CIVIL SERVICE

Journal

Sym'bi·ot'ic —
The living together
in association or
even close union
of two dissimilar
organisms.

Symbiotic

"...we do
need
change..."

"...Government can be
made more effective by
management
improvements..."

U.S. Civil Service Commission

CIVIL SERVICE *Journal*

ARTICLES

DEPARTMENTS

U.S. CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

Reorganization of the government is getting a lot of attention these days, and with the attention come questions, a lot of questions: How is this reorganization different from those tried by other administrations? What is it going to accomplish? Who is doing what for whom? How will it affect me personally, or as a manager how will it affect my ability to manage?

The *Journal* took these questions to the top, to some of the people who will head up the reorganization effort. One early August day, at a time when reorganization work was getting into full swing, we gathered together CSC Chairman Alan K. (Scotty) Campbell who chairs the Federal Personnel Management Project on reorganization, Ersa H. Poston who as a CSC Commissioner works closely with him on the Commission side of the Project, OMB Associate Director Wayne Granquist who serves as Project vice chairman, and Dwight Ink who is executive director of the Project staff. CSC Vice Chairman Jule M. Sugarman, who co-chairs a working group of Assistant Secretaries on reorganization matters, asked to be excluded from the interview because his article, ''Thinking Ahead in Reorganization,'' appears in this same issue of the *Journal*.

Excerpts from the interview follow.

IMPROVING MANAGEMENT THROUGH REORGANIZATION

Alan K. (Scotty) Campbell,
*Chairman, U.S. Civil Service
Commission*

Ersa H. Poston,
*Commissioner, U.S. Civil Service
Commission*

Wayne Granquist,
*Associate Director, Office of
Management and Budget*

Dwight Ink,
*Executive Director, Federal Personnel
Management Project staff*

Journal: To address the first question to you, Chairman Campbell, why did the President mandate a Federal reorganization? And in your assessment, how serious is he?

Campbell: To answer the second half first, there's no question about his seriousness. The fact that he has made himself chairman of the Executive Committee of the reorganization, and that he has already had a good number of meetings with his reorganization task forces, is evidence that he has a strong commitment to the reorganization.

The President is convinced that the Federal Government can be made more effective by management improvements, and he believes that management improvements require a certain amount of reorganization of the current activities of the Federal Government.

Specifically in relationship to the Federal Personnel Management Project, the President, in his first conversation with me, indicated his belief that there needed to be some substantial changes in the personnel field in the Federal Government. And the result of that was a commitment on my part to begin to move immediately in that area, and it was out of that that the Federal Personnel Management Project was created.

Journal: I would pose this question jointly to you and to Mr. Granquist. From your perspectives, what do you see as expectations from the reorganization effort?

Campbell: It seems to me important that we make a distinction—not because they're different, but because one is a much larger effort than the other—between the Federal Personnel Management Project and the general reorganization.

As far as the general reorganization is concerned, in its simplest terms, the outcome will be more effective government. That is, there will be better delivery of government services to citizens.

In relation to the Federal Personnel Management Project, the emphasis is on creating greater flexibility: a greater ability on the part of the personnel system to re-

spond, on the one hand, to management needs, while simultaneously providing adequate employee protections. Both of those goals, I believe, suggest very substantial changes in current personnel practices.

Granquist: Let me just follow what the Chairman said. And I address myself really to the issue of what the President's reorganization is intended to do overall.

It is aimed at improving delivery systems. It is different from activities of the past that were aimed at reorganizing the Government because this is inside the Government. The entire project is using input from people outside, but the project is located inside. We didn't build a separate, free-standing organization that would run alongside the existing institution of Government, and try to reform it at the end of a 2- or 3-year study process.

The second thing I'd say is—it also follows along the idea of delivery systems—is that a lot of what we expect to get out of the entire reorganization project is really not so much structural change in the arrangement of government agencies as it is process change and management improvements, in a much broader sense. You will certainly see reorganization plans, under the legislative authority granted to the President by the Congress, go to the Hill. The limitations in that authority are fairly stringent. We can only have three plans at one time in the Congress.

If you consider the vastness of the task that we are embarked upon, obviously we'll have to find ways to either get the Congress to consider things quickly, or more importantly, look at administrative and procedural changes and Executive order changes that can be accomplished in the Government to move toward the President's goals.

And I think that the structural nature of reorganization is, perhaps, overemphasized from time to time. Really, what the Federal personnel project is all about is an improvement in the management of

"The President is convinced that the Federal Government can be made more effective by management improvements..."

the Government, and getting, in this particular instance, more flexibility, well balanced with employee rights and the merit system.

Overall, what we're talking about in delivery system improvements is management improvements. It is shortening the time required to get decisions. It is increasing the amount of information that feeds back to managers. It is looking at people in perspective with their jobs and with their goals, so they can better focus on what needs to be done.

Journal: Mr. Ink, Mr. Granquist alluded to earlier efforts in reorganization. From where you sit as task force commander in the Federal Personnel Management Project, please put this issue into perspective. Which have been the major efforts of the past?

Ink: Of the reorganization efforts and startings made in the last several decades, most have not focused heavily on personnel management. I think this is one of the

problems, because so many of them have been preoccupied with the structure of government. And while making a few general comments about the need for personnel management, the importance of Federal employees, most of them really haven't come to grips with the basic issues and problems of personnel management from either the standpoint of employees or from the standpoint of management.

The Hoover Commissions, in '48-'49, and '54-'55, did address personnel management, and I think were very useful in terms of public debate, but not a lot of practical results grew out of the Hoover Commission recommendations.

I think it's interesting to note that at the conclusion of those studies, Mr. Hoover indicated that the one recommendation he personally thought had the greatest significance *was* in the area of personnel management, namely that of an Executive Service for high-level managers.

Now, that management service concept has surfaced from time to time, but it has never resulted in any action. We are giving it priority attention in this survey.

Journal: How would you characterize the differences between this approach and previous approaches, and why do you have higher expectations this time than have resulted from earlier studies?

Ink: Certainly the Presidential interest that Chairman Campbell mentioned a moment ago is a very, very important reason why we're optimistic about this effort. It's not only the degree of interest that President Carter has, it's his penchant for sustained interest and perseverance with respect to the areas which he regards as having high priority, of which this is obviously very high on his overall agenda.

I think the fact that the Congress and the President represent the same party makes it somewhat easier for legislation to pass.

Certainly the fact that Wayne Granquist mentioned a moment ago, of drawing heavily from with-

in Government for the leadership of this undertaking, while drawing heavily on ideas and people outside of Government, means, one, we have an expertise brought to bear here that is generally not the case in these studies. Second, there are many people from within Government who will be involved and therefore have a better understanding of the reason for the recommendations, a better understanding of the nature of the problems with which we're dealing, and are in a position to help with the implementation, rather than trying to figure out, after a task force has come and gone, what that task force had in mind, and trying to understand how to bridge the usual gap between the world in which the task force lived and the world in which the employee and the manager live.

And finally, it seems to me that there is a greater recognition now than ever before that we do need change. Not change for the sake of change, but a tremendous amount of frustration on the part of both employees and managers, for example, in dealing with personnel problems; difficulty in hiring, difficulty in promoting, difficulty in separations.

All of these, I think, are much more widely recognized than at any time in the past.

Journal: Mrs. Poston, this poses a question to you. You and your fellow Commissioners have visited a number of major cities, and in fact your visits are still in progress. Give us a comment on the impressions you're getting from managers, from employees, from un-

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ions, from government watchers in general.

Poston: Well, I've been to three regions—Chicago, Denver, and Dallas. And I would say that after visiting with those people whom you've just named, starting with the managers and the CSC managers and CSC professional staff, unions, EEO officers, local leaders, general public, Federal employees, they're all reacting the same way in all three of the regions.

One, they find it difficult to carry forth their missions for all

the reasons mentioned earlier; they feel in many ways they're overregulated. One of the people from the Chamber of Commerce said he wished that we'd start telling the President to do something about zero-based regulations.

They felt everything is overregulated. It's very difficult to ever get to the end of the maze. And this was something that the employees talked about, the unions talked about it, and the managers are completely frustrated.

They have some specific things that they don't like about *the* sys-

tem, but it has a great deal to do, as you would gather, with the timeliness of all events, whether it's approving an EEO plan, or whether it's a matter of how long it takes a manager or an appointing authority to hire someone. There's a lot of confusion around the compatibility between affirmative action plans and EEO efforts and the merit system. There are those who feel that we are still hiding our heads in the sand on that one.

And this is generally true in all the regions. I mean it's as if one person had sent ahead a messenger and said, this is the way, give it to them here. The language might be a little different, but if you look through all these reports, you'll feel pretty much the same.

One of the things I found among most of the managers that was very significant was that they are just absolutely frustrated and confused about all of our grievance and complaint systems and procedures. They cannot really feel that they can deal with them any longer. There are those who are now calling for third-party arbitration. Binding arbitration. And of course I had to ask if they could live with those decisions either.

But anyway, they just want to get procedures . . . and procedures . . . and procedures off their backs, and get faster decisions. This is the thing we kept hearing. And we got it from some of the Federal employees who are the victims of overregulation.

There's a great deal of criticism of our selection processes, selection procedures, and not all just about written tests. But a lot of the old things we've done in years gone by, Dwight, they say, why can't you go back? PACE was the answer once upon a time, and they said, oh, get rid of PACE.

But it is evidently much more frustrating to people in the field than any of us recognize here.

Journal: It's obvious, I think, that the perspective of the manager would differ from the perspective of the employee. But what, in your mind's eye, would stand out in the greatest contrast as the diverse view from the management level and from the employee level as to what's wrong? What is most frequently voiced?

Poston: From the manager? I would say it's—and remember, we're talking to people in the field —and throughout it was that communications between headquarters' offices, in most instances, and the field operations have been difficult —slow. We are not decisive enough. And we're not operating

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with the timeliness that they feel they need to carry out their missions.

They would like to have more on-the-spot authority. I think I got that almost at every place. More on-the-spot authority, both for hiring, for firing, and fewer of these procedures that have been forced on them.

I got the feeling that nobody talks to anybody. I really did. I got a feeling very much that there isn't this "bottom-up" communication that you hear about so much. One thing that's different about this study is that we're using the bottom-up approach.

Granquist: Which means that we are approaching things from the perspective of the user of the serv-ices. That's why we have, in the Federal personnel project, a working group of folks from the program agencies—and that's why the task forces themselves are, in large measure, made up of program people who have experienced the frustration of the system.

I got the same sense you did, Ersa, on the trip Scotty and I made.

Poston: Some things came up in some of the regions a little bit more than others maybe. But in two of the three there was this whole thing against our appeals procedure. And in fact, we were even able to get some comment about the independence of that whole procedure, and if they perceived it as being independent. And the employee could *not*—at least those we heard—could not see it as being an independent body, the way it operates now.

And they felt the same about the personnel officer in relation to management. The unions were very critical of the personnel officers—that they are absolutely the tools of management, and they have no feelings about the employee, and that you ought to just be honest with it once and for all.

And then you turn to the EEO people, and they feel that they don't want any part of being in the personnel office.

So you see, I was getting some different trends.

Ink: Yes. Of course, not too surprising, many of the management people felt that the personnel officers, on the other hand, were not sufficiently responsive to management. So that the personnel officers oftentimes feel they are in a no-win situation, in which management expects them to be with management, and the employees expect them to be with employees, and there is no constituency for their trying to balance and weigh the two points of view. [See article on p. 30 for further discussion of this.]

I wanted to add one thing. In some of our sessions we did encounter quite a bit of concern

about problems relating to employees after they are on the rolls, concern about the whole cycle of personnel actions relating to the hiring, the tenure, and the departure of employees.

Poston: Did you get any feeling of resistance to the so-called social programs?

Ink: Yes.

Poston: The use of CETA—

Ink: Yes, we did.

Poston: The co-op education programs—

Ink: There was a lot of concern as to whether many of these programs, which have very worthwhile objectives, add up to an addition to the complexity of the process, which not only fails to achieve the social objectives which were intended, but so burdens the personnel system that it is nonresponsive.

Also we found, in several of our meetings, concern among the minority people and the women's representatives that fragmentation of the special organizations and representatives is not effective. Having a women's coordinator, an Hispanic coordinator, a black coordinator results in fragmentation and, really, an ineffective representation.

Campbell: I think it's important to add that while you have that frustration about the fragmentation, groups who do not have representatives think they *ought* to have them. Asians, for example, came to the Boston meeting and complained that their problems were not sufficiently addressed.

Poston: Native Americans too, Scotty.

Campbell: Yes, Native Americans. I have had recently in this office visits from white ethnic communities who are arguing that they are what is meant in the phrase "other minorities," and that they're being completely ignored.

I do not find a sufficient consensus about what ought to be done to decide what kinds of changes are necessary in this area. The managers certainly argue that they are not given the tools to manage. The employees argue that the Civil

Service Commission and the appeals system are management-oriented and we must provide and protect more employee rights. The minority groups and the women are convinced that there is simply not enough attention being paid to their needs in the system.

I would also argue that there is agreement on only one thing, which is that the system is full of problems, or as some have said, it is a mess. There's absolutely no consensus at all on what ought to be done about it. And in fact, the recommendations run frequently in opposite directions. One, you ought to tighten up the system so as to *really* control it and *really* make it work the way you want it to work. Two, the argument that you ought to decentralize it as much as you can.

And I'm just delighted that we have Dwight who will straighten all that out for us.

Poston: In a few weeks.

[Laughter.]

Granquist: Will it take that long?

Campbell: He's a bureaucrat; he's a slow worker.

[Laughter.]

Journal: Dwight, we're talking in early August, and it's only a few weeks since May 27th when the Chairman indicated that results would start to flow immediately. What has your task force produced to date, and what do you see as coming in in the reasonably near future?

Ink: The first thing that we've done is circulate an option paper concerning different models for an Executive Service. And this really compares different models sug-

gested in the past and suggested now to provide mobility and opportunities for people in the managerial positions, which on the one hand will enable employees to have a wider range of opportunities in management, and on the other will provide the leadership of agencies and departments an opportunity for more flexibility and a wider selection of qualified people to fill key managerial positions.

Now, this option paper has been sent out to many organizations and individuals in and out of government. Last week we mailed it out to over 300 organizations and people. So that we should have a very wide range of comment and reaction, both to the basic concept and to the specific possibilities of how to set up an Executive Service.

We will then, of course, forward recommendations to Mr. Campbell and Mr. Granquist, and after that review the recommendations will go to the President. And then he will determine whether to go forward with legislation.

Journal: Following the Executive Service options or proposal, what do you see next emerging from the task force?

Ink: Later in August we'll have a whole series of option papers dealing with hiring, staffing, recruiting, promoting, and firing employees. We'll have papers dealing with productivity, and how the work force is composed. We'll have option papers concerning roles and organization of the Civil Service Commission and of departments and agencies, and also of personnel offices—the role of personnel of-

fices within departments and agencies. We'll be dealing with such questions as veteran preference. We'll be dealing with compensation and pay. We'll be dealing with Federal, State, local interaction in personnel management.

We'll have a full agenda, the latter part of August and the early part of September, followed then, as in the case of the Executive Service, with recommendations going forward to Mr. Campbell and Mr. Granquist.

Journal: Chairman Campbell, what have you imposed on yourself as a working deadline for moving something from your level to the President? How much time are you allowing yourself on a given project?

Granquist: It probably depends a little on the quality of the product.

Campbell: Yes, it does. It depends on whether Wayne and I have to re-write it. If we do, it'll never make it.

Granquist: I hope we're not going to be two editors. . . .

Campbell: I think that in the case of the Executive Management Service proposal, which is likely to be the first thing we send to the President, we should be able to do that within a month. And if that is the case, and if the President finds it attractive and it does not require major revision, then it can go to Congress in September. This proposal will require legislation.

Now, that's a very tight schedule. And as Dwight knows, because he's heard a good deal of it, there are those who are being critical of us for moving so quickly. My own feeling is that the idea of an Executive Management Service, as Dwight already said, goes back at least to 1949, and probably before that.

In the end, there's always going to be disagreement. If we wait until we get general agreement on a proposal, we'll never have a proposal. But eventually, a decision has to be made about what recommendations you're going to make. And Wayne and I are going to make those recommendations.

My hope is that once a recommendation has been formulated

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by the task force, and has gone through all the steps there, and comes to us, it will be no more than a matter of weeks before it goes to the President.

Journal: You've established that the President is anxious to get the proposals. How would you assess the climate in the Congress once a proposal clears the President? Would you make a prediction as to how quickly the Congress might act?

Granquist: I would never make a prediction, having worked on the Hill for 5 years, about any particular piece of legislation or any response that the Congress is likely to have. They are, appropriately, a separate judge in this entire process, and they have a role to play, which is not appropriate for us to play.

I *will* say, on the basis of discussions we've had up there with people on the Hill, that I think it's fair to say we're encouraged by the receptiveness of appropriate committees in both the Senate and the House. They certainly feel, as we do, that there is a problem. They're glad that it's getting serious attention in a very major fashion.

The Senate Committees, as you know, have just been reorganized. So the Governmental Affairs Committee is brand new in the field of civil service legislation. We've met with the staff people up there, and they're wide open for suggestions. They're ready to run and give it a very good shot.

So I would say I'm optimistic.

Campbell: I'm optimistic too. I know Wayne will agree, once you get proposals prepared and up to the Hill, it is inevitable that there will be opposition. And a very major effort will have to be made to convince Congress of the wisdom of the proposals.

But I have talked, as Wayne has, with a good number of members of the appropriate committees in the House and in the Senate, and there is a receptivity. For example, I just talked to two members of the House Post Office and Civil Service Committee about the Executive Management Service,

and have gotten a very favorable reading.

That doesn't mean they aren't going to want to amend it somewhat, and in their judgment improve it. But nonetheless, there certainly is a willingness to cooperate. I would generalize to say that at least over the years I have followed government, the confluence of forces to get major changes has never been as good as it is right now. And that relates to a lot of things. It relates to past difficulties. It relates to the managerial orientation of this President. It relates to how Congress senses the views of constituents in their home districts.

But put it all together, I really believe there is a receptivity to change. And my own feeling is that happens about once a generation, and you better grab it if you're going to do anything.

Granquist: Which is one of the reasons that we're moving on such a rapid timetable, because a year from now the situation may be quite different. And this may be the only opportunity we'll have for a good many years to make significant and meaningful change.

Journal: Speaking of the future, as I understand it this effort is designed for about a 2 or 3 year span. What thought is being given to monitoring the changes now being discovered and recommended and submitted, to see how effectively they work out, or will this task force just die of its own accord, say 2 years, 3 years?

Campbell: Do you know the answer to that, Dwight?

Ink: I want to express one thing, when we talk about 2 or 3 years, what is contemplated is the total cycle, not to be confused with the development of the bulk of the recommendations for the President, which will be taking place over the next several months. So the bulk of the time in the schedule deals with working with Congress and the passing of necessary legislation, the issuance of whatever Executive orders and whatever regulations might be neces-

sary from the OMB and the Civil Service Commission.

Then the implementation. This President, more than most, is not only fully aware of, but stresses the fact that recommendations and studies aren't worth anything unless they result in action. It's the results of the study which are of interest to the President.

One advantage of the approach which the President is taking here, in terms of implementation, is that there is so much involvement of the organizations and people who will have responsibility for implementation. They are involved in the whole process. I think this will help a great deal when it comes to the implementation.

Although our task forces are composed primarily of people from the different departments and agencies and a few from outside of Government, there are, on each task force, representatives from the Civil Service Commission. So that we have both Civil Service Commission and operating agency representation who can carry on from the time that the task forces are no longer in existence, and institutionalize the implementation, both in the Commission and the departments and agencies who, collectively, have a job of implementation.

Journal: Well, to summarize the ground we've covered, we've established that the President is management-oriented and anxious to proceed with reforms. We've established that in the minds of managers in Washington and in the field, and in the minds of employees, there's a lot wrong with the system.

We've established that in the groups who relate closely with the government there are dissatisfactions in the areas that have been mentioned.

I know it's too early to ask you to predict specific outcomes. But to put this general question on the table, what do you, at the policy planning level, perceive as some of the good things that can result from this effort?

Campbell: I would hope that the

perception based upon reality in the minds of the people is a government that is more effective, that is more responsive to their felt needs.

Now, that's the end product we hope to accomplish. I believe that will be an outgrowth of an improvement in the general productivity of the public sector—at least the Federal part of the public sector—as a result of the changes made.

I would hope that there would be a better understanding on the part of both management and employees of their relative rights and obligations in a way that is clear, so that management can manage and so that workers can protect their rights through whatever organizations they choose and through whatever procedures are established.

I would hope that this outcome would be enhanced by the creation at the top of the system of an executive management group with a very high esprit de corps, with less tension and unhappiness between career and noncareer employees; where they could work together as a team without seeing their relationship as inevitably antagonistic; where management would be in a position to put together managerial teams by transferring people from job to job; where some reduction in the tenure rights to jobs at the top of the system would provide greater movement but also greater opportunities for career people. I look forward to the time when we have a good number of career people who are Assistant Secretaries, Undersecretaries, and Secretaries. And in so doing, not give up their rights to *a* job, but not having rights to a *specific* job.

I believe that those changes, in terms of the top of the system, of labor-management relations, and of the kind of people that will be recruited to the system, will alter the people's perception, as well as the reality, of the quality of service they receive, and the responsiveness of government to their needs.

Granquist: I'd add a couple of things.

The good things that might come out of the project would also include a much more effective—and I guess sensible—recruitment process. It does seem to me, for example, that we have to address the question of why one tests thousands upon thousands of people when you know at the beginning that you will be hiring only a few. That creates false expectations.

It seems to me that one of the good things that will come out of improvements in that system, then, is an understanding by potential Federal employees of what their chances really are; I mean, what the government is seeking in the job market.

It seems to me also that we should be able to produce a—in quotation marks—"good thing" in bringing about a much more effective affirmative action and equal opportunity program. And I use the word effective to mean more understandable.

I think the managers today in the Federal service want very much to carry out what they see as a public good and a Presidential initiative; are very frustrated at how that matches with their needs for personnel and their ability to hire people who can do the job.

That has to be addressed, and if we can make some improvement in that, it would be a major improvement.

I also think that we need to provide for more mobility among middle management and those on the career ladder below the Executive Service level. What that mechanism is, or whether indeed it's just a perception of risks and risk-taking by people in the system, is a question that has to be addressed. We ought to do a "good thing" that allows people exposure to more areas of the government.

There is probably an endless list of "good things" that ought to result. But I would suspect that they are focused on affirmative action, managerial incentives, and employee mobility and employee protections under the merit system.

Campbell: That's your agenda, Dwight. CSJ

"...an endless list of 'good things' that ought to result. But I would suspect that they are focused on affirmative action, managerial incentives, and employee mobility and employee protections under the merit system."

Are Employment Tests Appropriate for Minority Group Members?

After passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, some psychologists, reacting to the fact that minority group members often score lower on employment tests, felt that tests might not be equally valid or fair to all groups in the population. Although it was never made explicit, this belief was based on one of two assumptions:

1. The tests are based on white middle-class culture, thus scores do not mean the same thing for minorities as for nonminorities. This led to the proposition that tests would have higher correlations with job performance for whites than blacks.

For example, a test score might correctly place whites in rank order of future job performance but do this less well for blacks. The tests might correlate significantly differently because they were measuring different things in two groups. This is called "differential validity." Another possibility is that the tests might be valid for whites but have zero validity for blacks, "single group validity."

2. Past discrimination and deprivation have led to lower average test scores but have had no corresponding effect on average job performance levels. This assumption led to the hypothesis that tests were unfair. Everyone agreed that if minorities averaged just as high on job performance as nonminorities and lower on tests, then the tests were unfair.

It has now been 13 years since the Civil Rights Act was passed, and it is time to ask whether these two assumptions are true. Research evidence accumulated over the last decade provides pretty clear answers in the case of black-white comparisons. What are these answers?

Tests Valid for Blacks

To find out if their assumptions were true, psychologists needed to find out the extent to which "single group" and "differential validity" existed. Both these phenomena would be expected occasionally in small groups of blacks and whites merely as a result of chance. The critical question in determining whether single group and differential validity were real was: Do they occur more frequently than one would expect merely by chance?

This question could not be answered satisfactorily on the basis of a single study. The pooled results of a large number of studies were required. Thus

it was some time before the information became available to answer the question.

Today, however, we have a fairly sound answer. Four multi-study reviews—two published in 1977—have shown that single group validity by race occurs no more often than we would expect on the basis of chance alone. These reviews summarize the results of over 30 studies and 500 black-white validity pairs.

The same kind of "composite studies" have been conducted to examine differential validity. Although there is still some lingering controversy, the evidence clearly points to the conclusion that differential validity, like single group validity, is an illusion rather than a reality.

One recent study done at CSC examined 866 pairs of black-white test validities. Differences between the races in test validities were at the chance level. In addition, in most cases where there was a difference, the validity was higher for blacks.

Tests Fair to Blacks

Psychologists have developed a number of statistical definitions of a "fair" selection test. However, only one of these definitions has really enjoyed much acceptance. This is the model contained in the 1970 Equal Employment Opportunity Commission Guidelines and the 1976 Federal Executive Agency Guidelines. This definition holds that a test is fair if scores accurately predict future levels of job performance for all groups; that is, the test is fair if predicted levels of job performance are not too low (or too high) for any group.

In the early years following passage of the 1964 Civil Rights Act, many psychologists thought tests would be unfair to blacks in just this sense. Remember that many psychologists felt that past discrimination and deprivation *would* affect test scores, but *not* job performance levels. We now know that this idea was incorrect. Many studies of test fairness are now available, and their findings are fairly consistent. Employment tests do not tend to underpredict future job performance levels of blacks. In fact, tests have typically predicted performance levels slightly higher than actually attained by blacks. Is this due simply to biased measures of job performance? This is highly unlikely. The results obtained are largely the same whether performance is measured by supervisory

ratings (which could contain bias) or by objectively scored measures (unlikely to be biased).

The conclusion must be that tests are as fair to blacks as they are to whites.

Why Were Early Psychologists Wrong?

The research evidence is now very strong that tests are as valid and fair for blacks as for whites. The question then arises: How could the psychologists who originally postulated differential and single group validity and test unfairness have been so mistaken? The answer lies in faulty assumptions about both cultural differences and statistical methods.

Faulty assumptions about cultural differences. The early psychologists exaggerated the cultural differences between blacks and whites. They overlooked the fact that all but the poorest blacks share most of their culture in common with whites. They attend similar schools, read the same newspapers, watch similar television shows, etc. Thus the assumption that the test questions would mean very different things to blacks and whites was simply false. The later research results on differential validity merely confirmed the fact that blacks and whites in America are much more similar culturally than they are different. None of the differences that do exist are significant enough to affect test validities.

The second mistake these psychologists made seems myopic in retrospect. They assumed that past discrimination and deprivations would affect test scores but not job performance. That is, they assumed that tests were culturally loaded but that jobs were not. Actually all behavior and performance in a given culture are "culturally loaded." Jobs and the performance they require are just as much embedded in our culture (and usually in middle-class culture) as tests and the behaviors they sample. This is easy for us to see now, with the benefit of accumulated research results. In the atmosphere of the 1960's, it was not nearly so clear.

Faulty assumptions about statistical methods. These early psychologists also made some faulty assumptions about statistics. We can see now that they greatly overestimated the reliability and accuracy of the information from the study of small groups of blacks and whites. In the context of recent research results, we can see that they were "guilty" of believing in the "law of small numbers." Basically, one who believes in the law of small numbers feels that "a little data is as good as a lot of data." In this particular area, this belief led to the false assumption that one could make accurate inferences about the existence of, for example, single group validity from measurements taken on a small number of blacks and whites. When large numbers of studies became available and their pooled results were examined, these inferences were shown to have been in error.

What About Other Groups?

Fewer studies have been conducted on other groups, such as the Spanish-surnamed and women. But these do not indicate that single group and differential validity are any more frequent than in the case of blacks. Likewise, there is no indication that underprediction of job performance is a problem.

Because Hispanics make up a much smaller percentage of the work force than do blacks, the number of studies on them may never be as great as for blacks. Because the sexes tend to average about the same on most psychological tests, questions of test fairness and differential validity as applied to men vs. women have not been raised as often. In addition, women score somewhat higher than men on some employment tests. We would not expect differential validity and test unfairness for women and Hispanics for the same reasons as for blacks.

Where Do We Go From Here?

Government guidelines on selecting employees require test fairness studies whenever such studies are technically feasible. In the light of accumulated research evidence, and the burden such studies entail, there is no basis for continuing this requirement, at least in the case of blacks. Left standing, the requirement would not only result in wasted expenditures for such studies by employers throughout the economy, but would also hold the Federal Government up to ridicule for requiring employers to look for phenomena that have been shown by research not to exist.

—Frank L. Schmidt

THINKING AHEAD IN REORGANIZATION

by Jule M. Sugarman
Vice Chairman
U.S. Civil Service Commission

THE FEDERAL Personnel Management Project is expected to be the most comprehensive review of Federal personnel systems ever undertaken. By any measure it will be a complicated and difficult task because there are so many complaints from the public, from employees, and from management—and at least in terms of preliminary impressions, so little agreement on what should be done to improve the situation.

I suggest, however, that another set of factors must be added to our list of concerns. These have to do with future developments in American society. It would be a tragic mistake to form our recommendations on the assumption that we have only to solve today's problems. What we should be doing is building the foundations of a personnel system that can endure for a generation, one that has the capacity to respond to at least the predictable changes in society.

Size of Government

What then ought we to anticipate? First, as to the size of government, the next generation, given a peaceful world, is not likely to see any substantial growth. Between 1960 and 1970 Federal civilian employment increased by 21 percent; during the next 6 years Federal civilian employment decreased by 2 percent. State and local government increased by 59 percent from 1960 to 1970, and by 20 percent from 1970 to 1976. In 1976 the number of local government employees actually declined. Federal employees, as a

proportion of the total (employed) civilian labor force, dropped from a peak of 4 percent in 1967 to 3 percent in 1976. Projections would indicate that by 1990 the proportion will be under 3 percent.

Most new legislation under consideration does not appear to create heavy personnel requirements. A possible exception, welfare reform, would almost certainly be staffed initially by transfer of State and local employees.

Changes in the National Labor Force

The prospects for Federal employment need to be viewed in the context of changes in the national labor force.

At the present time, the total civilian work force consists of 90

million employed and 6.7 million unemployed (probably undercounted), with the unemployment rate at 7 percent. In 1990 the total civilian labor work force is estimated at 114 million, an increase of 17 million persons. To lower the unemployment rate to 3 percent in 1990 would require an increase of 20 million jobs. That would mean creating one new job for every five jobs today. The situation may be further complicated by proposals now under discussion to extend or remove the mandatory retirement and social security retirement ages.

I must admit to grave doubts that we will achieve that rate of growth by private sector expansion.

The implications for Federal personnel management seem clear, a situation in which we may see some or all of the following changes happening:

☐ The Federal Government will have a much wider pool of candidates, one in which the competition for Federal jobs is likely to be intense.

☐ Lack of jobs in the private sector may increase pressures for job creation programs, including jobs in the Federal sector.

☐ It may be necessary to seriously consider ways to share work or limit the extent of an individual's participation in the labor force. Reduced work weeks, part-time work, and sabbaticals may need serious examination.

> "What we should be doing is building the foundations of a personnel system that can endure for a generation, one that has the capacity to respond to at least the predictable changes in society."

More Affirmative Action Needed

The intense competition for Federal jobs will create additional pressures for and against affirmative action. Yet a look at some additional facts makes it clear how much is necessary if the Federal Government is to achieve a representative work force.

The proportion of women in the labor force was 33 percent in 1960; 38 percent in 1970; and is estimated at 43 percent for 1990. In the last 5 years 3,000,000 women have entered the labor force.

The proportion of minorities who are academically prepared for Federal jobs is increasing. Of the minorities in the civilian labor work force, 47 percent have a high school diploma today, compared with an estimated 65 percent by 1990.

The proportions of women and minorities of various grade levels illustrate that current selection procedures deny substantial talent to the Federal Government. In grades 1-4 of the Federal Government, 76 percent are women, 21 percent are black, and 4 percent are Hispanic. In grades 9-12, 20 percent are women, 7 percent are black, and 2 percent are Hispanic. In the supergrades, women and blacks are even at 3 percent while Hispanics drop to 1 percent. It can be seen that women, blacks, and Hispanics are quite well represented—in fact overrepresented—in the lower levels of the Federal civil service. But their representation falls significantly (most dramatically for women) as we move to the higher grades. Similar problems exist for Orientals and Na-

tive Americans. The recent attention to discrimination against the handicapped highlights still other problems.

These figures are the product of many historical forces, obviously including discrimination. They are also caused by many current practices. These practices include veteran preference, agency internal promotion systems, limitations on how rapidly a person may be promoted, and apportionment requirements, to mention only a few.

More Skills Available

Our labor force problems are not simply quantitative however; the skill levels of available employees are escalating. The most current data available show that 17 percent of the total civilian labor work force has a college degree; by 1985 it is estimated to be 21 percent. Yet the proportion of jobs for which a college degree is necessary will remain stable at 15 percent.

Thus we face a surplus of over-educated people. Once again the Federal Government, with only small growth expected in its 700,-000 college-level jobs, will be both the beneficiary and target of a large body of highly qualified people competing intensely for a limited number of Federal jobs.

Fewer Unskilled Workers Needed

Let us turn briefly now to a look at the changing nature of Federal jobs. These changes in many ways parallel private sector jobs except that the private sector has seen its greatest growth in the service in-

dustries with relatively low pay. The Federal Government, by contrast, has seen the numbers of lower paid jobs diminishing and the numbers of middle and upper grade jobs increasing.

The Federal Government's requirements for lower skilled people are likely to diminish even further in the future, and this picture may be sharpened by technological developments in the areas of written records and electronic communications. It is not far-fetched to envision a revolution in the way Government does its paperwork, with the elimination of the need for large numbers of clerical, accounting, and secretarial personnel. These categories represent nearly half of all Federal white-collar jobs—a million people.

There will be a large group of middle-level employees engaged in relatively routine operations. This group will be doing the thousands of tasks that machines cannot do. However, if present trends continue, the nature of their work will be a serious problem, to them and to society. If decisions remain centralized, and mid-level employees (including supervisors) are given relatively little authority and responsibility and an inadequate sense of participation in the organization, then we are likely to see continuing alienation from the job. A similar phenomenon may continue to affect the remaining lower skilled employees and many of the Government's 520,000 blue-collar employees. These facts suggest that if management wants interested, productive employees, it will either have to improve the quality of the

> "The intense competition for Federal jobs will create additional pressures for and against affirmative action."

> ## "I am convinced that productivity is a central issue we must address in our search to produce the best possible service in the future."

job or plan for frequent rotation of employees.

The complexity and the moral difficulty of decisions that will have to be made by public managers will create pressures on these officials. Even today there are very few "correct" decisions that can be made; only those that on balance are somewhat better than others. The risk involved in bad decisions is enormously greater than it has been in the past. Consider how demanding the tasks will become if public officials become involved in decisions about the creation of life, or the availability of death to individuals. Moral strength and judgment will be a critical feature of selection criteria for the administrator of the future.

The Government will have a smaller, but enormously important group of scientific, professional, and managerial employees who are highly skilled. For all of these groups the skills are likely to increase. For scientists particularly, obsolescence of knowledge may become a major factor in deciding whether people should be retained.

The number of public policy decisions that have State, local, or international implications has grown extraordinarily. Future officials will need to understand far more about the relationships among governments, among different economic systems, and where their own programs fit in.

Productivity

Finally, the continuing issue of public attitudes about government workers, especially relating to productivity, will no doubt become more serious. The President's reorganization initiatives address this problem. Nevertheless, taking the long view—as taxes continue to increase, as the public demands and Congress mandates more government services, our credibility will continue to be challenged.

Productivity is an issue in both public *and* private sectors.

We've seen a slowdown in recent years in the U.S. private sector productivity growth rate. Viewed side by side, public and private sectors show similar trends. Starting with the private (non-farm, business) sector—we see an average annual productivity growth rate of 2.5 percent from 1947 to 1967. However, from 1967 to 1976, that figure dipped to 1.2 percent. During FY 1967 to FY 1976, the Federal Government productivity growth rate was 1.2 percent as well.

I am convinced that productivity is a central issue we *must* address in our search to produce the best possible service in the future. We must do this despite the fact that it may increase unemployment rates. Taxpayers focus their resentment on what they perceive as low productivity in public employees. We can best respond by agitating for effective, efficient performance—in short, improved productivity.

Through use of productivity measures, Government managers must demonstrate our conviction that we *are* accountable to the public. We must hear—and act on— the continuing citizen outcry for high-quality, responsive, prompt, courteous government services at reasonable cost.

Key Policy Issues

Can we then, from this array of probable developments, derive some insights into a future Federal personnel system? I believe so. It seems to me that our system for the future must:

☐ Decide whether relative merit should continue to be the strongest factor in view of the intense competition for jobs. Should the "competent" individual be excluded from Federal jobs because others are more competent, or do all competent Americans have some degree of right to occupy available Federal jobs. This would, of course, be a radical departure from existing law where merit and affirmative action are the dominant considerations. Nevertheless, the possibility of selecting by lot from among all competent people should not be ruled out.

☐ Decide whether the costs of examining and maintaining registers for enormous numbers of applicants can be justified when very few jobs are likely to be available.

☐ Contemplate the possibility that significant job creation may be needed in the public sector; develop programs that will efficiently use and improve the talents of those in job creation programs; and provide for ways of moving these individuals into regular jobs.

☐ Provide for retraining and placement of individuals who are displaced for technological reasons.

☐ Increase affirmative action efforts and improve ways to qualify minorities.

☐ Geometrically increase the movement of personnel among levels of government.

> ## "Through use of productivity measures, Government managers must demonstrate our conviction that we are accountable to the public."

> "There are two extremes of managers: those who spend all their time fighting fires, and those who spend all their time planning but never doing. Somewhere in the middle is the balance that must be found...."

☐ Periodically redetermine the competence of those highly skilled personnel who are operating in fields of changing knowledge; provide supportive advanced training to those who must be kept up to date.

☐ Use participative methods and job re-engineering to increase the attractiveness of jobs to mid-level, blue-collar, and clerical employees.

☐ Facilitate more frequent movement into and out of the Federal service to avoid problems of boredom and alienation, and to broaden perspective; seriously question whether the 30-40 year uninterrupted Federal service career is a good idea.

☐ Find ways to better measure productivity, compare public and private sector productivity, improve productivity, and keep the public better informed about improvements in public sector productivity.

Summing up, this article should be considered the mere beginning of the hard "thinking ahead in re-organization" that must be done . . . not simply by some think-tank operations hidden away in an academic environment, but by every thinking manager responsible for spending public money or managing public employees.

Change comes not only from the top but from the bottom and middle levels of management as

well. Every supervisor and manager should be spending a bit of time, every week or so, planning to meet the changes that are bound to occur.

There are two extremes of managers: those who spend all their time fighting fires, and those who spend all their time planning but never doing. Somewhere in the middle is the balance that must be found, if we are to provide the service that Congress mandates and the public expects . . . and that is the bottom line of reorganization.

CSJ

Part-Time Jobs

This article presents data from the Commission's Central Personnel Data File (CPDF) on the distribution of *non-Postal* Federal civilian employees with career and career-conditional (or their equivalent) appointments. The CPDF is an automated file covering 2.8 million Federal civilian employees. Excluded are the Tennessee Valley Authority, Library of Congress, White House Office, Architect of the Capitol, Botanic Garden, Postal Rate Commission, Central Intelligence Agency, National Security Agency, and foreign nationals overseas. (The U.S. Postal Service is covered by the CPDF but is not included in the following data.)

Employment data were extracted from the CPDF current status file "as of" April 30, 1976. The results are shown in table 1.

Table 1

Permanent Employment for Selected Agencies, April 30, 1976

	Full-Time Permanent Employment	Part-Time Permanent Employment	Part-Time as Percent of Total
Total, all agencies	2,071,349	39,260	1.9
State	17,214	227	1.3
Treasury	132,737	3,107	2.3
Defense, Total	(969,845)	(2,463)	(0.3)
Army	353,817	867	0.2
Navy	301,331	1,328	0.4
Air Force	243,613	198	0.1
Other Defense Activities	71,084	70	0.1
Justice	53,163	260	0.5
Interior	84,768	2,733	3.2
Agriculture	123,355	3,576	2.9
Commerce	37,558	866	2.3
Labor	16,023	112	0.7
Health, Education, and Welfare	148,344	3,954	2.7
Housing and Urban Development	17,263	112	0.6
Transportation	74,000	172	0.2
Civil Service Commission	9,170	322	3.5
General Services Administration	38,801	220	0.6
National Aeronautics and Space Administration	25,643	10	0.1
Veterans Administration	225,162	20,247	9.0
All Other Non-Postal Agencies	98,303	879	0.9

Table 1 reveals that over 80 percent of all *full-time permanent* employees are in 6 agencies: Defense, Veterans Administration, HEW, Treasury, Agriculture, and Interior. These agencies have a combined total of 1,684,211 full-time permanent employees.

Table 2

Part-Time Permanent Employment by Sex for Selected Agencies, April 30, 1976

Agency	Men	Women
Total, all Non-Postal agencies	18,229	20,896
State	32	195
Treasury	699	2,362
Defense, Total	(919)	(1,544)
Army	280	587
Navy	541	787
Air Force	80	118
Other Defense Activities	18	52
Justice	84	176
Interior	1,082	1,596
Agriculture	989	2,586
Commerce	217	644
Labor	13	97
Health, Education, and Welfare	813	3,141
Housing and Urban Development	12	100
Transportation	70	102
Civil Service Commission	55	266
General Services Administration	56	160
National Aeronautics and Space Administration	3	7
Veterans Administration	12,953	7,285
All Other Agencies	232	635

Figures 1 and 2 display the percentage distributions of the full-time and part-time permanent work force. The Department of Defense contains 47 percent of the full-timers. Veterans Administration employs most of the part-time work force (56 percent), with HEW, Agriculture, Treasury, Interior, and Defense each employing between 6 and 10 percent.

A further breakout shows that 53 percent of all part-time permanent employees are female. Women part-time employees outnumber men in every agency but VA. The VA, however, does employ the greatest number of women part-timers (7,285). Nearly 75 percent of all female part-time employment is accounted for by just four agencies: VA (35 percent), HEW (15 percent), Agriculture (12 percent), and Treasury (11 percent).

The VA also employs the largest proportion (71 percent) of male part-time workers. Interior follows with 6 percent, Agriculture 5, Defense 5, HEW 4, and Treasury 4 percent.

Figure 1

Full-Time Permanent Employment as of April 30, 1976

1. State	is	.83 %
2. Treasury	is	6.41 %
3. Defense	is	46.82 %
4. Justice	is	2.57 %
5. Interior	is	4.09 %
6. Agriculture	is	5.96 %
7. Commerce	is	1.81 %
8. Labor	is	.77 %
9. HEW	is	7.16 %
10. HUD	is	.83 %
11. DOT	is	3.57 %
12. CSC	is	.44 %
13. GSA	is	1.87 %
14. NASA	is	1.24 %
15. VA	is	10.87 %
16. All Others	is	4.75 %
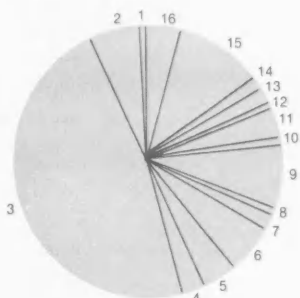
Figure 3

Part-Time Permanent Employment (Male) as of April 30, 1976

1. State	is	.18 %
2. Treasury	is	3.83 %
3. Defense	is	5.04 %
4. Justice	is	.46 %
5. Interior	is	5.94 %
6. Agriculture	is	5.43 %
7. Commerce	is	1.19 %
8. Labor	is	.07 %
9. HEW	is	4.46 %
10. HUD	is	.07 %
11. DOT	is	.38 %
12. CSC	is	.30 %
13. GSA	is	.31 %
14. NASA	is	.02 %
15. VA	is	71.06 %
16. All Others	is	1.27 %
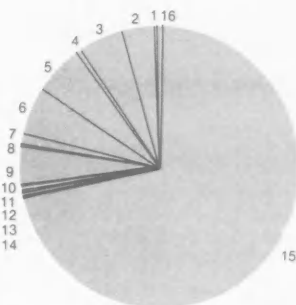
Figure 2

Part-Time Permanent Employment as of April 30, 1976

1. State	is	.58 %
2. Treasury	is	7.91 %
3. Defense	is	6.27 %
4. Justice	is	.66 %
5. Interior	is	6.96 %
6. Agriculture	is	9.11 %
7. Commerce	is	2.21 %
8. Labor	is	.29 %
9. HEW	is	10.07 %
10. HUD	is	.29 %
11. DOT	is	.44 %
12. CSC	is	.82 %
13. GSA	is	.56 %
14. NASA	is	.03 %
15. VA	is	51.57 %
16. All Others	is	2.24 %
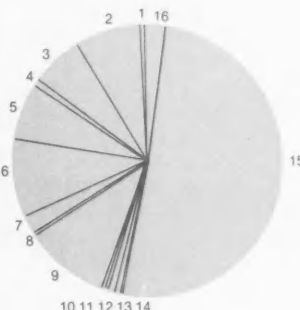
Figure 4

Part-Time Permanent Employment (Female) as of April 30, 1976

1. State	is	.93 %
2. Treasury	is	11.30 %
3. Defense	is	7.39 %
4. Justice	is	.84 %
5. Interior	is	7.64 %
6. Agriculture	is	12.38 %
7. Commerce	is	3.08 %
8. Labor	is	.46 %
9. HEW	is	15.03 %
10. HUD	is	.48 %
11. DOT	is	.49 %
12. CSC	is	1.27 %
13. GSA	is	.77 %
14. NASA	is	.03 %
15. VA	is	34.86 %
16. All Others	is	3.04 %
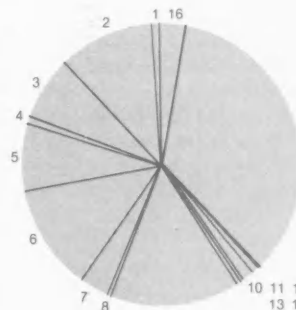
Percentage distribution of part-time permanent employment by sex is shown for selected agencies in figures 3 and 4.

Eight percent of the permanent part-time employees were over 55 years of age, and another 8 percent were less than 23 years old. One percent were classified as handicapped, and 18 percent as members of minority groups.

The work force contained some 430 different occupations, of which 25 percent were general clerical or clerk-typist jobs.

Lastly, geographic distribution data on permanent part-time Federal employees revealed that of 39,260 total, 35 percent work in the Washington, D.C., area; 64 percent in the United States outside Washington, D.C.; and less than 1 percent outside the United States. For full-time permanent employees, the corresponding figures are 14 percent in Washington, 83 percent in the rest of the United States, and 3 percent outside the U.S.

—Stephen Foster

AFFIRMATIVE ACTION AND THE HISPANIC COMMUNITY

by Santiago Rodriguez
Deputy Director
Spanish Speaking Program
U.S. Civil Service Commission
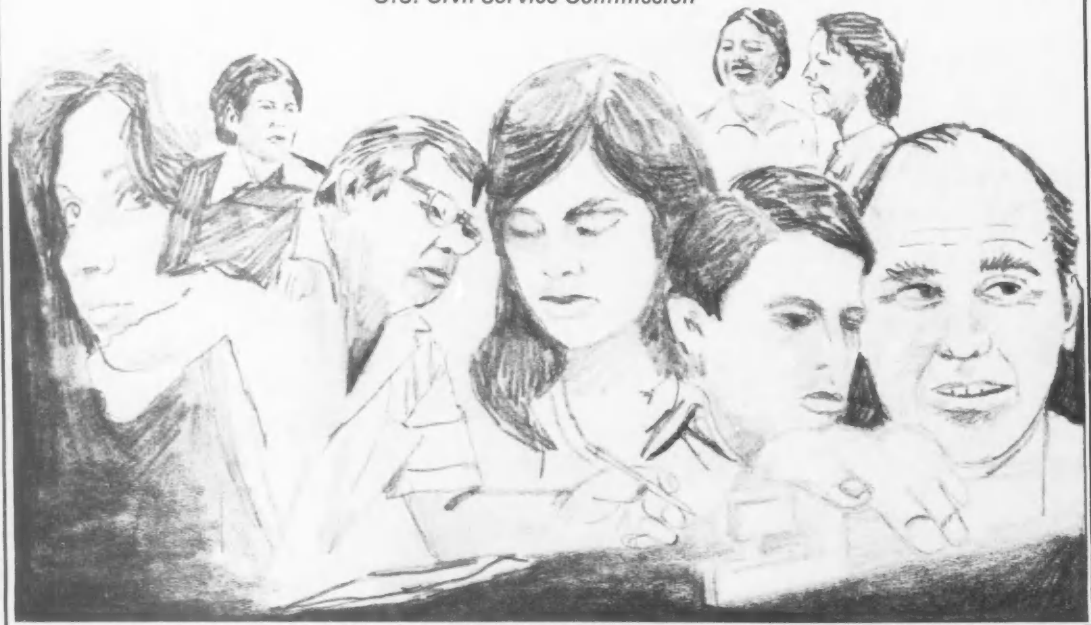
HISPANIC AMERICANS* as a group are severely underrepresented in all major professional occupations, public and private.

The Federal Government has instituted a special equal employment opportunity program directed at the Hispanic population to examine systemic problems that exclude Hispanics from equal job consideration. The EEO effort is known as the Spanish Speaking Program and has existed for 7 years. Progress has been slow but constant.

An analysis of affirmative action programs for Hispanics must deal with many issues: Hispanic demographics; stereotypes that affect employability; attitudes of Hispanics themselves, as well as those of the majority community; availability of appropriate training and recruitment; and the role of managers in key institutions that serve Hispanics.

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*Hispanic Americans are those whose cultural or linguistic origins are Spanish or Latin American, regardless of race, e.g., Mexican-American, Puerto Rican, Cuban, and Central and South American.

The Federal Personnel System: Merit Principle and Affirmative Action

The Federal Government's personnel procedures are based on a merit system. A merit system, in this context, is one in which objective skills that relate specifically to job performance are used to select the most highly qualified individuals. Desired skills are measured by using rational, objective techniques in evaluating each individual's talents vis-a-vis established job standards.

By definition, a merit employment system should avoid refer-

ence to subjective and irrational job criteria. Subjective criteria are those standards not directly job-related. Paramount among these, of course, are references to an applicant's race, color, religion, sex, and national origin. Using these factors in selecting an employee is not defensible because they reflect no relationship to job performance. Similarly, sex and religion, as bona fide occupational qualifications (BFOQ), are so limited as to be almost nonexistent.

In the realm of equal employment opportunity, a concept that militates against the use of subjective factors in selecting an employee, the Federal civil service is faced with the awkward historical reality that nonmerit factors have been used in the past, even legally, to exclude certain groups from employment. These nonmerit precedents served to block a number of groups from Federal employment entirely, or otherwise restrict them to certain, generally lower level jobs.

One can assume logically that but for past discrimination, the Federal work force would show a more representative distribution of minorities and women at all levels. If true merit principles had been applied all along, i.e., if only job-related factors had been used in the selection process, all segments of the population would have had equal access to Federal employment.

Minority Americans, as well as women, argue convincingly that if members of their respective groups were present in appropriate numbers and levels in the Federal work force, Federal services to these same communities would be more responsive to their needs. A certain degree of correlation between the race/ethnicity/sex of the Federal program administrator and adequate sensitivity to the needs of minority communities does indeed appear to exist.

Federal affirmative action is thus based on the need to remedy the effects of past discrimination, i.e., overt or covert exclusion from jobs, as well as on the premise of

responsiveness to all segments of the American public. Needless to say, many nonminority individuals do serve all constituencies, minority and nonminority alike. Yet many of them, as managers, do not provide for inputs from the minority communities regarding needs that often are uniquely different from those of the majority.

A truly ideal merit personnel system, consistently applied over a long time, should not require special affirmative action. However, flaws have existed in the past and continue to occur presently. Federal equal employment opportunity programs were created to help eliminate artificial barriers. Similarly, two special EEO programs, the Spanish Speaking Program and the Federal Women's Program, were created to help both the personnel and EEO programs to identify special needs and problems of those two groups. It was felt that those two particular groups had unique problems that neither the traditional EEO nor personnel system was addressing. All these efforts, however, should be viewed within the context of sound personnel management and not as separate, uncoordinated elements of a layering gone wild.

Special Efforts
for Hispanic Americans

Executive Order 11478 mandated the need for Federal agencies to take "affirmative action" to correct any deficiencies in equal employment opportunity. Before this order, Federal EEO programs were largely passive and nondiscriminatory in a neutral sense. No efforts were exerted to remedy the effects of past discrimination that had created serious EEO problems by virtue of certain groups being excluded from Federal employment.

Some authorities even argue that because of past discrimination, a "chilling effect" had been created by which minority individuals and women often would not even bother to apply for jobs and promotions. The "chilling effect" syn-

drome is particularly relevant to the Hispanic community.

In response to the special EEO problems facing the Hispanic community, the White House issued a memorandum in November 1970 initiating a "Sixteen Point Program." The Sixteen Point Program eventually evolved into the present-day Spanish Speaking Program as reviewed and monitored by the U.S. Civil Service Commission. This program was codified in chapter 713 of the Federal Personnel Manual, and agencies were given instructions to direct special program efforts toward the Hispanic community.

Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 had dealt with the problem of employment discrimination in private industry. That statute, however, did not apply to U.S. Government hiring practices. The amendments to the 1964 Act, entitled the Equal Employment Opportunity Act of 1972, for the first time extended statutory coverage to Federal hiring. By virtue of this amended Act, Hispanics received statutory protection as an affected class under the "national origin" provisions of the statute.

Thus the present Federal Spanish Speaking Program continues to operate by deriving authority from a number of sources. In addition to the White House memorandum and chapter 713 of the Federal Personnel Manual, Hispanics are protected by Executive Order 11478, the EEO Act of 1972, and chapter 713 of civil service regulations.

Underrepresentation and
Underutilization

One of the chief reasons for a special emphasis EEO program for Hispanics rests on the observation that they are the only major group that does not even come close to its national population percentage within the Federal work force. In relation to labor force availability, Hispanics are the only heavily underrepresented minority in the United States. While a number of other minorities may suffer from "underutilization," i.e., most mem-

bers in lower job categories, all other minorities normally exceed, or at least approximate, their respective percentages in the labor force within the Federal work force.

At the start of special emphasis efforts, Hispanics constituted 2.8 percent of the Federal work force. They presently number about 3.3 percent. Hispanics as a group, however, represent almost 5.5 percent of the mainland population of the United States. Furthermore, residents of Puerto Rico, more than 3 million, are U.S. citizens, free to travel and live throughout the 50 States, and participate in the mainland labor force. If these are added, Hispanics probably constitute over 7.0 percent of the U.S. population. In addition, there are sound reasons to believe that the Hispanic population of the United States has been severely undercounted.

In addition to being heavily underrepresented in the Federal work force, Hispanics parallel the status of some other minority groups in that they are heavily underutilized, i.e., most Hispanics are concentrated in the wage grade (b'ue-collar) and lower paying white-collar jobs. Recently, there are some indications that the number of Hispanics in the blue-collar categories is declining while their number in the white-collar is increasing. This, however, is a work force trend apparently affecting all population segments.

Hispanics as a Socioeconomically "Disadvantaged" Group

Hispanics are characterized by socioeconomic deprivation. Thus the average income of Hispanics is well below the national average; the unemployment rate is considerably higher; the average educational level of Hispanics is generally lower than that for either blacks or whites.

A disproportionate percentage of Hispanics is concentrated in the lower paying blue-collar semi-skilled, operative and service-type occupations. Very few Hispanics, proportionately, are in white-collar

and managerial jobs. Women head a larger percentage of Hispanic households than for the population as a whole. At least one-fourth of all Hispanics are found in the officially defined poverty category. Much of the remainder of that population is only marginally above the poverty standard.

Size and Growth Rate of the Hispanic Population

The Federal Government has focused on Hispanic problems partly because of the large size and rapid growth of this group. Excluding Puerto Rico, the U.S. Census Bureau presently lists over 11 million Hispanics in the United States. Puerto Rico, itself, adds another 3 million.

There are strong indications that the Hispanic percentage of the total population is considerably larger than reported. The 1980 Census will attempt to use more accurate techniques for enumerating the Hispanic population.

Growth in Hispanic population is a national phenomenon, not regional. Although the largest concentrations remain in the "traditional" areas of the Southwest, the

New York area, and South Florida, heavy migrations have occurred during the last generation into the industrial cities of the Midwest, New England, the Northwest, and parts of the South.

The phenomenal growth of Hispanic population must be coupled with its large initial size. No major segment of the population is growing as rapidly as the Hispanic. Several factors indicate that Hispanics will play an even larger role in U.S. society in the future. As a group, Hispanics reflect the highest birth rate in the country, the lowest median age, and the largest family size. In addition, the constant large immigration from Latin America results in an increase of over 100,000 new Hispanics to the United States yearly.

Continued immigration from Latin America has profound repercussions on Hispanics in the United States. In contrast to the immigrant experience of peoples of European background during the

nineteenth and the early part of the twentieth century, Hispanic linguistic and cultural traditions are constantly being reinforced by the inflow of immigrants, as well as the nearness of the Mexican border. Likewise, the ease of modern communications and travel between the mainland United States and Puerto Rico abets the reinforcement of Hispanic cultural patterns.

Marginal Status of Hispanics Historically

Hispanics have traditionally been excluded from the mainstream of U.S. society. It is important to note that the "traditional" centers of Hispanic population in the U.S., notably the Southwest and Puerto Rico, were Hispanic ethnically and culturally long before they became part of Anglo-America. Thus most Hispanics are not of immigrant status akin to that of European ethnic groups that arrived during the last 150 years.

Hispanics differ from European ethnic groups in that they generally possess racial elements in their genetic pool that are nonwhite. Officially, most Hispanics are categorized as Caucasian, but many people, at least socially, appear to be unsure of the appropriate definition for Hispanics. Chicanos, for example, are generally a *mestizo* people, i.e., a combination of European and Native American racial backgrounds, while Caribbean Hispanics frequently reflect a mixture of African and European. And, with few exceptions, residential and social segregation is a fact of life for most of the Hispanic population of the United States.

Stereotypes Affecting the Employability of Hispanics

Racial, ethnic, and sexual discrimination often is based on negative stereotypes that different groups have about one another. The Anglo-American community, in this context, has several stereotypical attitudes about Hispanics

that exclude Hispanics from employment.

Foremost among these stereotypes is the assumption by many non-Hispanics that the terms "Hispanic" and "foreigner" are synonymous. This stereotype has an adverse impact on Hispanics in Federal employment because only U.S. citizens may be employed by Federal agencies. Also, a subgrouping of the population that is considered "foreign" is not allowed a permanent social status by the majority.

The overwhelming number of Hispanics are, of course, U.S. citizens. All Puerto Ricans and a great majority of Chicanos are in fact native-born citizens.

A stereotype closely related to the "foreign" one implies that Hispanics as a group do not speak English. Obviously, such a notion is serious because Federal jobs require the ability to speak and write English. The fact is that most Hispanics in the U.S. do speak English; they tend to be bilingual. Only some older people, new immigrants, and those residing along the Mexican border appear to have major language problems.

A third stereotype involves racial and ethnic perceptions. Most non-Hispanics categorize Hispanics as homogeneous, ignoring the extensive racial diversity of the people. More so than probably any other group in the United States, Hispanics are characterized by the principle of *mestizaje*, i.e., racial mixture.

Depending on the point of origin of the group, Hispanics reflect combinations of African, European, and Native American genes. Caribbeans tend to be Afro-Iberian and Chicanos Indo-Iberian. In addition, the European genetic aspect is not limited to Iberian sources but may include elements from several European origins. In some parts of Latin America, Asian influences, particularly Chinese, are notable. Some of these individuals are also found among Hispanics in the United States. Because Hispanics often possess some color visibility, they may

suffer discrimination based not only on surname and language, but on color as well.

Another continuing myth is the feeling that Hispanics are primarily a rural phenomenon. While it is true that many Hispanics are rural migrants, many occupying large stretches of the rural Southwest, Hispanics are one of the most urban people in the United States. More than 80 percent of all Hispanics live in cities, a percentage considerably higher than for the total United States population.

The rural myth can have serious consequences in terms of employment of Hispanics because many personnelists assume that rural people do not have the skills needed by an urban-oriented establishment. Synonymous with rural life is the assumption of undereducation, physical labor, and lack of white-collar skills.

The fifth and very prevalent stereotype implies that Hispanics are a regional people. Many believe that Hispanics are limited to the Southwestern border areas, New York City, and Miami. Many Hispanics do, of course, live in those areas, but Hispanic movement to other areas has been quite significant over the last several decades.

As long as Hispanics are viewed as a regional, as opposed to national, issue, many feel that the Federal Government will not do enough for the group. The belief that local problems should be solved locally can only mean a continuation of these problems.

Problems

By definition, affirmative action cannot be passive or reactive. Federal regulations clearly indicate that a simple policy of nondiscrimination does not suffice. Because of past discrimination, as well as the need to give service to all Americans, affirmative action requires innovation, careful analysis, and commitment to correct the exclusions of the past. Affirmative action is not preferential treatment for any given group, but rather a means to assure *equal access* to all

Americans to Federal employment. Hispanics, in particular, have been excluded from Federal jobs traditionally, and the special emphasis attempts to remedy this omission.

Effective affirmative action requires three basics of managers: (1) commitment; (2) identification of the problem; and (3) specific action. Specific problems need to be identified and combined with specific remedies for their solution. The officials responsible for executing these tasks must have the authority in their agencies.

To accomplish these objectives, a plan of action requires certain knowledge and background. The work force must be analyzed, both in and outside the agency. An agency's mission, organizational structure, and its personnel requirements must be analyzed; only then can the affirmative action plan be developed.

Equal employment opportunity should be viewed as effective management and not as a moralistic or legalistic requirement forced on agency managers. Sound EEO policies should result in the full use of all Americans' ability and talent. This is a true merit system at work.

Comparing the two major minorities, black and Hispanic, shows some interesting contrasts. First, the percentage of blacks in the Federal work force almost consistently exceeds their proportion of the total population. And blacks are heavily concentrated in the lower grades of the Federal service. Hispanics, in contrast, are noticeable by their absence from Federal employment. When they are present, they too are concentrated in the lower grades.

Both communities are considered "disadvantaged" and meet all the criteria for socioeconomic deprivation. Why, then, the differences? Earlier it was pointed out that Hispanics have rarely viewed the Federal Government as responsive to their needs. Although the black community has strong reservations about bureaucratic responsiveness, the Federal Government has traditionally been one of the few institutions that has responded at least partially to the needs and aspirations of blacks, especially as an enforcer of civil rights. State governments, especially in the South, certainly did not respond in the past.

The fact that the seat of government is located in Washington, D.C., is also important. Washington is a city with a southern orientation in which black and white roles are understood easily and viscerally. The Hispanic "problem" is physically remote, not easily understood, and must be intellectualized. The past failure to act on Hispanic concerns reflects the parochialism of the South Atlantic States.

Analysis of Federal white-collar jobs indicates that Hispanics are badly underrepresented, both in terms of proportion in the work force and in terms of serving the needs of Hispanic clients. Hispanics, if represented, tend to be technicians and/or support workers, not higher level professionals. Blacks, in turn, are heavily represented in the area as a whole, but are noticeably absent in the higher professional categories.

The absence of both Hispanics and blacks in the more sophisticated professions is no doubt due to the failure of both groups to participate fully in the education and training available to most whites. This is symptomatic of socioeconomic deprivation and indicates the greater problems that our society faces in the realms of education, housing, and economic opportunity.

The fact that Hispanics, however, are not even adequately represented in lower level jobs raises some interesting questions. Assuming that the socioeconomic indices for both of the major minority communities are similar, why is it that blacks are heavily present but Hispanics are not?

The answers to these questions appear to lie in the availability of training, location of training, information about training opportunities; and ignorance, suspicion, and passivity on the part of both Hispanics and managers.

The greatest problem facing the Hispanic community in this context is a dual one: lack of information about Federal procedures at all levels, and inability to use the system at an optimum level. The bureaucracy needs to be kept informed by the Hispanic organizations, and it needs to be made accountable.

Hispanics in the United States have traditionally been underinformed and underinvolved. Staffing patterns in Federal agencies have often used the "buddy" system, peer recruitment, and passive and ineffective job information. On the other hand, Hispanics have until recently wielded relatively little political power, lacked major national organizations, possessed no lobbying strength, and exerted only a minimum national visibility.

Trends within the Hispanic community appear to point toward greater national cohesiveness, more involvement in the political process, and better organizations. More assertiveness by Hispanics, as well as the rapid growth of the group itself, means they will no longer remain an "invisible minority." The Hispanic population will not be content to remain on the peripheries of U.S. society and will, rather, play a greater role in U.S. society. Viable affirmative action programs now can serve to integrate this dynamic group into the U.S. mainstream in a constructive and rational manner.

The Spanish Speaking Program

Reduction in Force

Civilian/military positions

The agency had four military and four civilian positions, all to do identical vehicle dispatcher work. The agency abolished three civilian but no military positions. When a RIF was effected, one of the affected civilians appealed the action, and on appeal pointed out that the agency had issued a regulation prohibiting conversion of civilian positions to military.

The Federal Employee Appeals Authority interpreted the wording "converted to military occupancy" to mean the abolishment of a civilian position and the creation of a military position to perform the same function, and determined that no new military position had been created. The field office found, therefore, that although the impact of the work force reduction fell only on the civilian positions, no "conversion" in violation of the agency's regulations had occurred. (Decision No. SL03517-0009.)

Adverse Actions

Scope of review

Appellant was fired from his job based on the charge of conduct unbecoming an employee. The agency held a hearing in appellant's case, which resulted in a recommended decision that appellant be removed from the service. The agency deciding official adopted the recommendation of the hearing panel.

Appellant appealed his firing to FEAA, which held a *de novo* hearing and issued a decision reversing the removal action. Because this was an appeal arising from a removal action before September 9, 1974, the agency had a right to and did appeal the action to the Appeals Review Board.

The ARB affirmed FEAA's decision, stating that it would not "substitute its judgment for that of the field office in evaluating and interpreting the evidence where, as in the instant case, its decision is supported by substantial evidence. . . ."

The agency then asked the Civil Service Commissioners to reopen and reconsider the case and alleged that FEAA should have accorded the same deference to the agency's findings that ARB accorded to the field office's findings. It argued that FEAA should not have undertaken a *de novo* review of the case.

The Commissioners rejected the agency argument. They stated that the Commission had always interpreted the scope of its appellate review (as provided in Section 14 of the Veterans' Preference Act of 1944, and codified in title 5, U.S.C.) to be a *de novo* review. They pointed out that this interpretation of the law has never been seriously disputed, has been specifically approved by at least one court, and that to defer to the agency's own findings on the merits of an adverse action would be to render purposeless appellant's right of appeal. Consequently, the Commissioners declined to reopen the case. (Commissioners—request to reopen 1/31/77; Decision No. (RB752B70005) (DC752B-60203).)

Due process

The appellant's removal was reversed by FEAA on the ground that the agency had failed to assemble and make available for review the evidence relied upon to support the action. The agency requested reopening and reconsideration by the Appeals Review Board, contending that a copy of the material relied upon had actually been furnished to the employee, although the proposal notice did not indicate this. The appellant was not provided a copy of the agency request for reopening and therefore had no opportunity to comment on it.

On the basis of the agency's representation, the Board reopened the case, reversed the field office decision, and returned the appeal for an adjudication on the merits.

The appellant requested reopening and reconsideration of the Board's decision by the Civil Service Commissioners. She argued that the proceeding before the Board was *ex parte* and in violation of her right to due process of law. After offering the agency an opportunity to respond to appellant's request, the Commissioners decided to reopen the case. The Commissioners held that in this type of proceeding, before a decision is issued that substantially and adversely affects the rights of one of the parties, that party must be given an opportunity to contest the request for reopening and to be heard on the issue to be decided.

The decision of the Board was set aside and the case was returned to the Board for a new decision after allowing the appellant to contest the agency's request for reopening. (Commissioners—request to reopen 2/18/77; Decision No. (RB752B60451) (CH752B60238).)   —*Paul D. Mahoney*

CONTEMPLATING WORD PROCESSING

by John S. Warman
Bureau of Policies and Standards
U.S. Civil Service Commission

MUCH has been said recently about the wonders of a "new" idea called word processing. It is said to increase production, eliminate inefficient use of people, open new career ladders, and cure the managerial blues generally. As it happens, the claims can be true, but only if you add the word "sometimes" to each of them. Deciding whether the claims will be true for your organization is a far more subtle process than you might think, and if you accept them without considering them critically and systematically, the light at the end of the managerial tunnel may be an illusion, or a destruct button.

Word processing is defined differently by different people. For this discussion the term refers to a word processing group in its full splendor, i.e., a "center" involving three basic changes in the usual supervisory/secretary relationship:

☐ Dividing work into specialties (typing, filing, logging mail in and out, answering telephones, and arranging travel for the supervisor). The duties are then divided between two or more employees with less variety for each than in the more traditional assignment.

☐ Establishing a high-volume typing pool to transcribe and produce typewritten work. Automated typing equipment is used that can magnetically record regularly used formats or preformed paragraphs that are organized, coded, and stored for future use in letters or documents. Recorded text can be edited by replacing words, shifting lines, and so forth. When all revisions have been made, the machinery can print final, erasure-free "originals" very rapidly.

The thoughts expressed in this article are based upon observations made during a study of the secretary, clerk-typist, and clerk-stenographer occupations. The study included visits to numerous word processing centers and more traditionally organized offices, and interviews with supervisors, employees, personnel specialists, equipment vendors, and specialists in the training of word processors both in government and private industry.

Although the study was for the more limited purpose of developing both qualification and position classification standards for the occupations covered, the study interviews also pointed out more general problems related to word processing. This article, therefore, presents some ideas and some cautions for managers to keep in mind when considering word processing for their organization.

☐ Providing supervision of these specialty groups.

Step One for the Manager

In deciding whether to adopt such an organization, the first thing for the manager to do is heed the admonition:

"There is no such thing
as a free lunch."

Even if the final weight of evidence supports establishment of a word processing center for your organization, you will lose some of the benefits of your current structure (some of which you may have taken for granted), and you will incur costs in terms of management energy devoted to the new center. Many of these will be hidden costs, but high, and very real.

a. To begin with, any substantial change in organization structure produces inefficiencies during the changeover, and those costs must be shown on any cost/benefits analysis. These include such costs as:

—meetings, discussions, reading, and perhaps management and employee training seminars required to decide on and implement the new organization;

—developing new functional statements;

—design, documentation, and filling of new positions;

—selecting and procuring equipment and remodeling services (not just the prices, but the cost in terms of administrative energy required);

—informing and persuading employees and customers to gain their cooperation;

—informal discussions and speculation about the change by employees and customers;

—(perhaps) handling of grievances, appeals, and reclamas if employees and/or customers are not persuaded; and

—loss of all those things that might have been accomplished by everyone involved if you hadn't gotten into the whole question in the first place.

b. *De*centralized organizations, that is, those with more traditional supervisor/secretary assignments, often have many informal, undocumented efficiencies, which we take for granted and which don't usually show up on a task analysis. These include:

—the ability of people who regularly work together face to face to change priorities quickly and easily without extensive discussion;

—less need for formal control documents;

—avoidance of silly mistakes that can occur when people who are not completely aware of what you are trying to do take your instructions literally and unquestioningly, and disastrously;

—the ability to catch and correct misunderstandings before they become mistakes or cause serious delays;

—(in some organizations) the opportunity for clerical employees performing routine functions to learn some of the nonclerical program work, and demonstrate abilities that move them into new careers.

c. Decentralized organizations provide at least the opportunity for some of the finest kind of motivation, the kind that results when employees feel like a part of the group and identify with the successes and failures of the people they are helping. In word processing organizations, which remove clerical support workers from those they are helping, this motivation is weakened, and sometimes lost. A different group loyalty tends to develop, and a "we-they" relationship frequently develops between the "word processing" group and the people they are supposed to help. Periodic "candy and flowers" from the customers, however sincerely intended, never quite make up for this difference.

d. When people are taken from jobs where they have a variety of duties, and are responsible for planning their own daily schedules, and are located with the group they are supporting, and feel like a part of the group they are supporting, and are put into a "word processing" unit away from the people they are to help—they generally feel that they have lost something, even if the grades are somehow unaffected. They feel a loss of freedom. They feel suddenly isolated and mechanized.

Those feelings can't be tossed aside as irrational fear of progress. Those workers may have an instinctive perception of the truth about the new positions. The new jobs may well have less grade-level strength. Acquisition of some knowledge, skills, and abilities will almost certainly be made more difficult. And the working situation and performance expectations will have changed significantly. These are highly probable, and potentially very disruptive, costs. To offset them, benefits should be certain and very desirable.

Step Two

That brings us to the second step for the manager, which is:

Being sure you know
why you want to set up
a word processing center
in the first place.

Ask the questions:

☐ Are we considering a word processing center because something is wrong with the organization we have, or to enhance an already satisfactory situation?
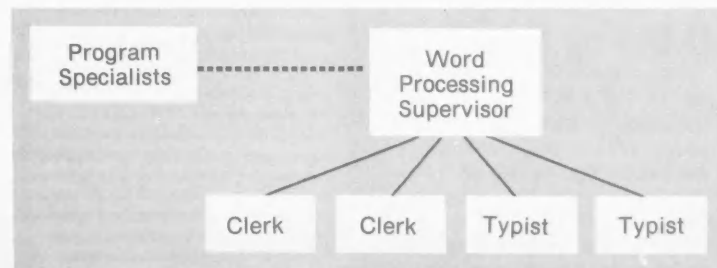
☐ Are there other cures for those problems, or other ways to gain those desired advantages?

☐ Would a word processing center leave us with the same problems in a different place?

If you are considering a word processing center because some of your clerks are chronically idle while others are chronically overworked, and it seems clear that some kind of centralizing or consolidating might help, remember that there is more than one way to do that. For example, instead of this:

Program Specialist	Program Specialist	Program Specialist	Program Specialist
Clerk (Typing)	Clerk (Typing)	Clerk (Typing)	Clerk (Typing)

or

Program Specialists .... Word Processing Supervisor

Clerk   Clerk   Typist   Typist

You might try:

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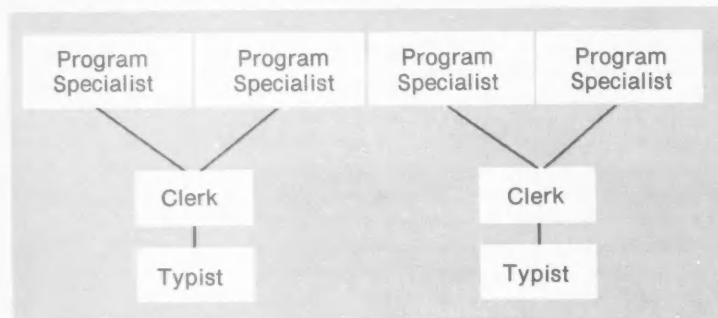
If you are considering a word processing center because you want to be sure your expensive CRT-equipped typewriters with the super-speed printers are fully used, consider how this might be done without going to a fully centralized typing service. You should also decide what percentage of time the equipment must be used for it to be worth your organization's consideration. You may find that a word processing center is only one of several ways of trying to accomplish what you want to accomplish.

If you are considering a word processing center because you have read some favorable articles about such centers, subject the articles to a few very strict tests:

☐ Consider the source. Many such articles appear in trade or vendor-oriented magazines. They are fine places to pick up new ideas, but they are almost never written by disinterested parties. Vendors have a stake in selling equipment, and they will tend to favor and recommend organization structures they believe will allow them to best present their equipment. It's not a crime, just something you have to consider. Other articles are written by consultants who have little incentive to discourage frequent changes in organization.

☐ Consider how alike or how different your organization's situation is from the one described in the article. It may describe ideas that are truly excellent for another situation, but disastrous for your own.

☐ Consider how thorough the article is. It may not tell you enough to assess its worth.

If you are considering a word processing center because you want to enhance career opportunities for women, be especially careful. You could do more harm than good:

☐ Granted, most of the people in word processing centers are women. Nevertheless, it is quite a leap from that awareness to an assumption that this is a "woman's" occupation. The very assumption is itself an act of stereotyping that can lead to a string of genuinely bad policy decisions.

☐ If you are adding no new functions other than the operation of new equipment and duties associated with that equipment, the chances are good that you are really taking jobs that are more varied and turning them into jobs that are grindingly routine.

☐ You shouldn't consider the addition of a supervisory job to your organization as a serious contribution to upward mobility. It will only affect one person at a time out of your entire group, perhaps at the expense of the rest of

the group in terms of variety of work, independence of action, and development of skills needed for future advancement. By itself, it is not a good reason for dramatic change in your organization.

Decision Time

But what if, after all is said and done, you decide you really need the "full splendor" model of a word processing center? Or what if higher management decides for you? What do you do then?

1. Think first of what work you want performed, then of what knowledges, skills, and abilities are required to do that work. Only then should you decide what title, occupation, and grade the position should be; and get responsible position classification help before you decide even then. Don't rely on position descriptions prepared for other organizations, and don't substitute other people's judgment for your own. If the position you have just described looks like drudgery to you, maybe that's what it is. Prepare a detailed task list for each position so that *you* know what it is supposed to do, and so that *you* spot overlapping or omitted duties.

2. Write down:

—how you intend to assign the work and establish priorities;

—what you will consider evidence of good performance; and

—how you plan to review the work performed on various types of assignments.

3. Pay special attention to the design of supervisory positions. Mentally run through a typical work day for the position. It will help you avoid including duties that just won't work. For example, it might seem like a good idea to have your first-line word processing supervisor provide continuing systems analysis and development services for the center, and you can put that into the position description, but:

—It won't happen. The day-to-day, nickel-and-dime work will drive out the systems work. You may end up with neither being done well.

—Full-time systems development work almost certainly won't be needed.

—Your best candidate for first-line supervisor might make a lousy systems analyst.

—And if you include duties in the supervisor's job that are too different from those of the people in the center, you will remove any real hope they may have to compete for the position. They will have no routine way to acquire the needed knowledges, skills, and abilities.

4. When considering the classification of these positions, you will be tempted to feel that they are completely unique, and that there is no position classification standard available to help grade them. If you yield to that temptation, you can almost count on being dead wrong. For some positions there will be no *single* classification standard providing a neat, concise treatment of all the duties of the position, but a competent position classifier can evaluate the various duties of the position by using various standards applying to the separate duties. For example, several of the following standards may be useful depending on the specific duties included in the position:

—General Grade Evaluation Guide for Nonsupervisory Clerical Positions, GS-301
—Information Receptionist Series, GS-304
—Mail and File Series, GS-305
—Correspondence Clerk Series, GS-309
—Clerk-Stenographer and Reporter Series, GS-312
—Clerk-Typist Series, GS-322
—Data Transcriber Series, GS-356
—Editorial Assistance Series, GS-1087
—Library Technician Series, GS-1411

From these and other standards, the position classifier should be able to find enough direct matches or close analogies to grade the positions very accurately.

5. In staffing the center, use the interview with the applicant to explain the work to be done very clearly. Don't oversell the job. Give people every opportunity to see clearly what they are getting into. Applicants who recognize that they won't like the work, and who then turn the job down, will have done you a favor.

6. Finally, consider the following miscellaneous thoughts on how to encourage *effectiveness* in your word processing organization.

a. The more the people in the word processing group identify with the people they are helping, and with the work those people are doing, the more likely your organization is to be effective. Physical and organizational separations are barriers to that kind of group identity. So make those separations as small as comfort, practicality, and noise levels will allow.

b. Remember that higher grades will not provide any long-term benefits to the organization, so don't bend your assignments beyond sensibly workable limits to achieve them. Some of the worst word processing groups have some of the highest grades, and some of the best have positions designed at surprisingly low grades. Consider the desirable position design first, then think about grades.

c. Provide a manual with clear, goof-proof, concise instructions for doing the work, and give your staff the time and training to make them familiar with it.

d. When choosing among models of equipment capable of doing your work, pick the model that is easiest to learn to operate. This is especially important in areas that have high personnel turnover. The less training needed, and the more

adequate the training provided, the more quickly the equipment and the operator begin to pay off.

e. If you are having a hard time finding people willing to do high-production typing (or clerical) work all day, consider part-time workers. High production work is easier when limited to shorter periods. Part-time work opens up a completely different recruiting market. It can permit more flexibility in handling fluctuating workloads or temporary absences, and it can mean less turnover.

f. If you expect very little from the people in your organization, you will get exactly what you expect, or less. One of the very best risks you can take is to set reasonably high standards for production and quality, let your workers know what they are, show them you believe they are or can be that good, and hold to your standards. This won't guarantee an excellent staff, but it is an essential step in developing such excellence.

g. Even if you desperately need to revolutionize your organization, make it an evolutionary revolution. Successful revolutions move only when the time is ripe, and the time is not likely to be ripe for everything at once. The more sweeping and complex changes you make all at once, the more likely they are to fail, and the more likely that failure will be your own fault. If the changes are worth the money they will invariably cost, it is worth making them very carefully. It's not an argument against change, only against mistakes.

In summary:

Don't be quick to assume that different is better.

Be sure you know why you want to change.

Be systematic in your approach to designing, classifying, and staffing your new organization.

Consider all of the subtle things that protect and enhance the effectiveness of an organization, such as the stability of the organization, the relationships of the people with each other, the clarity of the training, and the interest of the people in their work. CSJ

Robert J. Massey, President of Progress Management Services, of Arlington, Va., believes that "tribal rituals" of bureaucracy often work against efficient accomplishment of the people's business. The following excerpts on this theme are from his presentation "On Cleaning Up 'Bureaucratic Pollution'" given at a recent symposium sponsored jointly by the Maxwell School of Syracuse University and the School of Government and Public Administration of American University.

I hold that an effective approach to dealing with "bureaucratic pollution" is simple and available. Basically it involves taking that unsolvable macro-problem, breaking it down into solvable micro-problems, and then harnessing the head and hearts of the "bureaucrats" to the task of solving those micro-problems.

In trying to define "bureaucratic pollution" it is useful to view the workings of a government organization from two perspectives, the "logic of bureaucracy" and the "logic of management."

The logic of bureaucracy is concerned with the legality and authority of actions. The logic of management is concerned with effective accomplishment of required results and efficient use of resources.

Both of these ways of looking at things are legitimate and important. If we allow the logic of management to dominate, we can find government doing a lot of things that are in hard conflict with the values this government was established to preserve and advance.

Harnessing the heads and hearts of bureaucrats to the task of perfecting organizations requires a direct application of the basic management process of assigning responsibility to accountable individuals and providing appropriate follow-up actions.

In addition to responsibility for a day-to-day job, each public official must also be assigned responsibility for upgrading that part of the overall system through which day-to-day responsibilities are accomplished. Each bureaucrat must function in two roles: administrator carrying out the routine within the system, and engineer taking action to help perfect the system.

In the bureaucrat's role as engineer, he or she should be responsible for these functions:

☐ Identify the "problems" or "innovation opportunities."

☐ Solve those problems that can be solved with the knowledge, resources, and authority available.

☐ Take actions as necessary to couple the "cream" of the remaining problems with the other "elements of problem solution."

By the "cream" of the remaining problems, I mean we should be selective about the problems on which to invest time, energy, and other resources. We should select for action the really high-leverage progress opportunities.

The "elements of problem solution" include: (1) an effective approach for solving the problem, (2) resources required to develop and implement the solution, and (3) authority to implement the solution.

These responsibilities must be enforced through a system that will measure performance in the bureaucrat-as-engineer function at the same time as it promotes appropriate actions to deal with ineffective performance. If a manager claims that ineffective performance is due to "stupid laws and/or regulations," then focus should shift immediately to the measures taken to bring about changes in the "system" so that it will facilitate, rather than frustrate, efficient accomplishment of the people's business.

All that is required to carry this off is a very little paper and a lot of guts. The first and most important piece of paper is a one-page policy statement making all officials responsible for both routine administration and for taking actions to improve the system through which they accomplish their day-to-day responsibilities.

The guts would be required to close the loop and deal decisively with failure to perform. Officials must be held just as accountable for failure to deal with "bureaucratic pollution" as they are now held accountable for over-obligating funds.

The $25,000 Man

History was made recently when, for the first time since the Federal Incentive Awards program was established in 1954, a cash award made through its provisions was presented personally by the President of the United States. Lawrence L. Guzick, a civilian Navy employee, received an award of $25,000 from President Carter in a ceremony at the White House.

The contribution that attracted the President's personal interest is indeed notable because it saves tremendous quantities of fuel. Mr. Guzik, a mechanical engineer with the Naval Sea Systems Command, developed a small, lightweight device to better drain condensed water from pressurized steam lines. The previous method, dating back to the early development of steam-powered equipment, used a "steam trap," which reduced pressure periodically and was expensive to repair or replace. Mr. Guzick's patented invention, which fits in the palm of your hand, is a quarter-inch steel plate with a hole drilled through the middle that permits the steam lines to maintain their pressure while being drained, and is inexpensive to manufacture and repair.

The Navy estimates that it will save $10 million a year in reduced fuel consumption and maintenance costs as a result of using this device. It has great potential for use in steam systems throughout the military and private industry.

In praising Mr. Guzick's achievement, the President also paid tribute to the efforts of all civil servants whose "quiet professionalism . . . is a great strength to a President." He added that he felt Federal employees are not recognized often enough, and expressed the hope that this situation could be rectified.

This last thought was particularly stressed by CSC Chairman Alan K. Campbell in a memorandum to the heads of departments and agencies forwarding a copy of the President's remarks at the ceremony. Noting the significance of the President's involvement in this award, "Scotty" Campbell urged that the incentive awards programs in agencies and departments be used effectively to recognize outstanding employees, and thereby encourage the fullest use of every individual's ability.

Mr. Guzick's achievement and $25,000 award (the maximum allowed by law), along with the President's involvement, received widespread and favorable publicity. This should have a positive effect in reminding people, both outside *and* within the Government, that there are many outstanding Federal employees who are dedicated and successful at making Government work efficiently, economically, and effectively.
—*Crale D. Hopkins*
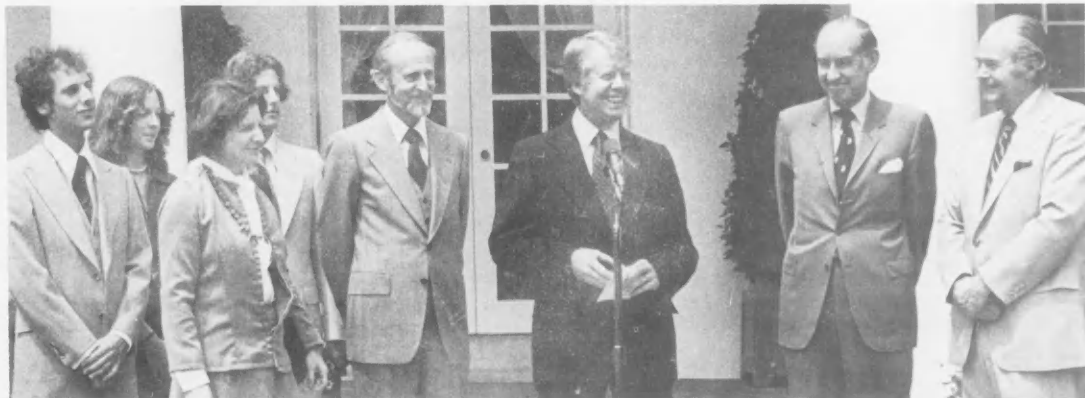
PRESIDENT CARTER presents a $25,000 incentive award to Lawrence L. Guzick during a White House ceremony May 18. Guzick is an employee of the Naval Sea Systems Command. Standing to the President's right are Guzick with his wife Urs, daughter Cindy, and sons Dean and Mark. Secretary of the Navy W. Graham Claytor stands next to the President on his left, along with CSC Chairman Alan K. Campbell. *(White House Photo.)*

THE OPERATING PERSONNEL OFFICE— A WORKING DICHOTOMY

by Richard E. Olmer

ONE of the most difficult tasks facing a personnel office in a Federal agency is explaining and gaining acceptance of the dual nature of Federal personnel work. In a private company, personnel offices are wholly support and service oriented. There is little disagreement on what is "best" for the organization. What is "best" is what the organization's management wants. In the public sector this simple relationship between management and personnel does not exist. Personnel has been given an additional role—that of regulator. Regulation and service make strange bedfellows, and it perhaps is a wonder that such a system works.

The dichotomy traces its roots back to the beginnings of the merit system and a reaction to the old spoils system. Almost from the beginning, the Civil Service Commission found itself decentralizing. This decentralization continued and the Classification Act of 1949 gave to each agency the authority to classify its own positions, in accordance with standards and subject to review. For practical purposes, this Act really institutionalized the dichotomy.

Before this Act, decisions were always at some level above the operating personnel office. Now the responsibility and the authority were in some part merged. Or stated differently, the regulatory function of the Commission was itself decentralized beginning with the examination function and now classification. From the 1930's to the 1950's, the Commission evolved from a "policing" agency to a management-oriented planning and policy-setting agency. The policing function did not disappear, however; it was simply diffused.

Service Orientation

Personnel offices throughout Government share with their contemporaries in private industry a service orientation. The problem arises in defining this term "service." Unlike their counterparts in the private sector who readily agree on a definition of service, within the Federal sector those in personnel and those in management often disagree. Personnelists

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tend to view managers and supervisors as myopic; managers and supervisors view personnelists as narrowminded and inflexible. The reason is often their diverse definitions of service.

Service is defined variously as "the occupation or duties of a servant, employment or work for another . . . work or duties performed for a superior, work done for others . . . an act of assistance or benefit for another. . . ." Personnelists would probably prefer the last definition, and although it might not be management's first choice, I doubt it would be unacceptable. If both parties agree to this definition then, what is the problem? That service is an act is hardly debatable; that it is done by one person for another might cause some debate since personnel offices are often characterized as doing "to" not for. However, the real problems are with the words "assistance or benefit."

Managers view assistance and benefit in terms of increased productivity in Government just as in the private sector. Service, therefore, equates to quick responses to hiring requests, quick action on discipline, quick processing of pro-

motions, grievances, etc. Productivity can be enhanced by hiring those who managers know have the capabilities and personalities to do the job successfully. Productivity is enhanced by speedy removal of nonperformers. Time spent on formal performance evaluation, assessing training needs, elaborate justifications for hiring or promotion, selection panels, etc., is all nonproductive.

Personnelists basically agree with managers; however, personnel offices must ensure that: regulatory mandates are adhered to, procedural requirements have been met, and rights guaranteed employees have not been abridged. On the one hand, this might appear dysfunctional; in the long run it is not. Managers are the first to decry the waste inherent in EEO investigations, hearings on grievances or adverse action appeals, and responses to Congressional inquiries regarding employees. From the personnelists' perspective, what managers often fail to realize is that shortcutting procedures and denying rights *cause* investigations, grievances, appeals, and so forth.

Contrary to the thinking of many Government executives and managers, those of us engaged in Federal personnel work are willing pragmatists. It is simply that our perspective is often quite different from theirs—hence, my previous allusion to management's myopia. Managers consistently talk about the "big picture" and the personnel office's narrow view of reality. "Personnelists simply can't put it all together, they are too parochial," say the managers.

Personnelists, on the other hand, view management as often shortsighted; consistently opting for an

Sym'bi·ot'ic — The living together in association or even close union of two dissimilar organisms.

Symbiotic

immediate solution to a problem and ignoring the long-term consequences. Perhaps this conflict is a legitimate result of differences in the status of the chief antagonists —managers and executives being somewhat more mobile, and more likely not long-term career civil servants; personnelists on the other hand normally always career civil servants with comparatively limited mobility.

Synonym for Service?

Another word constantly used is the term "support." Usually this term is used in a negative way, e.g., a lack of support. "Support" is probably simply a synonym for service when used by the personnel office's detractors; however, this is not totally true from the personnelist's perspective. Personnelists are more likely to admit deficiencies in service than in support.

Support's meaning is in reality far different from that of service— "to hold in position; prevent from falling, sinking, slipping; to keep from falling during stress; to add strength to; to provide for or maintain; to furnish evidence for; to collaborate or sustain; to aid the

cause of by approving, favoring, or advocating." As personnelists view the world, this is what they do, support.

In the case of service, however, personnelists and managers view the world from vastly different perspectives. From a personnelist's standpoint, managers, except at the highest levels, of necessity view the world very narrowly. Their concern is with their particular part of the organization. What they want "held in position, strengthened, maintained, and approved" is in the best interests of their organization. Almost always personnelists, on the other hand, are in staff offices and as such represent larger points of view. From an agency perspective, maintenance or advocacy of the goals or programs of one part of an organization may not be in the best interests of the agency.

A much more common conflict, however, is not with goals but with strategies for meeting goals. Far too often agreement on goals is totally obfuscated by a disagreement on method. When managers present problems to the personnel office, they are too often presented in terms of a proposed solution. The personnel office is, therefore, responding to a solution, not a problem. In such a situation the personnel office is forced to take on the role of judge, and often finds the proposed solution to be in conflict with legal, regulatory, or procedural requirements. The problem in such a case is that management has itself ignored the personnel office's service function and focused attention on the more negative regulatory function.

management personnel

Symbiotic?

Personnel Office as Advocate

Managers can ensure advocacy by the personnel office by focusing attention on the service aspects of our jobs—by presenting problems without solutions. Advocacy by the personnel office is ensured when they have developed the solutions to problems presented by management.

The above is a good example of how the regulatory function of the personnel office can, in fact, become a service or support function and how adversary relationships can become mutually supportive ones. It is, however, not the best example. The "best" examples don't begin with problems, but potential ones. A good personnel office like a good manager is not reactive, rather pro-active.

The "best" service or support a personnel office can give is often that very service which elicits cries from management of a dictatorship by the personnelists. Such requirements as performance ratings, position currency reviews, reviews of training needs, and required employee-supervisory counseling sessions involve managers and supervisors in what they often consider an unproductive use of time. The same is said when detailed justifications for outside hiring are required by personnel offices. Perhaps, surprisingly, these are all considered by personnelists as problem-defusing techniques—efforts to solve problems before they occur or become critical—and, indeed, are good use of a supervisor's time. In reality, these efforts aren't pro-active at all; they are actions required by law for the most part. Therein lies a key to understanding why an apparent dichotomy is really no dichotomy at all.

The service and support a personnel office supplies is very much akin to that supplied a client by a tax lawyer. From a base of knowledge and familiarity with laws, regulations, and procedures, the personnelist advises and processes. Like a conscientious tax lawyer he/she will not endorse unsubstantiated claims; for like a tax lawyer he/she must sign (endorse) the paperwork processed and is accountable. On the other hand, like a tax lawyer, all incentives are to maximize the client's benefit.

In the case of the tax lawyer, it is apparent that a saving of thousands on this year's taxes doesn't really help a client if the client spends additional thousands in court or time in jail somewhere in the future. Few managers, however, need fear such consequences. Results of poor personnel practice are much more subtle, but perhaps equally costly—missed promotion opportunities, high turnover, more grievances and time spent in resolution, more stringent reviews or controls from above. Service and support perhaps equate to protection in this context.

However one chooses to define it, the quality of personnel service and/or support within the Federal sector is directly related to performance of the regulatory function by the personnel office. An apparent dichotomy is probably more aptly a symbiotic relationship—service or support drawing their vitality from the regulatory base.

Symbiotic!

WORTH NOTING

☐ ANNUITY INCREASE: A 4.3 percent increase in civil service retirement and survivor annuities became effective September 1 and will be reflected in October checks.

A 4.9 percent increase was effective March 1. The civil service retirement law now gives cost-of-living increases twice a year, effective March 1 and September 1. The computation for the increases is based on a formula using the Consumer Price Index. (See FPM Bulletin No. 831-69, August 4, 1977.)

☐ REORGANIZATION: An executive corps suggested; 4 areas under study: The first product to emerge from the Personnel Management Project studies—a working paper of options for improving executive personnel management in Government—has been sent to Federal agencies and other interested groups for comment.

The paper outlines issues and options for their achievement, pertaining to the possible establishment of a special personnel system for Federal executives. The paper makes no recommendations, but solicits views for consideration before a final proposal is submitted to the President.

In addition, President Carter has announced four executive branch reorganization studies.

They are comprehensive reviews of (1) Federal law enforcement, (2) Federal local development programs, (3) Federal human services programs, and (4) the delivery of administrative services.

President Carter noted that these four areas account for $60 billion a year in Federal spending.

He estimated the studies will take from 5 to 9 months. The studies are to be conducted by the Reorganization Project staff at the Office of Management and Budget.

☐ PUBLIC given more access to information on Federal employees: CSC has amended its regulations on information available from employees' official personnel folders.

For many years CSC has considered name, present and past position titles, grades, salaries, and duty stations of Government employees to be available to the public, but has not disclosed this information where there was reason to believe the request for information was made for the purpose of commercial or other kinds of solicitation. These restrictions on the release of information have been removed.

☐ PROPOSAL to improve downgrading protection: Under recently proposed pay legislation a downgraded employee would retain his or her original grade for 2 years. In nearly every case the employee would also receive improved provisions for retaining the present salary indefinitely.

CSC Chairman Alan K. Campbell said the proposal would facilitate job reclassification and agency reorganization.

☐ ENERGY DEPARTMENT established. The Department of Energy has been established by law. This is the first new Cabinet-level agency since the Department of Transportation was created in 1966.

The new department is the 12th Cabinet department. Its chief executive will be called the Secretary of Energy. It is expected to consolidate the Federal Government's energy-related functions.

It will employ about 20,000 persons. The law was signed August 4 and is effective in 120 days.

The Department of Energy will bring into the competitive service about 8,000 previously excepted employees of the Energy Research and Development Agency.

☐ AGE DISCRIMINATION protection extended: Protection from age discrimination against Federal employees has been extended from ages 40-65 to 40-69.

For applicants, coverage remains 40-65.

But if the applicant is already a Federal employee, then the coverage is through age 69.

The age discrimination regulations are in accordance with recent court action.

The new coverage applies to alleged age discrimination occurring after March 3, 1977, excepting matters of ongoing age discrimination and class discrimination complaints. (For further information see FPM Letter 713-39, July 19, 1977.)

☐ CEILINGS APPROVED: OMB announced that new ceilings for full-time civilian employees have been approved by President Carter for Federal departments and agencies.

Overall reductions from planned employment levels in the January budget amount to nearly 18,000 full-time permanent positions for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1977, and 38,000 for the following year.

Because ceilings represent an upper limit not usually reached in most agencies, actual employment is expected to be under assigned levels.

☐ EMPLOYEES respond to health benefits survey: The Civil Service Commission recently completed analysis of a questionnaire on health benefits. The questionnaire was given to a sample of new employees representing a cross section of Federal agencies. Based on nearly 1,300 responses, key findings show:

—More than 70 percent of new employees enrolled in a health benefits plan.

—About 90 percent of new enrollees chose the Government-wide plans (77 percent enrolled in Blue Cross-Blue Shield and 13 percent in Aetna).

—Of all the features influencing the choice of a particular plan, hospital room and board was the most attractive.

—Dental care, vision care, and periodic physical examinations were benefits that most new employees felt should be added to the coverage; and most would be willing to pay any necessary additional premiums to obtain these benefits.

☐ HEALTH INSURANCE enrolls 3.3 million: Results of the 1976 health insurance open season, held November 15-30, 1976, were reported by the U.S. Civil Service Commission. Some 220,000 Federal employees and annuitants changed their enrollment, and total enrollment increased by 48,000 (1.5 percent) to a new high of 3.3 million.

Besides the 48,000 persons first enrolling in the 1976 open season, 172,000 (5.3 percent) already in the program made a change: 126,000 transferred to a different plan and 46,000 changed options or levels of coverage within the same plan.

Enrollees in the two Government-wide plans (Blue Cross-Blue Shield and Aetna), which together have comprised about 75 to 80 percent of total membership since the program began, were involved in 93 percent of the 1976 changes.

☐ READERS, BEWARE: In the January-March 1977 issue of the *Journal*, the article by Alice H. Blumer, "Using Technology for Training," contained an example of IRS Thumb-Indexed Decision Tables for Use by Volunteer Tax Assistors. The example referred to "Sale of Home." Readers are cautioned that the "Sale of Home" chart was provided only as an example of training methodology; it does not reflect current tax law on the sale of a residence. Any questions about taxes on the sale of a residence can be answered by your local IRS office.

—*Ed Staples*

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"... we are
accountable
to the public."

"personnel officers
oftentimes feel they are in
no-win situations."

THE AWARDS