the agencies studied had no policy or a bare minimum policy, providing simply that employees had the right to join or not to join employee organizations; very few had comprehensive policies.

Employee organizations evidenced great dissatisfaction with existing practices and supported various kinds of executive action. Although there was no united front, there was strong support for the AFL–CIO proposal for an Executive order providing for collective bargaining rights and compulsory arbitration. This was a reflection of rather general resentment against an attitude of disdain in some agencies, charges of "runaround" or refusals to deal in others, and alleged bad supervisory practices and "unfair" grievance procedures.

A viewpoint repeatedly presented during the public hearings was that the time is past due for the Government to come forth with a positive and comprehensive policy for employee-management relations. Employee leaders likewise claimed that the absence of a positive policy of support for employee-management relations has been used by Federal officials as an excuse for hostile and obstructionist attitudes. And they were unanimous in the view that even where agency heads have clearly shown their desire to foster cooperative relations, the word had not always filtered down to operating levels.

Although Federal agencies presented varying viewpoints and proposals, there was general support for the idea that it would be profitable to adopt a Government-wide policy to guide agencies in devising systems most suited to their special needs.

The patterns of employee affiliation with organizations presented difficult problems in devising a means for according appropriate recognition to employee groups. Membership in organizations ranges from 84 percent in the Post Office Department to a mere fraction of a percentage in many departments and agencies. Overall, an estimated 33 percent of the Federal work force is affiliated with employee groups—which approximates the extent of affiliation in the Nation's nonfarm work force. However, only 24 percent of those outside the Post Office Department belong to organizations, and only about 10 percent of employees under the Classification Act are affiliated.

These membership patterns are paralleled by the variety in size and characteristics of the employee organizations represented in Government. The groups range from those with members in a single occupation or closely related occupations to those embracing employees in all kinds of occupations; some limit membership to employees in a single agency or segment of an agency, while others have members throughout the Federal service; some have all the recognizable characteristics of industrial unions represented in the Nation's work force, while others are management-sponsored employee councils.

Variations in patterns of employee affiliation, in the array of employee groups, and in the size and situations of Federal agencies dictated against an attempt to fashion a standard system and detailed procedures to be followed on a Government-wide basis.

This study pointed to the urgent need for a clearer definition of "management"; the tortuous evolution of employee-management relations in Government—complicated by the unique position of Government as an employer—has obscured the line between labor and management. Indeed, there were those who insisted that no line can be drawn, that all who serve in the executive branch are "employees." One of the serious problems produced by this haziness and lack of definition has been a rather limited development of industrial relations know-how in the ranks of both management and labor. If employee-management relations in Government are to "grow up," those who represent management cannot continue to carry split personalities into consultations and negotiations with employee organizations.

The study also accented the need for improvement in agency grievance procedures and appeals systems and for recognition of their relationship.

LANDMARK ACHIEVEMENTS

These were the principal findings and considerations that served to shape the Task Force Report to the President. The result is a document of historical significance in the evolution of Federal personnel management. The following landmark achievements have been realized:

- A long-needed Presidential policy on the rights of employees to organize, to have their organizations recognized, and to participate in the formulation of policies affecting them and their working conditions.
- Equalization of appeal rights for veterans and nonveterans.
- More uniform appeals systems within agencies.
- Management consultation and, when appropriate, negotiations with recognized employee organizations on personnel policies and working conditions.
- Recognition of the proper role of employee organizations in grievance proceedings.
- Clearer definition of management and labor in Government for a better understanding of their respective roles and responsibilities.
- Development of a code of fair labor practices and of standards of conduct for employee organizations.
- Provision for intensified training in industrial relations for representatives of management.
- Provision for advisory third-party participation in settling grievances.
- Recognition of the desirability of providing for voluntary withholding of individual dues to recognized employee organizations.

Only the last one of these would require legislation. The others would be achieved by Executive action.

TASK FORCE RECOMMENDATIONS

It is significant that all Task Force recommendations represent established policy and practice in one Federal agency or another—all have been tested and proven in Government! The Task Force has brought together what constitutes the best of Federal employee-management relations practices and molded them into the framework of a practical and progressive Government-wide policy.

To start with, the report calls for a clear and positive statement, with the full force and prestige of the Presidency behind it, that "Federal employees have the right to join bona fide employee organizations," that this right "encompasses the right to refrain from joining," and that "wherever any considerable number of employees have organized for the purpose of collective dealing, the attitude of the Government should be that of an affirmative willingness to enter such relations." Supervisors and managers are admonished to "exercise great care to insure that they do not infringe this basic policy of the Federal Government." And there is a declaration that "responsible, active employee organizations contribute to the efficient and harmonious performance of government functions."

FORMS OF RECOGNITION

Criteria for the recognition of bona fide organizations and the rights that should go with recognition take into account the fact that the public nature of Government business imposes on Federal officials certain obligations toward employees and other citizens which do not necessarily apply to managers in private enterprise.

Federal officials must be prepared at all times to hear views of any employee or any group of employees and for some time it has been the policy of the Government to seek and consider employee views in formulating personnel policy. More recently this policy has been extended to employee organizations, but relations have generally been informal and essentially permissive.

The Task Force felt that recognition should be granted to any trade union, association, council, federation, brotherhood, or society having as a primary purpose the improvement of working conditions among employees, and to any craft, trade, or industrial union whose membership includes both Federal employees and employees of private organizations. To be recognized, organizations must be free of restrictions or practices denying membership because of race, color, creed, or national origin; must not assert the right to strike against or advocate the overthrow of the Government; and must be free of all corrupt influences and from undermining efforts of Communist agents and all others who are opposed to the basic principles of American Government.

Within these ground rules, three types of recognition are provided, keyed to the proportion of organization members among employees in a particular Federal activity or "appropriate unit"—

Informal Recognition.—Any organization of employees, regardless of its size or the status of any other groups, shall be accorded informal recognition. This is simply an extension of the right of any employee to be heard; management is not obligated to seek the views of such organizations.

Formal Recognition.—Any organization with as many as 10 percent of the employees of an activity or unit shall be granted formal recognition, entitling an organization to consultation by management on the formulation and implementation of personnel policies of concern to its membership. Such an organization should be enabled from time to time to raise matters for discussion with management, be permitted at all times to present views in writing, and expect that management will give careful consideration to its proposals. An organization requesting formal recognition should be required to submit to the agency a roster of its officers and representatives, a copy of its constitution and bylaws, and a statement of its objectives. Each agency is free to establish its own procedures and to define the units within which membership will be measured. Formal recognition at the national level may be granted to organizations which have a sufficient number of locals or total membership within the agency. More than one organization may be granted formal recognition within the same activity or agency.

Exclusive Recognition.—An organization (or council of organizations) with at least 51 percent of the employees of an appropriate unit may qualify for exclusive recognition, in which event it becomes the only *formally* recognized representative for the unit. Exclusive recognition carries the right to negotiate with management on appropriate matters, and the organization speaks for all employees of the unit. However, this would not prevent any individual employee from bringing matters of personal concern to the attention of management nor from choosing his own representative in a grievance action. Nor would it prevent informal recognition of other organizations or the presentation of their views to management. Representatives of an organization with exclusive recognition normally would have the right to be present at any discussion of personnel policy matters between management and other employees or employee representatives.

An appropriate unit is a grouping of employees for purposes of representation in collective dealings with management; members of a unit should have a clear and identifiable community of interest so that it is possible for them to deal collectively as a single group. What constitutes an appropriate unit must be decided case-by-case by the agency concerned. Units may be established on plant, craft, functional, or department lines.

Ordinarily a unit should not be established for purposes of exclusive recognition if it includes among its members (1) any managerial executive; (2) any employee engaged in personnel work in other than a purely clerical capacity; (3) both supervisors and those whom they supervise; or (4) both professional and nonprofessional employees, unless a majority of such professional employees vote for inclusion.

Any negotiated agreements should include a statement recognizing that the officials and employees concerned are governed by provisions of applicable Federal laws and regulations, which are regarded as paramount. They should likewise recognize that the responsibility of management requires that it retain the right to direct its employees; to hire, promote, demote, transfer, assign, and retain employees on the basis of merit and efficiency in accordance with applicable laws and regulations; to suspend or discharge employees for proper cause; to relieve employees from duties because of lack of work or for other legitimate reasons; to maintain efficiency of operations entrusted to them; and to determine the methods, means, and personnel by which operations are carried on.

Veteran, Religious and Social Organizations.—The policy recognizes and provides for continuation of the traditional relationships with veteran organizations; and it provides that the recognition of employee organizations does not preclude limited dealings with employee groups formed for religious or social purposes.

CONSULTATIONS AND NEGOTIATIONS

In the Federal service neither employer nor employees are free to bargain in the ordinary sense, so consultations and negotiations are limited in scope by applicable laws and regulations and must be consistent with merit system principles. Proper matters for consultation and negotiation relate to working conditions and personnel policies—such as promotion standards, grievance procedures, safety, transfers, demotions, reductions in force, etc.

Each agency is free to determine its own practice, but negotiable matters must be within the administrative discretion of the manager who is negotiating.

IMPASSES IN NEGOTIATIONS

The Task Force recognizes that there may be instances of impasse in negotiation, but believes they should be solved by means other than arbitration and that methods for helping to bring about settlement should be devised and agreed to on an agency-by-agency basis. The relative lack of experience in employee-management negotiations in Government led the Task Force to feel that arbitration of impasses is not an appropriate technique for general adoption at this time. There are many devices other than arbitration for helping to bring about settlements; for example, fact-finding panels, mediation, and higher echelon referral.

AGREEMENTS

Agreements between management officials and employee organizations granted exclusive recognition should be put in writing in an appropriate form such as memorandum of agreement, memo of understanding, or exchange of letters. Where appropriate, they should be followed by issuance of a regulation or other formal agency document. Decisions reached by management following consultation with representatives of an organization granted formal recognition should also be communicated in writing to the organization concerned.

All agreements must be made with the understanding that in emergency situations a Government activity must be free to take whatever actions are necessary to carry out its mission, regardless of prior commitments—the interest of the public is overriding. Both parties must enter negotiations in good faith if they are to be fruitful. Negotiations must not continue endlessly nor degenerate into an affair of attrition and exhaustion.

SERVICES TO ORGANIZATIONS

In the past most agencies have provided some services to employee organizations, but there have been wide variations in practices—some going too far, in the judgment of the Task Force, others not far enough. The new policy makes clear what is desirable and appropriate.

It is a general practice for agencies to make bulletin boards available to organizations for appropriate informational purposes, and this practice should continue. There is agreement that consultations with organizations should be conducted on official time, and the Task Force feels this is appropriate since management will always be able to control the amount of time involved. However, since considerable time may be required for *negotiations* with organizations granted exclusive recognition, it would be appropriate for management to require negotiation by employee representatives on their own time if these sessions become too time consuming.

Practices in Government regarding dues collection or membership solicitation on official time have varied in the past. It should now be the general rule that such activity and other internal employee organization business may not be conducted on official time. However, the Task Force is sympathetic to the desires of employee organizations that there be provision for withholding of dues from paychecks of members, recognizing that this common practice in industry represents an important means of insuring stability of membership. The Task Force considers that voluntary withholding of dues would be a proper service to employee organizations, and therefore has recommended that legislation be sought to provide for such deductions on a strictly voluntary basis, with the cost of the process to be paid by the benefiting employee organizations.

ROLE IN GRIEVANCE PROCEDURES

Since employee grievances are a central element of an employee-management relations program, it is appropriate that employee organizations have a recognized role in grievance systems.

Many agencies do not now permit representation of employees at early stages of proceedings, at which point some agencies provide employees with assistance in handling their cases. The Task Force feels this practice is a form of paternalism which will prevent the development of mature relationships between management and employee organizations. It believes that most large agencies will find it both necessary and desirable to provide organizations with a recognized role in the grievance system.

The Task Force encountered widespread feeling that grievance systems should provide for obtaining an objective third-party viewpoint when either or both parties feel it is necessary. It has recommended that this practice be permissible under certain conditions, but that arbitral awards should be advisory only and take place at a point in the procedure before any consideration by the agency head. As a general rule, such advisory arbitration should only be provided by agreement between an agency and an organization granted exclusive recognition. Agreements should establish a definite set of issues that would be subject to arbitration and should provide that costs of arbitration be shared. The procedure on individual grievances should not be permitted to introduce arbitration of policy questions by the back door.

The Task Force further recommended that all agencies undertake a general review and evaluation of their grievance procedures and, to the extent possible, integrate them with appeals procedures.

IMPROVING APPEALS SYSTEMS

The Task Force saw a great need to correct disparities in the handling of appeals within different agencies and in the rights accorded veterans as against nonveterans. In a matter as fundamental as the right to be protected against a possible arbitrary or capricious management decision that could result in loss of a job or reduction in pay, all employees in the career service should have basically the same rights. It therefore recommended that appeal rights of nonveteran employees be made equal to those of veterans and that intra-agency appeals systems be made more uniform throughout Government.

In order to settle as many adverse action cases as possible within the agency and to provide a greater measure of equity to employees, better procedures should be developed for reconsideration of management decisions to take adverse actions against employees. This would be accomplished by issuance of the Executive order on intra-agency appeals systems prepared by the Civil Service Commission.

NO CLOSED SHOP

The Task Force was emphatic in its opinion that the union shop and closed shop are contrary to the civil-service concept and completely inappropriate to the Federal service.

TECHNICAL SERVICES

Technical services required to implement the new program will be provided by the Civil Service Commission and the Department of Labor.

Upon request, the Secretary of Labor will choose a person or persons to make advisory determinations on appropriate units for exclusive recognition and on questions as to whether an organization has the majority of employees in a unit needed to qualify for exclusive recognition.

The Department of Labor and the Commission will jointly prepare recommendations for standards of conduct for employee organizations and a code of fair labor practices.

As the central personnel agency of the Government, the Commission will develop a program for the guidance of employee-management relations in the Federal service; provide technical advice to agencies on their programs; assist in developing programs for training agency personnel in the purposes and procedures of consultation, negotiation, and settlement of disputes; and for the training of management officials in discharging their employee-management relations responsibilities in the public interest. In addition, the Commission will conduct a continuous study and review of the Federal employee-management relations program and, from time to time, make recommendations to the President for its improvement.

TIMETABLE FOR OPERATIONS

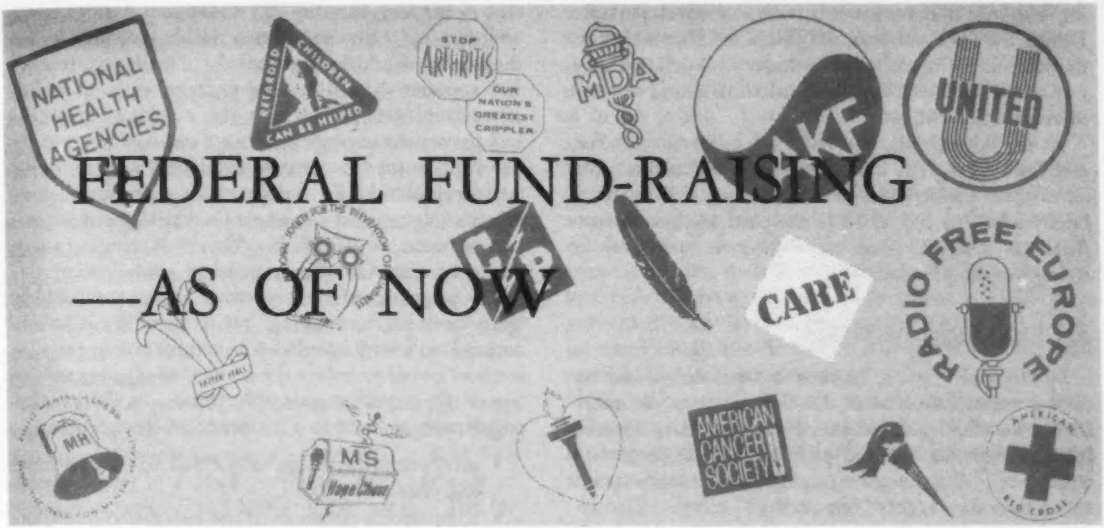
The implementing Executive orders provide for making the new program completely operational within six months.

Basic implementation responsibility properly falls to the individual departments and agencies, following guidelines to be issued by the Commission. Agencies should be moving ahead with such preliminaries as assuring that the general provisions of the Task Force Report and Executive order are well known at all levels of management, reviewing their grievance and appeals systems and practices, and assuring that all in the management line have a keen appreciation of their important responsibility to carry out the spirit as well as the letter of the Executive orders.

The drafting of a code of fair practices for employee-management relations and standards of organization conduct is underway and will soon be ready for review by the temporary interagency committee named by the President for this purpose.

The Commission, with the cooperation of a number of agencies, has prepared plans for providing the necessary training for agency personnel beginning early in February.

But all that has been done up to this point is merely prelude. The main story remains to be written. It must be authored by all those who will represent management and employees in their relationships in the future. As summarized by the Task Force Report, it "is not a challenge to be met so much as an opportunity to be embraced."



FEDERAL FUND-RAISING —AS OF NOW

by **WILFRED V. GILL,** ***Assistant to the Chairman*** **U.S. Civil Service Commission**

VOLUNTARY HEALTH AND WELFARE agencies in the United States are making a tremendous contribution to raising the level of the public's overall health and well-being. Through these organizations, the citizen's joint concern for himself and his fellow man is translated into effective group action—and all share the benefits. The costs, too, must be shared; hence, we have organized drives to raise funds.

Experience has shown that the contributions needed by the voluntary agencies to sustain operations can be obtained efficiently and effectively only through on-the-job solicitation. Not many citizens, upon hearing the doorbell ring, could give their fair share from out-of-pocket ready cash.

In the work setting, solicitation calls for approaches and methods representative of the best interests of the employer, the employee, and the fund-raising organization. From the employer standpoint (whether Federal or non-Federal), deciding what those "best interests" are, and trying to achieve a *mutually satisfactory balance*—this is where problems arise. If the employer's methods involve coercion, the employee may react strongly and lastingly against all such appeals. If the employer doesn't go far enough in positive campaign support, the employee may take this to mean indifference, and respond accordingly.

Mr. Gill has staff responsibility for Federal fund-raising for charity in the worldwide program administered by the Commission.

When the decision has been made on "how far to go," the supervisor is the one most immediately faced with carrying it out. *He* is the one who is expected to make the solicitation effective. Not every supervisor, especially the less seasoned one, knows how to spark the enthusiasm and support of his workers *before* solicitation begins. Far too many discover, to their later embarrassment and dismay, that response was poor. And who, in such situation, is not tempted to conjure up sudden assessments, apply the squeeze in resolicitations, and put the whole uncomfortable proceeding on a "we-can't-afford-to-look-bad" basis?

Speaking to this point with reference to Government supervisors, CSC Chairman John W. Macy, Jr., said, "Leadership and education is needed here. Ahead is a campaign to educate supervisors to respect fully the spirit and the letter of true voluntary giving and to adhere to accepted Federal principles of not setting an employee's charity quota and of keeping his gift confidential."

The "campaign" referred to by Chairman Macy is part of the Commission's program for carrying out its new responsibilities in Government-wide fund-raising. This, however, is but one of the problem areas.

Another major problem is in deciding which, and by what methods, voluntary agencies will be permitted to solicit in the Federal family. When we withhold this privilege from one organization and grant it to another, our action cannot be taken lightly, nor can the standards upon which we base such decision. What we are dealing with here is an economic privilege of real importance. During the last fiscal year, the official estimate is that on-the-job solicitation of the Government's 5,000,000 military and civilian employees was met with a total response of around $20 million.

At the outset, then, you will have gathered that Federal fund-raising has its problems and difficulties. Not all of them are recent. In this article, I will round up briefly what has happened in the past, and go on from there to describe some new measures underway to strengthen the program.

AN EMERGING PROBLEM

By the early 1950's, on-the-job fund drives had become a major headache in the Government. Administrators were besieged individually by voluntary agencies for endorsements and the privilege of soliciting their employees. As a defensive measure, some administrators set up their own agency "one-package" drives. This approach brought sharp complaint from some charitable groups on the grounds that it denied them the public education feature of their campaigns and took away from the individual contributor the decision as to how his gift would be divided, usually without providing a responsible substitute method. On the other hand, many departments and agencies buckled under the pressure and authorized a large number of campaigns. Apart from the administrative burdens accompanying such year-round fund-raising, employees were becoming more and more antagonistic and unsympathetic to the outstretched palm. Too, they were being heard to complain about coercion from supervisors to give more than they were able. In many agencies, there were from 10 to 20 drives a year.

ORDER INTO THE PICTURE

Philip Young, who was then Chairman of the Civil Service Commission and President Eisenhower's Adviser on Personnel Management, struggled for 2 years to bring order into this picture. President Eisenhower was personally interested in a program of true voluntary giving. After extensive consultation, a program was approved by the President and the Cabinet on June 27, 1956. The following year it was further formalized by Executive Order 10728, and placed under the supervision of a Presidential Committee.

The planning of the new Federal program began with a view to setting up a single consolidated fund drive in the Federal establishment, since it had the apparent virtue of reducing the administrative burden and employee vexation to a bare-bones minimum. However, it ran into the hard fact that this approach would be purely arbitrary since it bore no relation to the pattern of fund-raising as it actually existed throughout the country. While most Federal administrators and employees would probably have supported it in theory, it was concluded that in the long run they too would consider it arbitrary and denying them the right to decide individually how their gifts should be distributed. Finally, no practical way appeared to exist in a one-package system of guaranteeing employees privacy as to the amount of their gifts, and preventing improper pressures and coercion. It was decided that the Government should not advocate or dictate acceptance by Federal personnel or by the national voluntary agencies of any single fund-raising procedure to the exclusion of all others. Therefore, single package drives were prohibited as a matter of public policy.

The program, as finally approved, accommodated to the main kinds of fund-raising, but required the individual national voluntary agencies to accommodate to the Government's need to reduce the number of separate solicitations. By requiring joint solicitations, on-the-job campaigns were reduced to a maximum of three a year:

- a federated campaign in the fall for united funds and community chests,
- a concurrent campaign of the recognized health and international agencies in the winter or spring, and
- a Red Cross campaign in March in the communities where it was not included in the local united fund.

In order to run their concurrent campaigns, the national voluntary agencies had to set up joint policy committees, campaign staffs, and combined publicity materials for the Federal program.

Finally, the problem of coercion of the individual employee was attacked by (1) prohibiting the assignment of a specific dollar goal or quota to the individual, and (2) guaranteeing by the sealed envelope method the employee's right of privacy as to the amount of his gift. These are the essential safeguards for the principle of true voluntary giving.

Taking into consideration the compromises of viewpoint that had to be made, the program was remarkably successful in operation.

Last year President Kennedy determined that the program was well enough established that the Committee could be abolished. In doing so by Executive Order 10927, March 18, 1961, he assigned to the Chairman of the Civil Service Commission the responsibility for Federal fund-raising administration and program development.

IS THE PURPOSE BEING MET?

Before discussing Chairman Macy's plans and activities in fund-raising, let's take a closer look at the program up to now. Apart from the fact that it has been successful in operation—has its purpose been accomplished?

Not everyone has been made happy. The public controversy and competition by the advocates of independent and federated fund-raising is as hot today as it was 5 years ago. This perennial controversy sparked a study last year by a national citizens committee, sponsored by the

Rockefeller Foundation. Their findings were announced and made headlines on July 31. Among other things, they found that there are 100,000 health and welfare voluntary agencies in the United States, and that public contributions amount to more than \$1.5 billion a year. The committee concluded that there were significant weaknesses in both independent and federated fund-raising, as well as legitimate reasons for continuing both. It did advocate that the independent agencies should cooperate in joint campaigns. This, of course, is one thing the Federal program has achieved. But it doesn't mean that the conflict of viewpoint between independent and federated fund-raising methods is any less sharp among Federal officials and employees than was found in the general public.

We have the question of how well Federal people are responding to charitable appeals. It is sometimes alleged that our confidential envelope procedure is used by Federal employees as a cloak to conceal an inadequate response to community and humanitarian needs. The former President's Committee did a study in this area, and the United Community Funds and Councils of America, Inc., recently furnished some comparative information, also. According to these reports, the extent of Federal (military and civilian) giving is:

Community Funds and Red Cross	\$15,000,000	(est.)
Health Agencies	2,701,000	
International Agencies	1,494,000	
Overseas Campaigns	1,461,000	

On the basis of these reports, we estimate that on-the-job Federal giving was about \$20 millon overall during the last fiscal year. This is certainly not an inconsequential amount. The real question for us, though, is how does it compare with voluntary on-the-job giving by other employed groups?

For lack of comparative data we can't answer this question directly for the national agencies and the overseas campaigns. The voluntary agencies involved are fairly satisfied with overall results, which have been climbing each year. But there seems to be a large potential for improvement, since the Federal participation rate in those campaigns stateside is relatively low and varies widely from area to area.

On the other hand, Federal participation in community chest and united fund campaigns is quite good—UCFCA data for 72 cities show participation of around 80 percent—but the average Federal gift indicated by their reports is only around \$5, the lowest of all 30 worker classifications analyzed and well below state and local government employees. This is startling—doubly so for us in the Washington area where the average Federal gift is around \$13. The total raised here in 1960 in the United Givers Fund, \$3,635,000 from Government people, was almost 25 percent of the estimated \$15 million contributed by Federal workers in these campaigns throughout the country. The average Federal gift in New York City, by contrast, was only \$1.75.

It appears then that we have a problem in the field service that needs attention. I think everyone agrees that Federal employees should not be indifferent to community and humanitarian needs, nor should they appear so to the public. I don't think they are, on any widespread basis, and I have used the illustrative data only to focus attention on the problem. In a fairly balanced picture of the situation, we must also take strongly into consideration the fact that nearly half of Federal personnel are enlisted men whose dollar resources are generally considerably less than those of civilian workers, and that low Federal giving averages in particular localities may also reflect a low level of general citizen support. There are many localities where Federal response, military and civilian, is clearly outstanding.

We might conclude, then, that the program for handling Federal fund-raising is serving its purpose, but there are areas much in need of further attention and development.

NEW DEVELOPMENTS

On November 9, 1961, Chairman Macy announced some changes in our approach to Government fund-raising for charity. The new approach has two objectives: to make the program more effective, and at the same time, to protect the rights of the Federal population.

Under authority of E. O. 10927, the Chairman appointed two key advisory groups to assist him in program administration. Named to an advisory council were several national leaders in voluntary health and welfare work: Gen. Alfred M. Gruenther, President of the American National Red Cross; Irving A. Duffy, President, United Community Funds and Councils of America, Inc.; Frazier Cheston, President, National Association for Mental Health, Inc.; and Maj. Gen. C. W. Christenberry, President, American-Korean Foundation, Inc.

Each department and agency head designated a top-flight fund-raising program coordinator to (1) maintain liaison with Chairman Macy, (2) publicize program requirements throughout the department and see that they are observed, (3) investigate and straighten out any problems that arise in the department, and (4) collaborate in improving the program.

From these department and agency coordinators at large, the Chairman selected 20 to serve on an advisory coordinating group. These represent all the military and 91 percent of civilian employees. Named to the same group were nine presidents or senior officials of Federal employee organizations and unions representing the bulk of organized employees. The coordinating group is unique in its principle of joint membership by management and employee leaders, and its purpose is to try to improve arrangements for on-the-job solicitations.

(Continued—See FUND-RAISING, page 20.)

622251 O - 62 - 2

Manpower Utilization:

PERSONNEL MANAGEMENT ZEROES IN

by SEYMOUR S. BERLIN, *Director*
Bureau of Inspections
U.S. Civil Service Commission

MOST OF US have heard at least one sermon analyzing three carefully selected words of scripture, such as those which introduce the Book of Genesis, "In the Beginning." If I were to select a text for my remarks, it could be the first three words of Budget Director David Bell's memorandum to the President of April 14 this year, "As you requested." This text would be appropriate because it emphasizes the high degree of interest which the President and the Administration have demonstrated in better utilization of personnel in Government.

This text also highlights the cooperative role of central staff agencies working together to respond to the President's strong interest. Reading a little farther in Mr. Bell's message:

> "As you requested, we have been working with Chairman Macy of the Civil Service Commission to develop a suggested program for manpower controls and personnel utilization throughout the Government . . ."

It is this backdrop of keen Administration interest and high-level staff involvement which places in proper perspective the Commission's new program for reviewing and reporting on agency manpower utilization activities.

Development of the program, which was inaugurated on November 1, 1961, was undertaken very carefully. At various points, the program was discussed with key officials of the Bureau of the Budget. Cooperative endorsement was received from the Director of the Bureau of the Budget by the Chairman of the Commission.

ONE MANAGEMENT

Underlying the new program are certain basic concepts and fundamental assumptions known to all of us in the field of management, but still worth repeating. To begin with, management is a *line* responsibility. In Government, it is a responsibility which flows from the authority of the President to the heads of agencies and down through organizational echelons.

Personnel management is an indivisible part of line management's total responsibility. It cannot be considered as a separate entity divorced from management's needs, actions, or other responsibilities. This fact was brought home to me very forcefully a couple of years ago. An agency training official wrote to me asking that I speak before an executive conference he was running. I have never forgotten how he phrased it.

> "Mr. Berlin, . . . In presenting the topic 'Personnel Management in the Federal Government,' our only request is that you draw a distinction between what is popularly described as Personnel Administration (operating within regulatory control) and Personnel Management (working with and through people in accomplishing a mission)."

I have never read anything that captures the whole evolution of our profession any more concisely than that.

Personnel management as a function, therefore, exists to assist management in carrying out its mission. This is true at all levels of organization—the Administration, agency headquarters, and field establishments. Personnel management is not alone in this respect. There are other important staff services involved with matters of budget, supply, facilities, etc., which exist for the same reason. It is essential that each of us in all of these fields operate so as to complement one another's contributions to the total management picture. Actually no one staff function can operate as an entity unto itself. It is artificial to talk of any management support function apart from the line management responsibility, although we often do so for ease of discussion and consideration.

AN EVOLVING FUNCTION

The Civil Service Commission as the central personnel agency of Government serves top management—the Administration—in much the same fashion as an agency

---

Condensed by the author from his speech before the Society for Personnel Administration on November 30, 1961.

personnel office serves agency management. Through the years since its founding, the Commission has evolved from a narrow, central examining agency to one concerned with all phases of personnel management. This has occurred partly because of new and changing statutory and executive direction and partly through the natural evolution and development of the personnel management profession itself.

From its initial narrow operational approach the Commission moved through the important phase of control through regulation to a concern with the broad aspects of positive personnel management programs. Our inspection function in particular has reflected this. Even prior to this November, we were looking at, evaluating, and reporting on the broad aspects of the personnel function wherever found in the agency. One needs only to review chapter A4 of the Federal Personnel Manual to see the approach we have taken in doing this.

Now, however, we have arrived at the realization that a wrap-up look at the total personnel function makes sense as we relate that function to the accomplishment of mission. This requires of us an interest in the impact of management activities on the acquisition, use, and development of *people*—just as much as an interest in the reverse: the impact of the "people factor" on management capabilities to carry out mission.

In summary, these are the assumptions and concepts which underlie the Commission's thinking in extending the coverage of its inspection program to include agency manpower utilization activities. They provide the framework within which we will:

- Assist in carrying out the strong interest and desire of the President for a lean and fit service,
- Assist agencies and agency personnel management officials in carrying out their responsibilities of achieving mission results and meeting the President's wishes, and
- Assist other staff agencies—notably the Bureau of the Budget—in carrying out their important management roles, especially in the budget preparation, review, and program evaluation processes.

Turning now from the general to the specific, you may be interested to know that we have been experiencing some semantic difficulties in choosing a title for the new program. "Manpower utilization" as a concept appears to mean different things to different people. Some observers may recall the various management improvement programs in the agencies after World War II and during the Korean conflict. Still others may think manpower utilization refers to control or allocation of space; or work measurement and simplification; or management analyses.

Actually, the program consists of looking into certain specified areas of inquiry, outlined in a rather detailed agenda. This agenda is sent in advance to every installation the Commission is about to inspect in order that the material required may be developed cooperatively by agency personnel and operating people. The elements of the agenda concern themselves with relating the personnel management function to the agency's actions in carrying out its responsibilities. There are seven major elements:

- What policies and instructions has the establishment received from higher authority to guide local action with respect to better manpower utilization?
- How does the establishment determine its specific manpower requirements and avoid overstaffing or understaffing?
- What methods has it established to review utilization of its work force?
- What efforts has it made to review areas of personnel management susceptible to local control—employee turnover, use of overtime, absenteeism, lost time from accidents, and so on?
- What significant achievements in conserving manpower within the past two years can be cited?
- What changes have occurred in the activity's staffing pattern within the past two years?
- What is the activity doing to insure sound personnel management through the careful selection and appropriate training of persons engaged in the personnel management program?

FACTFINDING AND REPORTING

Much of the information to be reviewed and reported on will be obtained through our usual checks during inspection. Some information will be over and above that. In any case, the Commission's inspectors will follow the prescribed agenda rather closely. The objective will be simply to check and report on what agencies are doing in the manpower utilization area. There will be no attempt to interpose the inspector's judgment as to the value or effectiveness of agency utilization programs or activities. Accordingly, inspectors will confine themselves to factfinding and reporting without either evaluations or recommendations.

Reports of individual inspections will continue to go to establishment and agency heads. Copies will also go to the Bureau of the Budget as they have in the past. Reports regarding overall systems and programs will be pulled together on a nationwide basis for each agency and given to the head of the agency. Summary information of this type may also be used by the Chairman of the Commission to report to the President, the Bureau of the Budget, and other appropriate authorities on what is taking place in manpower utilization in individual agencies and in the Government as a whole.

The Commission's interest in this program arises out of its assigned responsibilities in the area of manpower supply, employee development and training, etc., in the Government-wide sense. Our interest does not arise from any assumption of competence in the work which an agency has to do (unless it happens to be some phase of personnel work, of course). The Commission has not the faintest idea how many engineers it takes to build a highway, or whether it takes the same kind of engineer to build one in the mountains as it does in the swamps. The situation would be the same with us whether the job were roads, cancer cures, or moon missiles.

What it takes in terms of manpower to do a job, however, is vitally important to the agency responsible for that job. The Commission will identify the *means,* the *system,* that the agency uses to make these decisions. In other words, there is no intention to direct a manpower utilization program by superimposing the Commission's judgment on that of the agency heads. Rather, the Commission is interested simply in the use of people within agencies as an essential ingredient and end product of the personnel management function in Government.

This means that we are not looking to see how many employees an agency has. We are, however, most interested in how an agency *goes about deciding* how many to have—how many it really needs. Accordingly, no agency official will have to face a Commission inspector to defend the size or composition of his staff, or the way in which he has organized his work, or whether he uses machine methods, human labor, or the contract route.

Questions have been raised about the focus of this new inspectional activity. Specifically, will we go outside the personnel office with our inquiries? The answer is "yes"—especially in those agencies that have manpower offices or functions outside the jurisdictional responsibility of the personnel office. There is nothing new, however, in talking with persons other than personnel officials. Our inspections have long concerned themselves with the personnel management program of the agency, not with a narrow review of the operations of its personnel office.

The Commission inspects training activities in the Bureau of Internal Revenue, for example. The training of the Internal Revenue Service, however, does not happen to be the responsibility of the personnel office. In most other agencies, for some time, our inspections have included interviews with employees, supervisors, and management officials to discuss various phases of the agency personnel program. The new agenda items will be reviewed and reported on wherever the information can be obtained and in accordance with the manner in which the agency head organizes and controls his personnel management function.

"IF STRONG EFFORTS ARE MADE . . ."

What are we trying to accomplish by the program? First, we are trying to be of maximum assistance to the President in carrying out his clear management desires and intentions. In this connection, the following excerpts from his statement to the Cabinet on October 26, 1961, are particularly significant.

". . . The current outlook reemphasizes the necessity to conduct the necessary work of the Government at the lowest possible cost, to eliminate or defer low priority activities, and to limit the number of Government employees to the absolute minimum. . . ."

". . . I am also especially desirous that the number of Government employees be limited to the minimum consistent with getting the job done. There is no question that employment can be held substantially below the levels which would be possible under the funds authorized by the Congress, if strong efforts are made to achieve increases in productivity and efficiency, to use better techniques of management and production, and to staff each activity with only the minimum number of employees needed to carry out our objectives. I expect each of you to make such efforts. . . ."

Next, we are trying to make even better use of our inspectional resources for meeting total Government management aims as well as individual agency needs. We have approximately 150 inspectors systematically contacting a representative sample of our Government's farflung establishments throughout the world. The facts they report, and which we pull together on an overall basis, should reflect the evolutionary development of the personnel management function and the full role of the central personnel agency of Government.

We have entered into this new inspection program with a considerable amount of hope—hope that our factfinding and reporting in this important area will motivate all levels of agency management to do a better job of reviewing the utilization aspects of their personnel management programs. We want to report on the many effective programs in the agencies—not just the negative situations. We are sure that many such programs can be dramatically presented in terms of specific results and concrete management achievements.

We are confident that our efforts to bring to light agency manpower utilization activities will also be of material assistance to the central management agencies of Government. In particular, the Commission's Chairman will be much better equipped to discharge his responsibilities in keeping the President informed on the state of personnel management in the Federal service.

Finally, we think that a real challenge now exists for all of us in the personnel fraternity. Working together cooperatively we can make the personnel management function an even more integral part of the management of an agency. We can see to it that personnel management is concerned with assisting the agency head to get his job done. Maybe, once and for all, in the terms of the letter I mentioned, we can leave "personnel administration" and become "personnel managers."

The AWARDS Story

AWARDS CONFERENCE HIGHLIGHTS

How management needs can be served through better use of the incentive awards program was the theme of the fourth annual Incentive Awards Conference conducted by the Civil Service Commission in November and attended by 250 Washington area awards officers. Salient points made during the conference are spotlighted in the following summary:

White House Point of View. Frederick G. Dutton, then Special Assistant to the President, pointed up the tie-in between the awards program and the President's interest in improved economy, efficiency, and manpower utilization. He cited last year's program results as an indicator of the broad impact of the program. Mr. Dutton stressed the need for increased program emphasis in two areas: *Motivation*—getting employees to give more to the job . . . to have more awareness of excellence . . . more of a desire to help do a better job. *Innovation*—stimulating employees to see how they can improve their jobs . . . how they can do them differently . . . how they are not dependent just upon instructions and directions from above. He added that incentive awards people can assist management in these respects by helping reach the rank-and-file employee and the middle management group.

FREDERICK G. DUTTON, then White House Aide, delivers keynote remarks to Incentive Awards Conference on November 7. Mr. Dutton is now Assistant Secretary of State for Congressional Relations.

Opportunities and Goals. The words and actions of the President, said CSC Chairman John W. Macy, Jr., provide the people who are daily concerned with incentives and productivity a series of opportunities—for management improvement, for greater personnel utilization, and for more significant results in the Federal Government than in any time past. These opportunities call for a broader and more significant development of the awards program in the months ahead.

John D. Roth, Director of the Federal Incentive Awards Program, urged the conferees to gear their operating programs for maximum support of the President's objectives by encouraging employees to search for cost-reduction opportunities, to be outposts of management in looking for ways to better accomplish the mission and to make the special effort that produces results beyond those generally obtained.

Recognizing Job Excellence. A panel discussion moderated by C. O. Henderson, Assistant Director of Personnel, Department of Agriculture, brought forth these viewpoints on superior performance awards. The value of the superior performance awards program may be judged by how useful it is to management in demonstrating appreciation for superior work and in fostering the spirit of excellence. It is important that employees who truly excel in their jobs receive recognition. If the standards for superior performance are too low, the result can be a cheapening of the award and the program. Every performance award should be based on a level of performance that can be accepted as "above average" by reasonable people, and the basis for the award should be publicized.

Suggestions as a Management Tool. Dick Payne, Suggestion and Awards Officer, Post Office Department, and his panel focused attention on the technique of soliciting employee ideas keyed to broad problem areas of concern to management. This technique has been used with worthwhile benefits in VA's Department of Veterans Benefits. Ideas proposed by employees, especially those worked out jointly by groups, were a great help to management in developing an improved procedure. Management analysts can use this resource during their surveys by identifying problem areas and asking for employee suggestions. Use of the suggestion program to give employees motivation for cost reduction campaigns was advocated.

—*Philip Sanders*

The PUBLIC OFFICIAL and the PUBLIC INTEREST

by HARLAN CLEVELAND, *Assistant Secretary of State for International Organization Affairs*
Department of State

SEVERAL YEARS AGO, when Charles Van Doren was pretending to be an intellectual giant on television, he and his famous father Mark Van Doren were chosen as "The Father-and-Son Team of the Year" by the National Father's Day Committee. The grateful remarks that father and son made in accepting the award, heard now against the background music of Charles' later confession that his brilliance was a hoax, take on a quality of prophetic wisdom.

Father was the first to speak; our later hindsight does not tarnish his words:

> "I claim no credit for (Charles') being what he is . . . people make their own intellectual and moral characters. If he was helped in making his by me . . . it was he who decided to accept the help. The decision in such matters is finally with ourselves. To say that responsibility begins at home should mean, I think, that it begins—and ends, too—in the individual. Sooner or later he must help himself. There are no alibis."

Charles Van Doren then rose to accept his public's accolade, and spoke of his father.

> ". . . He has been able to move me, to laughter and to tears, for as long as I can remember. Both in public and in private—and that's of the greatest importance. For my father has been to me both a public and a private man. Oh, perhaps not as public a man as I have become recently. We have laughed about this, he and I. I doubt if anyone has had a better time than he in this strange and hectic last few months.
>
> "But my experience has reminded me of something that he taught me—not consciously, I'm sure, but as an example. For the extraordinary thing about my father is that his public face and his private face have been the same. He has been the same man to the world as he has been to his family. And that is harder than it sounds.
>
> "It is the very definition of integrity, I suppose."

In modern society everyone faces in some degree the problem of making his public face the same as his private face.

How far any individual succeeds in this effort—which is indeed harder than it sounds—may be taken as a rough measure of "public ethics" for our time and place. Thus in an era of growing artificiality in public relations, of tinsel and packaging and television makeup, and "falsies" of mind and body, the highest compliment that can be paid to a public man is paradoxically that he is made of the same stuff all the way through, inside and out. The more public responsibility he carries, the more important it is for the individual to have a private face that can without embarrassment be displayed in public.

The author, formerly Dean, Maxwell Graduate School of Citizenship and Public Affairs, Syracuse University, has written and spoken extensively on this subject.

IN OUR TIME, more people carry more public responsibility than ever before—and the trend continues. The social fallout of science is an unimaginable increase in the numbers and kinds of new decisions that have to be made. A fine contemporary example is the explosive population increase and its economic, emotional, religious, military, and diplomatic ramifications. But in every field new kinds of decisions constantly need to be made: about H-bomb testing; about powerful insecticides; about the widespread use of tranquilizers and "lifters"; about the ethics of mass persuasion; about urban congestion; about food surpluses and mass starvation; about our involvement in the internal affairs of other nations; about Antarctica and the Moon. These new decisions are not generally a *substitute* for decisions that used to be faced by mankind. They are *additions* to the burden of public responsibility.

To get the expanding volume of decisions made, new social forms are developing. They tend to be large, complex webs of tensions, with power so diffused within them that the term "decisionmaking," which has been used and abused by a whole generation of political scientists, is now quite misleading. Each "decision" about public affairs is now a complex process of multilateral brokerage both inside and outside the organizations primarily concerned. They are manned, these new style complex public/private organizations by a relatively new breed of modern man, which I will call the Public Executive.

It used to be possible to distinguish the public executive from the private executive by inquiring whether he worked for a "public agency." But nowadays all large organizations are in some sense public. The line between what is public and what is private can no longer be drawn between government organizations and non-government organizations. The line between what is public and what is private must be drawn within each organization, between its publicness and its privateness.

It is not hard to see how this has come to be so. The sheer size and influence of many private organizations—of corporations, and banks, and private foundations and universities, too—mean that these organizations are heavily affected with the public interest; indeed, the public responsibility of large private organizations has come to be a standard article of faith at businessmen's luncheons and other public occasions on which inspirational clichés are duly applauded.

Consider the reaction of all of us to the recent steel strike, in which it was perfectly clear that the two big private groups concerned were by no means all the parties whose interests were at stake. There was—we all felt it instinctively—an empty chair at the bargaining table, reserved for but not occupied by the general public. The issue was trilateral, yet collective bargaining is still by antique tradition, bilateral.

THE FENCE between "public" and "private" is being battered from both sides. Private enterprise has been pulling the organized public, which is to say the government, into its affairs to achieve legitimacy and to spread the risk of poor managerial judgment. Government, faced with public expectation that it will expand its functions but not expand its bureaucracy, freely farms out to private organizations staggering proportions of the public business.

In these circumstances it is evident that the "public executive" is marked not by his *affiliation* with a government agency but by his *attitude* toward the public responsibility he carries, whatever the character of the organization in which he carries it.

"The public executive should not therefore ask himself, 'Will I be criticized?' If the executive is operating at all in the area of public responsibility, the answer to that question is always 'Yes.'"

If a line cannot be drawn between "public" and "private" on the basis of who owns or sponsors an organization; if the reality is that the line between "public" and "private" is to be drawn *within* each organization, between its publicness and its privateness, no responsible executive can ignore the public responsibility he personally carries as an integral part of his function as an executive. He may be in or out of government, in business or in church, in foundation or association, but he is marked as a public executive by his consciousness of a responsibility to the public interest.

The public interest is, of course, by no means the executive's only touchstone of action and judgment; in the rarified executive atmosphere of extreme moral complexity, it competes with organizational loyalty and family ties and "professional ethics" and personal ambition and personal health and an assortment of external expectations and internalized criteria, all interacting with a speed and subtlety which no imaginable computer could duplicate.

Is it possible to define the "public interest," to isolate it from the other considerations, at least for purposes of analysis? The answer is probably that it can be defined:

For each person by that person,

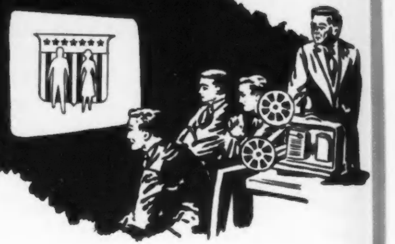
For each situation in that situation.

(Continued—See PUBLIC OFFICIAL, page 26.)

Editorial:

IMPLICATIONS OF OUR IMAGE

by WARREN B. IRONS, *Executive Director*
U.S. Civil Service Commission



CITIZENS FEEL THAT CIVIL SERVANTS are honest but they lack ambition; they are motivated by security, their work is monotonous and routine. The citizen of above-average income, education, or occupational level feels it would be downgrading for him to enter civil service. Civil servants, on the other hand, feel they have accepted the right calling, although they yearn for higher salary ceilings. They rate service above security as a job motive and they pride themselves and their fellow employees on such virtues as capability, willingness to serve, and personality.

These, stated in very general terms, are some of the findings of a Brookings Institution survey, soon to be published. Preliminary results of the survey, as reported to the Interagency Advisory Group in Washington, are found on page 18.

Though more sweeping recommendations will doubtless be forthcoming later from sources both inside and outside Government, there are at least six calls to action which present themselves to Federal management on the basis of the preliminary data.

1. Government should make greater efforts to communicate some knowledge of its work and career opportunities to students while they are still in high school. The promising student who first learns of Government as an employer when he is, say, a senior in college is unlikely to make Government his career choice. On the other hand, the survey shows that students, while still in high school, are highly susceptible to career values such as Government offers. Even though many of them are at least 4 years from entry into the labor market, they are concerned with their vocational decision. Government, like other employers, must take the long view and intensify its career communication with students in high schools.

2. The Government should communicate more fully with college faculties and staffs to improve their knowledge of the Federal service. There is no one technique which, by itself, will guarantee for the Government service a "better press" among educators. Much needs to be done through face to face contact as well as by the printed word. We need to feed back into campus publicity channels more news about jobs that recent graduates are doing. We should see to it that some of our most

talented people have the opportunity to speak before academic groups and write for publications read by educators. More of us must get to know more of them, as individuals.

3. The Government should give the Federal employee more information about the relationship of his job and his agency to the higher occupational values—challenge, sense of mission, public service motive, etc. This sounds like selling civil service to civil servants—and it is. Here we have a good foundation to build on as the Brookings study shows. Federal employees already have an appreciation of the career values of public service. They can become our most effective recruiters, reflecting the sense of "pride and honor" which acts as a magnet for talent.

4. Government should encourage informed Federal employees to project their views about the Federal service more fully to outside publics and to participate to a greater extent in civic and community affairs. Obviously, this encouragement must take the form of leadership, rather than drivership. We cannot entice employees into these efforts by dangling rewards or invoking penalties. Any such approach would be very short lived, as has been proven many times. Nevertheless, our career people will do these things willingly if they are given the right example, the right motivation, the right tools, assistance and support.

5. Government should find additional ways to communicate a better knowledge of its management and personnel methods to members of the business and industrial community. This has nothing to do with the business community's enthusiasm or lack of it for certain Government programs. But we need to spike some of the myths and misconceptions relating to the work methods of Government and its stature as an employer. Government is a leader in many aspects of large-scale management, including the latest applications of automation. Better understanding of modern Government methods on the part of the business community would be a major asset in our search for talent.

6. Government should facilitate an interchange of personnel among Federal Government, other governmental jurisdictions, educational institutions, and private industry—with an emphasis on making such interchange possible at an early stage in a person's career. This kind of interchange could be the real proof of the pudding, in terms of creating better balanced, more knowledgeable attitudes about Government service on the part of those outside it. We need realistic exploration—and some experimentation—of the problems, goals, and likely results of an expanded program of interchange of personnel.

All of these conclusions drawn from the preliminary findings of the Brookings study are supported by commonsense, experience, and other available evidence. In this respect, perhaps we are like the farmer who rejected the offer of an agriculture short course with the retort, "I ain't farming half as good as I know how to right now." The fact remains that the Federal service has never before had the benefit of scientific factfinding on this scale in this important area. Let's not just make the best of it; let's make the most of it.

—FROM THE BROOKINGS SURVEY

{See Editorial, page 16.}

Dr. Franklin P. Kilpatrick, Senior Staff Member of Brookings Institution, addressed the Interagency Advisory Group on February 2, August 17, and November 2, 1961, concerning the Brookings survey of the image of the public service. Below is a condensation of published minutes of the three sessions, summarizing Dr. Kilpatrick's remarks.

THE SURVEY

The first phase of the study was based on data obtained from interviews with some 3,700 persons, not employed by the Federal Government, representing various occupational groups of the national population. Included were a general sample representative of the employed public; natural and social scientists and engineers in private enterprise; natural and social scientists and engineers in education; business executives; high school and college teachers; and students in the third and fourth years of high school, seniors in college, and graduate students.

In the second phase, 1,200 employees selected from the nationwide Federal work force were interviewed. This group was subsampled to obtain information from career natural and social scientists and engineers; and career administrators at and above grade GS–12.

THE QUESTIONNAIRE

The questionnaire for non-Government subjects consisted of about 20 open-end or probing questions and about 125 categorical or closed-end questions. It began by asking the interviewee two open-end questions: First, what kinds of things *about* an occupation would make it absolutely ideal for him; and second, what kinds of things *about* an occupation would make it the worst sort he could imagine. With this frame of reference established, the respondent was asked to indicate where he would place his current occupation on a 10-rung ladder scale. Then, after reasons for his choice were explored, the respondent was asked where on the scale he would place his current occupation if he were working for the Federal Government. Subsequent open-end questions then probed into his reasons for feeling he would move up or down the scale if he were working for the Federal Government. Subsequent questions were designed to determine whether the interviewee felt some particular branches or parts of the Government would be better to work in than others. This series of questions was particularly revealing of people's attitudes toward the Federal service as a career.

The second half of the questionnaire was designed to probe general occupational values and attitudes toward Government and politics. Specific questions were asked about Federal civil service employees, U.S. Congressmen, and appointees in top-level administrative and executive Federal positions. The questionnaire concluded with a series of questions which obtained detailed information about the respondent and his background.

Except for a few necessary modifications, the same questionnaire was used for interviewing Federal personnel as was used for the non-Government sample.

FINDINGS OUTSIDE GOVERNMENT

Each respondent was asked to describe what about an occupation would make it singularly the best and worst imaginable. These two conceptions about occupations were fixed at the opposite ends of the 10-point ladder described above. Each respondent then was asked to rate his current occupation on the scale in relation to the two extremes. Next, each respondent was asked to indicate, in relation to the three established points: (1) where he was, occupationally, 5 years earlier, (2) where he expects to be 5 years hence, and (3) where he would be if his occupation remained the same but he were employed by the Federal Government.

Although there was variation among median rankings derived from the general public, college teachers, and high school teachers, certain uniform tendencies appeared in the findings: Generally, all three groups regard their current occupational status favorably, i.e., the three median rankings occur within a range of 7.3 to 8.5 in a possible range of 1.0 to 10.0. The three groups believe they have improved their occupational status over the previous 5 years and, further, expect to improve it more during the next 5 years. Dr. Kilpatrick observed that these findings reflect the optimistic outlook usually found to prevail in an expanding economy. They also suggest that people expect occupational mobility to be upward.

The median ranking for the answer to the question about Federal employment indicates that the three groups would regard a switch to Government employment as a definite occupational downgrading. This finding is especially significant when examined in the light of the evidence that people generally expect occupational mobility to result in improvement of occupational situation.

Respondents were asked a host of questions designed to secure data on factors that make a job desirable. These questions revealed that the general public and the two subgroups place opportunity factors above job security considerations. Dr. Kilpatrick observed that these findings suggest that the relatively secure economy of the United States has, to a large extent, satisfied psychological needs for security. Hence, while job security factors are *important,* they apparently are not matters of significant psychological *concern* under present economic conditions. This is increasingly apparent in answers secured from respondents at the higher ends of the educational and occupational scales.

Respondents were also asked to rate certain classes of Federal employees on a 10-point scale on several personality characteristics. At the same time, they likewise rated a non-Government class defined as "top-level employees in private business." General findings on how the general public and high school and college teachers rated some of these factors follow:

• *Honesty.* Federal employees fare well on this factor. All classes received higher median ratings than did top-level employees in private business. Significantly, median scores for all classes, including those for the private business class, are high on the 10-point scale.

• *Ability.* No class of Federal employees, including U.S. Senators, outranks the private business class. The class defined as "Federal civil service employees in general" received median scores from all three groups of respondents well below scores for all other classes. Of note is that the two teacher groups rate Federal employees lower than does the general public on this factor. The class defined as "top-level civil service employees," however, is considered nearly as able as the private business class.

• *Drive to get ahead.* Again, college and high school teachers especially—but the general public, too—rated Federal civil service employees below other classes on this factor. Top-level Federal appointive personnel and Members of Congress received higher median scores, but they are still lower than scores for the private business class.

• *Interest in serving the public.* Federal civil service employees are believed to be little more interested, if any, in serving the public than is the private business class. But top-level civil service employees received a substantially higher rating on this factor.

• *How well respected they are.* This was a status question. Top-level civil service employees are apparently fairly well respected by the three groups. Civil service employees in general are somewhat less respected.

Data tabulated from answers to other questions revealed that all three groups believe that an individual has a slightly better chance of achieving a top-level job within the Government than he has in a large private business corporation. *However,* the three groups—especially the teachers—view working for the Government as a less likely path to "being really successful" than is working for a private corporation. Dr. Kilpatrick pointed out that these two findings, taken together, suggest the three groups feel that while chances are relatively good for "getting to the top" in Government, the "top" itself is not very high.

When the participants were asked what they thought motivated people to enter the Federal service, the replies indicated that the *security* motive predominated. Surprisingly, the *service* motive did not show up in any statistically significant amount in the general population group. Among the other groups, it was evident but was overshadowed by the *security* motive. Other motives ascribed to Federal employees were *financial reward, self-advancement, lack of ambition,* and *inability to succeed elsewhere.* The latter motive was mentioned by a relatively small number, but nevertheless it is significant in that it appears at all.

Dr. Kilpatrick next proceeded to contrast the image of the public service as shown by the results of his survey, and the occupational value which society considers important. This contrast indicates that the image is out of focus with the occupational values which society holds. Whereas *security* is seen by all groups as the principal feature in Federal employment, *security* rates low as an occupational value of our current work force, particularly in those groups at the top of the hierarchy. Such features as *self-reliance* and *challenge* become more important to persons in the upper strata. The image does not show that these groups consider Federal service as offering these features. The image comes closest to the occupational values of the lowest educational group, although even there they do not match. Among the more talented and highly educated groups, one must go against the social norm in some respects to seek Federal employment. The general picture is one which varies in intensity among groups but is still remarkably uniform.

Dr. Kilpatrick theorized that the image of the public service is dominated by the idea that public servants are all clerks. The most salient attitude towards Federal employment is that it is monotonous and routine. This may result from the fact that the average citizen's only contacts with government are with the more routine types of services. In any event, the results of this survey should bear consideration in many policy determinations, he said, particularly those concerned with recruiting. The findings suggest that some steps should be taken to provide a higher *top* in civil service and to build in features of autonomy and self-determination, Dr. Kilpatrick noted.

FEDERAL EMPLOYEES' VIEWS

When asked to rank their present occupations on the 10-point scale indicating the least desirable and most desirable occupations, Federal employees in general paralleled their counterparts in the non-Federal population. The special occupational groups in Government tended to rate their occupations slightly lower than the business and industry groups in private industry and considerably lower than educators who rate their occupations the highest of all groups. Overall, however, the Federal employee rates his occupational standing quite high.

Data indicate that the Federal employee has a sense of progress in his occupation and that he has an optimistic view of his future. The Federal employee considers his opportunity for advancement in the Federal service to be roughly as good as it would be in a large private corporation. Ownership of a business appears to him to offer the best opportunity for success, however. Dr. Kilpatrick concluded that although the Federal employee has a sense of progress in his occupation and believes his opportunities to be good, the Federal employee does not believe that the top in Federal service is very high.

Federal employees, in general, see only a slight downgrading in their occupational standing if their employer were not the Federal Government. They show a marked negative reaction to working for a large private corporation, however. This negative attitude towards large corporations on the part of Federal employees is similar to the negative attitude towards Federal employment held by the business and industry group in the non-Federal population. The small number of business executives in the sample who had some previous experience in government, however, were markedly favorable to Federal service, Dr. Kilpatrick pointed out. Taking private employment as a whole, Federal employees rate opportunity for advancement as about as good in the Federal service.

The Federal employee rates high such occupational values as *financial reward, security, self-determination, power to make decisions, physical environment,* and the opportunity for *self-advancement.* Unlike the general non-Federal public, the general Federal employee population considers the *service motive* as a desirable occupational value. On the whole, he rates Federal service high in these qualities. When asked what features they considered to be worse in the Federal service than in non-Federal employment, the higher educational and occupational groups list such features as *financial reward,* although among the lower educational groups, Federal service was rated better in this feature. *Self-determination* was found wanting in Federal service by some groups, but in others a high percentage thought that Federal employment offered greater opportunity for self-determination than did non-Federal employment (natural scientists, social scientists, and engineers). Federal service topped all other employment in such features as physical environment and lack of unpleasant job pressures. Federal employees also listed *security* as a desirable and present feature in their current employment. There also was a significant number of Federal employees who felt that everything was worse in non-Federal employment (similarly, some of the non-Federal population rated everything worse in Federal service).

Dr. Kilpatrick also related some interesting statistics compiled from replies to several questions dealing with Federal salaries. For example, the general employed public (non-Federal) thought that the top civil service salary was $10,000 (this and subsequent figures are median figures). They also thought that it should be increased to $15,000. Dr. Kilpatrick thought it significant that this group with an average annual salary of approximately $5,500 per year feels that the top civil service salary should be one-half again as much as they believe it to be at present, or approximately three times their own salaries. Among the higher educational group and the special occupational groups in the non-Federal population, the estimates of the current top civil service salary ranged from $15,000 to $18,500. An amazing consensus developed in their estimates of what should be the top civil service salary. A top salary of $25,000 was selected by all but one of these groups. Similarly, among the special educational and occupational groups in the Federal employee population, $25,000 was the figure given as the ideal top salary.

A favorable attitude toward Federal service exists among high school and college students, Dr. Kilpatrick reported. Also, his survey shows that the "A" student generally looks with more favor on working for the Government than does the "C" student. Dr. Kilpatrick observed that Government may find it desirable to increase its recruiting efforts at these levels in order to bring these bright young people into the Federal service and to provide adequate training and developmental opportunities for them.

FUND-RAISING—

(continued from page 9.)

Chairman Macy stated that the efforts of both new advisory groups will be aimed at solving our outstanding problems and applying new ideas of affirmative value. He intends to seek the broadest possible participation in and support of private voluntary agencies by the Federal community on terms that are compatible with the rights of employees and the effective conduct of Governmental operations.

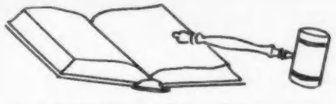
At the first meeting of the Coordinating Group on November 13, 1961, Chairman Macy said:

". . . we need to establish in this Coordinating Group an Eligibility Board to reappraise and advise me on our eligibility standards and to consider carefully and with some formality the presentation of each applicant. I have no wish to avoid the hard decisions that must be made, but where valuable rights are involved, we must insure due process. We can expect a number of new applicants for next year, that is by next March, so the review of eligibility standards should be our first order of business.

"President Kennedy has reaffirmed in the current Executive order the requirement that campaign arrangements must permit true voluntary giving and reserve to the individual the option of disclosing his gift or keeping it confidential. We need to do more work on this matter of campaign ethics. The number of specific employee complaints about coercion are relatively small today—less than a dozen so far this fall from all the community campaigns across the country. But we know from the amount of generalized complaint that there is still a widespread feeling among employees that they are being subjected to improper pressure. We also know that many supervisors and administrative officials do not know where to draw the line between proper and improper pressure to make campaign goals. We want to research this problem and provide better guidelines on campaign ethics. . . .

"Finally, we have the question of how well Federal people are responding to charitable appeals. . . . Our study of this problem ties in, I think, to the matter of campaign ethics that I just mentioned. We need, perhaps, to develop better guidelines for our Federal administrators and project officers, guidelines that will emphasize successful campaign methods that are within both the spirit and the letter of true voluntary giving. And we need to give personal leadership to our field agency heads in those localities where motivation is obviously lacking. . . ."

This, then, is the direction the new program is taking. How well it succeeds depends on the cooperation of every one involved—managers, supervisors, and the generosity of every one of our 5,000,000 Federal people around the world.



LEGAL DECISIONS

BACK PAY AFTER RESTORATION TO DUTY

Reminiscent of Oliver Twist's plaintive request for "more gruel" is the plaintiff's request for "more back pay" in two recent Court of Claims cases. In both cases the employee had been restored after adverse action had been taken against him under the Security Act of August 26, 1950, Public Law 81–733. In the first, *Habicht* v. *United States,* Court of Claims, June 7, 1961, the agency allowed back pay for only part of the period of suspension. The court said that while the statute requires back pay upon restoration, the clause "and if so reinstated or restored shall be allowed compensation for all or any part of the period of such suspension or termination" leaves with the head of the agency a discretion "to determine whether justice requires payment for the full period of suspension or only for a part of it."

In the other case, *Zeiger* v. *United States,* Court of Claims, November 1, 1961, plaintiff had been restored to duty after being off the rolls for 4 years, 9½ months. The agency gave him back pay for the entire period and credited him with 240 hours of annual leave, the total amount that he could have to his credit under the leave ceiling of the Annual and Sick Leave Act. He wanted to be paid for the additional 606 hours of annual leave that would have accrued to him if he had been on the rolls. The court had allowed similar claims in four other cases, but it denied this one, pointing out that under the statute the top limit on back pay is "*not to exceed* the difference between the amount such person would normally have earned during the period of such suspension or termination, at the rate he was receiving on the date of suspension or termination, as appropriate, and the interim net earnings of such person. . . .

"Plaintiff has been paid every penny that he would have earned had he remained on the payroll and had taken his leave each year. . . . If plaintiff were paid for the 606 hours involved here, he would receive some $300 per year more than he would have received had he remained on the payroll, regardless of whether he used his current annual leave. Insofar as this conclusion is in conflict with the *Hynning, Prosterman, McGuire* and *Vitarelli* cases, *supra,* they are overruled."

VETERANS' APPEALS—HEARING

Williams v. *Zuckert, et al,* Court of Appeals, D.C., November 9, 1961. Plaintiff contended that he had been removed in violation of section 14 of the Veterans' Preference Act because in the hearing before the Commission's appeals examiner the agency did not produce for cross-examination the three members of the Air Force whose affidavits were the basis of the charges against him. The court rejected this contention, stating:

"The statutes under which Congress has authorized the dismissal of civilian employees of the Government by administrative process do not require the Government, in this case the Air Force, to produce for cross-examination the persons whose affidavits or statements supply the factual basis for dismissal. . . . The failure of the Air Force to produce such witnesses here can in no way be viewed as a denial of appellant's statutory and procedural rights."

REDUCTION IN FORCE

Hyland v. *Watson,* Supreme Court, October 16, 1961. The final blow to the hopes of nonveterans who were trying to convince the courts that section 12 of the Veterans' Preference Act is unconstitutional was administered by the Supreme Court's refusal to review the decision of the Court of Appeals, Sixth Circuit, in this case. A digest of the decision of the Court of Appeals may be found in the *Journal,* Vol. 1, No. 4.

UNAUTHORIZED PRACTICE OF LAW

While not directly connected with the field of Federal personnel management, the case of *Hoffmeister* v. *Tod,* Supreme Court of Missouri, September 11, 1961, is of interest because of the possibility that it may be cited as a precedent in Federal cases.

Defendant was a union official. Among other duties he was supposed to handle "out-plant problems" of the union members. Among these were the problems of union members who had claims under the workmen's compensation law of the State. He assisted them in preparing the required application forms, appeared at conferences with them with the staff of the bureau that decided the claims, advised them to accept or not to accept offers of settlement, etc. (The activities mentioned in the court's decision are too numerous to digest here.) The court held that he had engaged in the unauthorized practice of law, adjudged him guilty of contempt of court, and fined him $250.

—John J. McCarthy

Civil Servants at Work:

LOOKING UP WITH FAA

THE FEDERAL AVIATION AGENCY, created by an act of Congress in 1958, is an unusual agency. Most of its 43,000 employees work on the ground, but their chief concern is what's going on overhead. In fact, you can't set foot into a nonmilitary aircraft in the United States without stepping into the world of the FAA employee. But, for the most part, the public does not know or appreciate the extent to which its flying safety is in the hands of the capable work force of this agency. This is a brief look at some of the things these civil servants do.

LISTENING IN

Have you ever heard such language?

> "Douglas One, this is Washington Clearance Delivery, cleared to the Baltimore ILS outer marker; maintain 3,000 via departure vectors. Over."

These are the radio instructions of an FAA ground controller at Washington National Airport. He is talking to the pilot of "Douglas One," who is taxiing out to depart on instrument flight rules to Baltimore. Next, the flight will be turned over to another tower controller for takeoff instructions.

Later, when the flight approaches Baltimore, we might hear:

> "Douglas One, Baltimore Approach Control, turn right heading zero seven zero, descend to one thousand five hundred, cleared for ILS runway one zero approach, now five miles southwest of the outer marker, over."

These are but two of the 40 to 50 separate radio instructions that might be transmitted by FAA controllers to the pilot of this particular flight. All this—for a 30-mile flight? Indeed! The passengers on "Douglas One" are entitled to the same safe passage as, for example, those on a transcontinental flight. The progress of every such instrument flight along the Nation's airways is directed and monitored by FAA'ers on the ground.

WITH THIS FIRST INSTALLMENT, the *Journal* launches a new series, *Civil Servants at Work.* The series is designed to give Federal people more knowledge of what their counterparts are doing in other agencies, and to broaden public understanding of the Federal service.

PEOPLE WITH PURPOSE

About half of FAA's work force is engaged in air traffic control. The standards—physical, mental, and emotional—for selecting these employees (as for other lines of FAA work) are tough. The work isn't easy, even under normal operating conditions.

When the weather starts closing in on a lone aircraft or a sky full of planes; when an unidentified aircraft unwittingly seeks the forbidden companionship of others; when anything interrupts the normal hustle of business—things can get mighty rough. The control towers, communications centers, radar rooms, and en-route control centers suddenly become electrified with tension and activity. The squawking speakers, the sweat on every brow, the moisture seeping through a row of shirts bent over a long electronic console, the narrowed look in the eyes glued to every movement on the radar scopes—these are but a few of the outward signs of meeting an urgent objective: to move the public in an orderly fashion across the skies and set them down safely.

OTHER PEOPLE: SAME PURPOSE

Other FAA'ers are just as deeply involved and concerned with the safety of the flying public. Their work takes on a great variety of forms. First, the aircraft itself has to be safe. FAA people work alongside the assembly line to assure that aircraft in production will meet airworthiness requirements—down to the nuts and bolts level—and then test them under normal and severe operating conditions before certifying them for public use. Even then, the planes must continue to meet FAA maintenance specifications to stay in public use.

The pilots, and all other airmen, who either fly the public around or maintain the aircraft, the flight schools,

AMID AN ARRAY of flashing lights, whirling recorders, and a variety of instruments, this FAA employee is shown in a specially equipped plane, flying over ground air navigation facilities to check on the accuracy of emitted signals.

FAA EMPLOYEES work in many parts of the world to promote flying safety. Shown here is an FAA technician in Iran, running an equipment test as young spectators watch with interest.

FAA GENERAL SAFETY INSPECTOR examines the engine of a large transport after it has received a periodic overhaul. All work on general aviation aircraft and engines is thoroughly inspected by these men.

and ground schools—these have to meet strict FAA standards.

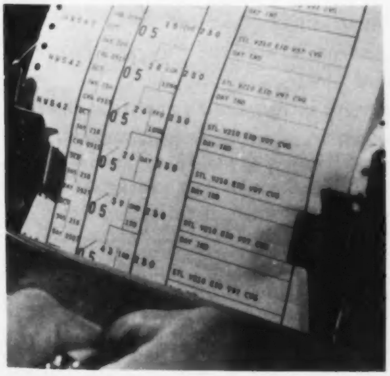
A host of highly skilled FAA'ers work around the clock to install and maintain the thousands of electronic and visual components that make up the Nation's system of air traffic control and aerial navigation. A different group, in specially equipped planes, flies back and forth over the electronic highways in the sky to make sure there are no errant signals to compromise the public's safety.

FAA employees, some of whom are among the Nation's most outstanding research and engineering workers, constantly experiment with and test today's and tomorrow's devices that will promote flying safety. Even the man himself is tested in the laboratory to find out what human factors and limitations must be engineered into tomorrow's aircraft and air traffic control systems.

FAA activities are worldwide. Many FAA'ers work in other countries to assist in modernizing their airways. This, too, is in the interest of the American public—especially those who would fly to South America, Afghanistan, Ankara, or other oversea destinations.

No less important are those FAA'ers who provide services and support functions necessary to the successful operation of the agency. They, too, have their feet on the ground with their hearts in the clouds, though their work may be in supply, personnel, budget and fiscal, information, or related activities. Without them, the others could not function effectively.

This, then, is our first *Journal* look at *Civil Servants at Work:* Citizens All—Serving All Citizens.



AUTOMATION HAS COME TO FAA with the use of the IBM RAMAC 650 computer which can automatically print up to 3,000 flight progress strips per hour. Air traffic controllers use such strips in keeping track of planes in the air. The strips contain information as to identification of each aircraft, speed, altitude, route, and estimate of times that flights will pass over radio fixes.

ELECTRONIC WONDERLANDS, such as this Atlanta Air Route Traffic Control Center, are duplicated in many parts of the United States. Such centers control aircraft enroute from one airport to another. (*FAA photos.*)

TRAINING DIGEST

COMMISSION EXPANDS TRAINING SERVICES

As part of a reorganization to provide more resources for its operating programs, the Commission recently authorized each civil service region to assign a staff employee full time to employee development activities.

These officers will promote and coordinate training as provided in the Government Employees Training Act, ascertain the needs for interagency management training and locate or plan for resources to meet these needs, coordinate and assist in the conduct of the region's training activities for agencies in the field of personnel administration, and consult with agency field officials on career development and training programs.

FEDERAL CENTER

A Federal Government center for executive training received support at the recently held University-Federal Agency Conference on Career Development at Princeton University. In deciding in favor of such a center, the group considered data presented by Commission staff:

- 1,650 career executives in grades GS–16 and above hold key jobs in a wide range of occupations.
- About one-fourth will retire in the next 5 years.
- About 30 percent work in the fields of science and engineering, 43 percent in other line assignments, and 27 percent in other assignments such as staff positions.
- Whereas scientists and engineers are distributed about equally between Washington and the field, about three out of four of the others work in Washington, D.C.
- Their average length of service is 20 years, 15 of which was spent in one agency.
- About half entered the Government at grade GS–5 or below; four out of five entered Government at grade GS–11 or below.
- Three out of four have college degrees.

TRAINING OFFICER'S CALENDAR

The new Interagency Training Bulletin, January 1961 issue, will soon be distributed. The new Bulletin will list nearly 200 courses.

EXECUTIVES REPORT TRAINING BENEFITS

Two recent studies report the reaction of executives to training received. The 116 Federal executives who attended executive training at non-Federal training institutions were asked by Raymond L. Randall, of the Commission's Office of Career Development, to state the major benefit they received. They replied as follows:

- Twenty percent believed the programs broadened their perspective of the Federal Government.
- Nineteen percent believed they gained more insight into human relations.
- Seventeen percent increased their confidence in their own ability.
- Eleven percent obtained better understanding of management.
- Eleven percent thought the programs provided a cross-check on their previous practices.

A study by Dr. Kenneth R. Andrews (*Harvard Business Review*, May–June 1961) of more than 6,000 businessmen who attended university executive training programs found:

- Twenty-eight percent gained greater respect for their own ability.
- Twenty-five percent learned more about business functions in areas other than their own.
- Fourteen percent believed the programs broadened their point of view.
- Thirteen percent increased their analytical ability.
- Eleven percent increased their insight into the responsibility of business to society.

EVALUATION NEEDS IMPROVEMENT

A number of agency training programs would benefit from improvement of their evaluation techniques, Commission inspectors report. A significant percentage of establishments have, on inspection, been found to be in need of improvement in this area. Few have been judged outstanding.

Inspectors ask such questions as "Have evaluations been made of nearly all training activities?" "Has information been sought at various levels in the organization to determine whether training objectives are being achieved?" and "Is action nearly always taken when a training evaluation indicates a need for changes?" When answers to these questions reflect inadequacies, inspectors

RECRUITERS ROUNDUP

OUR CAMPUS "QUEST FOR QUALITY"—1961

A year ago we discussed college recruiting in the article, "Campus Stakeout" (*Civil Service Journal,* January–March 1961 issue). At that time we undertook to forecast the possibility of unprecedented success for Federal recruiters during the year *if* certain things were done. Now that the year is gone—how did we do? What was our boxscore, especially at the college level?

The Federal Government had a good year in recruiting. Not perfect—but certainly *good.* This is true for scarce categories of scientists and engineers as well as for the types of jobs for which we recruit from the Federal-Service Entrance Examination.

Scarce-category scientists and engineers at grades 5 and 7 are recruited at the top salary step of the grade under authority of section 803 of the Classification Act. A review of agencies' experience with these critical categories shows what we consider to be a highly successful recruiting year for the 1961 graduates. Improvements over previous years are apparent in the results disclosed on such matters as rate of acceptance to offers of appointment, comparison with the experience of industry (as disclosed in the data and reports of the College Placement Council Survey), quit rates, increase in numbers hired, decrease in declinations of appointment due to low salary, and the number of "quality" students appointed.

Taking separately each of these points on which improvement was noted in 1961, the review shows the following in the recruitment of engineers and scientists at entrance levels GS–5 and GS–7:

- Acceptances to offers of appointment increased from 35 percent in 1959 to 40 percent in 1961—the highest acceptance rate reached since section 803 rates went into effect in 1954.
- Government acceptance rate, according to the study, tops industry acceptance rate. It is 40 percent for Federal Government, 35 percent for industry. In the last previous study (1959), industry rate of acceptance was 43 percent and Federal Government 35 percent.
- The Federal Government quit rate decreased to 9.5 percent for 1961, as compared with 13.3 percent for 1959.
- A 34.7 percent increase was reported by the agencies for new hires since 1959—that is, 5,811 hires in 1961; 4,314 in 1959.
- Declinations due to low salary decreased from 52.5 percent in 1959 to 42 percent in 1961.
- Of the 4,570 bachelor's-degree (or equivalent) appointees, 34 percent (1,556) were "quality" graduates, on the basis of reports of all agencies on a nationwide basis. In addition to the 1,556 quality engineers and scientists with an A or B average or in the upper quartile of their classes, another 1,241 engineers and scientists were appointed at grade GS–7. Thus, of the 5,811 engineers and scarce-category scientists appointed, 2,797 or 48 percent were "quality" appointees in the sense that they were qualified beyond the B.S. degree.

As to the results of the Federal-Service Entrance Examination, the number of competitors reached a peak in excess of 114,000 for the 1960–61 school year. Appointments of eligibles from this group totaled nearly 10,000 during 1961, which is about 40 percent better than the year before. In addition, a record number (268) of management interns were selected during the year.

Federal agencies and recruiters certainly have every right to be gratified by the above report, but they cannot afford to relax their efforts. The recommendations made on the last two pages of the *Campus Stakeout* article are still in order. Why not review them now as an aid to insure that these important methods of recruiting are fresh in mind? In our opinion they will help the Federal service to continue the upward trend in successful college recruiting which the 1961 program produced.

—*Sam N. Wolk*

point out the need for attention on the part of heads of activities.

Training programs should provide, says the Federal Personnel Manual in chapter T–1, for evaluating:

(*a*) the extent to which specific training courses or programs produce the changes they are intended to produce in employee knowledge, skills, attitudes, or performance;

(*b*) the extent to which the training courses or programs cover the areas of greatest need; and

(*c*) the need for modification in the coverage or conduct of such training courses or programs.

REIMBURSE COST OF SCIENTIFIC PAPERS

Charges for publication of scientific research results in scientific journals may be paid by Federal agencies under a policy recently adopted by the Federal Council for Science and Technology. The four criteria are: (1) The paper must report on Government-supported work; (2) the journal's policy must levy charges on all authors, not just Government authors; (3) payment is not a condition for acceptance of manuscripts; and (4) the journal is a nonprofit organization.

—*Ross Pollock*

PUBLIC OFFICIAL—

(continued from page 15.)

IN AMERICAN SOCIETY we find "the public interest" a difficult concept to grapple with, because we are searching for universal criteria, answers to the question "Why?" which will satisfy everybody rather than answers which will satisfy each of us individually. But the cultural pluralism and diffusion of power which are so characteristic of American society make it necessary to think of the public interest not as a code of ethics for the whole country, or even for an individual organization, but as a nontransferable way of thinking, developed by each individual for his own use.

To be sure, we get most of our "deep down" feelings about what is right and what is wrong in particular situations from the atmosphere around us—from family and church and school and the organizations with which we associate ourselves. But that is not at all the same as saying that there are collective or organizational ethics that we can adopt as a substitute for thinking about moral complexity ourselves. As Mark Van Doren stated, sooner or later each individual must decide what to accept from the atmosphere he perceives around him. The wisdom of Van Doren *père* is still not widely accepted. "A group morality appears to be replacing personal codes of ethics. That is, you no longer refrain from doing something because you couldn't live with yourself—you refrain from doing something because you couldn't live with your neighbors . . . A *Look* reporter found an extreme and ironic case on neo-moral conformity in Colorado, where a man who did *not* chisel on his income tax boasted that he did to be well regarded by his friends, he pretended to be doing what he assumed the group considered smart." [1] The case of young Charles Van Doren was only an especially dramatic instance of an individual who thought he could transplant organizational ethics wholesale, and substitute them for a public responsibility concept of his own. Self-deception can be impressively complete at any age. One Federal executive, accused of unduly close relationships with some of the private organizations he was supposed to be regulating, protested that the phone calls he had made to his private-industry friends were all right because they were placed on his own time during his lunch hour! And Sam Snead discarded not only his own sense of right and wrong but the professional ethics of a golfer, when he found on the 14th hole of a televised golf tournament that he had one extra club in his bag and was therefore automatically disqualified. Instead of saying so forthwith, Snead finished out the match, but contrived to putt so badly that he lost. The show must go on he felt; and the National Broadcasting Company agreed with him, because in full knowledge of Snead's curious way of disqualifying himself, the network subsequently aired the Snead match without warning the television audience that Snead had deliberately taken a "dive" in the last three or four holes.

In all these cases, and many more, the ultimate corrective turned out to be a sense of public outrage when the matter was brought to light. But we cannot draw from this the conclusion that a person should necessarily be guided by what he could "get away with" in terms of public opinion as it currently exists. In an age of mass communications, people in general can be corrupted almost as easily as small groups can be corrupted, although it costs a good deal more to do it.

No, for any individual in any situation, the public interest must ultimately be what he thinks it is. If this seems a peculiarly American answer to the question, "what is the public interest?" perhaps the answer demonstrates what free men we Americans really are.

For just as the essence of American democracy is that it is not anybody's business to say authoritatively what it is, so the essence of the public interest is that it cannot be authoritatively defined for any given individual in any given situation, except by that individual in that situation. It is not to be expected that everybody will arrive at the same definition, especially on matters of importance. The disagreements we call politics; or if they are violent enough, we may even call them revolutions. As in the evolution of law, precedents and precepts are some help. What was clearly the public interest in some historical situation, where we now know all the facts, may aid in solving tomorrow's similar questions for ourselves, even though most of the surrounding facts are yet unknown. Wise sayings, from Mencius and Aristotle, the Bible and the Founding Fathers (not to mention our own parents), may likewise be useful, but hardly controlling; with a little help from Bartlett's *Familiar Quotations,* it is all too easy to find some pseudoscriptural basis for whatever one really wants to do.

[1] William Attwood, "The Age of Payola," *Look Magazine,* Vol. 24, No. 7, Mar. 29, 1960, pp. 34–41.

SINCE THE PUBLIC INTEREST in social situations is, paradoxically, so intimately personal a decision, I cannot suggest a series of universal ethical principles, written on stone tablets or mimeographed in an operations manual. I can only suggest, for purposes of illustration, the frame that I myself find useful in making moral and political judgments about public affairs from day to day. Ultimately I try to relate what goes on in the world, in the nation, and in Syracuse to the basic wants of modern man. In the oversimplified terms we often reserve for our most fundamental ideas, I see these basic wants as four:

First, modern man wants a sense of welfare—a minimum standard of "enough" in material living. How much is enough will of course vary from society to society and from decade to decade. But at any moment in any society there will exist, even if it cannot be precisely measured, a practical definition of the minimum standard which the society will collectively guarantee to its every individual member.

Second, people want *a sense of equity*—the feeling that they are being treated justly, not as measured by some ultimate standard, but as measured against the treatment accorded to other people in comparable situations. (This does not, of course, mean *all* others, even in your own society. Nobody in England seems to begrudge the provision in the national budget of a royal income for the Royal Family.)

Third, there seems to be a universal desire these days for *a sense of achievement*—man's feeling that he is getting somewhere, that the group of which he is a part is making progress in some generally accepted direction. For people in organized society, high morale depends not so much on what goals men choose as on their shared feeling of movement toward them.

Finally, modern man wants *a sense of participation* in deciding what those goals will be. He needs to feel that he has some control over his own destiny through taking part in a group or groups which can and do in fact influence the basic decisions on which his welfare, equity, and achievement depend—decisions about the state of the economy, the security of the person, the freedom of mind, and ultimately decisions about life and death, peace and war.

Three short comments on these "basic wants." First of all, they are not, of course, statistically measurable, or empirically verifiable in general; they are all "feelings" or "senses" based on vague judgments about the relationship of the individual to the society in which he finds himself. Even for a small group at a defined time in a particular place, the judgments about adequacy, equity, achievement, and participation must be rough approximations, not "facts" that can in some sense be proved. Secondly, this statement of the basic wants of modern man depends for its validity on an awareness by the individual of his relationship with society. They imply he cares about this relationship; that his attitude is of one seeking to influence his destiny, not passively accepting what fate or the gods or his own family have provided in the way of environment. It hardly needs to be observed that this is a new state of mind for most of mankind, dating in the West from the Renaissance and the Reformation, spreading to the East through the colonial governors, district officers, navies, armies, missionaries, traders, and reformist politicians, all of whom stirred up ancient societies by providing new wants to want, and therefore, new enthusiasm for change. Thirdly, these basic wants are appropriate to an era in which "we don't know where we are going, but we know we are going there fast." Rapid change is the dominant fact of our time, and presents problems which people in more static societies did not have to face. We know that an ever-higher standard of welfare is technically possible now—that greater equity can be achieved in a situation of growth. The very urge for a sense of achievement is evidence that change is the expected norm; both our aspirations and our actions are geared to it. The growing desire to participate in decisions affecting our own destiny stems from the conviction that things are certain to change, and that events must, therefore, be influenced in directions that are congenial to us.

IF HE MEASURES his contribution to society against these basic desires for welfare, equity, achievement, and participation, I think a public executive can be said to have a standard of public responsibility more relevant to the world around him than most of his fellow executives. But, as I say, touchstones of conduct like these are ultimately subjective, personal, individual. The fact that each of us has both the freedom and the obligation to fashion his own ethical standards (taking into account the similar decisions of others around him) is I suppose an important part of what we mean by "the dignity of the individual."

If we cannot suggest an affirmative code of ethics, perhaps there is one universally useful thing we can suggest. It is not an answer, but a question, the kind of question that might be useful to any executive facing any situation in which he believes the public interest to be at stake. The question should highlight the desirability of making one's public faith the same as one's private faith. The question would compel each public executive to project *his own feelings* in the imagined event of critical public scrutiny of both the action taken and the procedure by which it was decided upon. The public executive should not therefore ask himself, "Will I be criticized?" If the executive is operating at all in the area of public responsibility, the answer to that question is always, "Yes."

He might better start by asking himself some such question as this: "If I am publicly criticized, will I still feel that this is what I should have done, and the way I should have decided to do it?"

Employment Focus

A LOOK AT TWO FIELDS

Federal employment in the engineering and physical science fields increased again in 1960, according to preliminary totals as of October 31, 1960. While total Federal employment decreased about 1 percent between February 28, 1957, and October 31, 1960, and full-time white-collar employment rose only about 3 percent, the number of workers in engineering and physical science occupations increased more than 20 percent. When adjustment is made for changes in the classification of a few positions between occupational groups during the years between surveys, employment in positions of these types was up about 22,000 to a total of 131,052 in 1960.

Engineering occupations made the greatest gains. Most agencies employed more people in engineering work in 1960 than they had in 1957. Almost 60 percent of the total in 1960 worked for the Department of Defense. Other large employers were the Federal Aviation Agency with 10 percent, the Interior Department with 9 percent, the Department of Agriculture with 6 percent, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration with 5 percent, the Department of Commerce with 4 percent, and the Tennessee Valley Authority with 2 percent. All other agencies combined employed only 5 percent of the total.

Professional engineers totaled 60,978 in 1960, a gain of about 16 percent since 1957. Among the larger specialties, mechanical engineering showed the largest increase—54 percent since 1957. Industrial engineering and internal combustion powerplant engineering each increased by 43 percent. Only two of the larger occupations showed decreases during the period. Naval architecture was about 11 percent lower and construction engineering, 4 percent lower. Smaller professional occupations which were lower in 1960 included safety, fire prevention, marine, ceramic, and welding engineering. The totals and changes for general engineers and those in the larger specialties are shown in the accompanying table.

Changes in the grade distribution of professional employees during the period between surveys were mixed. At the entrance grades, GS–5 engineers in 1960 were more than double the number reported in 1957 and GS–7 engineers were 24 percent above their 1957 total. This indicates an improvement in the Federal Government's ability to recruit engineers as they finish their formal education. At the GS–9 level, however, employment was 19 percent below the number in 1957, and a smaller decrease had occurred in grade GS–11. Sizable increases were recorded in grades GS–12 through GS–15 and smaller increases in grades GS–16, GS–17, and GS–18. The median grade for professional engineers was GS–12 in 1960, the same as in 1959; in 1957 it was GS–11.

The nonprofessional positions in the engineering field had a relative increase more than twice as great as professional positions. The 40,648 employees reported in nonprofessional engineering positions in October 1960 was an increase of almost 36 percent since February 1957. The largest occupation was engineering aid with 14,698 employees in 1960. In 1957, student trainees were included with engineering aids, and their combined total in 1960 shows an increase of 34 percent between surveys. Electronic technician was the second nonprofessional occupation in size, and it showed the greatest relative increase since 1957—120 percent. Other nonprofessional engineering jobs had dropped in employment be-

EMPLOYMENT CHANGES IN THE LARGER ENGINEERING OCCUPATIONS: 1957–60

	1960	1957	Change: Number	Change: Percent
General engineering	10,351	9,383	+ 968	+10.3
Electronic engineering	8,760	8,067	+ 693	+ 8.6
Mechanical engineering	7,526	4,885	+2,641	+54.1
Civil engineering	7,171	5,860	+1,311	+22.4
Electrical engineering	3,816	3,469	+ 347	+10.0
Construction engineering	3,744	3,915	− 171	− 4.4
Aeronautical engineering	3,494	2,667	+ 827	+31.0
Hydraulic engineering	1,908	1,851	+ 57	+ 3.1
Highway engineering	1,664	1,339	+ 325	+24.3
Industrial engineering	1,428	997	+ 431	+43.2
Structural engineering	1,154	1,029	+ 125	+12.1
Naval architecture	1,125	1,257	− 132	−10.5
Internal combustion powerplant engineering	1,123	788	+ 335	+42.5
Chemical engineering	1,021	938	+ 83	+ 8.8

tween surveys. Shipbuilding inspection and ship surveying were 91 percent and 61 percent lower in 1960, respectively; engineering and cartographic drafting were 28 percent and 20 percent lower; and construction inspection was 12 percent lower than in 1957.

The grade distribution of nonprofessional employees continued its upward movement; fewer employees were shown in grades GS–1, GS–2, GS–3, and GS–6 despite the relatively large overall increase in nonprofessional employment. All other grades showed increases, and GS–15 was reported as the highest nonprofessional grade. The median grade for nonprofessionals was GS–7, the same as in 1959. It was GS–6 in 1957.

Increases in the physical science occupations were smaller. The 29,426 employees reported in 1960 indicated an increase of only 13 percent since 1957. Professional physical science positions increased more than nonprofessional ones.

Professional positions totaled 20,144 in 1960, an increase of 13 percent since 1957. Chemistry remained the largest occupation with 5,841 employees in 1960, an increase of 11 percent since 1957. Physics included 4,070 employees in 1960, a gain of 41 percent. Physical science administration accounted for 2,183 positions, a gain of 139 percent since 1957. Cartography with 2,045 positions, meteorology with 1,963 positions, and geology with 1,552 positions, reflected decreases since 1957 of 25 percent, 22 percent, and 3 percent, respectively. The decrease in meteorologists was accompanied by an increase in meteorological technicians.

Grades GS–11 through GS–15 included more employees in 1960 than in 1957; most other grades showed decreases. The median grade for professional positions stayed at GS–11.

Nonprofessional employment increased 11 percent from 1957 to 1960, with a total of 9,282 employees reported in 1960. The largest change occurred among meteorological technicians whose employment increased by 68 percent to 2,558 employees in 1960. It is assumed that the change in classification specifications for technician positions issued in June 1959 are reflected in this change in the proportion of professional and nonprofessional workers in the meteorological field. Cartographic aids dropped 7 percent to 3,700 in 1960, a smaller proportional decrease than that recorded for professional cartographers.

Except for a small increase in the number of employees at the GS–1 level, all grades below GS–7 showed fewer employees in 1960; GS–7 and all higher grades showed increases except for a small decrease at GS–13. The median grade for nonprofessional occupations in the physical sciences in 1960 was GS–7, one grade higher than in 1959 and two grades higher than in 1957. The highest grade reached by nonprofessional employees in both the engineering and physical science occupations was GS–15.

—*Flora M. Nicholson*

SHELF-HELP

TRAINING

There is much evidence of late of the compelling need to step up training. The Government Employees Training Act of 1958, the establishment of the Office of Career Development at the Civil Service Commission, and the interest in interagency training are not just symptomatic of this intensification; all are both cause and effect.

Publishers and authors have not been slow to sense the activity and interest (both Federal and non-Federal) in the subject. Not a month passes without one or more new texts appearing on the market. These texts range from compact how-to-do-it guides, through a maze of specialized programs, to erudite considerations of the learning theory.

Out of this wealth of published material, SHELF-HELP has chosen a representative sample. All deserve consideration by practitioners in the field of training.

The Instructor and His Job, Homer C. Rose, American Technical Society, 1961, 280 pp.

Mr. Rose, well known on the Washington scene as Chief of the Management Training Development Branch of the Federal Aviation Agency, has contributed a clear and readily usable guide for persons confronted with the necessity of becoming instructors. His text is abundantly supplied with practical and productive techniques of training now in general use in modern schools, industry, Government, and the military services. The fundamentals are all here and when used with insight and judgment should provide positive results. There is a universality about his methods that makes them applicable to any training situation.

Encyclopedia of Supervisory Training, Elizabeth Marting, American Management Association, Inc., 1961, 450 pp.

Elizabeth Marting is justified in titling her work an encyclopedia. She has gleaned samples of training materials from many sources, and admits to having been tempted to present her resources in 1,000 pages rather than 450. But to her credit and to the user's satisfaction, she has distilled her material and presented the true essence in the smaller package. In format, the text is beautifully printed and appears in a ring binder that all users will appreciate, especially the working training man. Heading the list of contributors is the Air Force, whose training program for supervisors is well known and respected on the Federal scene. In addition, many industrial and business enterprises have provided useful and effective sections that the Government training man can profitably adapt to his specialized purposes. The author is bound to enjoy the esteem of training people for her tribute to their helpfulness with this volume. She writes, "Training specialists seem wonderfully generous about sharing, not only ideas and experience, but actual outlines and texts with their opposite numbers. . . . Here we have still another facet of that willingness to pool basic knowledge and techniques that so amazes visitors from abroad."

Role Playing in Business and Industry, Raymond J. Corsini, Malcolm E. Shaw, and Robert R. Blake, The Free Press of Glencoe, Inc., New York, 1961, 246 pp.

The three authors have successfully presented an introduction and guide to a preeminent technique for developing personnel in human relations areas. It is a shared task (in uniform style) in which Blake gives a complete frame of reference for understanding the meaning and purpose of role playing; Corsini provides techniques and structured situations; and Shaw, the applications. For the beginning employee development officer, wanting a springboard to role playing, Corsini's structured situations are not only ideal for practice sessions but also useful as a resource that may be improvised upon for a variety of training needs. Although role playing has been a favorite technique since Moreno saw its possibilities in 1923, there has not been so ready a resource book for the training man until this veritable handbook appeared.

Training in Business and Industry, William McGehee and Paul W. Thayer, John Wiley & Sons, 1961, 305 pp.

The authors have consistently adhered to the management-tool concept of training throughout their book and have successfully integrated training with the management process. It may seem unusual to find chapters such as "Organization Analysis" and "Operations Analysis" in a text on training, but the training man who does not want to become parochial will appreciate their inclusion.

The fact that this book's title seems to orient it to business and industry should not persuade the Government training man that it is not for him. On the contrary, there is a universality about this text that makes it useful and reliable in any governmental situation. The last chapter—"Evaluation of Training"—is especially outstanding. Here again the treatment is management centered and further emphasizes why training must be evaluated if it is to be used successfully in achieving organizational goals.

Situational Problems for Leadership Training 1961, American Institute for Research. (Multilithed.)

This 4-volume report, the general purpose of which was to develop and evaluate leadership training materials, should prove useful to employee development officers who are looking for case material in the leadership field. This is particularly true of the second volume, "Situational Problems for Role Playing and Case Study Use." Although originally prepared for training petty officers in the Navy, the broad coverage of the underlying leadership problems makes the material, with a little modification and adaptation, suitable for training in any supervisor-employee situation. The report is reinforced with an excellent bibliography.

How To Instruct Successfully, Thomas F. Staton, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1960, 292 pp.

This is a handy how-to-do-it guide to methods of instruction. It discusses the nature of learning in a completely nontechnical way and proceeds to the problem of planning for instruction. A whole arsenal of methods follows, with an easy step-by-step guide for the use of each. Two of the most rewarding chapters are "Broadening Your Qualifications as an Instructor," and "Designing and Administering a Training Program." This book is written intimately and understandingly for the trainer of adults.

Learning Theory and Behavior, O. Hobart Mower, John Wiley & Sons, N.Y., 1960, 555 pp.

No text on the learning theory is easy reading for a person without a background in contemporary psychology. Mower, in a forthright introduction to his book, frankly admits that "when I used this book as a classroom text, it has been my unvarying experience that for the first third or half of the course, students are not a little bewildered . . . and for examinations, they say they just have to memorize certain phrases and facts. But then, something exciting happens! They discover, often quite suddenly, that they have command of a conceptual scheme which gives order and meaning to all they have routinely learned and which also opens up for them new vistas of insight and inquiry."

The author may not have so intended it, but in this statement, he has confirmed his own learning theory.

Manager Selection, Education, and Training, Willard E. Bennett, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1959, 210 pp.

It would be remiss of SHELF-HELP not to include Bennett's authoritative 2-year-old text on management development. This book is the only one of its kind.

Bennett treats management selection and development as a total process, as the title indicates. He avoids what he calls surface methodology, the techniques, the devices, the programs. Rather, he synthesizes these disparate and, in practice, often unrelated activities into a general theory "about which the component parts and parcels of a development process can be assembled into a meaningful whole."

—*Franklin G. Connor*

STANDARDS and TESTS

VALIDITY STUDY OF RATING SCHEDULE

In the Accountant (GS–5 and GS–7) examinations, the Commission for the last 2 years has been scoring college graduates without work experience in a way that attempts to reflect significant qualitative differences between them. Under this method, differential scores are assigned on the basis of such factors as the applicant's overall scholastic average, accreditation of his college by the American Association of Collegiate Schools of Business, his scholastic average in his specialized accounting courses, evidence of his leadership abilities, and evidence not otherwise considered of the applicant's interest and capability in his chosen profession. (In the same examination, applicants with work experience are appraised in the usual way.)

Although the rating schedules are not available for distribution, the procedure may be described by saying that college graduates who are otherwise eligible are all assigned a basic numerical rating to which is then added "bonus" or "collateral" points. The number of points added are proportioned to the degree an applicant possesses each factor. The schedule is so devised that a college graduate without work experience can score as high as 100, just as applicants with work experience can.

Since this rating method was considered novel and somewhat experimental at the time of its adoption, a recent study of its validity was received with great interest. The study, done by the San Francisco Regional Office of the Internal Revenue Service, compared the examination ratings of 66 appointees with their achievements in the training course which is given all newly hired Internal Revenue Agents, GS–5 and GS–7. The study revealed a positive relationship between the rating factors and the achievements of the appointees in the training program.

While numerous other users of the GS–5 and GS–7 Accountant registers have reported their subjective judgments that the rating process produces excellent evaluations of the applicants, it was gratifying to receive a study which provided documented evidence to the same effect. The Internal Revenue Service study did not involve the use of involved statistical analysis of the data, and similar studies could be conducted by any organization having access to the necessary data. Single dittoed copies of the study can be furnished by the Standards Division, Bureau of Programs and Standards, U.S. Civil Service Commission, Washington 25, D.C., to any organization that would like to do similar studies on the same or other registers.

PROGRESS REPORT

The following new position classification standard was distributed to agencies the first part of December:

- Clerk (nonsupervisory)

The following qualification standards were printed for September–November distribution. The ones marked with an asterisk are wage-board standards and were distributed selectively. The others appear in Handbook X–118, "Qualification Standards for Classification Act Positions":

- Air Conditioning and Refrigeration Mechanic*
- Automotive Painter*
- Body and Fender Repairman*
- Elevator Operator*
- Engineering Technician
- Engineman and Assistant Engineman*
- Explosives Operator*
- General Mechanic*
- General Student Trainee
- Munitions Operator*
- Munitions Destroyer*
- Occupational Therapist
- Physical Therapist
- Superintending Engineer*
- Vehicle Maintenance Analyst*

Tentative drafts of classification or qualification standards are now or soon will be circulated for comment for the following positions:

- Architectural Engineer
- Editorial Assistant (to cover positions concerned only with preparation of material for print)
- Management Technician
- Meteorologist
- Radio, Motion Picture, and Television Production Specialist
- Guide (Interior Department only)

NEW CLERICAL TEST BATTERY

In order to determine the basic qualifications of applicants, as well as to help place them in the most appropriate of a variety of clerical and machine operating jobs, a comprehensive clerical test battery has been designed and is now being tested in field studies. Trials with new test material and with techniques designed to obtain information about the interests and personal characteristics of the applicant are being carried out in cooperation with Federal agencies and with associations of business schools.

It is anticipated that the new selection and placement program will be ready for use in time for the spring recruiting campaign among high school and technical school graduates and others.

For 79 years . . .

Foundation of Good Government

". . . the observance in letter and spirit of the civil service law is the first requisite in obtaining clean, decent, efficient Government service in any branch or bureau of Government."

—Theodore Roosevelt

"The best method for selecting public servants is the merit system."

—Calvin Coolidge

"I am a hearty believer in the principles of civil service reform and shall take pleasure at all times in doing what I can to promote those principles in practice."

—Woodrow Wilson

"The people are entitled to the most efficient public service we can devise. The way to provide such service is to make sure that all Government employees, except those in top policy jobs, are under the merit system."

—Harry S. Truman

"Any free government certainly needs a vast corps of well-trained, dedicated, intelligent, long-service people who can take care of all the intricate jobs of operating the many and manifold activities that governments these days are compelled to carry on."

—Dwight D. Eisenhower

"In meeting the grave problems confronting us at home and abroad, it is my intention that the Career Civil Service be a full partner. Together we can lead our Nation to new peaks of achievement."

—John F. Kennedy

Civil Service Act of January 16, 1883

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE : 1962 O - 622251

nt

erv-

idge

can
t all
nder

man

oad,
ner.

nedy

33

622291

Worth Noting *(Continued)*

mission has also been returning big dividends. News media have given generous support to touring NASA recruiting teams, the public has evidenced identification with the space effort, and scientists and engineers have responded with more inquiries and applications than had been anticipated. The space talent hunt took NASA recruiters to 11 major cities in 1961 and will cover 19 others early this year. In 8 of the first 11 cities visited, NASA representatives held 3,436 interviews with prospects, and received nearly 7,000 telephone and letter inquiries. . . . In connection with the Equal Employment Opportunity Program, CSC and agency representatives recently took part in a very successful conference on Federal Careers at Xavier University in New Orleans. College officials and top-rated students from a dozen other schools in the region took part in the 2-day conference, in which representatives from headquarters of the Departments of Labor, Agriculture, and Navy, Bureau of Old-Age and Survivors Insurance, Internal Revenue Service, National Aeronautics and Space Administration, Bureau of the Budget, and CSC participated.

AWARDS: New criteria for the President's Award for Distinguished Federal Civilian Service, highest honor the Government can bestow on career employees, were recently approved by President Kennedy. They put greater emphasis upon exceptional achievements involving imagination, courage, and high ability and they limit eligibility for the award to persons in career positions. In approving the changes, the President pointed to the award as the pinnacle of the Government's incentive awards structure and reemphasized his continuing interest in the effective utilization of the incentive awards program. . . . President Kennedy used the occasion of the recent presentation of the Rockefeller Public Service Awards to five outstanding Federal careerists to restate his high regard for career civil servants. "I want to say what a pleasure it is to have this opportunity again to give much deserved recognition to our public servants," his statement began. "I think this program of the Rockefeller Foundation in cooperation with Princeton University and the Woodrow Wilson School is very beneficial to the public service. And I think this also gives us an opportunity to draw the attention of the country to the very extraordinary number of gifted people who are working for the United States at this time." Recipients of the awards were: Dr. Robert H. Felix, director of the National Institute of Mental Health; Livingston T. Merchant, Ambassador to Canada; Dr. Thomas B. Nolan, director of the Geological Survey; Elmer B. Staats, Deputy Director of the Bureau of the Budget; and Colin F. Stam, Chief of Staff of the Joint Congressional Committee on Internal Revenue Taxation.

CSC FIELD CHANGES: To reduce administrative overhead and provide more resources for operating programs, CSC has consolidated its 6th and 7th Region Offices. Under the new alignment, Kentucky, Indiana, and Ohio, formerly served by the 6th Region Office in Cincinnati, will be served by the 7th Region in Chicago, and West Virginia will be served by the 3d Region Office in Philadelphia. . . . Civil Service representatives, equipped to do the Commission's full job (inspection, recruiting, community relations, etc.) will be stationed early this year in up to 50 cities which are principal centers of Federal employment. The new CS representatives, especially selected and trained for their new jobs, will greatly increase the geographic dispersion of well-rounded CSC service to agencies and the public. They will be stationed permanently in the communities they serve outside CSC region and branch office locations and will be "Mr. Civil Service" in their respective areas. They will enable CSC to provide more "on the spot" service and to better utilize its manpower resources and travel funds.

UNITED STATES
GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE
DIVISION OF PUBLIC DOCUMENTS
WASHINGTON 25, D. C.

OFFICIAL BUSINESS

PENALTY FOR PRIVATE USE TO AVOID
PAYMENT OF POSTAGE, $300
(GPO)