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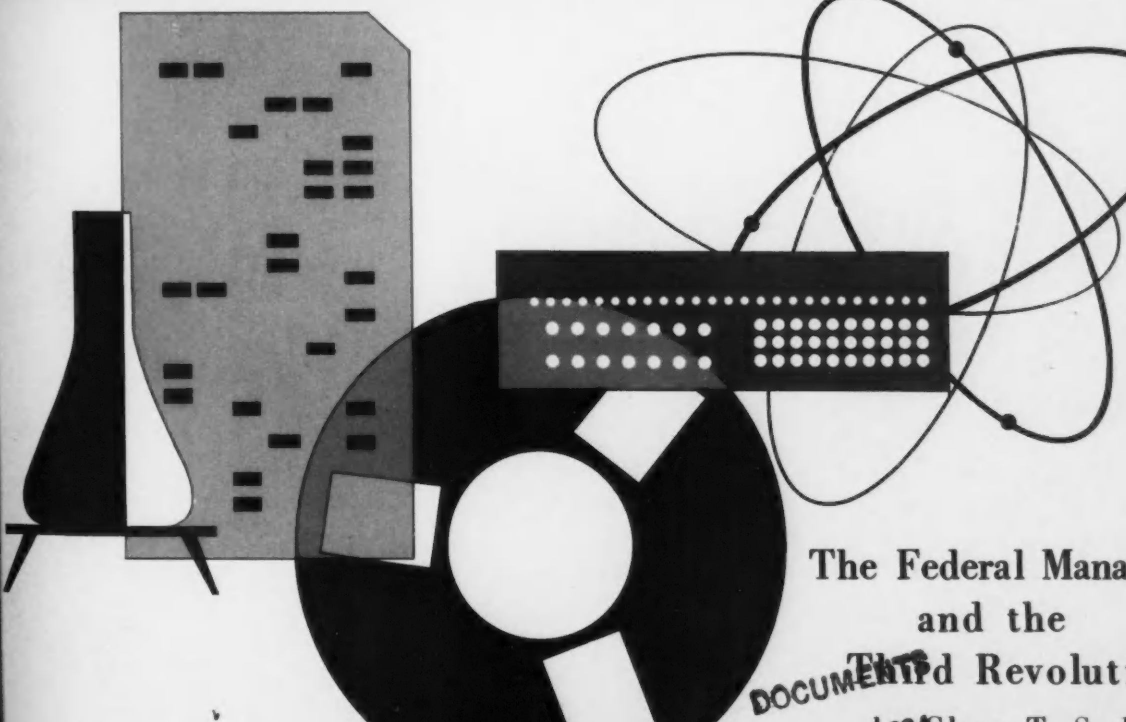

The Federal Manager and the Third Revolution

by Glenn T. Seaborg

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UNITED STATES CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

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Worth Noting

TWELVE GOVERNMENT AGENCIES have joined forces to sponsor a Federal Science and Engineering exhibit that will be displayed for 2 months in the Special Exhibits Hall of the Smithsonian Institution's Museum of History and Technology in Washington, beginning March 15, 1965.

The Civil Service Commission is coordinating the effort with the aid of a committee of agency representatives. Herbst—La Zar of Chicago has been engaged to design the display.

The exhibit stems from a recommendation made by the Astin Panel of the Federal Council for Science and Technology that urged the Civil Service Commission to "provide leadership and assistance, in cooperation with agencies and departments concerned, to communicate to scientists and engineers as potential employees the opportunities and professional challenges offered by science in the public service, and to inform the general public more explicitly of the scope and achievements of Government science and technology."

Departments and agencies participating in the exhibit are the Departments of Army, Navy, Air Force, Interior, Agriculture, Commerce, and Health, Education, and Welfare, along with the National Science Foundation, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, the Atomic Energy Commission, and the Smithsonian Institution.

The Commission also plans to offer the exhibit for display in museums in several cities around the country.

FEDERAL EMPLOYEES have voluntarily contributed some $2 million for the John F. Kennedy Memorial Library. This represents a fifth of the estimated cost of the project and is double the estimate of an early July report.

"This extraordinary response," said Postmaster General John A. Gronouski, Chairman of the Federal Employees' Campaign for the library, "exceeds our most optimistic estimates. I congratulate the Federal employees, and the key men and women who coordinated the drive in each of the agencies."

Of the 102 agencies participating, the Department of Defense contributed the most with $1,018,000, followed by the Post Office Department with $410,337.

RISING COSTS of hospital facilities and medical care have caused more than half the carriers of Federal Employees Health Benefit plans to increase their premium rates effective November 1, 1964. In general the premium increases are in the high options of the plans, which provide greater benefits at higher cost.

In announcing the new premium rates, the Civil Service Commission also said that an open season will be held February 1–15, 1965, during which time eligible employees not now enrolled in a health benefits plan may enroll, and both enrolled employees and annuitants may change plans, options, or types of enrollment from self only to self and family. This will be the first unlimited open season since October 1961 for annuitants enrolled in the active Federal Employees Health Benefits program.

(Continued—See Inside Back Cover)

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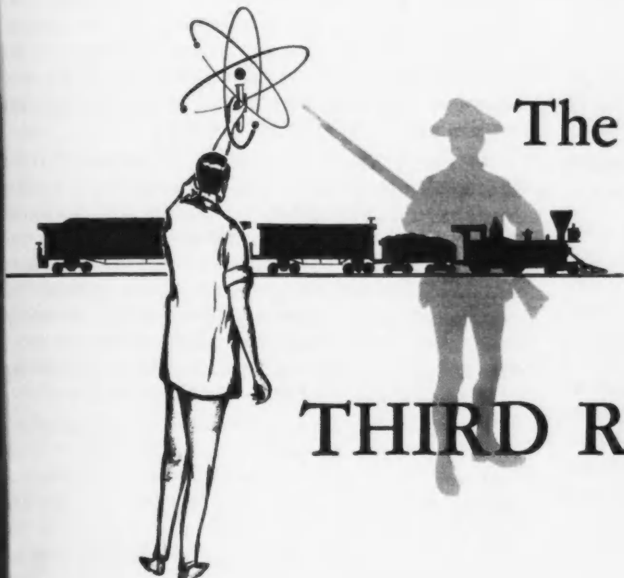
"Scientific literacy is the real need for today's Federal manager—an understanding of the broader implications of present-day science and technology and their potential effect on the social and economic character of the modern society . . ."



The Federal Manager and the THIRD REVOLUTION

by GLENN T. SEABORG, *Chairman*
U.S. Atomic Energy Commission

TODAY WE ARE all profoundly involved in the fundamental changes being brought about by the extremely rapid development of science and technology. I have often referred to this new era in which we find ourselves as the *Third Revolution,* thus in the perspective of our national history distinguishing it from the first or Political Revolution which gave birth to the United States, and the second or Industrial Revolution through which we achieved our tremendous economic and industrial strength.

Science and technology are, of course, no strangers to the Federal Government. As early as 1832, Jackson S. Bache's Committee at the Franklin Institute studied steam boiler explosions, and, besides reporting on their scientific and engineering conclusions, the Committee drafted a bill for the Federal regulation of steamboat boilers. Their study was supported by a Federal grant of $1,500. One of the first Federal grants for science, minuscule by today's standards, it nevertheless resulted in the enactment of the proposed legislation and the establishment of the Steamboat Inspection Service, an early regulatory agency.

From that day until this, the Federal Government's role in the use and encouragement of science has continued to increase. Indeed, without such participation American agriculture might be a far less potent force in our own and the world's economy than it is today.

What has happened within recent years, however, is by comparison so formidable and pervasive a change as to constitute a revolution in our way of life, differing by orders of magnitude from our previous experience.

In 1939 science was recognized by some parts of Government as a tool, but a tool limited in use to a few areas in which the needs were readily apparent. The Government assumed no continuing obligation, except in these limited programs, either to develop or to improve this tool. In the years preceding World War II, some $50 million annually was considered an adequate Federal budget for science.

Contrast that with the more than $14 billion a year the Government now spends for research and development and you will appreciate in some degree the dimensions of science in the modern world.

Science and technology are no longer tools to be used intermittently. They have been interwoven with the entire fabric of our economic and Governmental processes.

Scientific problems are continually debated at the highest levels of both the executive and legislative branches of Government. Scientists are advisors to the leaders of Government and many are directly responsible for the management and supervision of large portions of Federal expenditures.

I have dealt elsewhere in speeches and articles with the scientist's responsibility to participate in Government. Here I am concerned with the equally vital need for recognition by Federal managers—those people in the executive branch of the Federal Government whose decisions shape the course of major programs and activities—of the importance of their role with respect to the Scientific Revolution. Today the Federal manager's understanding of scientific and technological trends significantly affects the Nation's future economic and social development. This fact makes it worthwhile to consider the nature of these trends and to examine their impact on the tasks of administration.

I WANT TO OUTLINE some of the implications of these new developments by considering especially one of the first Federal children of the Third Revolution, the U.S. Atomic Energy Commission. The genesis of its parent organization, the Manhattan Engineer District, followed very closely after the first silent shot of this quiet revolution in the year 1939. That was the year of the discovery of the nuclear fission reaction in uranium by Hahn and Strassmann.

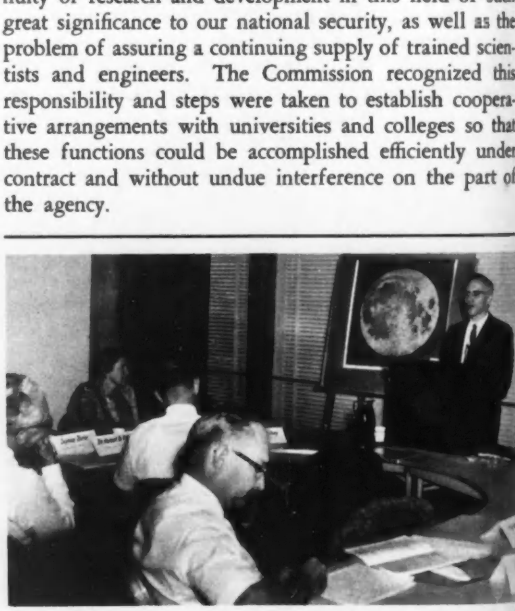
Another early foray in the Scientific Revolution was Albert Einstein's letter to President Roosevelt advising him of the awesome prospects of nuclear energy. The Atomic Energy Commission as such, of course, did not come into being until after World War II.

The program which was to evolve into this agency had begun during the war in extreme secrecy and with expenditures of vast sums of money and a tremendous outlay of human ingenuity and energy. There were many special problems connected with the management of this wartime effort which have no particular significance for the Federal manager in today's scientific revolution. But the major pattern which evolved and which James Newman has called "the hybridization of Government and industry" has proved to be extremely important as a solution to the problem of *how to expand Government participation in large scientific and technical programs without corresponding increases in the size and complexity of Government organization.*

Farming out projects to industry under contract during World War II was a development of great importance, both in Federal management and in its influence on the pattern of our economy. The experience of the Manhattan Project has proved to be of great value also in developing the processes and patterns of cooperation whereby personnel representing many scientific and engineering disciplines have been able to coordinate their efforts in completing very large and complex technical projects over extended periods of time.

Initially the agency's major responsibility lay in the production of special nuclear materials and nuclear weapons, and its operations of necessity were conducted entirely withdrawn from the public view. It was recognized early, however, that in addition to its military applications nuclear energy held a great potentiality for peaceful applications such as the production of electricity from nuclear power, the use of nuclear energy for maritime and space propulsion, and a variety of applications of radioisotopes in industry, agriculture, and medicine.

There was the immediate problem of assuring continuity of research and development in this field of such great significance to our national security, as well as the problem of assuring a continuing supply of trained scientists and engineers. The Commission recognized this responsibility and steps were taken to establish cooperative arrangements with universities and colleges so that these functions could be accomplished efficiently under contract and without undue interference on the part of the agency.



TRAINING SCIENCE ADMINISTRATORS—Courses such as this Institute for Executives in Science Programs are strengthening skills of managers of Federal scientific and technical operations. Among trainees at this session was FDA's Dr. Frances O. Kelsey, of thalidomide fame, shown listening to David Z. Beckler, Assistant to the Director of the Office of Science and Technology.

In 1954, when the Atomic Energy Act was revised to permit the development of peaceful applications of nuclear energy and the dissemination of technical information concerning these applications both in the United States and other countries, the difficulties and responsibilities of the Atomic Energy Commission's managerial staff increased accordingly, as did their opportunities.

One of the remarkable phases of the new AEC program was its charter for the development of civilian nuclear power. Here for the first time a Government agency was charged with the responsibility for promoting a large-scale technical innovation. Ways had to be found for undertaking the development of a new technology too massive for private industry to support unaided, and the program resulting from these efforts is very interesting not only from a technical standpoint but also in terms of the financial and managerial inventiveness required to bring it into successful operation.

A major consideration from the beginning was the ultimate goal of getting nuclear technology into the mainstream of the American economy, the transfer of federally financed and developed technology over to private industry for further development and application. There were, of course, many complexities added by the relationship of this program of peaceful application to the continuing program of military nuclear energy. There were also problems of establishing prices for materials and services not yet a part of the competitive economy, and difficulties to be overcome in making classified scientific and technical information available to many technical people and industrial managers whose prior experience with this field of information had been limited.

It is remarkable in view of these difficulties and complexities that the Atomic Energy Commission has been able to achieve civilian nuclear power competitive with conventional power in a number of high fuel cost areas several years ahead of schedule. Much credit for this achievement can be given to the high caliber and resourcefulness of the Commission's managerial staff and to its experience in dealing over a number of years with programs of broad technical scope.

LEARNING TO USE NEW TOOLS—Interagency training programs help update Federal managers' knowledge of new administrative tools which have been byproducts of the scientific revolution. Here a panel of experts—(right to left, facing camera) Dr. W. E. Cushen, Institute for Defense Analyses; Mr. Willard Fazar, Bureau of the Budget; and Dr. William Dorfman, Hughes Aircraft Co.—explain the mysteries and potential of operations research.

THIS SAME SCIENTIFIC REVOLUTION which has so greatly extended and diversified the responsibilities of the Federal manager has also profoundly affected the administrative process by providing it with new tools. Some of these, and *especially the growth of information technology* based on computer applications, are already effecting fundamental changes in the character and structure of organization. Not quite so obvious in its effects, but equally significant, has been the *necessary growth of long-range planning*.

In the three major technically oriented Federal agencies—the Department of Defense, the National Aeronautics and Space Administration, and the Atomic Energy Commission—the very nature of their programs forces them to engage in long-range planning. Not only are these programs large and complex, but the time period covered by the development of technology often stretches several years beyond the operating budget. For example, the period between the conceptual design of a large nuclear power reactor and its initial operation usually runs from 4 to 7 years.

The greatly advanced sophistication of facilities and machines not only results in longer leadtimes but also in greatly increased costs. In 1950 the physicist was often carrying out his investigations with a particle accelerator costing less than $1 million. The AEC now has an accelerator under construction costing more than $100 million and has plans to construct one late in this decade costing about $800 million. The commitment in money, materials, and staff represented by projects of this scope becomes in the aggregate important not only to the agency and Federal budgets but to the allotment of resources within our overall economy.

AEC's formal efforts in long-range planning began in 1958 and have undergone an evolutionary process to keep pace with changing technology, taking into account such new developments as studies and experiments in the peaceful use of nuclear explosives for excavation (PLOWSHARE), the increasing applications of nuclear energy in space for satellite power sources and nuclear rocket propulsion, and the rapidly increasing interest in the use of nuclear energy for water desalination.

LONG-RANGE PLANNING helps smooth the way for these anticipated technological changes in operations. Planning *forces* program directors and top management to think ahead about technological changes and predisposes them toward changes which they can agree to and support financially. Without planning, the program director will find himself *reacting* to changing events rather than *influencing* them as he should. (*Over*)

This management tool is not a universal panacea; difficulties show up especially in developing long-range plans for basic research, the breeding ground of the Scientific Revolution. Nevertheless, even here the competition for basic research funds has already forced us to look closely at objectives and criteria for the allocation of resources. Thus, without regard to political philosophy, the Federal manager finds himself faced with the necessity of developing and following long-range plans if he is to keep in step with the Third Revolution.

The continuing management of complex technical and research and development projects has brought about problems encouraging the development of other new management techniques.

The Commission very early in its history found valuable applications for operations research and analysis, a wartime outgrowth of the interdisciplinary approach to the solution of operational problems, and continues to rely heavily on its specialists in this field for studies laying the basis for policy and programing decisions. These studies have been especially useful in dealing with complex issues relating to the pricing of special nuclear materials, alternative uses of production facilities, the economic and technical evaluation of proposed reactor projects, and similar efforts.

The AEC is also finding increasing use for new industrial management systems and practices—PERT and allied network analysis techniques—as control tools for the larger scientific, engineering development and construction projects, for maintenance work, and for the disposal of major real property holdings such as the community of Los Alamos. At the National Reactor Testing Station in Idaho, using PERT, the shutdown times on two reactors were reduced 10 to 15 percent, saving an estimated $3,000 every 4 weeks on one reactor, and $14,500 every 6 weeks on another. In addition to better management, other benefits included better utilization of manpower, reduction in radiation exposure of craftsmen, and improved quality of workmanship.

In the case of a $2.3 million complex construction project scheduled to be completed in 240 days, the major construction contractor was required by specification to submit a network-type schedule to the contractor within 15 days after notice to proceed, and thereafter to keep it current. As a result, communication was improved, partial pay estimates were almost automatic, and production planning to minimize power, water, air-conditioning, and process gas service interruption was successful. Difficulties in planning, procurement, and overall administration were anticipated but have not occurred.

The Commission entered into the expanding field of information technology, including systems analysis and automatic data processing, somewhat more tardily than would have been expected of the agency which has been in the forefront of developing high-speed electronic computers for research and development applications. In recent months, however, we have moved ahead rapidly in the use of automatic data processing for payroll operation, personnel selection processes, and financial and management reporting.

We are presently developing a plan for the application of these methods to the continuous inventorying of special nuclear materials. The Commission has also for a number of years worked to develop improved methods of handling technical information. In addition to its support of research on machine translation, the AEC has used computers experimentally to construct "semi-automatic" indexes of its research and development abstracts and to match the information content of Commission reports with the expressed information needs and interests of AEC scientists and engineers.

The AEC search for better tools to provide timely information for rational decisions, to assist in maintaining schedules, and to reduce costs will continue. Through active participation in seminars sponsored by the Government, universities, and professional associations—as well as the constant exchange of experience among the AEC organizational units—AEC Government and industrial managers keep informed of new developments in the science of industrial management for research and development and construction projects. In addition, AEC has joined with other Government agencies concerned with major research and development programs in a task group to develop reasonable uniformity in requirements and reporting of data under Government contracts. The current effort is to establish uniform principles and practices for cost and time schedule control. In this way, contractors doing business for the Department of Defense, AEC, NASA, or FAA will not be faced with contractual requirements for significantly different project control tools.

THIS RAPID SURVEY of ways in which the trends of the Scientific Revolution have affected, as an example, the AEC in its programs and management processes cannot exemplify or detail a number of significant changes already impinging on Federal managers. Most complex and perhaps most difficult to cope with in the long run will be the effects of these changes, particularly in information technology, on the structure and staffing of Government agencies and what might be called *the sociology of management*. These latter are questions that deserve the administrator's careful attention.

There is a further limitation in looking at things from the perspective of the Atomic Energy Commission in the very fact that it is a child of the Third Revolution and belongs with the group of Federal agencies that are predominantly scientific and technical in outlook.

SPANNING KNOWLEDGE GAPS—Specialized courses for Federal officials and employees at various levels have been developed at a rapid rate to help keep key personnel abreast of unprecedented scientific, technological, and socioeconomic changes affecting Government operations. Here are just a relative few of the courses offered through the Interagency Training Program to meet career development needs in recent years.

The managers of other agencies will deal with programs different in substance but all affected in varying degrees by the trends I have discussed.

What can be said about requirements placed on Federal agencies in general at this stage of our national development and more specifically about the men and women who are directing their activities?

Speaking very broadly of what we must all do to meet the challenge of continuing innovation in our national affairs, Donald A. Schon in a recent article in *International Science and Technology,* "Innovation by Invasion," outlined a number of problems and some steps that need to be taken.

He mentioned the increase of automation and numerical controls in production and the extent to which these might reduce our capacity to build new markets for industrial labor. He wondered to what extent disarmament might produce dislocations of labor and technological resources and especially the extent to which it could "complicate the problem already at hand of coping with existing dislocations which are the products of technical change."

"Henceforth," he says, "we must plan to meet the social costs of technical change by promoting industrial mobility in a new way, with the tools of prediction we have at hand. This means coordinating the currently fragmented efforts of a Federal Government, through establishing interagency committees, or nominating one agency as the coordinating body for Government. It means relating State programs to one another for effective regional action. And on both Federal and regional levels, it means connecting Government and private programs."

This is a broad perspective—yet not broad enough to encompass the full range of programs and policies which devolve upon the Federal manager in the many agencies of our Government. Nothing is said about our national involvement in a wide range of international programs. Many aspects of the Government's work in education, health, and social welfare are not included.

It is manifestly impossible for the Federal manager confronting the challenge of the Scientific Revolution to become knowledgeable in all of the scientific and technical fields with which he must deal. Indeed it is becoming increasingly hard for the scientist to keep current in his own specialized niche of scientific learning.

Scientific literacy is the real need for today's Federal manager—an understanding of the broader implications of present-day science and technology and their potential effect on the social and economic character of the modern society.

He will need to repair this understanding from time to time and maintain an active curiosity about what is going on in science—especially at its growing tips.

THE FEDERAL MANAGER'S need for knowledge becomes more specific as he turns his attention toward technological changes affecting the administrative processes as such. Here his knowledge needs to be sufficiently detailed, technical, and accurate to enable him to deal intelligently with the alternatives and opportunities these new techniques provide for his use. In view of the dependence of most of these newer methods on some of the more basic areas of modern mathematics, he might do well to acquaint himself with these areas—not an insurmountable task by any means.

But I would like to stress most of all the breadth of education needed today by every manager of a significant portion of the Federal Government's activities. To my mind, this means a liberal education in the true sense, encompassing adequate courses in the basic sciences and mathematics, economics and social studies, not forgetting history—public administration and management sciences, certainly, but first-hand educational experience also with literature and the arts.

I would say that the Federal manager can be and often is drawn from any of the widest range of professional backgrounds. For a particular job he may need professional training in a given field but, at the higher executive levels, he will need the perspective and capabilities that go with a wide range of interests.

Only this kind of man can meet the challenge of the Federal administrator in today's world.

"THIRTY-EIGHT YEARS IS A PLENTY"

by **ELIZABETH F. MESSER**
Assistant to the Deputy Director
Bureau of Retirement and Insurance
U.S. Civil Service Commission

"Thirty-eight years is a plenty."

"If you work to the day you die, you're missing something good—like never being a boy."

That is the way two annuitants answered the Civil Service Commission's question about why they retired early from their Government jobs. "Early" means between the ages of 55 and 60, after at least 30 years of work in the Federal service.

And would they do it again, if they had it to do over? They would, indeed! Said one homespun philosopher: "I live alone and am as happy as two bugs in a rug. I have my flowers and cameras and hi-fi, and I do not have to answer to anyone. I am in Hog Heaven. I am healthy and ornery as they come, do my own cooking . . . sleep as late as I want . . . give the housework a lick and a promise when it gets too bad . . . watch any TV program I desire, cuss the TV commercials—who would want more?"

THESE ANNUITANTS, and the 2,999 others who responded to a recent Civil Service Commission questionnaire about early retirement, recount an absorbing and richly human story of their motivations, their post-retirement life, and their attitudes about early retirement. This is the story, told partly in their own down-to-earth words.

All of them retired between the ages of 55 and 60, and all had at least 30 years of Federal service. Because they had not yet reached the "normal" retirement age of 60, the annuities of all were permanently reduced a specified percent for each year or part of a year they were under age 60. Those who retired in 1956 did so under considerably less liberal provisions of law than the others: they took a greater reduction for each year they were under 60, their annuities were computed under a less generous formula, and exercise of the right to provide an annuity for their survivors cost them more.

THE EMPLOYEES WHO RETIRED EARLY

Many of the early retirees had more than 30 years of Federal service to their credit when they left, and some had as much as 40, 41, and even 42 years.

Most left jobs that paid in the $4,000 and $5,000 brackets and that offered limited promotion opportunities. A surprising 4 out of 10 had been post office clerks or carriers, and an additional 1 had done other postal field work; 2 had been in trades or technical fields or were unskilled workers; 2 had been in nonprofessional white-collar jobs; and 1 had been an engineering, scientific, or other professional worker. Most said that they were foremen, supervisors, managers, or executives at the time they retired, and most were men.

Their civil service annuities ranged from less than $100 a month in 19 instances to as much as $1,000 a month in 2 instances, but 6 out of 10 received annuities between $200 and $299 a month.

A third of them retired during their 55th year, the earliest in which they were eligible. A fifth (631) of them, however, were already in their 59th year before they exercised the option and so had worked practically to normal retirement age.

WHY THEY RETIRED EARLY

Most said they left early because they wanted to enjoy retirement before it was too late, but economic reasons, dissatisfaction in Government, and health and family reasons were cited frequently. Their views of the reasons others retire early followed the same pattern.

The one most frequently given reason was "wanted to quit while still able to enjoy retirement." Over half of all who responded gave this as one of the reasons, and over a fourth gave it as the main one. They often elaborated:

I was spending all my time making a living, so that I had no time to live. When I found myself going to sleep over the newspaper, I decided it was time to quit.

I wanted to travel more. I had never been abroad and I knew that if I waited too long I would never make it.

I was tied down to work and studying from the age of 14 years until I had 33 years of service. . . . It was a long drag, and I felt that I would like more time to myself.

> ### "EARLY RETIREMENT" SURVEY
>
> The "Early Retirement" survey reported in this article was made at the request of the Subcommittee on Retirement of the Senate Committee on Post Office and Civil Service. Subcommittee members asked repeatedly, during 1963 hearings on bills to liberalize the 30-year optional retirement provisions of the Civil Service Retirement Act, why employees elect to retire early; how many work elsewhere after retiring, in what kinds of jobs. They wanted this information to assess better the magnitude and the probable impact on the legislative changes being considered. Since the answers were nowhere available, Civil Service Commission Chairman Macy agreed to obtain them from a sample group of "early" Federal retirees.
>
> Questionnaires were sent to half of all the still-living annuitants who retired in 1956, 1959, and 1962 under the "55–30" optional retirement provisions. (About 665 of the 7,859 who originally retired in those years and under those provisions are no longer living.) A total of 3,002 usable responses, more than a 91-percent return, had been received by the time tabulations began. They provide a wealth of information that will undoubtedly have interest far beyond that of the Senate Subcommittee which requested the survey. A statistical summary of responses to the key questions is given at the end of the article.

My father's family has a long history of sudden death from heart attacks. . . . I was not going to take a chance with suddenly dying without a few years of not working.

Lots of my coworkers have kept on working since I retired, and today they are dead. I had my home paid for, a small farm, three rental units, and have a garden, chickens, birds, pigeons, and geese. Do lots of fishing, hunting, trapping, and enjoy myself generally. I have not worked one day since retiring except a few days jury duty. I enjoy raising flowers and have a mint julep at the end of my day.

Many, especially ex-postal workers and professionals, left for economic reasons (the second most frequently cited reason):

I put in over 39 years and had to quit and get another job to have a living salary for my old age. I have enough quarters now for social security, but I had to quit my lifetime job to get it.

My wife is a registered nurse. For us to get some place where she could work as much as required is the only way we could give our three children a college education. Merely a business matter.

I worked 36 years; 16 of that I was compelled to work a dual job. Having a family, I decided at 55 to retire. My pension plus a job would enable me to live better, and my health would not be impaired by two jobs.

As a trial lawyer for the Government, I dealt continuously with outside lawyers who were getting from two to five times my salary for comparable work. On my frequent assignments away from home, I had to stay in third-rate hotels and eat cheap meals, and still pay an average of $5 to $10 for the privilege, while opposing counsel on the same cases lived well at the expense of their clients. . . .

Why shouldn't employees retire early when they can earn more than half as much social security in 6½ years as they acquire in 37 years of Federal service? And I have earned these benefits So———So———much easier!

Some—the professionals more than others—had become dissatisfied:

Believed I had reached the end of the road at GS–16, wanted a new challenge.

I served 38 years, 3 months, 10 days in the service, and felt tired of the same job. I was very tired of the same work, and no promotions.

Too much time spent justifying your existence. Not enough time spent on work which has taken years to learn and for which you are qualified. Too many persons not engineers, telling engineers how, and where, also how much. Too many auditors with too much power.

I hated junk mail. . . .

If Post Office would stop counting the mail and start delivering it, the unemployment figure would probably rise to an all-time high. . . . Anyone who doesn't retire from a large post office at the earliest possible date either can't affordit or is already crazy.

And some retired for health and family reasons:

The winters seemed to get longer, the weather colder, the load heavier, and the strain greater. And just the opposite in summer—hotter and more miserable. [A former letter carrier.]

I did piecework for 39 years and piecework is a very nerve-racking job. It is especially hard to keep up the pace after you are 50. . . .

I had an invalid father to take care of, my wife was sick in the hospital, I was run down because of the strain. . . .

. . . tension kept mounting so as to be almost unbearable. If you made a mistake, it could cost 150 to 200 lives and several millions of dollars worth of equipment. [A former air traffic controller.]

There were a variety of other reasons: desire to devote more time to farming or other family business; dislike of "bumping" other employees during reductions in force; a feeling that good performance on the job demanded a younger, more vigorous person. On this latter point, one annuitant said: "I saw older people in the same work trying to hold on and having to be carried by the balance of the crew, and I knew how much extra work I had to do to carry them. That helped me decide to retire before I got in that class." And several men suggested to the Commission that perhaps its questionnaire designers weren't really on the ball: "This questionnaire seems to assume that all of the decisions are made independently by the subject. Can it be that the U.S. Civil Service Commission underestimates the power of a woman?"

No change in work, or in working conditions in Government, would have held them longer, said 4 out of 10. But some others said that they might have stayed if they'd had a raise in pay, different supervisors or co-workers, more interesting work, or better working conditions (traffic and transportation problems were often mentioned here).

Three out of 10 reported that they made the retirement decision rather suddenly, but 2 had made definite plans, far in advance, to retire as soon as they could. The required reduction in annuity delayed the retirement of over a fourth of them (28.8 percent) until some time after they first became eligible.

THEIR EMPLOYMENT STATUS

The majority of those who retired early have worked some since leaving Government—usually for short periods of time and in less demanding and less than full-time jobs. A higher proportion of postal employees, especially clerk-carriers, worked than did employees in any other pay system or occupation. Those who held scientific, engineering, or other professional positions in Government ranked next highest, followed by blue-collar and technical workers, and other white-collar workers.

Over half of all who have worked at any time since leaving Government, however, did so only temporarily, part-time, or occasionally (Figure 1). An unknown, but substantial, number of those who worked at some time after retiring no longer do so. Well over half put in fewer hours on the job than they did in Government; only 187 worked more hours outside than in the Federal service (Figure 2).

Most who have worked seem to have taken easier jobs than they had in Government. Many have been self-employed, and many others went into service occupations. Most of the post-retirement jobs have been in clerical or administrative fields, with unskilled, semi-skilled, and technical employment next most frequently reported. Very few early retirees (218) said that they have done professional work since they left. The kinds of post-retirement jobs listed and the write-in comments indicate clearly that post-retirement earnings are usually modest. One person explained that there is quite a demand in private industry for retired civil servants because "salaries are not high (mostly nearer the minimum wage law), and young people cannot raise families on the small income."

THE JOBS THEY'VE HELD

The specific kinds of jobs early retirees have held since leaving Government have been even more varied than their reasons for retiring:

Bought a farm and raised Christmas trees. . . . I sold my Christmas tree business last year and have retired for good, I think.

I have a small route of coin-operated vending and service machines.

(Continued—See RETIREMENT, page 20.)

by DAVID S. BROWN
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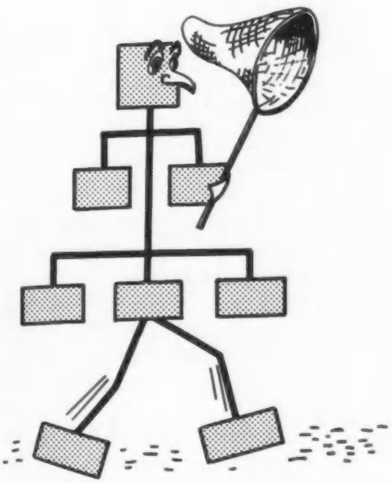

ORGANIZATIONAL MAN-TRAP: THE DEPUTY CHIEF

A CHARACTERISTIC OF TODAY'S large organization, both private and public, is the manner in which the position of deputy or assistant chief has proliferated.

Indeed, a sufficient number of *deputy* directors, administrators, managers, superintendents, chiefs, and department or division heads is already on hand to form a new professional association concerned exclusively with the problems and preservation of the species.

Many of these deputies are, of course, badly needed, but many others are not. What is worse, they are getting in the way of effective performance by confusing the leadership role while at the same time adding another hierarchical level to the organization. Consider the cases of the following:

—The head of Staff Service Division A, consisting of only four branches, has a deputy. The boss explained that he was needed to "man the fort" when the former was away from his desk.

—A field division of five elements has a chief and deputy although both readily admit that they are not overburdened with work. Reason: field offices in this agency follow a standard organizational pattern regardless of workload.

—A leader of five units (a total of 15 people) saw himself as the policymaker and his deputy as the person in charge of operations. Both, of course, became involved with policy *and* operations, and things sometimes became badly tangled.

These illustrations are by no means unusual. There are many instances of organizations with three, four, or five divisional units, or people, which have both chiefs and assistant chiefs. Occasionally, there will even be cases of a deputy in organizations with as few as two divisions.

On the face of it, of course, there seems much to recommend the single deputy arrangement. It has historic roots, as military experience suggests. It is a device for sharing the leadership load as that load multiplies in volume and complexity. It provides a "spare tire" for security coverage when the boss is absent, as

THE AUTHOR

DR. BROWN, Professor of Public Administration at The George Washington University, has held a variety of positions in the Federal service—two of which were at the deputy level. This, he says, has given him "an opportunity to observe firsthand some of the problems of relationship to be encountered."

He has also served in Pakistan with a party from the University of Southern California and in Scotland at the Centre for Management Studies at the Royal College of Science and Technology.

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our own form of government with its President and Vice President testifies. It brings additional expertise to the top levels. It is a "proving ground" for executive training. Indeed, one of its illusions is that its rationale is so easy to support.

A closer look, however, at the manner in which the chief and deputy actually work together will often show another and less convincing side of the picture, as the following criticisms suggest:

(1) Division-of-labor problems are created between chief and deputy which are always difficult, sometimes impossible, to resolve.
(2) A new, and often unneeded, hierarchical level is added to the organization.
(3) The span of control is reduced at a time when organizational theory is seeking to expand it.
(4) Duplication of effort and overlap of duties frequently result.
(5) Uncertainty and confusion take place among those at the lower working levels.
(6) Disagreement, and sometimes open conflict, is encouraged between the boss and his chief subordinate.

These are serious charges. Not only do they place large requirements on the individuals who are called upon to fill the principal and deputy roles, but, if proven, they also place dubious burdens on the organization as a whole. Let us examine each in greater detail.

(1) ***Division of Labor.*** For the principal and his deputy to function properly, there must be some kind of workable division of labor between them. This means that there must be some way of dividing up the tasks to be undertaken so that others will know with whom to deal on specific matters. One hears occasionally of two-man teams which have worked together over a period of time without such an arrangement—that is, with no discernible pattern regulating what each is to do—but my own observation is that this does not happen as frequently as is claimed.

Sometimes the workload is split between "inside" and "outside" activities, between "policy" and "operations," between "big" issues and "lesser" ones, or between divisions. The last sometimes occurs because one man (often the chief) prefers, or thinks he is better at, one type of work than another. The deputy gets what is left.

The likelihood of conflict between chief and deputy is increased when any of a number of circumstances prevail. When the leadership workload is light, there is a tendency to compete for what is left. Differences can also arise over policy and methods, or when, as is sometimes the case, the deputy stands higher in the views of either superiors or subordinates than does the chief. If the deputy is given operations—which is usually thought of as the least desirable share of the assignment—he may, in fact, turn out to be more influential than his boss.

(2) ***A New Hierarchical Level.*** The existence of a deputy with real authority inevitably introduces another hierarchical level into the organization. His work must be reviewed in some form or other by the chief, and, of course, he can be reversed. Some chiefs actually encourage appeal from their subordinates' judgments without really seeming to do so, to show their fairness to others.

For whatever reason, another hierarchical level has been added to the organization. One more step has been put into the communicational and decision-making processes; one more filter has been inserted.

Those who have tried to visualize these relationships on the organization chart are quite aware of the problem. Should the chief and the deputy both be in the same "box," or should there be a separate "box" for each? Should one overlay the other? General practice is to box them together but this does not mean this is the way things actually work out. Whether a new level, or only half a one, has been added, there is always one additional person in the pecking order.

(3) ***Shortening the Span of Control.*** Having a single deputy shortens the span of control and lessens the delegation which would ordinarily be extended to the operating levels. This can have repercussions in a number of ways. The deputy is seen as a bottleneck by those whose authority has been lessened by his presence, and perhaps as a usurper by his boss. It is easy for both to resent him.

(4) ***Duplication of Effort.*** The principal-deputy relationship often produces costly duplication of effort. Consider, for example, the need for informing each of what is going on in the organization, as well as what the other is doing. Much paper must be seen by two people. Both must be briefed. Many times both must attend meetings. Such practices occur frequently and routinely. Over a period of time, they can become very costly.

(5) ***"Deputy Problems."*** The existence of an assistant chief creates a special type of problem relationship between the assistant and his subordinates which may be identified as "deputy problems." These may appear in a variety of forms, but whatever their base, they detract from the deputy's usefulness as well as his status.

If he is seen as an "heir apparent," as some assistants are, he becomes the object of the familiar "testing" phenomenon. What are his areas of weakness, of uncertainty? How well does he really stand with the boss? Jealous subordinates know many ways of making life unhappy for fledgling executives.

If there are difficulties between the two principals, no matter how slight, these will be picked up by those below them and almost certainly amplified. An interesting side effect is that subordinates are given the opportunity under bifurcated leadership to select the superior he reports to on a given issue. Naturally, he picks the one most likely to agree with his point of view.

One more point should be mentioned: when father and mother disagree, the children are more than likely to fight among themselves. Differences between superiors in the administrative organization result accordingly in disagreements between subordinates. This is a byproduct of the system.

(6) ***Conflicts Between Chief and Deputy.*** Last but by no means least are the possibilities of conflict between chief and deputy. Indeed, as the above suggests, the situation is built to order for them. Consider the following:

—The boss gives the deputy the unpleasant jobs—the ones fraught with "danger," or the ones he doesn't want to do.
—The boss takes the credit, or seems to, for successes, but blames his assistant for the failures. Although the two are expected to complement each other, they really disagree on some rather basic issues.
—The deputy is considerably more successful in dealing with people (key people?) than the boss, so jealousy develops.
—Or, if you like, the boss himself is more successful in his relationships, so the deputy is the failure.
—The deputy is seen as a rival for the boss's job.

Such situations, of course, do not always occur, but they appear frequently enough to raise major questions concerning the use of the single deputy.

If the single deputy role has so many defects, why are there so many of them in public administration today? Why does the organization telephone book continue to list the names of so many deputy directors and assistant chiefs? Some of the reasons are good ones, but others are more likely to be rationalizations and well after the fact at that.

An honest explanation in a great many cases will be, "Why, we've always had an assistant chief, or at least as long as I can remember." In one bureau, the regional office's explanation was that national office instructions called for one. Those in the position—both chief *and* deputy, incidentally—admitted they were not happy with the arrangement, but SOP called for it. They would not think of questioning Washington—at least, in this matter.

A good case for a deputy is often made because of the volume of the work to be done. The Forest Service, after a major study of its field installations, concluded that this was the case. The boss cannot be expected to be everywhere at once. So an assistant chief was created to help share the load. Sometimes also the case is made for an "inside" man and an "outside" man, which is, of course, another variation of the work volume idea. The deputy may be a "spare tire" or "stand-in" when the boss is away a good deal of the time. Considerations such as these may have a great deal of merit, but each needs to be examined carefully to see whether or not some other arrangement might be more satisfactory.

There are other reasons for having a deputy, some of them hidden ones. Take, for example, the matter of status. "I'll have my assistant take care of that," a division director may say, implying that his role is of a loftier nature. The principal may feel insecure in certain areas, or not want to do certain things, such as providing supervisory leadership. There are the cases also where the chief is given a deputy by those above him. They no longer trust him and, like the central committee of the Russian Communist Party, want their own man in the organization.

These are some of the reasons why it is so easy to add an assistant or deputy to one's organizational directory.

All chief-single deputy arrangements, of course, are not bad, nor are all deputies a burden on management. The fact that there are defects in the system should serve as a reminder, however, that each case should be looked at on its own merits.

Situations where the use of the deputy may be warranted will include the following:

(1) Where there is a large amount of work to be done in the leadership of a *large* organization. The top man may concern himself with outside (or clientele) affairs, while the deputy will spend most of his time with internal operations. Thus, opportunities for conflict or overlap are minimized.

(2) Where the work of the organization readily divides itself into major, logical groupings. Each can then provide leadership to an appropriate segment of it, although the primacy of one of the two is recognized.

(3) Where the organization (or division) is new or expanding and a premium is placed on getting things under way.

(4) Where geographical considerations apply. The deputy may be head of a major field installation, or responsible for certain area activities.

(5) Where the single deputy is in training, although not necessarily for the job the principal holds.

(6) Where there is a record of two men having worked well together before in team relationship, and where the volume or priority of work calls for more than one man.

Whatever the arrangement, its terms must be understood and accepted by all of those concerned, including those subordinate to both principal and deputy.

The alternative to the use of the single deputy is really quite simple. Get rid of the position. The leadership role belongs clearly to the chief. The operational responsibility lies with the heads of the next-level units below him.

The deputy is no substitute for an ineffective chief. Neither should he be asked to do the work of the unit heads. They will never do better than they are currently doing if they are not given the opportunity to do so. Management will never develop the future talent it needs unless it works positively toward such a goal.

If the chief needs assistance in being informed, in informing others, or in performing particular services, special assistants can be added. These, however, are not the same as a deputy, even though, unhappily, many deputies seem to have become personal assistants to their supervisors.

The rewards of a campaign to reduce the number of assistant chiefs in an organization may not be immediately seen but they are sure to be felt over a period of several months. Not only does a saving in manpower result in a saving in dollars, but a reduction in the number of hierarchical levels and a broadening of spans of control will almost certainly help to develop personnel at all levels of the organization.

It is easy to remark in this day and age on the vestigial characteristics of the locomotive fireman, the hand-set printer, or the elevator operator. It is far more painful to find that other kinds of featherbedding may be taking place on one's own premises, and that we also, either as chiefs or deputies, may be personally involved.

Of all the mantraps in large organizations, the single deputy is one of the most insidious.

CSC CHECKLIST

A selection of recent CSC issuances that may be of special interest to agency management:

• FPM Letter 531–30, Appointments Above Minimum Rate of Grade Because of Superior Qualifications:

—authorizes, when necessary to meet the needs of the Government, appointments at above-minimum rates of grades when candidates for certain positions possess unusually high or unique qualifications.

• Bulletin 550–9, The Dual Compensation Act:

—transmits detailed summary of the provisions of the new Dual Compensation Act, an act designed to aid the Government in obtaining well-qualified persons for civilian positions through modification of prohibitions on the hiring of certain retired military officers, and to regulate the holding of two civilian offices by one employee.

• FPM Letter 290–1, Automatic Data Processing in Personnel Administration:

—provides guidelines on the use of ADP equipment in personnel management and administration.

• FPM Letter 571–19, Payment of Travel and Transportation Expenses Under Public Law 86–587; Additions to the List of Manpower Shortages:

—adds clerk-dictating machine transcribers, GS–3, and GS–2 trainees for the same position to the shortage list for which appointees may be paid travel and transportation expenses to their first duty stations.

—*Mary-Helen Emmons*

A Look at LEGISLATION

Legislation enacted by the 88th Congress, second session, as of September 21, 1964:

ALLOWANCES

Public Law 88–459, approved August 20, 1964, clarifies existing statutory authority and regulations which authorize the Government to provide rental quarters and certain related services for Government personnel. Prohibits forced occupancy of Government rental quarters unless the head of the agency concerned determines that such occupancy is necessary to render proper service or to adequately protect property. Such prohibition, until recent years, appeared in annual appropriation acts.

CLAIMS

Public Law 88–519, approved August 30, 1964, gives to United States District Courts concurrent jurisdiction with the Court of Claims to hear civil actions or claims against the United States to recover fees, salary, or compensation for official services of officers or employees of the United States where the claim does not exceed the amount of $10,000.

Public Law 88–558, approved August 31, 1964—The Military Personnel and Civilian Employees' Claims Act of 1964—extends to other agencies of the Government the authority now possessed by the military departments to settle claims, not to exceed $6,500, against the United States by members of the uniformed services and civilian officers and employees of the United States for damage to or loss of personal property incident to their services.

DUAL COMPENSATION—DUAL EMPLOYMENT

Public Law 88–448, approved August 19, 1964—The Dual Compensation Act—simplifies, modernizes, and consolidates the laws relating to the employment of civilians in more than one position and the laws concerning the civilian employment of retired members of the uniformed services. The law among other things (1) repeals the obsolete laws which have prevented the Government from recruiting many retired military personnel who possess special skills; (2) provides appropriate safeguards so that retired military personnel so employed will not have an unfair advantage over civilian employees in such areas as reduction in force, leave accruals, and career opportunities in the Department of Defense; (3) provides reasonably uniform treatment for the various categories of retired military personnel who are employed in Federal civilian positions; and (4) provides that a person holding more than one civilian position will be entitled to receive basic compensation for not more than 40 hours of work in any calendar week (Sunday through Saturday).

HEALTH BENEFITS

Public Law 88–284, approved March 17, 1964, amends the Federal Employees Health Benefits Act of 1959 to remove certain inequities. Permits enrolled employees to continue their coverage when placed on employees compensation even though the injury giving rise to compensation benefits occurred prior to enactment of the Health Benefits Act. Eliminates lower Government contribution for female employees with nondependent husbands; provides that employees who enroll up through December 31, 1964, who otherwise might be ineligible to do so because they did not enroll at the first opportunity, may continue their coverage after retirement; includes foster children under family enrollments; continues coverage under family enrollments for unmarried children up to age 21; grants to an enrolled employee who is erroneously removed or suspended and then restored an option of enrolling as a new employee; and authorizes the Civil Service Commission to transfer expenses from the administrative reserve fund under the Federal Employees Health Benefits Act of 1959 to the contingency reserve of the various health plans in proportion to the subscription charges.

PAY

Public Law 88–426, approved August 14, 1964—Government Employees Salary Reform Act of 1964—consists of 5 titles. The first four are separate salary acts and the fifth fixes the effective dates for the provisions contained in the other four titles.

Title I.—The Federal Employees Salary Act—provides salary increases for Classification Act employees, employees in the postal field service, those paid under the Foreign Service Act, physicians, dentists, and nurses in the Department of Medicine and Surgery of the Veterans Administration, and employees of the Agricultural Stabilization and Conservation County Committees. The increases in these statutory schedules were designed to implement the comparability principle set forth in the Federal Salary Reform Act of 1962. Title I also authorizes the recruitment of personnel with unusually high or unique qualifications to positions in GS–13 and above at rates higher than the normal entry salary.

Title II.—The Federal Legislative Salary Act—increases salaries for Senators, Representatives, the Speaker of the House, Congressional employees, and heads and assistant heads of legislative branch agencies.

Title III.—The Federal Executive Salary Act—increases the salary of the Vice President, cabinet officers, under and assistant heads of departments, heads and assistant heads of independent boards and commissions, and certain other appointive officers; creates a Federal Executive Salary Schedule consisting of five levels; statutorily places most of the positions, except that of the Vice President, in one of the five levels; authorizes the President under certain circumstances to place up to 60 additional positions in levels IV and V of that schedule.

Title IV.—The Federal Judicial Salary Act—increases the salary of the Chief Justice of the United States, associate justices of the Supreme Court, judges of Circuit and District Courts, judges of certain other courts, and other personnel in the judiciary branch.

Title V.—Establishes the effective date of increases in Titles I, III, and IV, as the first pay period after July 1, 1964, and those in Title II as January 1965.

SECURITY

Public Law 88–290, approved March 26, 1964, amends the Internal Security Act of 1959 to establish a base for enforcing security standards for employment of persons in the National Security Agency; excepts positions in the agency from the provisions of the Civil Service Act and the Performance Rating Act of 1950; authorizes the Secretary of Defense summarily to terminate the services of employees of the agency when such action is deemed necessary in the interests of the United States but provides that individuals whose employment has been terminated may seek or accept employment in any other Government agency if the Civil Service Commission determines that they are eligible for such employment.

TRAVEL

Public Law 88–266, approved February 5, 1964, amends the Administrative Expenses Act of 1946 to permit at Government expense the transportation of privately owned automobiles, and the storage of household goods and personal effects, of existing and newly appointed Federal civilian employees when they are assigned to duty in Alaska.

Status of legislation pending as of September 21, 1964:

BACK PAY

H.R. 4837 provides for the payment of compensation and restoration of employment benefits to certain Federal employees improperly deprived thereof; makes certain provisions of the bill retroactive.

Passed House; hearings completed in Senate; pending before Senate Post Office and Civil Service Committee.

COST-OF-LIVING ALLOWANCES

H.R. 7401 terminates the cost-of-living allowances for statutory-salaried Federal civilian employees in nonforeign areas.

Hearings completed in House; pending before House Post Office and Civil Service Committee Subcommittee.

EMPLOYMENT

H.R. 10 requires that summer temporary appointments to positions in the competitive service in the District of Columbia area be apportioned among applicants from the several States on the basis of population; requires that the appointments be made after nationwide open competitive examinations have been held for the temporary summer positions.

Passed House; hearings completed in Senate; pending before Civil Service Subcommittee, Senate Post Office and Civil Service Committee.

H.R. 8544 permits former employees of the Agricultural Stabilization and Conservation County Committees who become Federal employees to count committee service for leave and reduction-in-force purposes, to transfer leave credits, and to enter Federal service at a rate above the minimum rate of their grade which does not exceed the highest previous rate as a county employee.

Reported to the House; pending House action.

HAZARDOUS PAY

H.R. 1159 authorizes the Civil Service Commission to establish a schedule of pay differentials for employees under the Classification Act who perform irregular or intermittent duties involving unusual physical hardship or hazard not involved in the usual duties or classification of their positions.

Passed House; pending before Senate Post Office and Civil Service Committee.

MOVING EXPENSES

S. 2670, H.R. 10076, and H.R. 10640 amend the Administrative Expenses Act of 1946, as amended, to provide for reimbursement of certain moving expenses of employees and to authorize payment of expenses for storage of household goods and personal effects of employees assigned to isolated duty stations within the continental United States, excluding Alaska.

Pending before Senate and House Government Operations Committees.

RETIREMENT

H.R. 2155 provides certain increases in annuities payable from the civil service retirement and disability fund. Generally, the increase is 10 percent on the first $2,400 for annuities commencing before February 1, 1965, and on a graduated reduction percentage basis for those commencing during 1965–68. The bill also eliminates the existing requirement for a 2½-percent reduction of the first $3,600 of annuity to provide survivor benefits.

Reported to House; pending House action.

H.R. 5376 amends the Civil Service Retirement Act to provide for the inclusion in the computation of accredited service of certain periods of service rendered States or instrumentalities of States.

Reported to House; pending House action.

H.R. 5569 amends the Civil Service Retirement Act so as to permit the recovery by the Government of amounts due the Government in the settlement of claims under such Act.

Passed House; pending before Retirement Subcommittee, Senate Post Office and Civil Service Committee.

S. 176, H.R. 124, and related bills amend the Civil Service Retirement Act to provide for retirement on full annuity after 30 years' service. Some of the bills provide limitations of age 55, others provide no age restrictions.

Hearings completed; pending before House and Senate Post Office and Civil Service Committee Subcommittees.

S. 1562, H.R. 6366, and H.R. 6412 improve the financing of the civil service retirement system.

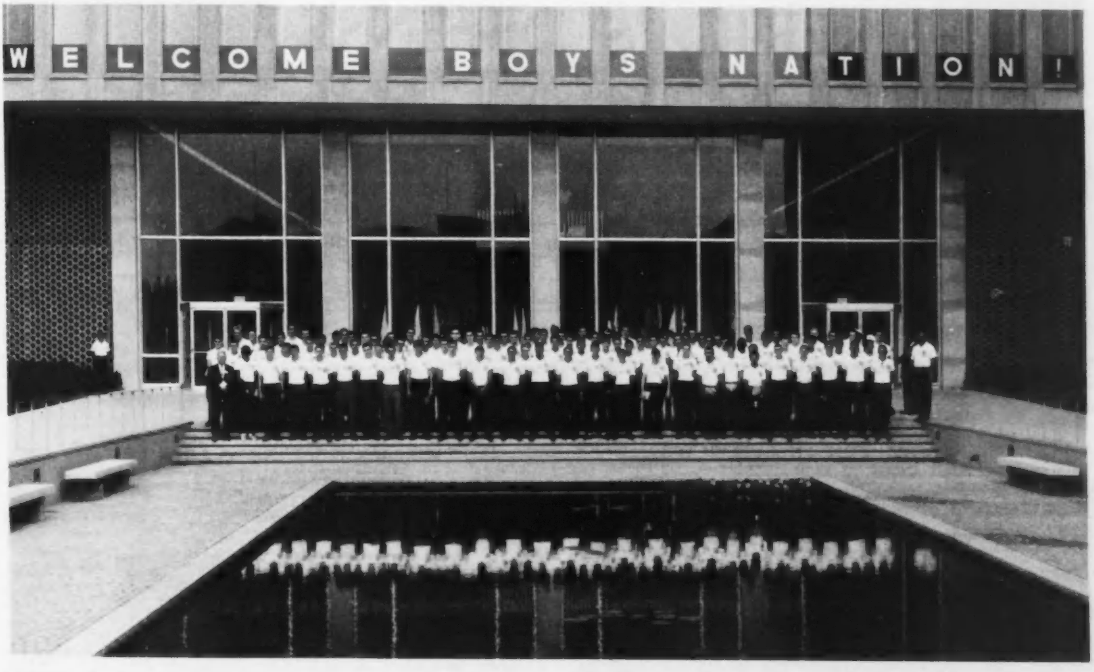
Hearings completed in Senate; pending before Senate and House Post Office and Civil Service Committees.

TRAVEL

H.R. 5929 and S. 1896 amend the Administrative Expenses Act of 1946 to provide for the payment of travel costs for applicants invited by a department to visit it for purposes connected with employment.

Hearings completed in House; pending before House and Senate Government Operations Committee Subcommittees.

—*Mary V. Wenzel*



COURTSHIP OF YOUTH—Delegates to Boys Nation 1964, the American Legion's education-for-citizenship program that assembles in Washington every summer, got a red-carpet reception on their first visit to Civil Service Commission's new headquarters building. The young delegates, two outstanding high school juniors from each State, saw a window-card welcome across the CSC building and were greeted by Commissioner L. J. Andolsek after filing through an avenue of State flags. They were briefed on Federal research of "inner space" by Coast and Geodetic Survey oceanographer Harris B. Stewart, Jr., and lunched in the Commission's executive dining room. CSC has hosted Boys Nation annually since 1958, but had to use auditorium facilities of other agencies until this year.

(*CSC photo*)

Civil Servants at Work

RESEARCH FOR AMERICA'S DEFENSE

NESTLED IN THE ROLLING MARYLAND countryside some 10 miles north of Washington, D.C., the U.S. Naval Ordnance Laboratory at White Oak is the working home of more than 3,000 Federal civil servants and the birthplace of some of America's most vital weapons.

NOL, as the Laboratory is called in the alphabetical lingo, looks like a quiet and rambling college campus. Inside its doors, however, the pace suddenly quickens as civil servants go about their work in developing weapons to preserve other peaceful countrysides throughout the free world.

The highly creative NOL staff is comprised of over 1,000 scientists and engineers and about 2,000 other skilled persons working in supporting roles. Under the technical and administrative control of Navy's Bureau of Naval Weapons, the Laboratory has an annual budget of $45 million—enabling the staff to pursue weapons development from preliminary studies to the point of readiness for fleet use. And a portion of each year's budget is allocated to "foundational research"—free, basic inquiry into aeroballistics, chemistry, mathematics, and physics, with no direct weapons system or ordnance project goal foreseen.

IN THE 15 YEARS the Laboratory has been at White Oak it has completed and released to production 157 new weapons and ordnance devices, approximately two-thirds of which are currently in service.

Civil servants at NOL developed SUBROC (the Navy's newest and deadliest antisubmarine weapon system), the arming and fuzing mechanism for POLARIS, 17 new mines, 2 nuclear depth bombs, a nuclear tactical weapon, 21 gun fuzes, 10 conventional warheads for missiles, and 8 pyrotechnic devices.

The Laboratory is the Nation's leading R&D establishment in antisubmarine warfare (ASW) devices, both in effort and facility. This facet commands about 40 percent of NOL's effort and includes all phases of the ASW sciences, from the detection of submarines to their destruction.

In addition, NOL has pioneered in wind tunnels and ballistics ranges capable of measuring aerodynamic drag, stability, and heating effects at speeds beyond 20 times the velocity of sound.

Materials research at NOL has developed 7 new magnetic materials that have been made available to industry as well as the Government. These have greatly improved magnetic amplifiers, magnetometers and electromagnetic transducers.



CIVIL SERVICE chemist, *left*, experiments with the chemistry of explosives and propellants; *center*, a nuclear physicist checks the ion source of the 2.5-million volt positive-ion accelerator; *right*, aerospace engineer calibrates instrumentation of supersonic wind tunnel for test of pressure distribution on spherical model.

THE LABORATORY'S explosives research program is the only one of its kind in the United States. NOL scientists investigate the chemistry of explosives and propellants, explosions processes, and the physical effects of explosions under the sea, on land, and in space. Out of recent research have come four new explosives that give much greater effectiveness to underwater weapons and missiles.

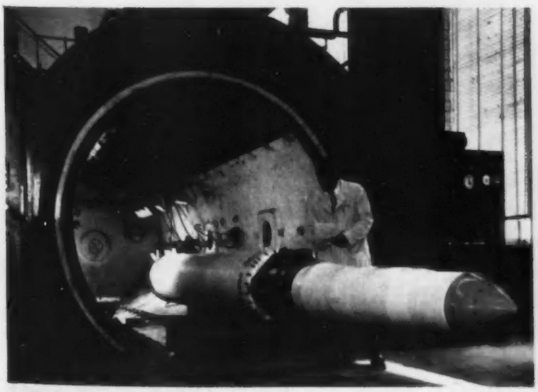
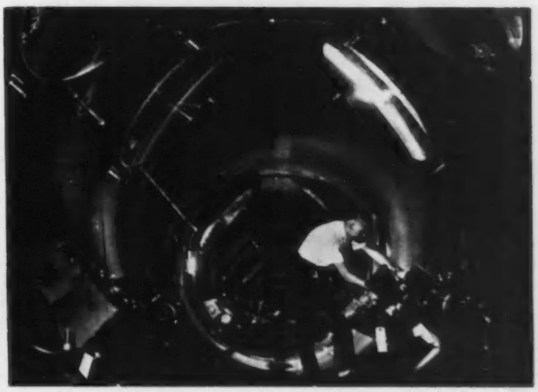
The plastics fabrication lab has equipment to handle practically every type of plastics molding or fabricating job. The plastic components of a missile, whether large or small, can be developed and fabricated in this area.

Probably no other R&D organization in this country has as wide a variety or unique a collection of facilities available in one plant. These include an electronic packaging laboratory, a Van de Graaff particle accelerator, a 200-ton 26-inch air gun, a 35-foot centrifuge, a 1.5-million-gallon underwater weapons test tank, a hydrodynamics test facility, a magnetics ship model measurement laboratory, a 10-million-volt Betatron X-ray, and a 180-foot conical shock tube.

Fantastic equipment—yes—but even more important are the 3,000 career civil servants who know how to use it in man's quest for a safer world in which to live.

—Scott D. Waffle
Press Officer, NOL

SUBROC, Navy's newest and deadliest antisubmarine missile, *below left*, was conceived and developed at NOL. It is shown here being prepared for environmental simulation in the Laboratory's horizontal pressure vessel. *Right*, employee checks out one of the camera stations in NOL's 1,000-foot-long hyperballistics range in which scientists can fire aerodynamic spheres at speeds up to 20,000 feet per second. (*NOL photos*)

EMPLOYEE COST-CUTTING REACHED NEW HEIGHTS IN FISCAL YEAR 1964

FEDERAL EMPLOYEES reached new heights of achievement in cutting costs and increasing efficiency during the year ended June 30, as revealed by agency reports of year-end results of the incentive awards program. Government-wide, fiscal year 1964 was one of the most successful in the 10-year history of the program which began on November 30, 1954.

Highlights: Measurable benefits from adopted employee suggestions reached an alltime high in 1964, topping $76 million. This is an increase of $7 million over the previous year's measurable benefits from employee suggestions.

Of the 463,451 suggestions for improving Government operations submitted last year, more than 118,500 were adopted, setting a new high in the number of employee ideas found useful by agency management officials. Employees earned a record total of $3.3 million in cash awards for adopted work-improvement suggestions, with the average cash award amounting to $40.

Over 67,700 awards for superior job performance were made last year with resulting measurable benefits of $42.6 million, compared with $31.3 million for fiscal year 1963. Each superior accomplishment award averaged about $136.

A $25,000 incentive award to Dr. Alvin Radkowsky of the Department of the Navy was the largest cash award of the year.

Top award for an employee suggestion went to Jules G. Capone of Army's Picatinny Arsenal, Dover, N.J., who received $2,135 for devising a method which increases the effectiveness of certain types of live ammunition used for training purposes and cuts ammunition costs by $330,000 yearly.

The largest award for group achievement amounted to $17,700 and was shared by the postal clerks and letter carriers of the Anchorage, Alaska, Post Office in recognition of their exceptional achievement in restoring postal service in an incredibly short time following the earthquake and tidal wave disaster in Alaska in April 1964.

A RECORD OF PROGRESS

Through Employee Contributions to Improved Government Operations

Following is a summary of the Government-wide results of the incentive awards program for fiscal year 1964:

EMPLOYEE CONTRIBUTIONS	
Suggestions adopted	118,564
Superior performance recognized	67,731
MEASURABLE BENEFITS	
Adopted suggestions	$76,101,526
Superior performance	$42,584,184
AWARDS TO EMPLOYEES	
Adopted suggestions	$3,354,272
Superior performance	$9,239,665

Adopted suggestions per 100 employees...... 5.0

(As compared with 2.6 per 100 during program's first year of operations)

Superior performance awards per 100 employees...... 2.9

(As compared with 0.01 per 100 during program's first year of operations)

$25,000 AWARDED TO NAVY SCIENTIST

WHEN DR. ALVIN RADKOWSKY first joined the Navy's Bureau of Ships as an electrical engineer in 1938, he thought the infant field of nuclear physics "too impractical" for specialization.

Twenty-six years of Federal service and two physics degrees later, Dr. Radkowsky, now Chief Scientist of the Nuclear Propulsion Division of the Bureau of Ships, is not only a specialist in nuclear physics but the recipient of a $25,000 award recognizing his outstanding contributions to the increased effectiveness of our nuclear-powered submarines and surface ships.

Dr. Radkowsky earned the top cash award that can be made under the Incentive Awards program by inventing and refining the "burnable poison" method for controlling nuclear reactors, which doubles the operational service life of the reactor core. His invention has made possible savings estimated by the Navy to exceed $41 million over a 1-year period.

Dr. Radkowsky's process, described by him as "similar to the addition of lead compounds to gasoline," prevents chain-reaction explosions of radioactive uranium in ship reactors, allowing an unlimited amount of uranium to be put into them. This control process makes it possible for a nuclear-powered vessel to operate for much longer periods than would otherwise be possible, and at the same time permits a reduction in the size of the reactor and simplifies its mechanical controls.

Dr. Radkowsky is the second individual to earn the maximum cash award authorized by the Government Employees' Incentive Awards Act of 1954. Dr. William B. McLean, also of the Navy, received a $25,000 award in 1956 for his development of the Sidewinder Guided Missile Weapon System. Two teams of Army scientists received group awards of $25,000 each since 1954.

A graduate of the College of the City of New York, Dr. Radkowsky earned his Master's degree at George Washington University under Dr. Edward Teller and his Doctorate in Physics at Catholic University. He was a delegate to the 1955 and 1958 Geneva Conference on Peaceful Uses of Atomic Energy and has published a number of papers in his field.

"OPERATION TEAMWORK" IS BIG SUCCESS IN POST OFFICE

Post Office Department's special "Operation Teamwork" program produced a record $4.4 million in dollar benefits from employee suggestions in fiscal year 1964—an 82-percent increase in benefits over the previous fiscal year.

Typical of the thousands of postal employees who were stimulated through "Operation Teamwork" to find "a more economical way" were:

An alert employee in the Chicago Post Office, who saw no reason why a cart used to transport mail between points on the workroom floor could not have three separate containers instead of one, making it possible to perform some of the required sorting steps as the cart made its rounds. This suggestion yielded a productivity increase valued at $52,178 a year and earned the employee a $965 award.

$25,000 AWARD WINNER. Secretary of the Navy Paul H. Nitze (left) congratulates Dr. Alvin Radkowsky after presenting him with a $25,000 award at a Pentagon ceremony on July 29, 1964.

An inquisitive lady at the Postal Data Center in Atlanta, who had her doubts about the need for some of the data "the machine" punched out on stacks of card forms. As a result of her suggestion, the machine's diet was cut, eliminating three columns of information no longer needed, which reduced man-hours involved by $27,690 yearly. The employee was awarded $790 for her ingenuity.

"Operation Teamwork" was designed to achieve more substantial returns and better management use of the suggestion program by identifying and presenting local operating problems to employees for solution. At the same time, the evaluation process was simplified by using operating channels. Supervisors identified and presented problems for solution and asked employees for their ideas. They also discussed the solutions and generally helped employees with their ideas. The program also featured local and national competition for best results achieved through employee suggestions, with emphasis on adopted suggestions and resulting dollar-value benefits.

A Post Office Department report outlining achievements under "Operation Teamwork" includes these highlights:

- In fiscal year 1964 the Department received and adopted more suggestions than in any other preceding fiscal year.
- Of the 155,572 new suggestions received—75 percent above fiscal year 1963—101,703 were received in the last 6 months of the fiscal year, pointing up the recent acceleration of the program.
- Of the 30,332 suggestions adopted—96 percent above fiscal year 1963—20,616 were adopted during the last 6 months.
- Dollar-value benefits from adopted employee suggestions amount to more than $4¼ million annually—82 percent above fiscal year 1963—and about $4 million more than the $438,000 paid to employees as awards for adopted suggestions.
- Superior accomplishment awards for outstanding work achievements totaled 7,044 for fiscal year 1964—a 56 percent increase over 1963—with resulting dollar benefits of more than $3 million compared with $2.1 million for fiscal year 1963.

Post Office Department officials believe that through "Operation Teamwork" they have broken through the passive resistance of many supervisors and have converted them into users of the suggestion program. This has been evident, they feel, from the exceptional response to the solving of local operating problems and the resulting high dollar-value benefits. The most significant result from the program was described by one postmaster in these words: "Never has there been such cooperation and esprit de corps as there is now."

—Philip Sanders

RETIREMENT—

(continued from page 8.)

I am a part-time waiter and a full-time cab driver.

I have regarded remodeling this old house as self employment and have enjoyed myself tremendously. I will probably sell it and either remodel another or build new, if health permits.

I deal in used furniture and antiques. . . . It's work, but mostly fun.

I do maintenance work on my own rental property.

Have a real estate license and work when I take a notion.

Some other examples of their jobs: babysitter, bank messenger, band player, barber, bartender, beekeeper, book salesman, cabin steward, cattle breeder, chauffeur, farmer, freelance advertiser, fruit grower, gas station operator, guard, handyman, innkeeper, janitor, landscape foreman, livestock judge, locksmith, movie usher, music teacher, newspaper dealer, parking lot attendant, peddler, repairman, school crossing guard, shipping clerk, short order cook, upholsterer, yard worker.

A few hold more spectacular positions. One of these devotes full time to a merchandising corporation which he helped organize while still in Government and which he says now grosses some $40 million a year. Another studied accounting while still employed and, beginning then, acquired accounts which now bring him a greater income than his salary did; "If I reach the age of 65," he says, "I plan to sell my practice, apply for full social security benefits, and then travel with the Mrs." The retirement of another "has worked out fine. We organized a new life insurance company. My position is its president."

Even less typical is the story of a former meteorologist who felt that inadequate education was now keeping him from the professional status he used to enjoy; he returned (after 40 years) to his university for a full academic course plus part-time meteorological research work, obtained a B.S. degree in 1962, and expected to receive the M.S. degree in Earth Science during August of 1964, after which he would be given professional status in teaching and research at the university. And the story of the former Navy engineer who, with his family, founded and now operates a private school for gifted children (IQ's ranging from 130 to 170) on a Long Island estate which they bought and converted; the school already has students ranging from nursery school through high school, plans to expand to include a 2-year liberal arts junior college. And that of the erstwhile research scientist who found that too many applicants for professional jobs in Government lacked—and disliked—math and science; deciding that his experience could help make these subjects more interesting to students, he enrolled in evening school, qualified for a high school teacher's certificate, and took a teaching position as soon as he became eligible for retirement.

THEIR REASONS FOR WORKING

Those who have worked at any time since retirement were asked why they did so. Their replies—consistent with their reasons for retiring—show that they worked primarily for economic reasons or because, having to continue earning, they needed easier work. They believe that others work for the same reasons.

By far the most frequently given reasons for working after retirement were economic—"had to have more money," for example, was marked by 786 people, and "wanted to qualify for social security benefits" was marked by 1,126. Almost half (45.5 percent) of all responses to the question had to do with need (or desire) for more money, and this was given as the MAIN reason by twice as many people as gave any other:

I needed more money and I could get a job at Boeing, so I took it.

Fig. 1

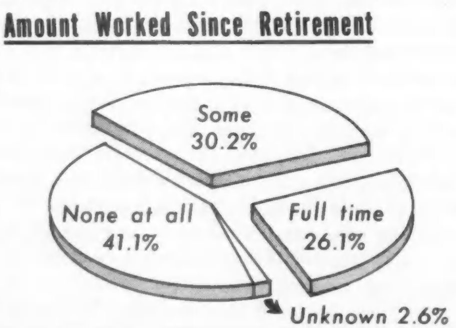
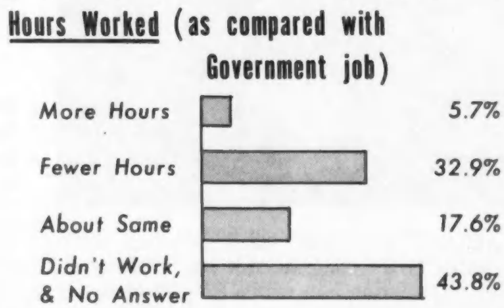


Fig. 2



When I had to start paying taxes on my total annuity, I had to return to work. . . .

The retirement income is sufficient if I stay home and putter around and die in a chair of old age. But for travel, hobbies, etc., which unfortunately cost money, I find it desirable to work for a while and then spend the money. . . .

I could not live on my retirement pay, that is why I am working.

The second most frequently given reason was need for less demanding work. "Had a chance to work just part of the time" was marked by 504 retirees, and "was able to get work that was less tiring, and caused me less strain, than my Government job" was marked by 708.

Almost as many started working again—or kept on working—just because they wanted to: 480 did it because they had a chance to do work they really wanted to do, 279 because they were bored, and 222 because they'd had a break and were ready to start again:

Our daughter graduated from college, my husband was retired, and we both wanted very much to go to the Mission field where we were very much needed. . . . Have been training natives in the Mission Hospital (Nigeria) and find much satisfaction in this work.

The days are long and there comes a time when one isn't too welcome around the house constantly. . . . People who are engaged in public business are too busy to visit with those who have retired. . . . One MUST keep himself busy.

I found myself depressed. . . . I sought temporary or part-time work and am still employed doing what I like, with the happy thought of being in circulation.

Some were approached by private employers and asked to work; 304 of these went back because they felt they were really needed.

AND THEIR REASONS FOR *NOT* WORKING

Paid employment holds no attraction for many, however. They are not interested in working, they have income sufficient for their needs, and they are too busy with their hobbies, community activities, recreational or educational pursuits. These satisfied, and unemployed, annuitants tell why they don't work:

I like to hunt, fish, golf, play bridge, garden, care for my yard. I love music, good literature, sports, and just plain loafing, which is an art in itself. . . . Work just took up too much of my time.

I always wanted a better education. . . . I am going to school, studying electronics. I decided this was a good course for either young or old. Sometimes I think I am too old, and again I feel that age is no barrier. . . . It could mean additional income for me in the future; if not, it still should be a nice hobby.

One of the things I have enjoyed is freedom of movement. . . . My brother and I took a trip to the West Coast. No one should miss seeing the beauty and vastness of this great country. . . . My only complaint is that time, each day and year, passes too quickly.

I wanted to travel some before I died, and I also wanted the time to do just as I pleased. Now I spend my summers on a nice northern Michigan lake and my winters in Florida, and between times I just travel around and visit my children and friends. I play golf about twice a week and fish all summer.

. . . many activities such as visiting sick at hospitals, volunteer community work, taking old ladies to grocery, etc. Would not desire any employment except in national emergency.

I read from 5 to 6 hours a day. I studied German for 2 years at the university. Tomorrow I begin a course in "Introduction to the New Testament." I do not have to do anything under tension.

There were, however, 231 checks for items dealing with inability to obtain work and 558 of those dealing with health and family responsibilities. Some say: "There doesn't seem to be anything much for ex-tax collectors who can't do manual labor"; "businesses do not hire women 58 years old so readily"; "I am totally disabled and not allowed to do any work"; "my aged parents require more help"; and "no success as yet in finding work. I've written to my Congressmen for suggestions. . . . It's rough. . . . Discrimination against age is terrible here."

HOW THEY ARE FARING FINANCIALLY

One question asked in the survey sought to determine how well early retirees are living now. This question read: "All of us can, of course, use more money at any time. We would like to know, however, whether the *total income* of employees who retired before reaching age 60 allows them to maintain a reasonably good standard of living now. Will you please check the answer that is most nearly right for you: (1) Live better than before I retired; (2) Live about as well as before I retired; (3) Don't live quite as well but am doing all right; (4) Have had to reduce my standard of living drastically in order to get by."

Over 83 percent answered that they are doing all right or better. Some were doing it on annuities plus savings and return on investments, but more than half have worked at least some of the time since retiring from Government. In addition, many volunteered that they have a spouse working or receiving an annuity, or are also drawing social security benefits or a veteran's pension, or—surprisingly often—have come into a small inheritance. They say:

> My income (outside) for only 8 months of work per year far exceeds the maximum of grade 15, the salary I was paid at the time of my voluntary retirement!

> If you are a married woman, as I am, with a working husband, the amount of retirement is not bad, but if you are a married man with a wife who does not work, it is close picking. . . .

Some of the 12.6 percent who have had to reduce their standard of living drastically say: "If you have recently tried living on $173 a month, the answer is obvious"; "The doctors', hospital, and high-priced medicine bills make it very difficult to make ends meet"; and "I still have the same expenses I had when I worked and more, too, because the gas and water and sewage have gone up, the house is older and needs more repairs . . . everything goes up. . . ."

Ex-postal employees had the highest percentage of persons living better than before and wage-board employees had the lowest, with GS's in between. Among occupational groups living better than before, those who had engineering, scientific, or professional positions in Government ranked highest, followed by clerk-carriers in close second place; others were all low. Men were doing better than women. All groups that were doing better had relatively higher rates of post-retirement employment than those who were hard up.

The more recent the retirement, the more likely the person is to be living better and the less likely he is to have had to reduce his standard of living:

	Percent Living Better	*Percent Living Worse*
1956 retirees	10.6	17.6
1959 retirees	17.3	12.2
1962 retirees	21.1	9.9

Write-in comments strongly suggest that a major explanation—apart from the less liberal benefits paid the earlier retirees—is that the 1956 and 1959 retirees had already exhausted the income tax exemption on their annuities, while the 1962 retirees had not yet done so.

HOW THEY FEEL ABOUT EARLY RETIREMENT

The survey asked annuitants whether they would still retire early if they had it to do over again and would recommend that others do so, and also inquired about the extent to which the early retirement option influences employee decisions to remain with Government for full careers.

Practically all said that they "certainly" or "probably" would retire early again under the same circumstances, and most of them had no doubt whatever about it:

> This is living!

> I knew what I wanted, so I did it, and my wife and I are very happy here. You can have all that ice and snow back there. I would rather mow my lawn than shovel snow off the sidewalk.

> I enjoy retirement and am glad I retired early. I believe people make better adjustments at an early age. . . .

> Have had a balanced spiritual, mental, and physical retirement; opportunity to enrich my spirit, enlighten my mind, maintain my health, enjoy the companionship of my wife; time to become and be an informed citizen. . . .

> Retirement life is wonderful—no bosses, no telephones, no budgets!

A surprising number, including many who have done some work since leaving Government, added comments like, "My retirement gave a chain of promotions to younger people with families" and "I firmly believe if a guy has put in 35 to 40 years, he should retire to make way for the younger fellows coming up. . . ."

A few say that if they'd known then what they know now, they would not have retired. Most of these are people who have been ill and feel that they might perhaps have been able to retire on disability; who were forced into retirement by family problems which no longer exist; or who find themselves hard up financially. Several, however, seem simply to have decided that they made a mistake in judgment: "One seems to lose importance when retired. . . . Had my foresight been as good as my hindsight, I would have worked on to at least 50 years"; and "[It's] not what a fellow figures it to be before he retires. . . . I was a lonesome man for quite a spell. . . . Even now, after 5 years, my mind runs back to the old gang."

Many hedged their answers about recommending whether others should retire early. Most often they said it's an individual problem on which each person must make his own decision, or "yes, IF—." The "ifs" nearly always turned out to be IF you're sure you can make it financially, or IF you've got something definite you want to do—"nothing is sadder than a man who doesn't know what to do with his spare time."

Others didn't hesitate to make a definite recommendation—but their views conflicted:

> Early retirement is a waste of manpower.
>
> Retirement a MUST at 55 or 60. After this age almost all employees just mark time and pick up their pay checks. Make them get out and give the man in the next lower bracket a chance for advancement.
>
> I am in favor of continuing work. . . . The greater percentage of retired people do not live much beyond 2 years after retirement. I believe this to be because inactivity leads to death.
>
> [Note: Over half of all retiring Federal employees live at least *12* years after retirement.]
>
> Older people slow down and cannot produce the same amount of work as when younger. Why keep a doddering old man on the job when he would be much better off on the retired list?
>
> Retire before 60—the younger you retire, the easier it is to adjust yourself to the change.
>
> Advocate retirement as soon as possible. That is the reason for the retirement law. It was passed so that older people may enjoy their declining years and to make an open job for a young person. They need a regular job to raise a family and maintain a home.

In response to the questions about the effect of the early retirement option on employees' decisions to remain in Government, they acknowledged—but rated relatively low—the "holding power" of this option so far as they themselves were concerned. Interestingly, however, they considered it a much more powerful influence on the decisions of *other* employees—the only instance in which there was any noticeable inconsistency in the answers they gave for themselves and the answers they thought applicable to others. Annuitants who were clerk-carriers while in Government rated the early retirement option a more important consideration than did others.

OTHER VOLUNTEERED COMMENTS

A great many people took advantage of the opportunity offered them to make additional comments "about retirement before age 60." A few stated flatly that they consider the present (not the pre-1956) optional retirement provisions entirely adequate, but most who commented favored liberalization: "All employees should be given the option to retire after 30 years of service, regardless of age and without a reduction in annuity. I believe it is unfair to penalize a person who comes into the service at an early age." "I know of Federal employees with 35–38 years of service who are fed up but cannot retire because they are not 55 years old."

Some believe that liberalization would benefit the Government as much as it would employees, and several argued that early retirement would stimulate employment and promotion opportunities, thus influencing qualified people to seek and hold Government jobs. But one observed, almost as if in answer to that argument, that "while employees fight for more liberal optional retirement provisions, very few seem to take advantage of such retirements when they do meet the service and age requirements—so why liberalize?"

Many feel that civil service annuities should be tax-exempt, especially since railroad retirement and social security benefits are exempt. Social security benefits for Government workers are desired by many—one thinks that "if the Government would put postal employees under social security, very few men would retire before age 62 or 65."

A number want the same treatment for former annuitants as is accorded those who retire now and in the future; liberalizations, they say, should apply to persons already on the rolls. Some advocate various kinds of gradual retirement plans.

Quite a few have regrets about the unused sick leave they "gave back to the Government" and still want some kind of retirement credit, or other compensation or recognition, for it.

And, in contrast to those who had criticisms such as the ones already quoted, a great many volunteered favorable comments about Federal service and expressions of gratitude for the benefits the Government provides its employees:

> My career was wonderful!
>
> I am very grateful that I have this annuity and can work a little or not, as I am able or desire; I think Government service is tops.
>
> I thoroughly enjoyed my career as a postal employee and shall be forever grateful for its retirement benefits.
>
> To my Government I say thanks for the privilege and opportunity to serve. . . . I am proud of the opportunity to have done so.

(*See summary on next page.*)

ANNUITANTS ANSWER KEY QUESTIONS

These are the results of key questions asked in the Civil Service Commission's survey of persons who retired early from the Federal service. Figures in columns marked (*) are percentages of the total number of *responses* to questions allowing several answers. All other figures are percentages of the sample group of *3,302 respondents.*

REASONS FOR RETIRING EARLY

Why did you retire before reaching 60 years of age? **(Up to 4 answers allowed.)**

	Percent*
Wanted to quit while still able to enjoy retirement	22.6
Economic reasons (better paid job, better off with annuity plus outside earnings, wanted to qualify for social security benefits)	21.8
Dissatisfied with job, working conditions, supervision, management	17.9
Health or family reasons	13.6
Organization reasons (would have had to take unwanted job, was RIF'd, urged by agency to retire)	4.3
All other (work part time or for self; move elsewhere; take break, then start again; just had enough, etc.)	19.8

INTENTION TO WORK

When you retired, did you intend to work at something else, either immediately or after you'd had a good rest?

	Percent
Yes	57.3
No	41.1
No answer, or qualified answer	1.6

ACTUAL EMPLOYMENT

Have you actually worked at something else since you retired?

	Percent
Yes	57.7
No	41.6
No answer, or qualified answer	.7

TIME WORKED

How much have you worked?

	Percent
Full time since starting	26.1
Full time for temporary periods	7.7
Part time but fairly regularly	13.5
Only occasionally	9.0
No answer, or haven't worked	43.7

REASONS FOR WORKING AGAIN

Why have you worked? **(Up to 4 answers allowed.)**

	Percent*
Economic reasons (had to have more money; to buy "extras"; to qualify for social security benefits)	45.5
Chance to do less demanding work (part-time, less tiring, less strain than in Government job)	25.2
Just wanted to (bored; had break, ready to go again; chance to do something really wanted to do)	20.4
All other	8.9

KIND OF WORK DONE

What kind of work have you done?

	Percent
Unskilled (laborer, building maintenance, etc.)	8.1
Guard, law enforcement	2.9
Skilled, mechanical, technical	6.2
Engineering, scientific, professional	3.9
Clerical, stenographic, typing, filing, office machine operation	12.7
Sales	6.0
Finance, insurance, real estate	3.6
Other nonprofessional white-collar	5.2
All other	6.4
Haven't worked, or no answer	45.0

ADEQUACY OF INCOME

We would like to know whether the total income of employees who retired before reaching age 60 allows them to maintain a reasonably good standard of living now.

	Percent
Live better than before retiring	17.2
Live about as well	34.4
Not quite as well but all right	32.2
Have had to reduce standard of living drastically to get by	12.6
No answer, or qualified answer	3.6

DO IT AGAIN

If you had it to do over again under the same conditions, would you still retire when you did?

	Percent
Certainly would	68.0
Probably would	24.1
Certainly would not	5.7
No answer, or qualified answer	2.2

CLASSIFICATION TOPICS

PAY ADMINISTRATION IN INDUSTRY

A recently released Bureau of Labor Statistics report titled *Salary Structure Characteristics in Large Firms, 1963** provides comprehensive information about the formal pay plans that private companies have established for their white-collar employees. The attention that private business has given to improvement of pay administration during the postwar period stands out in the finding that 85 percent of the salary schedules examined in the survey involve pay plans adopted or basically revised since 1945.

Made at the request of the Bureau of the Budget and the Civil Service Commission for their use in a continuing study of Federal salary systems, the survey covers 239 establishments of 99 companies with formal pay plans meeting certain criteria. Each establishment included in the survey employs 1,000 or more workers. Industry and area coverage parallels that of the annual BLS survey of professional, administrative, technical, and clerical pay which is the basis for comparing Federal and private enterprise salaries each year as required by the Federal Salary Reform Act of 1962. Thus, the establishments are in Standard Metropolitan Statistical Areas and embrace manufacturing; transportation, communication, and other public utilities; wholesale trade; retail trade; finance, insurance, and real estate; and certain service industries. Altogether, the 99 companies employ about 1,300,000 white-collar workers of whom about 575,000 are in the 239 establishments surveyed.

General characteristics of pay structures Some companies use one salary schedule for the full range of white-collar occupations. More frequently, however, two or more separate schedules are used, each for certain types of occupations. Among the 99 companies concerned, 78 have established two or more salary schedules for clerical, professional, and administrative positions and each of the 21 remaining companies has a single salary schedule for these groups.

Altogether, the survey covers 139 clerical schedules, 165 professional-administrative schedules, 76 clerical-professional-administrative schedules, and 61 other schedules. The most common reason for establishing more than one salary schedule is to separate employees subject to the provisions of the Fair Labor Standards Act (the "nonexempt" group) from employees who are exempt from the Act.

**Bulletin No. 1417, August 1964,* U.S. Department of Labor, Bureau of Labor Statistics, for sale by the Superintendent of Documents, U.S. Government Printing Office, Washington, D.C., 20402, price 30 cents.

Most of the companies in the survey operate through more than one establishment. It is common practice to use locality-related pay rates for clerical positions and company-wide rates for professional and administrative positions. The median minimum salary for the lowest grade of the schedules having clerical positions is $3,250. The median maximum salary for the highest grade of professional-administrative schedules is $27,000, and for clerical-professional-administrative schedules, $29,000. (It so happens that the schedules extending over the entire clerical-professional-administrative group tend to have somewhat higher top salaries than those schedules covering only professional and administrative positions.)

Job evaluation Use of job evaluation is nearly universal. Of the 380 schedules tabulated in the survey, 353, an overwhelming majority, depend upon formal job evaluation plans for assigning positions to pay grades.

Interestingly enough, there seems to be a tendency to provide a slightly greater number of grades than the Classification Act system provides for the same range of difficulty and responsibility of work, particularly at the professional and administrative levels. The median professional-administrative schedule, in fact, has 16 grades as compared with the 11 Classification Act grades (GS–5, 7, 9, 11–18), generally used for these groups of positions.

At the two extremes in numbers of grades are 4 schedules with 4 or 5 grades each, and 23 schedules with 30 or more grades. While much of this variation is attributable to differences in the range of positions covered, it is noteworthy that 16 of the schedules with 30 or more grades cover only professional or administrative positions.

Intergrade spread and in-grade ranges The spread between salaries for successive grades is affected by the number of grades and varies considerably among the schedules. Generally, it is larger at the higher salary levels, with median practices ranging from about 6 or 7 percent at the lower clerical levels to 12 percent at the $25,000 and 13 percent at the $30,000 levels.

Within-grade ranges are clearly larger at the higher than at the lower levels, varying from about 30 or 35 percent as a median practice at the lower levels to 47 percent at the $30,000 level. The rationale for within-grade ranges is clear: in the largest proportion of salary schedules of each type, the companies surveyed state that the ranges were adopted to permit recognition of differences in performance of individuals at the same grade level.

Companies that widen the ranges at the higher levels support this practice on the ground that greater within-grade developmental possibilities exist and less promotional opportunities are present at the higher than at the lower grades.

Use of within-grade rates In a majority of the schedules normal hiring rates are established, usually at the minimums of the grades. This practice is most common among schedules for clerical workers. Even establishments with normal hiring rates, however, permit hiring at above-minimum rates almost universally in shortage occupations and quite generally on the basis of evaluation of the experience and education of the individual.

Within-grade advancement is based solely upon "merit" or "performance" reviews in the great bulk of the professional-administrative schedules and the clerical-professional-administrative schedules. Employees are also advanced on this basis under a majority, but not such a large majority, of the clerical schedules. Typically, reviews are annual, but in many cases there are provisions permitting them to be made more frequently. Where periodic reviews are conducted, the proportion of employees receiving within-grade increases during the year ranges from less than 10 percent to more than 90 percent, with a median of 50 to 60 percent.

Very few schedules provide specific within-grade rates. Within-grade increases are generally a percentage of an employee's current pay, within a minimum and maximum permissible amount. The median minimums are 4 percent for clerical schedules and 5 percent for others, and the median maximum is 10 percent for all three types of schedules. Many companies control the granting of within-grade increases by providing a specific budget for this purpose (for example, a given department may be allowed 3 percent of its salary budget). In at least three-fifths of the schedules of each type, the midpoint of the grade range is regarded as equivalent to the market value of the job when fully and competently performed.

Adjustment of schedules Most companies do not specify definite intervals at which schedules are to be reviewed and, if appropriate, adjusted. In practice, however, schedules are generally reviewed each year. In the last 4 or 5 years the average interval between adjustments has been a year, or a year and a few months, for a majority of the schedules studied.

Adjustments are most often based on a policy of paying rates that are competitive with other establishments by adjusting schedules to reflect general changes in salary levels. The factor most widely considered in determining the size of adjustments is the change in salary levels shown by salary surveys. In reviewing their salaries, the firms may use salary survey data that is available, conduct or participate in salary surveys, or exchange information with other employers on their pay adjustments. Collective bargaining is a direct factor in the adjustment of schedules of employees under bargaining agreements and may be an indirect factor in the changes for other groups within the same firm.

When schedules are adjusted, the salaries of employees in more than half the clerical and the clerical-professional-administrative schedules are adjusted automatically. In many cases, however, and as the most prevalent practice under professional-administrative schedules, the salaries of individual employees are not adjusted at the time the schedules are adjusted, but rather on an individual basis through the periodic merit reviews.

Other common provisions One form of compensation characteristic of private enterprise pay structures, the bonus, is entirely absent from Federal pay systems and is likely to remain so. In more than one-half of the professional-administrative and clerical-professional-administrative schedules, provisions for payment of cash bonuses apply to employees in at least part of the grades.

Private firms also take care not to rule out of their plans the possibility of exceptional treatment for exceptional cases. Typical of written policies and procedures are qualifying statements that they "ordinarily apply" or that departures "should be given careful consideration."

—*Robert F. Milkey*

Two Views on

ODE TO AUTOMATION

Automation, Automation
Oh it's quite the new sensation
With its quantum computation
And its cosmic information.
As this potent innovation
Blithely sweeps across the nation
Careless of its imputation
Spawning boredom and frustration.

Thus the race—humanitation
With no zeal or motivation
Lost desire for osculation
Saw the end of propagation
And the race in devastation
Shrivelled in its habitation
Progressed to annihilation
Leaving only Automation.

—Clare O'Brien

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TRAINING DIGEST

COMMITTEE TO EVALUATE KINGS POINT

A distinguished committee of visitors has been named by Civil Service Commission Chairman John W. Macy, Jr., to review and evaluate the Federal Government's Executive Seminar Center at Kings Point, N.Y.

Robert K. Greenleaf, Director of Management Research, American Telephone and Telegraph Company, is Committee Chairman. Dr. Paul P. Van Riper, Professor of Administration, Graduate School of Business and Public Administration, Cornell University, and Dr. Richard E. McArdle, former Executive Director, National Institute of Public Affairs, are the other two members. A report of findings and recommendations is expected to be completed by year's end.

The Executive Seminar Center, opened last October by the U.S. Civil Service Commission as a Government-wide interagency training facility, offers career executives in all Federal agencies an opportunity to increase their understanding of significant and continuing Government responsibilities and operations.

The Committee will concentrate on evaluating the educational and training experiences which the Center provides. It will review the objectives, basic philosophy, instructional methods, course content, demand and qualifications, and the reactions of participants.

James R. Beck, Jr., recently named Director of the Center, will assist the Committee by supplying statistical and other data it needs to carry out its assignments.

The response from Federal agencies to this new educational endeavor has been so favorable that CSC has increased the course offerings, number of sessions, size of staff, and number of planned participants for the year beginning in September 1964. A total of 576 career executives from 47 departments and agencies are scheduled to attend 1 of 16 2-week course sessions. Seminars on the National Defense Establishment and Economic Opportunity have been added to the curriculum being offered.

NEW ADP RESOURCE FOR TRAINERS

The first issue of an annual Directory of ADP Training, Services, and Sources of Information was distributed by the Commission in September. The new publication continues a service inaugurated in 1960 by the Bureau of the Budget.

Courses listed fall into three categories:

- training in the management of automatic data processing systems
- training in applications of automatic data processing
- training in the technical aspects of analysis, design, and programing of ADP systems.

The directory will also contain information about central computer and programing services available in the Federal Government and an annotated bibliography of source books and periodicals on ADP, and will list ADP professional societies.

Copies are being distributed to Employee Development Officers and ADP installations.

SOME TRAINING LIMITS EASED

Federal departments and agencies may now train professional employees in the fields of natural or mathematical science or engineering for as long as 2 years in a decade of service, the Commission recently announced (FPM Installment No. 19). Agency officials may use the authority when they find that postponement of training would be detrimental to the development needed by employees for performance of their duties in the fields of the biological sciences, medical and veterinary sciences, the physical sciences, actuarial science and statistics.

The Government Employees Training Act restricts training to a period not to exceed 1 year in a 10-year

Automation

MAN . . . THE MASTER

I doubt if automation will
Get wildly out of hand.
The best computers can't outwit
Ye olde "supply-demand."
The captains of these new machines
Must know just what's at stake;
If not, they'll learn: the unemployed
Can't buy the things they make.

For sure, we will not leave behind,
For future men to tell of it,
Great pyramids of merchandise
We made just for the helluvit.
Instead, I think we will create
Things bigger, better, faster—
A world of health and plenty, and
A world of man—the master.

—Aloysius Greene

period of service. The action by the Commission in granting the waiver leaves the Act's restriction in effect for occupations not listed in the new instructions.

SUPERVISORY TRAINING INSTITUTE

An institute to prepare agency trainers for conducting CSC's new supervisory training program, Supervision and Group Performance, opened in Washington on September 10. Participants will learn the training methods and techniques used in the course, receive a complete set of the materials required to present the course, and be certified as instructors in the basic program. All program materials are designed to be used either by professional instructors or by individuals with considerable experience in the Federal Government and with the capacity to learn how to lead problem-solving conferences. Present plans call for the institute to be offered again some time later this fiscal year.

The basic Supervision and Group Performance course has been offered monthly to supervisors in the Washington area, and is being offered several times annually by CSC regional offices.

Further information regarding either the Institute for Trainers or Supervision and Group Performance (for supervisors) can be obtained from the Office of Career Development in Washington or any CSC regional office.

TRAINEE EXAM TO BE OPENED

Trainee vacation work-study programs for college students in the summer of 1965 will be supported by a nationwide examination plan, it was recently announced by CSC's Bureau of Recruiting and Examining. The examination will be announced at grades GS–3 and 4 for engineering and scientific occupations for which agencies have organized career hiring programs. Agencies that participate in the examination will be expected not to use Schedule A or temporary limited appointment authorities to appoint college students for similar training programs in the same grade levels and occupations during the vacation period.

FAA ESTABLISHES NEW PROGRAM

The Federal Aviation Agency has established a new Advanced Management Development Program which provides training for up to a year for 20 specially selected GS–13 or GS–14 employees. After 7 to 8 weeks at headquarters in Washington for orientation and preparation for their assignments, the trainees are sent to Syracuse University for one semester in public administration. At the end of the academic course, the trainees strike out in teams to carry out assigned management studies of FAA field activities. On return to headquarters, the teams present their recommendations to a top management board. They are then assigned to jobs in which their new skills can be used best.

TRAINING NOTES

Training agreements which provide for accelerated promotion were all canceled by the Commission at the end of September 1964. New agreements may be negotiated by the Federal agencies. (See FPM Letter 271–3.)

1965 Interagency Training Programs Bulletin, recently issued by the Commission, lists over 300 courses, 50 of which are newly available. Each Commission regional office is also issuing a local bulletin.

Career development programs have been established in most large and a number of smaller Federal agencies, Commission personnel management specialists report. In their inspections they have found that these programs have significant impact on improved manpower utilization.

Promotion systems in Federal agencies are often not fully understood by supervisors and employees, Commission inspections show. These findings indicate that employee development officers should pay special attention to this area.

College student cooperative work-study programs authorized by the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 will permit payments from Office of Economic Opportunity funds to students for part-time employment in public organizations (Federal, State, or local) on work related to their educational objectives.

Carl F. Stover is the new executive director of the National Institute of Public Affairs, the organization which provides career education awards to 40 selected public service employees.

An award for superior service was given by the Secretary of Agriculture to his Division of Employee Development for its outstanding leadership in employee development and utilization.

Management education and training policy in the Department of Defense now requires each component of that organization to establish specific procedures to assure that managers at GS–14 and 15 levels be given training on a planned basis to improve their capacity to assume higher level responsibilities.

Trainers and others who reprint copyrighted materials with permission of the copyright holder should include a note warning that publication of such material by the Government leaves in full effect the restrictions on the use of the material by others.

In-company courses will be given increased attention by American business in the future in areas of general management skills (planning, organizing, etc.) and communications, a survey by the National Industrial Conference Board discloses.

Computer courses are now offered by nearly 300 colleges and universities.

—*Ross Pollock*

QUOTABLE:

CSC Asks Help of Personnel Practitioners in

IMPROVING THE BREED

by L. J. ANDOLSEK, Commissioner
U.S. Civil Service Commission

THE COMMISSION'S Chairman, John Macy, has become noted for his "laundry list" of new projects that can be undertaken for the good of the service. I am informed on good authority that, on every such list he has jotted down, he has included the goal: "Improve the Breed of Personnel Practitioners."

Before reporting progress in this area, I want to make it clear that we do not feel the profession has "gone to the dogs" nor that good personnel administration has not been practiced in the past. Two very important considerations explain why an action program is being undertaken at present.

(1) While excellent personnel practices are being followed in some departments and agencies of Government, they are not being practiced universally. Therefore, there is a need to bring the entire profession up to the level of the best.

(2) None of us is growing younger, and we owe it to the next generation to guarantee Federal managers that the "pipeline" will provide enough good personnel officers to meet tomorrow's needs.

With this introduction, here is a report on what has been done and what our motivation has been.

SOME MONTHS AGO Chairman Macy called in the Commission's executive staff and spent the entire day discussing what could or should be done to improve the breed. Subsequently, a group of about 15 top personnel people from departments and agencies in Washington were called together for the same purpose. In addition, the Commission's ten regional directors were polled for their ideas and recommendations.

I extend to the Society for Personnel Administration an invitation to join in the search for better ways, and to take part in our quest for excellence. We earnestly seek your support, and we will welcome your participation.

Among the questions that remain unanswered—and, hopefully, you will help to find the answers—are these:

How can we raise the *stature* of the personnel officer in the eyes of management? This is perhaps the most basic consideration of all, for unless the manager respects his personnel assistant, he will never invite him to participate in planning sessions.

At present we have, on the one hand, a setting in which the line manager arrives at a decision by himself, then calls in the personnel officer—whom he obviously brands as, at best, a technical expert—and says: "I have decided so and so. Hire or fire so and so." In other settings, the manager calls in the personnel adviser as part of the decision-making process, and draws on the personnel officer's experience and judgment. It is the latter environment that is needed throughout the service.

Continuing the significant questions we face:

Is the quality of people entering the personnel profession as high as the quality of those entering related occupations? If not, why not? What can we do to improve the quality?

Are we retaining good people in the personnel profession, or do the bright ones soon want out? Are those who leave attracted to other management/staff jobs such as budgeting or financial management? If so, why?

Are we doing an adequate job in rotating people between the various disciplines of personnel work, such as recruiting, placement, classification, and so on, or are we "strapping" our personnel people into narrow specializations? For example: it is imperative in the man-and-job matching process that the man in placement and the man in classification *know* what the other fellow is doing and why.

Are we providing opportunities for our present personnel people to gain experience that might some day qualify them to move into line management? By this I mean, are they being given opportunity to learn by experience what budgeting is all about? Public information? Other concerns of management?

Is our training program adequate? If not, what changes could be made for the better?

These are some of the questions. There are many more. We would like very much to count on your support . . . . Without continuing effort to "improve the breed" and bring every practitioner up to his highest peak of performance, we cannot really hope to support the hand of management as it should be supported for the vital Government missions of today and tomorrow.

Excerpted from an address to the Society for Personnel Administration luncheon, September 28, 1964, Washington, D.C.

RECRUITERS ROUNDUP

A NEW RECRUITING SEASON has started and Federal recruiters are packing their bags in preparation for the continuing search for quality talent. Recruiting has become "big business" with most Federal agencies, and the degree of success in the recruiting effort is measured by the numbers of well educated and trained applicants put on the rolls.

ON THE COLLEGE CAMPUSES we will again be involved in a highly competitive situation. Private industry, government (Federal, State, and local), and educational institutions are all aggressively seeking the quality graduates who can contribute to the successful accomplishment of their individual missions. All have challenging assignments to offer, and monetary rewards equal to the value of the contribution made. Often, the difference between success and failure is influenced by the selection and training of the representatives chosen to do the actual recruiting.

THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT has increased its competence in this vital college recruiting effort by leaps and bounds, and is now recognized as an aggressive and effective competitor and a good employer. We have been reasonably successful in our quest for quality, but still are a long way from bringing *enough* topnotch talent into the career service. The answer to increasing our effectiveness lies in the people we choose to do our recruiting, the training they receive *before* hitting the recruiting trail, and the techniques and skills they employ on the campus.

A recent letter from a very competent and effective Placement Director contained the following sentence:

> "I am personally convinced that the problem faced by Federal recruiters is not caused by the employer they represent but rather is caused by themselves as persons and their recruiting methods and techniques or lack thereof."

An initial feeling of resentment was overcome when it was realized that what he was referring to was the *unsuccessful* Federal recruiter, not Federal recruiters in general. This type of frank evaluation of our recruiting effort is necessary if we are to achieve our recruiting objectives efficiently and economically.

Executives are often shielded from unfavorable comments about their campus representatives, and this is unfortunate. We cannot afford to wear blinders, considering that the broadest possible view of our recruiting effort is absolutely essential if we are to recruit the quality needed in the Federal career service. The results of not knowing the facts can contribute to the failure of a vital program, and the imprudent expenditure of the taxpayers' money.

HERE ARE A FEW of the criticisms voiced about recruiters that are received from placement officials and faculty. It is obvious that these criticisms are not necessarily pertinent only to Federal recruiters.

- Your recruiter had apparently never been on a college campus before nor trained for it, and he was completely outclassed by other experienced recruiters.
- The recruiter should have been trained in interviewing techniques. Most of the seniors interviewed were completely confused and expressed their dissatisfaction with Government representatives (all of them got the blame).
- He may have been an alumnus of the school, but he certainly is not a recruiter. He did you more harm than good.
- The recruiter gave the impression he didn't like what he was doing and was too busy to spend much time interviewing. He let it it be known he had more important things to do. Those he interviewed felt the same way.

THESE ARE JUST A FEW indications of what happens when the wrong person is selected to do the job, or an untrained representative is sent to a campus.

Recruiting is too important a responsibility to assign thoughtlessly. The person the least busy at the time is not necessarily the best one to do your recruiting job. When a recruiter visits a campus he or she is your organization in the eyes of the placement official, the faculty, and the students. We cannot afford to handicap our efforts by sending an unqualified and untrained representative to an institution that can provide us with the quality of talent needed to support vital programs.

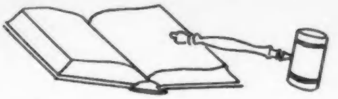
It should pay big dividends if executives would ask themselves before sending a recruiter on the road:

Is this person the best we have to represent our organization?

Is he trained for the important task we have assigned to him?

If the answer is "no" to either question, do your organization a favor—send a better representative, *or don't send anyone at all.*

—*Robert F. Mello,* Director
Office of College Relations
and Recruitment



LEGAL DECISIONS

REDUCTION IN FORCE

George v. *United States,* Court of Claims, June 12, 1964. Plaintiff was separated by reduction in force from his position in Japan. Since he had not been given the required notice, the Commission directed that he be restored to his position retroactively. The agency restored him to the payroll, gave him the back pay that was due, and again separated him after proper notice. His appeal to the Commission from the second separation was denied because it was not filed within the time specified in the regulations. He then asked the court to declare the second separation illegal on the ground that the agency had not fully complied with the decision of the Commission on the first separation in that he was not physically restored to his position in Japan. The court ruled against him, pointing out that he had failed to show that he suffered any financial loss because of the failure of the agency to physically restore him to the position in Japan.

REMOVAL—VETERAN

Swanson v. *United States,* Court of Claims, May 18, 1964. The Foreign Assistance Act of 1961 abolished the International Cooperation Administration and provided (in section 621(d)) for the transfer to a new agency that was to be established to handle foreign aid of "such personnel of the International Cooperation Administration as the President determines to be necessary." Plaintiff was not selected for transfer and was separated on the date of the abolition of ICA. He claimed the separation was in violation of sections 12 and 14 of the Veterans' Preference Act. The court dismissed the petition without an opinion. Plaintiff has filed a petition for review by the Supreme Court.

UNREASONABLE SEARCHES AND SEIZURES

Freeman v. *United States,* Court of Appeals, D.C., June 4, 1964. Appellant had been convicted of a criminal offense on the basis of evidence taken by agency investigators from a table used by him at a messenger station. He sought reversal on the authority of a 1951 case in which the court had reversed a conviction which had been based on evidence obtained by the police in searching a desk. The court ruled that this case was different from the case cited as a precedent. In that case the desk was assigned to a secretary's exclusive use in the office where she was employed. In this case the messenger did not have exclusive use of the table; his assignment was merely temporary since he could be assigned to another floor on a daily basis. Secretaries and other employees would frequent the room and use paper clips and pencils from the table. In effect, the table was open for common use.

REMOVAL—CAUSE

McEachern v. *United States,* District Court, South Carolina, July 8, 1964. This case involves the removal of a hearing examiner for failure to pay his debts (see *Journal,* Vol. 4, No. 1). The district court's previous decision in favor of the United States had been reversed on a technicality by the court of appeals. On rehearing, the district court again ruled in favor of the United States. It held that removal for willful or negligent failure to pay lawful debts without sufficient excuse or reason is clearly for a cause that will promote the efficiency of the service. In addition, the court rejected the plaintiff's argument that there was no substantial evidence to support the general charge that his financial irresponsibility "brought discredit on the Agency and hence on the Department and the United States." The court said: "The Courts have never required specific proof of such facts. The Commission drew a justifiable inference from the established facts * * *." Plaintiff has appealed to the Court of Appeals.

POLITICAL ACTIVITY

Wiles v. *Gronouski,* District Court, West Virginia, May 26, 1964. The Commission directed plaintiff's separation from the position of career substitute clerk for engaging in political activity prohibited by section 9(a) of the Hatch Act. He had filed for the office of Justice of the Peace and permitted his name to appear on the ballot unopposed but under a political party label in both the primary and general elections. The court upheld the Commission, ruling that candidacy under a party label for any office, however minor, whether accompanied by active campaigning or not, is *per se* a violation of the Hatch Act.

—*John J. McCarthy*

SHELF-HELP

THE WASHINGTON SCENE

"Washington—City of the World" is what *Holiday Magazine* has called the Nation's Capital. Apparently authors have agreed with this appraisal, for they have been devoting more and more of their time and talents to this city, and more specifically to the operations of the Federal Government. Following are some of the recent Washington-centered books that should be of interest to Federal executives and managers.

From a profusion of current books, a good starting point is Douglas Cater's *Power in Washington.* The subtitle, "A Critical Look at Today's Struggle to Govern in the Nation's Capital," captures the flavor and central theme of the text. Power is nowhere concentrated, Cater claims, but resides in many "sub-governments" in the legislative and executive branches and in outside groups affected by Government rulings. As the subtitle indicates, the author gives the reader a behind-the-scenes look at power, how it is garnered, used, and sometimes abused.

Jack Raymond's *Power at the Pentagon* treats the most complex of all our "sub-governments"—the Department of Defense. His views on the many facets of Pentagon operations stem from his covering the Defense Department for the *New York Times* since 1956. Raymond imparts to the reader a "you are there" feeling, though not all readers will agree with his many assessments.

Peter Woll's slim volume, *American Bureaucracy,* is a refreshing course in political science. His treatment of administrative law and the regulatory agencies is a gem of clarity and understanding. The emergence of the bureaucracy in areas not explicitly provided by the Constitution is traced with illuminating detail—providing a new viewpoint and a challenging one.

The Politics of the Budgetary Process by Aaron Wildavsky is an approach to the budgetary process quite unlike any other text on Federal budgeting. In place of the usual descriptions of the budget cycle, and budget formulation and execution, the book deals with roles and the behavior of all those involved in the process—from the agency budget officer, through the Bureau of the Budget and the White House, to the appropriation committees. The text abounds in cautions, directions, and "tricks of the trade." The author concludes that "the existing budgetary process works much better than is commonly supposed."

Like other studies which bear his imprint, Lloyd Warner, in collaboration with three other scholars, has produced in *The American Federal Executive* a carefully documented study of the social and personal characteristics of the civilian and military leaders of the Federal Government. The authors' basic purpose was to define broadly the representative character of the American Federal bureaucracy and the nature of occupational mobility and succession in American society as a whole. This they have done exceedingly well, and contrary to what is often thought by those outside the Federal establishment, the quality of Government leadership is shown to compare favorably with that of the business world.

Power in Washington. Douglas Cater. Random House, New York, 1964. 275 pp.

Power at the Pentagon. Jack Raymond. Harper & Row, New York, 1964. 363 pp.

American Bureaucracy. Peter Woll. W. W. Norton & Co., Inc., 1963. 184 pp.

The Politics of the Budgetary Process. Aaron Wildavsky. Little, Brown & Co., Boston, 1964. 216 pp.

The American Federal Executive. Warner, Van Riper, Martin & Collins. Yale University Press, New Haven, 1963. 405 pp.

Scientists and National Policy-making. Edited by Robert Gilpin & Christopher Wright. Columbia University Press, New York, 1964. 307 pp.

The Making of Justice. James E. Clayton. E. P. Dutton & Company, Inc., New York, 1964. 320 pp.

Washington is increasingly coming to grips with what may be defined as a national science policy. Thus we find this introduction to the co-edited text, *Scientists and National Policy-making:*

> "In the increasing number and variety of interactions between social affairs and science and technology, two constant factors stand out: the clear need to establish policies for many of these interactions on a national basis, and the involvement of men of science in this process."

This book presents a collection of 10 essays from a series of seminars sponsored by the Columbia University Council for Atomic Age Studies. All authors addressed themselves to the two "constant factors" mentioned above, but several of the essays have immediate relevance for Federal managers. These are Don K. Price's "The Scientific Establishment"; Wallace S. Sayre's "Scientists and American Science Policy"; and Robert N. Kreidler's "The President's Science Advisers and National Science Policy."

In his *The Making of Justice,* James Clayton of the *Washington Post's* editorial staff focuses on the 1962–63 term of the Supreme Court for a lively and lucid account of the Court in action. He deftly shows the shifts in the judicial winds and the oscillating balance between majority and minority. This volume should appeal to lawyer and layman alike.

—Franklin G. Connor

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Worth Noting (*Continued*)

FEDERAL EXECUTIVE BOARDS in 12 major cities have demonstrated their ability to "translate common concerns into a working community of interest, to initiate projects on a joint basis, and to create a management outlook responsive to the broadest national purposes," Chairman John W. Macy, Jr., of the U.S. Civil Service Commission, told the President in his annual report on FEB activity.

The President responded in part: "We can and must do more—much more—with the facilities and resources we have. We must exploit every opportunity for savings, for eliminating duplication, for doing our work more efficiently." The President also said he "will look to the Boards to give all possible support to our major substantive programs such as civil rights, the war on poverty, and youth assistance and training. At the same time, I hope the Boards will step up their efforts to promote greater economy and productivity in all Federal operations."

SINGLE FUND DRIVES, in which Federal employees and servicemen may contribute to voluntary health and welfare agencies once a year by payroll deduction, cash, or pledge are now in progress in six cities having heavy concentrations of Federal activity.

Endorsed by President Johnson, the single drives are an experiment to learn whether a combined campaign will bring continued generous support for each of the fund-raising organizations and their member agencies, and save the Government time and expense by having only one solicitation on the job each year.

Results of the six pilot campaigns now being conducted in Bremerton, Wash., Chicago, Ill., Dover, N.J., Macon, Ga., San Antonio, Tex., and Washington, D.C., will help to determine whether single campaigns can be extended to other metropolitan areas in the future.

AS A RESULT OF a 2-year research study conducted in five Federal agencies, the Bureau of the Budget believes it is feasible to develop valid productivity measures for a considerable portion of Federal activities.

Studies of several of the agencies indicate that the rate of increase in productivity in Government compares favorably with the overall 3-percent annual increase in productivity in industry.

Kermit Gordon, Budget Bureau Director, said the Bureau will ask all agencies of Government to study the report to determine the extent to which newly developed techniques can be adapted to their programs, and to use these productivity measurements to the fullest extent possible in preparing their budget submissions.

SIGNING the Government Employees Salary Reform Act of 1964, President Johnson said: "This legislation provides both the flexibilities and the incentives to recognize differences between marginal, competent, and superior performance. I hope that every responsible manager will use these tools fully, use them equitably, and use them conscientiously. Our continuing goal is to fulfill the mandate of making Federal salaries reasonably comparable with those of private life.

"Alongside that goal is the parallel objective of expecting and achieving high productivity. Everyone in the Federal service, from the lowest grade to the highest, has the responsibility of assuring the American taxpayer full value for every dollar spent and that no dollar will be spent unnecessarily. . . .

"For the first time this [law] gives us the tools to identify and inspire, to reward and retain excellence in our Federal service. This is one of the most profound advances in the last 30 years or longer. We are very sensibly putting behind us in this country the concept that the Federal service can be treated indifferently as a massive, mindless, faceless, anonymous bureaucracy."

—*Joseph E. Oglesby*

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