

CONTEXT AND CHALLENGES

Do not copy, post, or distribute

Do not copy, post, or distribute

THE PUBLIC SERVICE HERITAGE

People, Process, and Purpose

After studying this chapter, you should be able to:

- Understand the changing structure, environment, key principles, and operating characteristics of public human resource management;
- Distinguish the various tides of reform that are part of the public service heritage;
- Identify the paradoxes and contradictions in public service history;
- Recognize how legacies from the past affect human resource management in the present;
- Assess the contributions of recent reforms to effective management;
- Show how values influence managers in addressing human resource issues; and
- Describe ethical judgments required in human resource management and use guiding questions to make such decisions.

Concern about good government has deep roots in the United States. It has long been recognized that for government to be effective, good people must be hired, trained, and rewarded. There is also a well-established tradition that a properly designed system for managing people is critical to good government. Indeed, two schools of thought have emerged over time: One argues that breakdown in government performance is an *incompetent people* problem, and the other argues that it is an *evil system* problem (Ehrenhalt, 1998). Others have pointed to an *ethics* problem that demands attention if confidence in government is to be restored (Bowman & West, 2021; Menzel, 2017; Newell, 2015). As the epigraph suggests, good intentions and the ethical actions that ideally result from them are critical to the creation of a high-performance workplace.

These three things in combination—good people, good systems, and good intentions—are the focus of this chapter. Good people are needed to manage government’s most important resource—its employees. A few work in the human resource department, but the vast majority are line and staff managers. Their abilities are critical to the performance and achievement of public purpose. The system in which these people operate is also crucial to the achievement of results. Managing human resources has taken many forms over time and involves such activities as recruitment, classification, compensation, training, and evaluation. The third component, intentions, encompasses the tasks that the people propose to accomplish and the values guiding the effort. Employees’ and managers’ intentions, informed by individual and organizational values and ethics, guide their actions for good or ill. Admirable intentions are key to government performance, especially given today’s emphasis on citizen service.

This chapter begins by providing a glimpse into a human resource manager's day. Although this textbook focuses on human resource management (HRM) for all managers, it is important to have some insight into the specialists' world of HRM. Then, the discussion moves to the first of the three themes of the chapter: good people. We identify some of the broad contemporary challenges of getting and managing the right people, which provides a brief context for the rest of the book. Next are several sections on the second theme: good systems. What are some basic definitions of HRM and related terms? What are the different ways in which HR support systems are organized? How have such systems changed over time, and what is the philosophical reasoning behind the major waves of changes? Lastly, the third theme is addressed: good intentions. This is covered in two sections. One discusses how all public managers in their HR capacity must understand and balance four principles. The final section follows up the discussion of the principles by looking specifically at the importance of ethics and its application, moral management, as the mainstay of public service. Throughout, there is no shortage of paradoxes.¹ Knowledge of the public sector heritage provides a foundation for more specialized chapters to follow.

A DAY IN THE LIFE OF MARIA HERNANDEZ

It is the autumn of 2020. Maria Hernandez is the HR director of a large southeastern city. She heads a department organized into five divisions—Examinations, Development and Training, Classification, Employee Relations, and Compensation and Benefits. Like most large-city HR directors, she faces a thorny set of issues that create challenges, threats, and opportunities for her and for city government.

The disruption of the COVID-19 crisis has added immensely to Maria's already complicated work life. Even before the crisis, she had to cope with a rapidly changing workforce, an increasingly cumbersome legal and regulatory environment, declining budgets, heightened citizen complaints, pressures for higher productivity, outsourcing, restive unions, and pending layoffs. It was necessary for her to navigate a dynamic environment characterized by the frequent turnover of political leadership, the increasing impact of technology, and the visible and public way in which government decisions are made. Now, with COVID-19 and its aftermath, her already busy schedule requires juggling as she deals with uncertainties caused by the novel virus.

Fortunately, Maria can draw on her academic training and considerable work experience to fulfill her responsibilities. She earned her MPA degree with a concentration in personnel management more than 20 years ago. She has been working for the city since that time, progressing up the ranks to HR director, a position she has held for the past 10 years.

After rising at 6 a.m., Maria is dressed and having morning coffee when she hears the local TV news report an increase in the area's unemployment rate. This development will continue to increase the number of people seeking work with the city, and pending municipal layoffs, furloughs, hiring freezes, and pay cuts will add to the unemployment

problem and employee unrest. These upcoming job actions are linked to the city's decision to contract with the private sector for services in two areas: transportation and tree trimming and planting. Many heads of city departments have contacted her about the best way to deal with the people issues associated with privatization. Several department heads are especially concerned about avoiding litigation that might arise from layoffs and furloughs.

Maria also reads in the newspaper that the mayor is taking a hard line in negotiations with the city's sanitation workers' union by insisting on increases in employees' contributions for health and pension benefits and limits on overtime. The union, in turn, is reluctant to endorse the city manager's proposal for productivity improvements and further privatization efforts, especially given the reductions in force, which accelerated after COVID-19. Unrest among the city's sanitation workers could spill over and affect other unionized employees who are still at the bargaining table hammering out next year's agreement. Maria is reviewing a report later today from the city's negotiating team to get an update and to consider strategic plans in hopes of averting a strike. The department heads expect that she will help resolve this problem.

In addition, the newspaper contains a local story detailing some of the facts involved in a lawsuit filed against a city supervisor who has been charged with sexually harassing one of his employees. This is not the first time this particular person has run into difficulties of this type; Maria is concerned about the potential fallout from this case. Her office has been conducting mandated online sexual harassment training for a number of years. Although this helps reduce the city's legal exposure (i.e., strict liability), she must still be on top of potentially litigious situations. Her department has been given the responsibility to investigate all sexual harassment complaints, even when they do not involve managers (i.e., vicarious liability); she has made it her policy to be informed of any significant complaints.

At 7:30 a.m., Maria begins work at home, where she shelters in place for most of the day. With appropriate face covering, she already dropped off her children at her parent's home, since schools are closed because of the virus. She then came home to return phone calls to fellow city workers. The phone conversations reveal concern among dual-career couples with youngsters at home about the need for on-site child care as well as more flexible working conditions. This is an issue Maria has tried to address before COVID-19, by proposing to the city manager a set of employee-friendly initiatives. Action on this item has been slow and piecemeal, especially following the virus outbreak, but many employees and a newly elected city councilperson have been pushing for it. Some administrators have also told Maria that adoption of the initiatives would make the city more competitive in its recruitment and retention efforts.

Maria reviews her day's schedule (see Exhibit 1.1). Many of the topics under consideration can potentially move the city forward and help its employees and managers be more productive, but some had to be put on hold given the emergency confronting the city. Although her day is tightly structured around a series of meetings, Maria tries to set aside a block of time each day to consider the long-range initiatives she is advocating, including a new plan to implement performance measurement in key departments, incentive pay for selected workers, online access to HR policies and procedures, succession planning in light of pending retirements, and a cafeteria-style benefits plan. She also

Exhibit 1.1 Maria Hernandez's Monday Schedule

8:00:	Zoom staff meeting with HR professionals	12:00:	Conference call with legal counsel (to review status of pending lawsuits and sexual harassment charge, as well as revisions to drug-testing policy in light of medical marijuana legalization)
9:00:	Review a draft incentive program offering early retirement options	1:45:	Review report from the labor negotiating team—update on bargaining issues and impasses
10:00:	Online meeting with department heads—stressing the importance of the employee assistance program (e.g., mental/physical health and financial counseling and stress management), sanitizing workstations, personal protective equipment (PPE) and social distancing policies, and implementing a new performance measurement program	2:30:	Televised media briefing—joining the mayor as she discusses how the city is responding to the COVID-19 crisis
11:30:	Online meeting with assistant city manager, budget officer, and department representatives (to discuss implications of the hiring freeze and ways to further curb personnel costs)	4:00:	Zoom meeting with university contractors (to review design of training program regarding computer network and pension reform)
		5:30:	Prepare briefing notes for online meeting with administrative assistants (to review plans for consolidating staff support functions across departments)

hopes to start a preretirement training program for all employees aged 55 or older, to broaden the description of job classes, and to work with a consultant on pension reform.

Nevertheless, HR issues are very unpredictable right now, and Maria knows that she will be interrupted many times by managers and employees seeking her opinion on ways to deal with these. When she leaves the office at 6:30 p.m., she picks up her children at her parent's home. After dinner, she reviews two reports on subjects that will occupy her attention at work early the next morning.

Maria's day shows the broad range of issues that HR directors today might encounter. The necessity for online coordination, as opposed to face-to-face, requires more staff time and IT support, but it also saves some time spent in overly long meetings. Although disruptions like the COVID-19 crisis are extraordinary, routine functions still must be carried out even in highly stressful and uncertain conditions. Maria is fortunate to have an extremely competent deputy who helps her perform these recurring duties. These include coping firsthand with worker unrest, labor shortages, productivity and performance measurement, and errant employees. They also involve crafting employee-sensitive policies, dealing with the insecurities of those employees vulnerable to layoffs, and feeling the pressures for greater efficiency.

Note how much of Maria's time is spent in virtual meetings with both executives and line managers. Indeed, today it is critical to realize that much of what HR specialists do

is support managers and elected officials as they carry out HR functions. It is generally managers who must hire, promote, discipline, and fire workers. They have to respond to grievances, evaluate performance, recommend pay rates, approve job reclassifications, and motivate their charges. The constitutional rights of employees must be respected, and officials must be careful not to run afoul of legal requirements (e.g., those dealing with affirmative action, sexual harassment, and age, gender, or disability status). COVID-19 shows that changes in the external environment can also greatly disrupt the already packed agenda of HR professionals. Additional challenges faced by HR specialists and managers are discussed next.

SOME CHALLENGES IN GETTING AND MANAGING THE RIGHT PEOPLE

Managers today need to be mindful of important trends in the governmental environment that affect the context in which personnel decisions are made. The following sections highlight just some of the developments that will have impacts on HRM for the foreseeable future.

A Changing Workforce

The workforce is becoming, paradoxically, both grayer and younger. On one hand, as the members of the Baby Boom generation are entering retirement, the average age of many seasoned employees and managers is rising. There is an obvious need for employees who can immediately fill their shoes, but such workforce candidates are often lacking. Demographically, **Generation X** (Gen-X) workers (those born between 1960 and 1980) who will replace them are fewer in number, which has contributed to a “graying” of the workforce in past decades. On the other hand, the very large cohort of **New Millennials** or Gen-Y (those born between 1977 and 1994) and future **Generation Z** (born between 1995 and 2012) workers are the latest job entrants. They are now experiencing or will soon experience increasing job opportunities. These new entrants slowly reduce the average age of the workforce.

Many authors have commented on how the career and working styles of Gen-X and New Millennial workers are different from those of Baby Boomers and the members of other preceding generations: Members of the newer generations are more likely than their predecessors to change careers and sectors often, demonstrate less loyalty to their employers, be comfortable with new technology, be independent, be comfortable working on multiple projects, and seek balance between their work and personal lives (Hannon & Yordi, 2011; Lohmann, 2016; Marston, 2007; Sauser & Sims, 2012; Van Der Wal, 2017; West, 2012; WJSchroer, n.d.). Succession planning and creative recruitment strategies are crucial. Exhibit 1.2 lists some reasons young people choose public service work. Beyond these factors, the workforce is also increasingly composed of women and members of minority groups (Condrey, 2010; Guy & Newman, 2010; Kellough, 2009).

Exhibit 1.2 Reasons Young People Choose Public Service

- To make a difference in a wide variety of leadership positions in the nonprofit and for-profit sectors; different branches of local, state, regional, and federal governments; and the international arena
- To become engaged intellectually in the challenges facing their communities
- To establish career and personal development skills that they can use throughout their lives
- To build a better future for the world and to solve big problems
- To create communication links within and between different communities
- To gain a sense of responsibility for others and the causes they care about

Sources: Education Development Center (2002); Light (2008).

Declining Confidence in Government

With the exception of a brief spike in 2001 after the terrorist attacks on New York City and Washington, D.C., on September 11, opinion polls since the 1960s have shown steady erosion in confidence and trust in government at all levels. In the early 1960s, six out of 10 Americans claimed to trust the federal government most of the time. By 2019, only two in 10 made that claim (Rainie & Perrin, 2019). While the majority of Americans think that federal spending can and should be deeply cut, there is no agreement on what wasteful spending is or where to reduce it and no commitment to shared sacrifice to lower the national debt (Swanson & Blumenthal, 2013). Although trust in state and local government is higher than trust in the federal government, declining confidence is evident at those levels as well. This can erode the morale of the civil service and impede performance. Rebuilding trust is an important challenge facing the public sector at all levels.

Advancing Equity in Times of Unrest

Issues of race, equity, and justice prompt conversations and actions about respect, rights, and systemic change. Public discussion and demonstrations surrounding the deaths of George Floyd, Ahmaud Arbery, Breonna Taylor, and others have focused attention on police violence, systemic racism, and abusive treatment of Black people and others of color in the United States and abroad. Responding to such traumatic events with empathy, willingness to engage in difficult candid conversations with employees, and a clear proactive commitment to diversity, equity, and inclusion strategies is needed by public, nonprofit, and private organizations and must be backed by sufficient resources (Romansky, 2020).

Declining Budgets, Leading to Increased Use of Alternative Work Arrangements

A combination of tax limitation measures, budget cuts, and political pressures to curb future expenditures has occurred throughout government. Government policy makers, mindful of the impending exodus of Baby Boomers and attempting to keep costs down, are paying increased attention to alternative work arrangements.

One variant, noted by Mastracci and Thompson (2009) and Barr (2005), involves use of the core-ring staffing model, with the core comprising full-time workers in permanent jobs and the ring comprising employees in contingent or alternative arrangements (e.g., contractors, temporary workers, and part-time staff). Light (2017) estimated that, in 2015, for each federal civilian employee there were about 2.6 times as many nonfederal workers via contracts and grants. Exhibit 1.3 provides examples of such a blended workforce in various governmental settings.

Rightsizing and Downsizing Despite Population Growth

In 2019, there were 2.1 million people in the federal civilian workforce, which was 100,000 fewer than after the end of World War II (CRS, 2019; U.S. OPM, 2014). While the country's population has increased (projected to be 334.5 million by 2020), the relative size of federal civilian employment has not (NAPA, 2017). Moreover, most of the civilian workforce is devoted to defense- and security-related agencies, including the Department of Homeland Security. This reduction has been accomplished through periodic downsizings, which took place in the 1950s and from 1993 to 2007.

The most recent downsizing left line managers with additional, burdensome administrative tasks. The combination of federal downsizing, scandal, and the war on waste led Light (1999, 2008) to warn of a looming “brain drain” and to predict further decreases in government-centered public service with a corresponding increase in multi-sectored service. By contrast, the size of the state and local government workforce has increased, primarily because of population growth. Despite this overall trend, many individual jurisdictions have experienced workforce reductions in specific areas linked to privatization, deregulation, budget or service cuts, and program terminations—trends that are likely to continue well into the future.

Demands for Productivity Gains

Jurisdictions at all levels are under pressure to improve performance without raising costs. The 2019 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey of 1,443,152 workers received 615,395 responses. Nine in 10 employees said they are constantly looking for ways to do their job better, but only 39% said that in their work unit, differences in performance are recognized in a meaningful way. Further, less than half (44%) of employees believed that awards programs offered them incentive to do their best, and about the same proportion (42%) said steps are taken to deal with a poor performer who cannot or will not improve (U.S. OPM, 2019). These and other trends have prompted reform proposals

Exhibit 1.3 Blended Workforces in U.S. Government Settings

The Naval Research Lab

The Naval Research Lab has established contractual arrangements that provide for flexibility in the workforce for various special research projects. In this system, the hiring and firing of employees and layoff procedures are left to the contractor; they take place outside the federal personnel system, allowing for quick downsizing if necessary. Other advantages to the system include the ability to evaluate contract workers and hire the best-performing ones for long-term employment. The Naval Research Lab has also taken advantage of part-time work arrangements to create a family-friendly work environment, which has reduced the turnover rate in the workforce. In addition, the lab has created student positions with the goal of transitioning students into permanent employment.

The Transportation Security Administration

After the 9/11 attacks—with the need to respond quickly to the requirements of the Aviation and Transportation Security Act of 2001—the Transportation Security Administration pursued flexible policies in hiring and maintaining its workforce. It has taken advantage of

Sources: Barr (2005); Thompson & Mastracchi (2005).

indirect-hire arrangements with contractors that have allowed the agency to use workers for specific purposes when required. The Transportation Security Administration has also made part-time work a priority, with 16% of its workforce serving in this role. Part-time work allows the agency to schedule staff when they are most needed, particularly during peak flight times in the morning and afternoon, and allows officials to screen for exceptional workers to become permanent full-time employees in the future.

The National Aeronautics and Space Administration

NASA has focused extensively on creating flexible arrangements for personnel who seek to use them. The Glenn Research Center at Lewis Field, in Cleveland, for example, has allowed full-time employees to change to part-time status for health, family, education, or other reasons. It has used term appointments to hire workers for defined periods of time, most particularly for work on special research projects. NASA has also used student employment programs that allow for transition into long-term employment, with 80% of students remaining with NASA after completing the program.

and reengineering initiatives aimed at establishing new approaches to the delivery of goods and services, as discussed later in this and subsequent chapters.

Emerging Virtual Workplaces and Virtual Government

With the advent of new information technologies, innovative organizations are replacing some traditional 9-to-5 workplaces with fixed central-office locations with more flexible arrangements (telecommuting, flex-place). This development alters relationships between employers and employees and raises questions about how HR professionals give support to the variety of work arrangements in virtual workplaces (Choi, 2018; Dahlstrom, 2013; Kwon & Jeon, 2017; Wadsworth & Facer, 2016; West & Berman, 2001).

In addition, virtual workplaces alter the relationship between citizens and government. Numerous federal initiatives begun in the mid-1990s enable citizen transactions to be conducted electronically. Indeed, the 1998 Government Paperwork Elimination Act states that federal agencies must allow people the option of submitting information or transacting electronically. These are just a few ways that new information technology can influence the public workplace (discussed further in Chapter 8).

Decentralization and Increased Managerial Flexibility

Typically, administrators at the operational level now have greater flexibility and discretion in the acquisition, development, motivation, and maintenance of human resources. Recent civil service reforms at all levels of government have loosened restrictions and increased managerial discretion over matters of pay, hiring, discipline, and termination. At the federal level, this has been evident in changes attempted at the Department of Homeland Security (DHS) and the Department of Defense (DOD); at the state and local levels, it is reflected in New Public Management reforms and the move in some jurisdictions toward at-will employment (Bowman & West, 2007; Klingner, 2009; Radin, 2012).

The trends we have just described influence the ways officials carry out their functions. Each trend has important implications for HRM, and the relevance of each is considered in detail in this book.

SOME BASIC DEFINITIONS

The traditional term **personnel administration** is now used only narrowly, in reference to internal processes—staffing, position management, pay systems, benefits management, training, appraisal and discipline, contract management, and so on—and the efficient application of the rules and procedures of the civil service system. This term connotes a technical approach to these numerous functions that are vital to any organization, often with a relatively sharp divide between the responsibilities of HR specialists and operational managers, which is rare today.

The contemporary term **human resource management**, or HRM, embraces a broader focus and has relevance for HR specialists, line managers, and executives. It encompasses all decisions affecting the relationship between the individual and the organization, with an eye to optimizing effectiveness from the view of both. In addition to technical operations, it includes actively seeking to recruit and select the best employees (talent management), adjusting positions to meet evolving needs (job design), blending strategies of pay for optimal compensation policies, providing cost-effective benefits packages that provide maximum value for employees (family-friendly benefits), building on technical training to include employee development, helping employees improve their own performance, proactively managing employee–employer relations, and tracking organizational accountability and ensuring that health and safety issues are included (Abramson & Gardner, 2002).

When HRM is most global and long-term in its perspective and includes such issues as workforce planning and overall organizational design, it is often called **strategic human resource management (SHRM)**. SHRM “may be regarded as an approach

to the management of human resources that provides a strategic framework to support long-term business goals and outcomes. The approach is concerned with longer-term people issues and macro-concerns about structure, quality, culture, values, commitment and matching resources to future need” (CIPD, 2013; for more on SHRM, see Lim et al., 2017; Jacobson & Sowa, 2015). For simplicity, in this text we use the single term *human resource management (HRM)* to refer to the relevant technical, managerial, and strategic issues. Exhibit 1.4 compares the traditional system and assumptions with the newer, competing system and assumptions.

Exhibit 1.4 Shifting From a Traditional Public Sector System to a System for the 21st Century

Traditional Public Sector System	Public Service for the 21st Century
Single system in theory; in reality, multiple systems not developed strategically	Recognition of multiple systems, strategic approach to system development, definition and inclusion of core values
Definition of <i>merit</i> that had the outcome of protecting people and equated fairness with sameness	Definition of <i>merit</i> that has the outcome of encouraging better performance and allows differentiation between levels of talent
Emphasis on process and rules	Emphasis on performance and results
Hiring/promotion of talent based on technical expertise	Hiring, nurturing, and promotion of talent to the right places
Treatment of personnel as a cost	Treatment of human resources as an asset and an investment
Job for life/lifelong commitment	Inners and outsiders who share core values
Protection justifies tenure	Employee performance and employer need justify retention
Performance appraisal based on individual activities	Performance appraisal based on demonstrated individual contribution to organizational goals
Labor–management relationship based on conflicting goals, antagonistic relationship, and <i>ex post</i> disputes and arbitration on individual cases	Labor–management partnership based on mutual goals of successful organization and employee satisfaction, <i>ex ante</i> involvement in work design
Central agency that fulfilled the personnel function for agencies	Central agency that enables agencies, especially managers, to fulfill the personnel function for themselves

Source: Adapted from P. W. Ingraham, S. C. Selden, and D. P. Moynihan, “People and Performance: Challenges for the Future Public Service: The Report From the Wye River Conference,” *Public Administration Review*, 60(1), p. 58. © 2000 by John Wiley Sons, Inc. Reprinted by permission of John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

The term **civil service** refers to government employees in permanent public service, excluding legislative, judicial, or uniformed military; positions typically are filled based on competitive examinations, and a professional career public service exists with protection against political influence and patronage. While the overwhelming bulk of most managers' attention on personnel issues is related to civil servants, managers also often need to be familiar with non-civil servants because of contracting out, the use of consultants, and so on.

The next section provides some background on the challenges that all managers face in responding to the need to establish and retain a high-quality workforce.

THE STRUCTURE AND ROLE OF HUMAN RESOURCE DEPARTMENTS

Even though the focus of this book is HRM for nonspecialists, it is helpful to have a little background on the array of institutional structures, functions, and placements of HR departments. These departments are key staff units in all but the smallest jurisdictions, along with departments of budget, finance, facilities, legal affairs, communications, public relations, and so forth. HR offices combine both rule promulgation and rule implementation for some of the most important and visible policies in their organizations. That is, most of the personnel-related actions occurring in an organization follow rules codified under the HR department, frequently requiring its preapproval and often requiring its post-approval sign-off.

When HR departments provide direct services, which they frequently do, they have supportive and educative roles. When most HR services are provided by a single department, HR is considered *centralized*. An example might be a single HR department for a small city in which HR does most interviewing except for the most senior jobs.

When many HR services and responsibilities are shared with managers, as is common today, a *devolved model of HR* is in place. There might be a single HR department for an entire city, for instance, but it is the managers who carry out most recruitment, selection, and promotion functions, albeit with guidelines and monitoring by the HR department.

Larger organizations or governmental systems frequently have *decentralized* modes of HR in which a central HRM agency sets policies, and freestanding agencies (or large divisions) have specialized HR departments or units. To illustrate, the federal government moved to a decentralized model in 1978, with functional responsibilities going to different line agencies. Another example would be a large state agency that has a small HR unit in every division. Under such circumstances, HR may be both decentralized and devolved.

On occasion, agencies will have multiple *specialized HR units* responding to the differing needs of employee groups, such as faculty and staff who are handled separately by a department in academic affairs (for hiring and promotion) and the traditional HR department (for all functions except faculty hiring and promotion).

Still another possibility is an *outsourced HR model*, which sometimes occurs with service functions such as payroll, training and development, employee assistance programs,

and classification studies, to name some of the more prominent areas. These five alternatives are illustrated in Exhibit 1.5.

The various functions discussed in this book may or may not be part of an HR department per se. For example, some jurisdictions still have separate civil service commissions for hiring purposes, labor relations may be conducted exclusively out of the executive office, training and development may be its own department, payroll may be a part of the finance department, and a variety of organizational policy areas (such as telework programs) may operate under a separate office or authority. See Exhibit 1.6 for an array of places where the functions may be shared or housed. No matter the exact structure and particular set of roles, however, HR functions are the backbone of any organization. Nowhere is this truer than in the public sector, in which personnel often account for 80% of the budget and in which legal and fiduciary obligations to the law and public are extraordinary.

Today, HR services are provided in a variety of ways. Some functions are performed in the same way they were in the 1960s, relying on traditional subfunctions of employment, compensation, and training; others might be organized differently, with a cross-functional HR professional assigned to provide ongoing services to a team or group in a matrix organization. Recently a shared-services model—whereby HR specialists offer services to the organization on an as-required basis, with charges going to the functional area receiving service—has increased in prominence. Here, the HR department functions as an in-house consulting service. As noted, some or all HR functions are currently being outsourced, either to shared service centers within government or to outside contractors, where it is deemed that others might perform these functions more effectively and economically.

The most common placement of HR departments is right under the chief executive officer (CEO), with the HR director serving in the executive’s cabinet. In large organizations, it is not uncommon for HR to be combined with other staff units under an

Exhibit 1.5 Placement of Human Resource Specialists in Medium-Sized and Large Organizations: Five Common Models

Centralized HR Department	Devolved HR Model	Decentralized HR Model	Specialized HR Departments	Outsourced HR
All HR experts are in a centralized unit, and HR handles most HR functions, including the hiring of line employees.	A central HR unit does most policy work, but most functional responsibilities are accomplished by line managers and operational units.	The centralized HR department is smaller and more policy-oriented; it oversees smaller HR units in different areas of the system.	There is a core HR department, but it is accompanied by specialist HR units for hiring and promotions, such as a unit of academic personnel in universities for faculty.	There is a small centralized HR unit, but many functions are privatized, such as payroll and training.

Exhibit 1.6 Sharing of Common Human Resource Management Functions

Common Functions in HR Departments	Function Generally Shared With	Function Sometimes Shared With	Function Sometimes a Separate Unit Under
Employment law	The organization's counsel (lawyer)	Executive oversight officers	
Recruiting	Line managers		Civil service commission
Selection of employees	Line managers		Civil service commission
Position management	Line managers		
Creation of a positive work environment	Line managers		
Compensation	Line managers, separate payroll office		
Benefits		Line managers	
Training and development	Line managers	Units providing in-depth technical training	Sometimes freestanding departments in large organizations
Appraisal	Line managers		
Labor relations	Executive team (bargaining), line managers (grievances)		Frequently a freestanding unit under the CEO when there are numerous bargaining units

executive director of some sort (e.g., an assistant city manager or deputy mayor). In the smallest agencies, the CEO or an executive officer often doubles as the HR director. The strategic and executive leadership roles of HR departments vary extensively. In some cases, the department plays a relatively dominant role because of the need for workforce planning, avoidance of litigation, contentious labor relations, and management consultation. Yet, in some organizations, HR's strategic policy and planning roles have been absorbed by chief executive offices, budget offices, or legal departments, leaving a more service and consultative role for HR along with frontline enforcement functions.

HISTORICAL AND INSTITUTIONAL CONTEXT

Tides of Reform

A useful framework for considering the history of government reform efforts was provided by Paul Light in his 1997 book *The Tides of Reform*. Light identified four reform

philosophies, each of which has its own goals, implementation efforts, and outcomes: scientific management, the war on waste, the watchful eye, and liberation management. Although Light's analysis focuses on these four **tides of reform** as they influence the overall performance of government, we use his framework here to highlight the implications of these four philosophies for HRM, with both federal and local examples.

Scientific Management

The first tide is **scientific management**. Here the focus is on hierarchy, microdivision of labor, specialization, and well-defined chains of command. This philosophy, usually associated with Frederick Taylor, is particularly manifest in the bureaucratic organizational form, with its emphasis on structure, rules, and the search for "the one best way." Technical experts in this environment apply the *scientific* principles of administration (e.g., unity of command and **POSDCORB**—planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting, and budgeting).

The scientific management approach is evident in the recommendations made by two presidential commissions: the Brownlow Committee (1936–1937), which advocated changing the administrative management and government structure to improve efficiency; and the first Hoover Commission (1947–1949), which suggested reorganizing agencies around an integrated purpose and eliminating overlapping services. Herbert Hoover is the patron saint of scientific management, and the National Academy of Public Administration's Standing Panel on Executive Organization is a patron organization. Two important reorganizations that occurred in the federal executive branch—one in 1939, the Reorganization Act (establishing the Executive Office of the President), and the other in 2002, the creation of the DHS—are both examples of legislative action. Additional examples include legislation rationalizing centralized control and planning, such as the consolidation of financial controls in federal agencies in 1990 and the requirements for increased use of performance management and strategic planning under the Government Performance and Results Modernization Act of 2010.

Scientific management has implications for human resources. It emphasizes conformity and predictability of employees' contributions to the organization (machine model), and it sees human relationships as subject to management's control. Current emphasis on productivity measurement, financial incentives, and efficiency reflects the continuing influence of scientific management. The scientific management of unity of HR command was strengthened by the Chief Human Capital Officers Act of 2002. Much of the foundational structure of government, covered in Title 5 of the U.S. Code, rests on principles of hierarchy, chain of command, consistency, and standardization.

Although, at one time, scientific management principles overwhelmingly dominated government philosophy, some hallmarks of scientific management, such as job design (characterized by standard procedures, narrow span of control, and specific job descriptions instituted to improve efficiency), may actually impede achievement of quality performance in today's organizations, where customization, innovation, autonomous work teams, and empowerment are required. Similarly, various HR actions mirroring scientific management differ from avant-garde practices. For example, training is changing from a nearly exclusive emphasis on functional, technical, job-related competencies

to a broader range of skills, cross-functional training, and diagnostic, problem-solving capabilities. Performance measurement and evaluation have been shifting from individual goals and supervisory review to team goals and multiple reviewers (citizen, peer, supervisory). In addition to individually based merit increases, some organizations now include team- or group-based rewards—both financial and nonfinancial.

The War on Waste

The second reform tide is the **war on waste**, which emphasizes economy. Auditors, investigators, and inspectors generally are used to pursue this goal. Congressional hearings on welfare fraud are a defining moment in this tide, and the Inspector General Act of 1978 is defining legislation. The 1992 Federal Housing Enterprises Financial Safety and Soundness Act, with its provisions to fight internal corruption, is an expression of the war on waste. The patron saints of the war on waste are W. R. Grace, who headed President Reagan's task force (1982–1984) to determine how government could be operated for less; Jack Anderson, the crusading journalist who put a spotlight on government boondoggles; and former U.S. senator William Proxmire, who originated the Golden Fleece Award to bring attention to “wasteful, ridiculous or ironic use of the taxpayers' money.”

The implications of the war on waste for HRM are plentiful. Frequently audits, scandals, critical reports, and whistleblowing point out gaps in rules and lax implementation of rules; such revelations often bring needed attention and/or corrective actions. Recent cases of the war on waste include the abolition of the ineffective Minerals Management Service, the federal unit that had been rebuked even before the 2010 *Deepwater Horizon* oil rig disaster in the Gulf of Mexico, which it oversaw; and the scandal in Bell, California, in which numerous city officials were found to be in collusion to defraud taxpayers by means of outlandish salaries, resulting in litigation and new transparency laws.

Of course, preoccupation with waste also leads to increases in internal controls, oversight and regulations, managerial directives, tight supervision, and concerns about accountability. Thus, it can result in a proliferation of detailed rules, processes, procedures, and multiple reviews that are characteristic of government bureaucracy and that influence personnel management. Critics who detect waste and attribute it to maladministration of public resources or unneeded spending may focus on the deficiencies of employees. Fearful workers seek cover from criticism when they do things strictly by the book. Managers concerned with controlling waste try to minimize idle time, avoid bottlenecks, install time clocks, audit travel vouchers and phone records, inventory office supplies, and monitor attendance and punctuality. Use of temporary rather than permanent staff and service privatization may be ways to contain costs while maintaining performance standards. Clearly, contemporary HR practices are linked to the heritage of the war on waste, leading to both heightened rigor and no small amount of administrative red tape.

The Watchful Eye

The third tide of reform, the **watchful eye**, emphasizes fairness through openness, transparency, and access. Whistleblowers, the news media, interest groups, and the public need access to information to ensure that the public's rights and the common interest,

as well as individual rights, are protected. Congress and the courts become the institutional champions seeking to ensure fairness.

The need for the watchful eye and government that is more open became apparent after the abuses exposed in the Watergate scandal (with the Woodward and Bernstein *Washington Post* investigation) and the U.S. involvement in Vietnam (with the publication of the Pentagon Papers). Although highly controversial, the 2013 leak of thousands of classified documents by Edward Snowden, a former systems administrator for the Central Intelligence Agency and contractor for the National Security Agency, followed this tradition. Another example is the scandal that arose in 2014 concerning the Veterans Administration's falsified waiting list; in this case, employees had been receiving bonuses for meeting the goal of providing medical appointments to veterans within 2 weeks, while thousands of veterans were actually waiting for months (Molina, 2018; Oppel, 2014).

The 1946 Administrative Procedure Act and the **Ethics Reform Act of 1989** are examples of defining legislation. The former is important because it established procedural standards regarding how government agencies must pass rules with public notice, input, and statements of factual basis for decisions. Specific provisions of the latter are efforts to curb lobbying influence and promote ethics in government. John Gardner and Common Cause and Ralph Nader and Public Citizen provide examples of patron saints and organizations linked to the watchful eye.

The implications of this philosophy for HRM can be identified as well in the 20th-century legislation related to how hiring, promotion, labor relations, and a host of other activities are conducted. Concern about the fairness of hiring processes leads to requirements for public announcements of jobs as well as for the job-related competence of new recruits (e.g., Chapter 33 of U.S. Title 5). Reforms (e.g., U.S. Title 42) have made the use of hiring criteria based on sex, race, age, and disability status illegal. Due-process requirements exist to minimize arbitrary decisions to terminate employees.

Creating an organizational culture of openness, careful record keeping, and compliance with full-disclosure and sunshine requirements are all consistent with the watchful eye philosophy. Adoptions of minimum standards of conduct or codes of ethics, along with ethics training, are other examples. Union stewards are likely to cast their watchful eyes on negotiated contracts and to blow the whistle when violations occur (such whistleblowing is protected under U.S. Title 29). The Me Too movement (or #MeToo), with public revelations of sexual harassment and assault, is another example of this reform tide. Managers should seek congruence between the standards espoused by the organization and the behavior of workers.

Calls for integrity at all levels of government reflect the contemporary influence of the watchful eye mentality. Of course, increased reporting and consultation do absorb resources and are a drag on businesslike efficiency and executive decisiveness. Perceived excesses of the war on waste and the watchful eye may lead to calls for a reform tide that *liberates* management, as discussed next.

Liberation Management

The final tide of reform is **liberation management**. Its goal is higher performance in government. "Evaluations," "outcomes," and "results" are buzzwords associated with this

tide. Achieving high-performance goals falls to frontline employees, teams, and evaluators. At the national level, the impetus for liberation management is generally the president. The most visible participant, however, was Vice President Al Gore, who promoted various National Performance Review initiatives during his time in office. The 1993 Government Performance and Results Act is a defining statute and expression of this philosophy. Al Gore and Richard Nixon (because of his interest in reorganization) are identified as patron saints of this tide; the Alliance for Redesigning Government is the patron organization.

Liberation management has implications for the management of people in government. Public administration trends toward employee empowerment, reengineering, work teams, continuous improvement, customer service, flattened hierarchies, and self-directed employees reflect a breakdown of the tall hierarchical bureaucracies in many settings and a move toward organizational liberation. Belief in harmonious relations between labor and management increases the prospects for productive partnerships. Decentralization of personnel management expands the authority and discretion of line agencies and gives managers freedom to achieve provable results.

Before implementing these strategies, it is necessary for managers to determine the readiness of employees and units to assume new responsibilities, forge new relationships, and increase outputs. Line administrators can facilitate this state of readiness by identifying likely candidates for training and development and by tailoring incentives to the particular motivational needs of individual employees.

Liberation management is sometimes at odds with the war on waste, which advocates high levels of bureaucratic controls, and the watchful eye, which is suspicious of the discretion of civil servants in general. Although the public sector will certainly not banish bureaucracy, greater flexibility is evident at all levels of government and is likely to increase in the future.

Tide Philosophies in Legislation

Two landmark pieces of legislation affecting federal HRM can be assessed using Light's framework: the **Pendleton Act of 1883**, which introduced the merit system to the federal government, and the **Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 (CSRA)**, which refined the merit system and modified the institutions by which it operates. As Light (1997) noted, the Pendleton Act was "a signal moment in the march of scientific management, but it also involved a war on waste, a bit of watchful eye, and an ultimate hope for liberation management" (p. 18). Light observed that the CSRA manifests each of the four tides:

[A] Senior Executive Service (SES) to strengthen the presidential chain of command (scientific management), a cap on total federal employment to save money (war on waste), whistleblower protection to assure truth telling from the inside (watchful eye), and pay for performance to reward employees for doing something more than just show up for work (liberation management). (1997, p. 71)

Understanding the tides of reform helps us appreciate the public service heritage, because the tides highlight recurring themes that characterize such changes (Exhibit 1.7).

Paradoxes are also apparent: Two of the reform tides—the war on waste and the watchful eye—are based on mistrust and cynicism regarding government; the two other tides—scientific management and liberation management—reflect trust and confidence in government. The paradox is that reform reflects both trust and distrust in government, and it may cause both as well. As the Pendleton Act and the CSRA demonstrate, however, these

Exhibit 1.7 The Tides of Reform

	Scientific Management	The War on Waste	The Watchful Eye	Liberation Management
Goal	Efficiency	Economy	Fairness	Higher performance
Key input(s)	Principles of administration	Generally accepted practices	Rights	Standards, evaluations
Key products	Structure, rules	Findings (audits, investigations)	Information, legal protections	Outcomes, results
Key participants	Experts	Inspectors general, the media	Whistleblowers, interest groups, the news media, the public, employees	Frontline employees, teams, evaluators
Institutional champion(s)	The presidency	Congressional committees	Congress and the courts	The presidency
Defining moment(s)	Brownlow Committee, first Hoover Commission	Welfare fraud hearings	Vietnam, Watergate	Gore National Performance Review
Defining statutes	1939 Reorganization Act; 1990 Financial Officers Act; 2002 Homeland Security Act	1978 Inspector General Act; 1992 Federal Housing Enterprises Financial Safety and Soundness Act	1946 Administrative Procedure Act; 1989 Ethics Reform Act	1993 Government Performance and Results Act
Patron saint(s)	Herbert Hoover	W. R. Grace, Jack Anderson	John Gardner, Ralph Nader	Richard Nixon, Al Gore
Patron organization(s)	National Academy of Public Administration (Standing Panel on Executive Organization)	Citizens Against Government Waste	Common Cause, Public Citizen	Alliance for Redesigning Government

HRM examples	Principles of hierarchy, chain of command, consistency, and standardization; productivity measurement and efficiency measures	Processes to minimize idle time, install time clocks, audit travel vouchers and phone records, inventory office supplies, and monitor attendance and punctuality	Extensive legislation related to how hiring, promotion, labor relations, and a host of other activities are conducted; promotion of transparency and sunshine requirements	Focus on employee empowerment, reengineering, teams, continuous improvement, customer service, flattened hierarchies, and self-directed employees; more emphasis on results than on processes
---------------------	---	--	--	---

Source: Adapted from P. C. Light, *The Tides of Reform: Making Government Work, 1945–1995* (Yale University Press), pp. 21, 26, 32, and 37. © Copyright 1997 by Yale University Press.

conflicting impulses are embedded in these more comprehensive landmark laws dealing with HRM (and many other statutes as well). Less comprehensive reforms may involve only one or two of the tides of reform.

Institutional structures and procedures are important, because managers must operate through them to achieve their objectives. These institutional arrangements have evolved over time, and understanding their purposes, functions, and limitations helps managers think strategically about the threats and opportunities in their HR environments and how to cope with them. Next, we examine the goals and characteristics of these institutions.

Institutional Context

As noted above, the Pendleton Act of 1883 and the CSRA of 1978 established the institutional framework for federal HRM. The Pendleton Act created the bipartisan Civil Service Commission as a buffer against partisan pressures from the executive and legislative branches. It also served as a model for use by reformers seeking change in subnational governments. The merit system was established as a result of this act (the contemporary version of merit-system principles is discussed more fully later in this chapter), but its coverage was initially limited to one in 10 federal workers. Competitive practical exams were introduced, and a neutral (nonpartisan), competent, career civil service with legally mandated tenure was expected to carry out the business of government. Entry into the civil service was permitted at any level of the hierarchy, unlike systems where new recruits were required to start at the entry level and work their way up.

The reform movement that led to the Pendleton Act was clear about what it was against but less clear about what it favored. This has led some observers to describe the reformers' efforts as essentially negative. They wanted to get rid of the **spoils system** (appointments based on political favor) and the evils (graft, corruption, waste, incompetence) associated with it. Separating politics from administration was key to

accomplishing this objective. Using moralistic arguments, reformers campaigned against what was “bad” in the civil service (politics and spoils) and, to a lesser extent, promoted “good” government (e.g., appointments based on merit) and improved efficiency. (See Chapter 4 for further discussion of this topic.)

Although 95 years of experience with the Pendleton Act’s institutional arrangements showed mixed results, by the mid-to-late 1970s it was clear that the existing federal personnel system aimed at efficiency was, paradoxically, often inefficient. Among the problems were entrenched civil servants hindering executive initiatives, difficulty in removing incompetent employees, ease of circumventing merit-system requirements, managerial frustration at cumbersome rules and red tape, and conflict in the roles of the Civil Service Commission. President Jimmy Carter proposed reforms to address these problems.

The CSRA of 1978 was built on the Pendleton Act and altered the institutional arrangement for federal personnel management. In place of the Civil Service Commission, two new institutions were created: the **U.S. Office of Personnel Management (OPM)** and the **U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board (MSPB)**. The OPM is charged with the *doing* side of HRM—coordinating the federal government’s personnel program. The director is appointed or removed by the president and functions as the president’s principal adviser on personnel matters. The MSPB is the adjudicatory side, hearing employees’ appeals and investigating reported merit-system violations.

Two other important provisions in the CSRA were the creation of the **Federal Labor Relations Authority (FLRA)** and the establishment of the **Senior Executive Service (SES)**. The FLRA functions as the federal sector counterpart to the private sector’s National Labor Relations Board. It is charged with overseeing, investigating, announcing, and enforcing rules pertaining to labor–management relations. The SES comprises top-level administrators—mostly career civil servants and a lesser number of political appointees. It sought (but failed) to establish a European-style professional administrative class of senior executives who may be assigned or reassigned based on performance and ability.

State and local jurisdictions have varied institutional arrangements, but in many cases these governments have patterned their structures after those at the federal level. In some instances, state and local governments have provided models for federal HRM reforms. Parallelism between federal and subnational governments is seen in the existence of civil service commissions, guardian appeals boards protecting the merit system, executive personnel systems, and employee relations boards, among other features. **Civil service reform** encompasses the efforts undertaken by groups or individuals to alter the nature of government service. The CSRA and its state and local counterparts have been the subject of recent criticism from those who wish to reform policies and practices. The next section briefly addresses reformer actions and proposals since 1992.

REFORMING GOVERNMENT IN THE CLINTON, BUSH, OBAMA, AND TRUMP YEARS

At the Federal Level

Administrative change has been a recurring item on the public agenda for the past 25 years. Spurred by David Osborne and Ted Gaebler’s 1992 book *Reinventing Government*,

reforms at the federal level started in 1993 with the Clinton administration's National Performance Review (NPR; later renamed **National Partnership for Reinventing Government**). The goal was to achieve government that “works better, costs less, and gets results Americans care about” (Kamensky, 1999). The key focus of reinvention and NPR was to achieve government that would be catalytic, empowering, enterprising, competitive, mission- and customer-driven, anticipatory, results-oriented, decentralized, and market-oriented. This very large reform movement was clearly liberation management-oriented in thrust, but it also contained smaller elements of scientific management (i.e., reorganizing for greater efficiency), the war on waste (i.e., cutting the federal workforce substantially), and the watchful eye (i.e., providing enormous publicity around the change process).

Reformers identified the link between performance improvement and the personnel system. In general, they detected flaws in the system rather than in individual civil servants, and they harshly criticized the counterproductive civil service system, which they viewed as beyond redemption. Bilmes and Neal (2003) summarized the problems facing civil service systems as

problems with hiring, firing, promotion, organizational structure, lack of lateral opportunities, insufficient training, poor compensation, limited awards and recognition, few fringe benefits, lack of career development, legalistic dispute resolution, inflexibility, poor performance measurement and evaluation, use of contractors for mission-critical activities, irrelevance of the strategic planning process, antiquated information technology, and unhealthy, unsanitary office facilities—to name but a few. (pp. 115–116)

Academics and professional groups proposed administrative changes in response to such problems (see, e.g., Donahue & Nye, 2003; NAPA, 2017). Some of these reform proposals echoed past calls for government-wide reorganization, such as the report of the 1989 National Commission on the Public Service, also known as the Volcker Commission, and anticipated more recent reform recommendations as well, such as those of the 2003 Volcker Commission. The earlier report identified the so-called quiet crisis facing civil service and recommended several familiar changes, including increased salaries, performance-based pay, simplified hiring, fewer political appointees, and improved training. The latter report followed characterizations of the federal civil service as a system at risk (Blunt, 2002; Lane et al., 2003). Indeed, in 2001, U.S. Comptroller General David Walker elevated human capital to the U.S. Government Accountability Office's list of *high-risk government operations* (a designation recently renewed), stating that agencies are vulnerable to mission failure when they lack a focus on human capital development. This theme was echoed in the 2017 report by the National Academy of Public Administration asserting that “the federal government's human capital system is fundamentally broken” (p. 1) and in 2018 by the Trump administration's government reform and reorganization plan to address a service-delivery system that is “inefficient and out of date” (White House, 2018, p. 4).

A retrospective on civil service reform over the years argues that the 1990s revealed the disaggregation of the federal civil service. This little-noticed phenomenon resulted in slightly fewer than half of all executive-branch employees becoming part of the excepted

service, thereby relinquishing many traditional civil service protections. In the quest for increased managerial flexibility, the Clinton administration pursued a three-pronged strategy: (1) authorizing personnel demonstration projects, (2) creating *performance-based organizations*, and (3) constructing modified personnel systems for malfunctioning agencies (J. Thompson, 2001, p. 91).

The George W. Bush administration (2001–2009) had its own management reform agenda for addressing management dysfunctions. Five key areas were highlighted: human capital, competitive sourcing, financial performance, e-government, and budget–performance integration. The first two areas are most relevant to HRM. The administration’s initiatives focused on people-related problems, giving greatest attention to the need for organizational restructuring, performance measurement, performance-based pay, hiring and development plans to fill key skill gaps, competitive sourcing, and information technology.

For example, the 2001 Freedom to Manage Initiative and Managerial Flexibility Act sought to “eliminate legal barriers to effective management,” just as Clinton’s NPR reinvention reforms sought to move “from red tape to results.” The Federal Activities Inventory Reform Act required agencies to assess the susceptibility to competition of the activities performed by their workforces in anticipation of placing federal workers in competition with the private sector. In the words of one analyst, such reforms “contain the excesses of Madisonian protection” and “promote the opportunity for Hamiltonian performance” (Behn, 2003, p. 199).

The Bush administration stressed the need to manage human capital strategically by obtaining the talent to get the job done, seeking continuity of competent leadership, and creating a results-oriented performance culture (U.S. OMB, 2014). To monitor implementation of the agenda, the administration developed a simple grading system—red, yellow, or green. Key federal agencies were assessed regarding their achievement of the standards for success.

Some of the proposed and adopted policies were particularly contentious, including the increased flexibility of personnel policies in the DHS and the DOD, the overhaul of pay for the SES, performance-based contracting, modification of the number of political appointees, the withdrawal of collective bargaining rights for selected groups of public employees, the weakening of the merit system, and the requirement for competitive sourcing (Bowman & West, 2007; Kauffman, 2003; Phinney, 2003; J. Thompson, 2007). The reforms in the DHS and DOD were justified at the time by national security arguments and claims that increasing managerial power and flexibility were necessary to deal with the threat of terrorist attacks (Brook & King, 2008).

While current reform trends in the United States involve weakening formal civil service protections in order to enhance managerial control of the bureaucracy, reformers in some parts of the world, such as developing countries and former communist states, are seeking to strengthen protections to insulate the civil service from political manipulation (see Exhibit 1.8).

The HRM changes of the Obama administration focused on a more rapid hiring process; the Work-Life initiative, which includes job satisfaction and wellness programs; and the Results-Only-Work-Environment (ROWE) initiative (Berry, 2009; see also Exhibit 7.2 for more on ROWE). Recruitment and selection reforms included process

Exhibit 1.8 The Evolution of Civil Service Systems as They Balance Demands and Needs

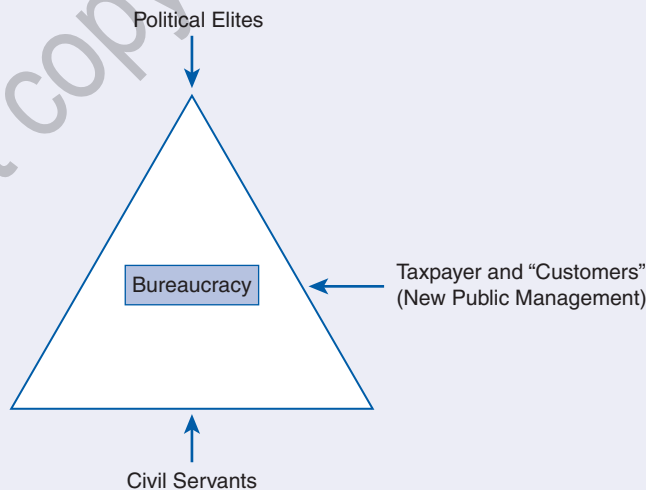
Civil service systems have at least three major constituents that they are trying to please. First among these are the *political masters* of the systems, whose primary interest is responsiveness. At a minimum, political masters want responsiveness to the laws that they pass, no matter whether those laws are regarding authorities, expenditures, or reporting requirements. Political executives (e.g., governors and presidents) would like to influence the selection of administrative leaders, and legislators would like to have a say through a confirmation process. Political masters would also like to select rank-and-file public employees, but this practice is highly limited in advanced democracies because it is so prone to corruption and inefficiency.

The first step in moving from a relatively primitive administrative system to one that has a reservoir of expertise and continuity is generally to set up hiring and position management systems that elicit and maintain the neutral competence of the sophisticated and complex

operations of government. Such systems keep political masters at arm's length from rank-and-file employees. Today, many developing countries and former communist states are grappling with this first phase of anticorruption reform.

The second constituency that a civil service system must please consists of the bureaucracy and *civil servants* themselves, whose primary interest is professionalism. At a minimum, they want to ensure that they are recruited fairly (i.e., based on their technical merits), that their agencies' actions are consistent with widely held professional standards, and that they will be able to use their professional judgment within the confines of legal parameters without political intrusiveness. This dovetails well with the need to keep political elites away from the day-to-day management of personnel or detailed policy implementation. However, over time, problems can seep into civil service systems. Bureaucrats can become too comfortable and secure, resulting in outmoded or poor

Sources of Competing Demands and Values in Reform



(Continued)

(Continued)

performance. For example, political elites can set up so many safeguards for performance that the transaction costs of compliance become very high and experimentation is discouraged. Most advanced democracies have been dealing with these issues since the late 1970s. One response is modernization—that is, to update systems technologically, to rationalize and streamline overlapping or outdated legislation, and to require new performance standards. Modernization has been much promoted in continental Europe.

The third constituency to be pleased comprises those being served: *taxpayers and “customers,”* whose primary interests are efficiency and service. Taxpayers want the lowest cost for the

most service, which is to say good value. Customers generally want the best service possible no matter the cost, since they rarely pay directly or their fees are subsidized. In traditional administrative systems, few opportunities for meaningful attention to complaints exist; generally political or judicial remedies are required, and this sets a high bar for complainants. However, other ways to control for efficiency include setting up competition (e.g., contracting out services) and improving service by implementing rigorous customer responsiveness measures. This perspective is representative of **New Public Management (NPM)**. NPM has been the preferred reform approach of most of the Anglo world and Scandinavia.

Source: Van Wart et al. (2015).

mapping with streamlined, plain-language job announcements, involvement of management in the hiring process, and timely applicant notification. The OPM facilitated the sharing of best practices across agencies and holds training academies to disseminate information on successful hiring strategies. Metrics are used to evaluate managers' involvement and satisfaction with the process (Moore, 2014).

In seeking to improve employee satisfaction and promote wellness, the OPM instructs managers to review the Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey (formerly the Federal Human Capital Survey) to identify items and indexes on which their units scored lowest in comparison to the rest of the government and to isolate items and indexes on which employee satisfaction declined in their units since the prior survey. The administrators are then charged with determining the reasons for workers' dissatisfaction and working with labor organizations (where appropriate) on strategies to increase workers' satisfaction. Managers must create action plans that specify improvement targets. Regarding wellness, managers are expected to inventory current wellness activities (e.g., fitness facilities and health clinics) and to develop agency performance metrics for assessing wellness, as well as to collect cost and utilization data. Health and wellness improvement targets and plans are submitted to the OPM with annual budget requests.

To address breakdowns in the current civil service system, the National Academy of Public Administration's report *Building a Public Service for the 21st Century* recommends reforms built upon a three-legged stool that gives agencies the flexibility to create systems to meet the needs of their missions; upholds core merit principles; and creates a “governance and accountability structure” to balance the two (NAPA, 2017, p. 39). In 2018, the Trump administration focused on the dysfunctions of the human capital system with a host of reform initiatives, including curbs on federal union activity, “quick hire” authorization for hard-to-recruit skilled workers, substantial retirement cuts, a

faster disciplinary process, and a time-limited pay freeze (Light, 2019). Like the NAPA proposals, the broader Trump plan supports evidence-based policies to strengthen the quality of information used by federal agencies, the need to move from paper record keeping to digitization and performance metrics, emphasis on cybersecurity issues, promotion of public-private partnerships, and greater involvement of modern technology to improve the customer experience. The President's Management Agenda included a reorganization plan that harkens back to scientific management and war-on-waste themes of efficiency and economy in recommendations to merge the Departments of Labor and Education, privatize the Postal Service, and reorganize the OPM.

The Trump proposal to reorganize the OPM and a series of executive orders received mixed reactions from stakeholders. Supporters of reforming the OPM saw it as a way to elevate the federal workforce policy functions by putting the agency on a par with the Office of Management and Budget (OMB) within the Executive Office of the President to improve operational efficiency, achieve economies of scale and reduce costs, and focus on the strategic elements of the agency's mission. Opponents viewed the reorganization of the OPM as a threat to its independence and oversight functions, a move that could potentially politicize the agency and vitiate employment protections for federal workers, an effort to eliminate essential programs and public service jobs, and a proposal that should require bipartisan agreement and consultation with all those with interests at stake.

Portions of the administration's broader reorganization plan may not have received as much pushback if they had not surfaced on the heels of Trump's multiple executive orders making it easier to fire federal employees faster, excluding dismissal disputes from grievance procedures, weakening unions and due process, and curtailing official time for union leaders paid by the government to represent all employees in the bargaining unit (see more on the executive orders in Chapter 11). At the time of this writing, the Trump proposals are exactly that; Congress blocked the reorganization plan from moving forward in 2019 when it failed to get required legislative approval (see Balutis, 2018; Bernstein, 2018; Bur, 2018; Clark, 2018; Davidson, 2018; Katz, 2018, 2020a; Neal, 2018a, 2018b; Risher, 2018; Shoop, 2018; Smith, 2018; and White House, 2018, for description and commentary regarding the reorganization plan).

Trump's fiscal 2021 budget included estimates for each agency's workforce for the fiscal year, specifically cutting 34,000 employees (many of them temporary workers from the Census Bureau following its decennial count) but also adding staff to most cabinet-level agencies. Among the other proposed changes were funding for pilot programs in the OPM and the OMB that task agencies with involving subject-matter specialists in the hiring and candidate interview process. Other proposed reforms mentioned hiring qualified nonprofit workers, academics, and industry experts on a temporary basis to expand agency capacities; eliminating educational degree requirements for federal jobs unless absolutely necessary; and increasing training to address the skills gap among federal workers in areas like cybersecurity and data analysis (Katz, 2020).

One controversial reform in late 2020 was Executive Order 13957. This presidential executive order has been called "the most direct assault on the career civil service since the passage of the Pendleton Act [which outlawed the spoils system] in 1883" (Neal, 2020). It created a new "Schedule F" category of exempt positions for political appointees. Agencies were to identify personnel in policy-related positions "to be involuntarily

reclassified from jobs with constitutional and legislative due process safeguards to hiring and firing at-will employees.” As journalist Erich Wagner stressed, “these protections do not exist for the sake of civil servants themselves, but rather to ensure that government delivers services insulated from undue political influence” (Wagner, 2020b).

E.O. 13957 had the potential to affect tens of thousands, perhaps hundreds of thousands, of workers and undermine the professional, nonpartisan merit system (Bowman & West, 2021). In short, it sought to redefine the civil service as politically loyal to the presidency instead of faithful to the Constitution (Wagner, 2020a). As mentioned, civil service reform is needed; however, E.O. 13957 would further marginalize the career service (Kettl, 2020). On his first day in office, President Biden, who regards the career service as “the heart and soul of government” (e.g., Katz, 2020b), rescinded the order (also see the book’s Conclusion).

At the State and Local Levels

In 1993, the National Commission on the State and Local Public Service, commonly known as the Winter Commission, published a report (that remains relevant today) outlining an agenda targeting, among other institutions, civil service systems. The HR portion of this report diagnosed “civil service paralysis” as a problem and prescribed deregulation of government’s personnel system. Favoring a more flexible and less rule-bound system, the Winter Commission recommended the following:

- Greater decentralization of the merit system
- Reduced reliance on written tests
- Rejection of the rule of three and other requirements that severely restrict managerial discretion in selecting from a pool of eligible applicants
- Reduction of the weight given to seniority and veterans’ preference
- Reduction in the number of job classifications
- Implementation of less cumbersome procedures for removing employees from positions
- Greater portability of pensions, enabling government-to-government mobility
- Greater flexibility to provide financial incentives for exemplary performance by work teams

One notable success story at the state level that mirrors some Winter Commission ideas is Tennessee’s workforce management system. With the leadership of two-term Republican governor Bill Haslam, proposals were implemented, bringing positive results for both employees and Tennessee residents. At the beginning of Haslam’s first term in 2011, he faced an aging workforce (40% of state employees were eligible for

retirement in 5 years) that had not seen pay increases in 3 previous years. Over the remainder of Haslam's two terms, both salaries and leadership development programs increased each year, and by 2019 over 90% of state employees were committed to advancing agency missions and values (Risher, 2019). The state's former HR commissioner attributed this success to three factors: first, the initiative of Governor Haslam, who had considerable experience as a mayor (of Knoxville) and a business executive; second, the priority given to training and development to improve employees' competencies; and, third, the investment of resources to build human capital and address workforce problems (Risher, 2019).

The government's response to the COVID-19 pandemic dramatically highlights the need for such broad-scale organizational change (Risher, 2020). The Winter Commission recommendations and initiatives like those in Tennessee require increased investment in human capital and greater managerial flexibility. A new work-management paradigm could build on these foundations and on suggestions from the National Commission on the Public Service (1990, 2003) and parallel observations from the Clinton administration's National Performance Review, the Bush administration's Management Agenda, the National Academy of Public Administration's proposals, and the National Association of State Chief Administrators' report *Job One: Reimagine Today's State Government Workforce* (Katz, 2020a; Radin, 2012; Risher, 2020; F. Thompson, 1994; J. Thompson, 2007). The recommendations of these commissions continue to be crucial today, as they guide jurisdictions in shaping HRM policies.

Subnational reforms have included significant changes to the civil service system, generally reducing civil service protections. The first state to undertake such reforms was Georgia, which withdrew merit protection for all new state employees beginning in 1996; Arizona followed a similar pattern in 2012, making state employment primarily at-will. Florida's substantial reform in 2001 withdrew civil service protection from more than 16,000 managers, making them at-will employees who could be terminated for any or no reason not contrary to law (West & Bowman, 2004). Six other states (Massachusetts, Minnesota, New Jersey, Ohio, Oklahoma, and South Carolina) have also experienced notable reforms. Policy changes are most common in the areas of classification (reduction or increase in the number of job classifications, consolidation or broadbanding of classifications), compensation (pay for performance, noncash incentives, bonuses, and incentive-based pay), and performance evaluation (performance plans and standards). Managers' ability to successfully complete their tasks depends, in large measure, on their ability to attract, develop, motivate, and retain top-quality employees—the essential functions of HRM. Reform efforts are designed to help managers meet these responsibilities.

Since the beginning of the Great Recession in 2008, pension reform has been seen in most U.S. states (addressed in Chapter 8), and many (such as Wisconsin) have introduced reforms limiting labor unions' scope of influence (see Chapters 11 and 12).

The prognosis for reform efforts is more mixed than might be expected, given the emerging consensus that formed in the mid-to-late 2000s. Efforts to reform HRM have not been without their critics and skeptics (e.g., Bowman & West, 2007; Bowman et al., 2006;

Brewer & Kellough, 2016; Cogburn et al., 2010; Elling & Thompson, 2007; Hays & Sowa, 2007; Kearney & Hays, 1998; Kellough & Nigro, 2010). Following is a sampling of some of the shortcomings of reform efforts, according to critics:

- Public servants' role is undermined (e.g., by privatization and downsizing).
- Results fail to meet expectations (e.g., in the case of pay-for-performance).
- Too few people with the necessary skills (e.g., contract negotiating and auditing) are attracted to public service.
- Performance rewards (bonuses) are underfunded.
- Reduction of oversight of the public service (via decentralization, deregulation, and outsourcing) invites corruption.
- In-service training for continuous learning and planning is frequently inadequate.
- Pursuit of quick successes via downsizing too often takes precedence over improving performance.
- Ideas borrowed from the private sector and accepted blindly often create more problems than solutions.
- Empowerment initiatives frequently have uneven results.

Overall, civil service reform efforts have experienced a combination of success, failure, and something in between (Bowman, 2002; Bowman & West, 2007; Bowman et al., 2003; Brewer & Kellough, 2016; Cogburn et al., 2010; Condrey & Maranto, 2001; Jordan & Battaglio, 2014; Katz, 2020a; Kellough & Nigro, 2006; Perry et al., 1994; Pffiffer & Brook, 2000; Radin, 2012; Risher, 2019; Stein, 1994; Suleiman, 2003; U.S. OMB, 2014; West, 2002). One lesson is that when change advocates leave office, reform quickly loses salience as an issue.

The impetus to improve performance and reduce costs, as stated by goals of the Clinton, Bush, Obama, and Trump administrations and implied by objectives of the Winter Commission, will remain, even if the strategies for achieving such goals change. The COVID-19 pandemic promises to trigger new demands for reform, making it likely that various forms of experimentation with new approaches to HRM will continue. The reforms are part of the public service heritage and continue the ebb and flow of the various tides—scientific management, the war on waste, the watchful eye, and liberation management.

In the next section of this chapter, the discussion shifts from what is changing to what remains constant.

HUMAN RESOURCE MANAGEMENT PRINCIPLES

Administrators need to be mindful not only of the dynamic environment and the changes that occur in it, but also of overarching principles that endure in HRM. Four such principles, in particular, should be in the forefront of managerial thinking related

to HRM. (The following list is extensive but not entirely comprehensive of the types of values inherent in the public service today.) Note that the four categories are similar, but not identical, to the four tides of reform discussed earlier. These principles are further explored in subsequent chapters.

Understand the Values Inherent in the Career Public Service

Because the public's interests are many, there are many roles for public service. Stakeholders expect civil servants to do many different things (e.g., ensure effective government performance, implement controversial social policies, and respond to political imperatives). Often civil servants are called on to respond to conflicting pressures simultaneously, and managers need to provide leadership in reconciling competing demands (e.g., designing layoffs to balance the budget and simultaneously addressing other factors, such as adhering to the principle of seniority, complying with equal employment opportunity and affirmative action requirements, meeting performance standards, and ensuring organizational effectiveness). An overriding priority of the core of the civil service, however defined, has been and will continue to be an ethos that insulates it from political manipulation in staffing and encourages disclosure of wrongdoing or gross mismanagement.

Merit and merit-light systems dominate advanced democracies, and managers must internalize the rules or principles of these systems. Although increased flexibility in hiring and removal has become more common, even the more dramatic changes do not advocate the elimination of the values that undergird merit principles in general. **Merit systems** ensure the high-quality hiring processes, fairness, integrity, diligence, and competence that are so important for the long-term integrity of government. They do this by keeping politics at arm's length, thus providing a permanent workforce defined by **neutral competence** rather than by political loyalty (Bowman et al., 2010). Merit principles and values undergirding ethics in the public sector today are listed in Exhibit 1.9. Traditional merit systems have emphasized fairness by maximizing consistency with predetermined rules, due process, and pay standardization. **Merit-light systems** function in an orderly way on the basis of qualifications, performance, and competitive selection, but in comparison with full merit systems they allow more managerial discretion in the determination of recruitment, promotion, rewards, and punishments. Full merit systems tend to be somewhat prone to rigidity, whereas merit-light systems are vulnerable to political and managerial cronyism. (This principle is roughly similar to the values in scientific management.)

Foster Legal Compliance and Integrate Non-Civil Service Systems as Appropriate

Public employees, from elected officials to rank-and-file workers, agree that the public's interests must be foremost and the rule of law unquestioned. Ensuring compliance with the letter and spirit of the law must be a staunch value of public servants.

Increasingly accommodating the requirements of civil servants and non-civil servants is important. Civil servants have their specialized systems, relying heavily on merit

Exhibit 1.9 Principles and Values Undergirding Ethics in the Public Sector Today

Principle	Positive Public Sector Values
Understand the values inherent in the career civil service.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Recruit qualified employees, incorporating diversity. 2. Treat employees fairly and equally, respecting their privacy and constitutional rights. 3. Furnish equal pay (and benefits) commensurate with the market. 4. Expect employees to maintain high standards of integrity, conduct, and concern for the public interest. 5. Require efficiency and effectiveness. 6. Provide appropriate levels of supervision, performance, and discipline. 7. Offer appropriate levels of training. 8. Safeguard civil servants from political intrusion. 9. Safeguard employees who disclose unlawful action or gross mismanagement.
Foster legal compliance and integrate non-civil service systems as appropriate.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 10. Give deference to political leaders. 11. Work with and support non-civil servants in the private and nonprofit sectors to achieve efficiency and economy when they are working on behalf of the public good.
Understand that the public has rights beyond merit principles.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 12. Ensure transparency of public information. 13. Protect the privacy of citizens' personal information. 14. Supply citizens with easy, understandable access to public services. 15. Afford citizens as much voice in public affairs as possible. 16. Ensure citizens' due-process rights.
Provide leadership for public organizations.	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 17. Provide well-designed innovation in programs, technologies, and processes. 18. Foster risk-taking to promote innovation and required change, but make sure that it is minimized, reasonable, and authorized. 19. Provide vision and, to the degree possible, inspiration. 20. Strive not just for good performance, but for high performance. 21. Aim for reduced costs (but not at the expense of due process, transparency, access, etc.). 22. Encourage trust and high levels of public service motivation among employees. 23. Nourish professionalism that leads to the need for less supervision.

principles internally, but must also work with and integrate other types of non-civil service personnel systems. First and foremost, the civil service is a subordinate part of a larger democratic political system. The political system interprets *merit* largely through the ballot box and appointment for the highest-level policy positions (e.g., a governor and his or her department heads and the division directors under the department heads), rather than through organizational rationality, as is true of the civil service. Understanding and respecting the political system and the role of political masters is critical for managers and leaders in administrative systems.

Public services historically have been delivered largely by civil servants; however, the use of alternative mechanisms (e.g., purchase of service agreements, privatization, franchise agreements, subsidy arrangements, vouchers, volunteers, self-help, and regulatory and tax incentives) has increased. These arrangements affect managers by redefining relationships with service providers, altering control structures, and reshaping administrative roles (Klingner, 2009). Thus, managers have to work with the private and nonprofit sectors closely, understanding and appreciating their values and strengths, while ensuring that the interests of the public are maintained. This increased attention to reinvigorating the public sector has led to an adjustment in assumptions and working ideals. Managers need to assess the systems in their jurisdictions and adjust their leadership styles as appropriate. (This category is roughly equivalent to the war-on-waste reform tide.)

Understand That the Public Has Rights Beyond Merit Principles

Another distinguishing feature of HRM in the public sector is that governments' decisions are subject to intense public visibility and scrutiny. This influences how work is done, how resources are managed, how decisions are made, and how systems are developed. Unlike in the business sector, where decisions usually are made in private (because the Freedom of Information Act does not apply), in public administration decision making typically requires that citizens have access and input. Officials must remember that they are accountable to the populace, but they often face tension between their primary responsibility to all citizens and loyalty to their organizational superiors or their own consciences.

Related to accountability, the principle of transparency is fundamental to effective and ethical government. Open-meeting and open-records laws advance the ideal of government transparency and increase citizens' trust in policy implementation. Public servants should be as open as possible about all their decisions and actions, providing rationales for their decisions and restricting information only when sharing it would jeopardize the broader civic interest or compromise legitimate privacy rights. (This third category is roughly parallel to the watchful-eye tide.)

Provide Leadership for Public Organizations

Given the labor-intensive characteristics of public organizations, the effective and efficient use of human capital is of paramount importance (Bilmes & Neal, 2003).

Leadership from managers and HR professionals is a crucial ingredient for achieving the goals and advancing the public service mission of government. HR managers must partner with top management in guiding organizational change initiatives. Additionally, high-performing organizations invest in people and pursue best practices. Strategic use of human capital is crucial to organizations' success and includes the issues of innovation, appropriate risk-taking, change management, stretching for excellence, incorporating due process, maintaining employees' trust and motivation, and basic professionalism.

Also note that clear lapses in these values must be addressed in order for managers to be considered acting ethically (basic ethics responsibility and moral management are discussed in the next section). However, managers also walk a tightrope as they seek to balance the jurisdiction's basic values, the workers' needs, and the organization's financial resources. Just as important is deciding on the appropriate balance when these values conflict with each other (ethical sensitivity) as they commonly do (i.e., values competition). Finally, many ethical solutions can be crafted to address processes as well as incidents, to increase win-win outcomes, and to reduce reactive steps and increase proactive approaches (ethical wisdom). Refer to these principles and values when considering the ethical case studies in the chapters that follow. In general, good ethical analysis when there are competing values requires:

- (1) identification of all stakeholders,
- (2) listing of pros and cons of significant decisions—values clarification,
- (3) weighting of various issues and parties,
- (4) contemplation of alternatives, and
- (5) a statement supporting one's final decision.

Building on this brief review of overarching principles, we turn in the next section to look at providing a comprehensive framework for ethical conduct.

ETHICS AND MORAL MANAGEMENT

Clarifying values and balancing conflicting values must be accompanied by an emphasis on ethics. Ethics involves behavior that is concerned with doing the right thing or acting on the right values.

Here, too, managers have a difficult task: They must exercise discretion in addressing specific ethical issues. Ethical judgment is required of managers facing complex issues in which there are competing values, such as the following (Badaracco, 1997; Comer & Vega, 2011; Menzel, 2010):

- Responding to instructions to fire a public health nurse for refusing on religious grounds to distribute birth control (e.g., condoms or birth control pills) to unmarried individuals

- Honoring a request to refuse to consider female job applicants aged 30 or older
- Investigating a report by a third party that an employee was abusing legal substances (prescription drugs or alcohol) at work
- Reporting to coworkers who accidentally discovered information about pending layoffs
- Resolving a struggle between the benefits administration department and the medical department over the length of time an employee can be absent from work following a surgical procedure
- Disciplining an employee for going on a binge of purchasing activity at the end of the fiscal year
- Reprimanding those who shirk distasteful responsibilities or scapegoat others for their personal failures
- Reporting to supervisors' observations of loafing and loitering by employees
- Coping with pressure to reassign newly hired supervisors who are members of minority groups because they do not "appear to fit" the prevailing organizational culture
- Questioning the high pay levels and job security given to core staff when employees on the periphery are paid low wages and offered minimal job security

In dealing with issues of legality, ethics, and fairness such as those listed above, managers are indeed required to weigh competing pressures. They are often squeezed from above and below in resolving such matters. Officials are also expected to conform to the organization's stated values and ethics codes. At a minimum, they must communicate the organization's policies and codes to employees. Ideally, such policies or codes should be brief, be clear, and provide practical guidance to help managers and employees deal with problems. Typical provisions might include policies regarding conflict of interest, giving or receiving gifts, confidentiality, sexual harassment, political activity, equal employment opportunities, and moonlighting (Eskridge et al., 2012; Grobman, 2007; Svara, 2012; Van Wart, 2003). If policies or codes are adopted, they also need to be observed, so that there is no gap between expectations and behavior.

The strategies for ensuring integrity at work—**moral management**—might differ from setting to setting and from one subsystem to another, but ethics management is an important responsibility for administrators. The following are some of the approaches to ethics management addressed in the personnel literature (Bowman & West, 2020, 2021; Frederickson & Ghore, 2013; Menzel, 2017; Newell, 2015; Richter & Burke, 2007; Svara, 2015; West, 2016):

1. Modeling exemplary moral leadership to top officials
2. Adopting an organizational credo that promotes aspirational values
3. Developing and enforcing a code of ethics

4. Conducting an ethics audit
5. Using ethics as a criterion in hiring and promotion
6. Including ethics in employee and management training programs
7. Factoring ethics into performance appraisal
8. Anticipating and planning for ethical blind spots
9. Serving with honor
10. Reviewing and reflecting on the oath of office

As Newell (2016) pointed out: Public servants have a dual role, as program administrators and also as responsible citizens, both demanding service with ethics and honor. Not only must values be balanced, but also service with honor requires balancing this duality of sometimes compatible and at other times conflicting roles.

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

Managers need to be prepared for a variety of challenges and, as we pointed out at the beginning of the chapter, must make sure that “government has the right people, and the right systems, and ensure the right intentions” (Ehrenhalt, 1998, p. 11). Like Maria Hernandez in the opening section, officials must be able to juggle frenetic work schedules and ensure that personnel issues are not lost in the flurry of daily operations and current crises. Administrators must work with (or against) challenging trends such as managing a workforce with highly divergent generational values and expectations, recruiting and motivating a workforce in an antigovernment era, finding ways to innovate and reengineer to counter lean budgetary resources, working within significant personnel shortages, adapting to unexpected disruptions like COVID-19, and meeting ever-changing productivity demands. Of course, these constraints are not necessarily unique to government agencies and management in the public sector.

In terms of systems, we have reviewed the many ways that HRM can be organized. Some medium-sized agencies use a centralized model, some devolve responsibilities to HR personnel dispersed in various units, and some use the central HR agency for policy functions and decentralize operations, which is common in larger governmental systems. HR departments typically share responsibilities with line managers, but occasionally they share them with general counsel, payroll, the executive office or officers, specialized departments such as ones set up for training and development, and/or a civil service commission.

HR issues, like other aspects of government, change and evolve. Reforms can emphasize different values and concerns, such as efficiency, economy, fairness, and high performance. The recognition that many issues and the alternatives for addressing them are not new, but rather are recurring manifestations of problems and solutions from earlier historical periods, is fundamental. The waves or *tides* of reform—scientific management, the war on waste,

the watchful eye, and liberation management—can reflect different corrective emphases. Good managers are able to retain the best of the past and reform what has become dated or dysfunctional. As Franklin D. Roosevelt observed, “A government without good management is a house built on sand.”

Effective HR problem-solving also requires that managers combine appropriate HR principles with the right intentions. Defining core values and being guided by bedrock principles help administrators make the critical ethical judgments often needed in resolving nettlesome HR issues. Those principles include understanding how the career public service operates, with its merit approach; fostering legal compliance and understanding non-civil service systems; understanding that the public has rights that relate to HRM beyond merit principles; and providing leadership for public organizations.

Public values are continuously changing, and managers must recognize and guide the change process while being constant in ethics and flexible in method. As Thomas Jefferson said, “In matters of style, swim with the current; in matters of principle, stand like a rock.” Managers must decide, amid the turbulence in the public sector, when to swim with the current and when to stand against it, not succumbing to pressures that would compromise core values and principles. Further, administrators must be able to help their employees develop the ethical compasses they need to deal with sophisticated ethical challenges.

The chapters that follow highlight the practices, paradoxes, problems, and prospects facing those who must function simultaneously as technically skilled managers and as change agents in the 21st-century public service.

KEY TERMS

Civil service 29	Merit systems 47	Senior Executive Service (SES) 38
Civil service reform 38	Moral management 51	Spoils system 37
Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 (CSRA) 35	National Partnership for Reinventing Government 39	Strategic human resource management (SHRM) 27
Ethics Reform Act of 1989 34	Neutral competence 47	Tides of reform 32
Federal Labor Relations Authority (FLRA) 38	New Millennials 23	U.S. Merit Systems Protection Board (MSPB) 38
Generation X 23	New Public Management (NPM) 42	U.S. Office of Personnel Management (OPM) 38
Generation Z 23	Pendleton Act of 1883 35	War on waste 33
Human resource management (HRM) 27	Personnel administration 27	Watchful eye 33
Liberation management 34	POSDCORB 32	
Merit-light systems 47	Scientific management 32	

NOTE

1. These paradoxes include, for example, reforms that simultaneously reflect and cause distrust in government, national policies that contradict reform tides, and contradictory restructuring themes embedded in the same statute.

EXERCISES

Class Discussion

1. Do you think Maria Hernandez is an example of a good HR director? Why? What advice would you give her? Explain.
2. Identify and discuss some paradoxes and contradictions in the public service heritage. Why are they significant? To what extent do they reflect the two underlying paradoxes discussed in this book's Introduction?
3. What are some fundamental differences between the public and private sectors that influence how human resources are managed in these sectors?
4. Using Leonardo da Vinci's parachute (Exhibit 0.3) as inspiration, answer these questions: Which current trends in the government environment are likely to continue in the future? Why? How will future trends influence HRM?
5. Identify the four tides of reform. What are the implications of these philosophies for HRM? Evaluate the tides. Which do you consider to be the most valuable philosophy for HRM?

Team Activities

6. Employing the "25 in 10" technique (Exhibit 0.3), brainstorm the types of ethical dilemmas related to HRM that you think line and staff managers are likely to encounter at work.
7. Discuss the lessons from each of the four historical tides of reform and how they can influence HRM decisions.
8. What are the HRM consequences of different levels of value consciousness?
9. Which ethics management strategies do you think are most effective? Why?
10. Identify the reasons that group members are interested in being a part of the public service.

Compare your reasons with those listed in Exhibit 1.2.

Individual Assignments

11. Identify several HRM department websites. Compare what the departments seem to include and how they are organized.
12. Identify several of the recent pension reform initiatives in U.S. states and local governments. Which of the tides of reform are in operation? Look at the federal Chief Human Capital Officers Act of 2002 (<https://uscode.house.gov/view.xhtml?path=/prelim@title5/part2/chapter14&edition=prelim>). Which of the tides is in operation for that act?
13. Interview a public manager and ask him or her to describe the most difficult HR issues he or she has had to deal with. What areas of HRM did the issues fall into? How were they handled?
14. Compare the U.S. federal merit principles with those of a state government. (For example, the explanation of the merit principles for the state of California are found at <http://www.calhr.ca.gov/Training/Pages/performance-management-merit-system-principles.aspx>.)
15. Examine an agency's website or interview a knowledgeable manager to discover how many of the moral management techniques discussed in this chapter seem to be operational. Also report on how easy or difficult it is to find information about moral management in the agency you select to examine.
16. Read the ethical case study in Exhibit 1.10 (next) and complete the two-part assignment regarding (a) support for the action described and (b) classification of the action as whistleblowing.

Exhibit 1.10 A Stage-by-Stage Case of Sexual Harassment and Whistleblowing

A city police department in a Midwestern state has diversified its sworn officer corps in recent years by increasing the percentage of officers who are female and/or members of minority groups.

Respond to each action of the police officer below. At each stage (1–3, 5–6, 8, and 10), indicate (i) whether you support the action taken by the officer and (ii) whether you would classify the action as whistleblowing. (Check two items at each stage.)

Stage		Support Action?		Classify as Whistleblowing?	
		Yes	No	Yes	No
1	A female officer (Officer 1), hired 11 months ago and still on probation, is concerned by what she perceives to be discriminatory or harassing actions by a senior male officer. She reports this to her supervisor, who advises that this will be investigated.	Yes	No	Yes	No
2	Not too long thereafter, Officer 1 is again made to feel uncomfortable in the presence of the same offending senior officer, who continually uses gender-based innuendo, tells sexist jokes, and is unfairly critical of female officers. He publicly criticizes Officer 1 for her lack of aggressiveness and her timidity in handling a domestic dispute, stressing her inexperience and femininity. Officer 1 reports to the supervisor again regarding both the ethicality and the legality of the treatment. The supervisor tells her to drop the issue, as the well-regarded and high-performing senior officer “shouldn’t be questioned and surely knows what he is doing.”	Yes	No	Yes	No
3	The officer drops the issue; however, she shares concerns with another female officer in the unit (Officer 2).	Yes	No	Yes	No
4	Soon thereafter, Officer 1 is demoted or reassigned from patrol officer to intake desk clerk for an error in her written report summarizing her handling of the domestic dispute referenced above. Officer 2 is now performing these duties that were performed by Officer 1.				
5	Officer 1 files a report with both the police union and HR, citing concerns about the illegal/unethical practice and the retaliatory demotion or reassignment.	Yes	No	Yes	No

(Continued)

(Continued)

Stage		Support Action?		Classify as Whistleblowing?	
		Yes	No	Yes	No
6	The union does not provide any response; Officer 1 files a report with the chief of police, as the highest authority in the department, threatening to make her grievance public.	Yes	No	Yes	No
7	Officer 1 is terminated due to “serious reporting errors and misjudgments that jeopardize public safety.”				
8	Officer 1 contacts local journalists and a whistleblowing protection agency and retains a lawyer.	Yes	No	Yes	No
9	The local media runs a sensational story about sexual discrimination and harassment of female police officers.				
10	Officer 2, now with intimate knowledge of police records, does share some of the same concerns raised by Officer 1. However, knowing that Officer 1 was terminated, when interviewed by whistleblower protection Officer 2 decides to favor job protection over sharing her observations, and she refuses to speak with journalists.	Yes	No	Yes	No

Directions/Questions

Look over your responses regarding (a) whether you supported the action in question and (b) whether you would classify it as whistleblowing. Write two sentences about the conclusions you draw from your

responses to each question at the various stages, explaining (a) why you supported or failed to support the action at each stage and (b) why you concluded that the action was classified as whistleblowing or that it was not so classified.

REFERENCES

- Abramson, M. A., & Gardner, N. W. (Eds.). (2002). *Human capital 2002*. Rowman & Littlefield.
- Badaracco, J. (1997). *Defining moments: When managers must choose between right and right*. Harvard University Business School.
- Balutis, A. (2018, July 11). The government reorganization plan: There may be a pony in there after all. *FCW: The Business of Technology*. <https://fcw.com/articles/2018/07/11/comment-balutis-reorg-pony.aspx>
- Barr, S. (2005, June 8). Government should consider temporary workers, professors say. *Washington Post*. <https://www.washingtonpost.com/archive/local/2005/06/08/government-should-consider-temporary-workers-professors-say/e54bc31c-0779-4a1f-bf92-56e1ce976315>

- Behn, R. D. (2003). Creating leadership capacity for the twenty-first century: Not another technical fix. In J. D. Donahue & J. S. Nye, Jr. (Eds.), *For the people: Can we fix public service?* (pp. 191–224). Brookings Institution Press.
- Bernstein, J. (2018, June 7). Trump's plan to reorganize the government is going nowhere. *Bloomberg Opinion*. <https://www.bloomberg.com/view/articles/2018-06-07/trump-s-plan-to-reorganize-the-government-is-a-road-to-nowhere>
- Berry, J. (2009, June 18). *Memorandum for heads of departments and agencies*. U.S. Office of Personnel Management. <http://www.chcoc.gov/Documents/Attachments/Document51.pdf>
- Bilmes, L. J., & Neal, J. R. (2003). The people factor: Human resources reform in government. In J. D. Donahue & J. S. Nye, Jr. (Eds.), *For the people: Can we fix public service?* (pp. 113–133). Brookings Institution Press.
- Blunt, R. (2002). Organizations growing leaders: Best practices and principles in the public service. In M. A. Abramson & N. W. Gardner (Eds.), *Human capital 2002* (pp. 111–162). Rowman & Littlefield.
- Bowman, J. S. (2002). At-will employment in Florida government: A naked formula to corrupt public service. *WorkingUSA*, 6(2), 90–102.
- Bowman, J. S., Gertz, M. G., Gertz, S. C., & Williams, R. L. (2003). Civil service reform in Florida state government: Employee attitudes 1 year later. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 23(4), 286–304.
- Bowman, J. S., & West, J. P. (Eds.). (2007). *American public service: Radical reform and the merit system*. Taylor & Francis.
- Bowman, J. S., & West, J. P. (2021). *Public service ethics: Individual and institutional responsibilities* (3rd ed.). Routledge.
- Bowman, J. S., & West, J. P. (2019). Pointless or powerful: The case for oaths of office. *Administration & Society*, 52(8), 1147–1169. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0095399719890836>
- Bowman, J. S., & West, J. P. (2020). Oaths of office in American states: Problems and prospects. *Public Personnel Management*, 50(1), 109–132. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0091026020913072>
- Bowman, J. S., West, J. P., & Beck, M. (2010). *Achieving competencies in public service: The professional edge* (2nd ed.). M. E. Sharpe.
- Bowman, J. S., West, J. P., & Gertz, S. C. (2006). Florida's "service first": Radical reform in the Sunshine State. In J. E. Kellough & L. G. Nigro (Eds.), *Civil service reform in the states: Personnel policy and politics at the subnational level* (pp. 145–170). State University of New York Press.
- Brewer, G. A., & Kellough, J. E. (2016). Administrative values and public personnel management: Reflections on civil service reforms. *Public Personnel Management*, 45(2), 171–189.
- Brook, D., & King, C. (2008). Federal personnel management reform. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 28(3), 205–221.
- Bur, J. (2018, June 21). Is the Trump plan to break up OPM politics or efficiency? *Federal Times*. <https://www.federaltimes.com/management/2018/06/27/is-the-trump-plan-to-break-up-opm-politics-or-efficiency>
- Chartered Institute of Personnel and Development. (2013, July). *Strategic human resource management: Resource summary*. <http://www.cipd.co.uk/hr-resources/factsheets/strategic-human-resource-management.aspx>
- Choi, S. (2018). Managing flexible work arrangements in government: Testing the effects of institutional and managerial support. *Public Personnel Management*, 47(1), 26–50.
- Clark, C. (2018, June 25). How salmon and pizza figure into White House's government reorganization plan. *Government Executive*. <https://www.govexec.com/management/2018/06/how-salmon-and-pizza-figure-white-houses-government-reorganization-plan/149274>
- Cogburn, J. D., Battaglio, R. P., Jr., Bowman, J. S., Condrey, S. E., Goodman, D., & West, J. P. (2010).

- State government human resource professionals' commitment to employment-at-will. *American Review of Public Administration*, 40(2), 189–208.
- Comer, D., & Vega, G. (Eds.). (2011). *Moral courage in organizations: Doing the right thing at work*. M. E. Sharpe.
- Condrey, S. E. (Ed.). (2010). *Handbook of human resource management in government* (3rd ed.). Jossey-Bass.
- Condrey, S. E., & Maranto, R. (Eds.). (2001). *Radical reform of the civil service*. Lexington Books.
- Congressional Research Service. (2019, October 24). *Federal workforce statistics sources: OPM and OMB*. <https://fas.org/sgp/crs/misc/R43590.pdf>
- Dahlstrom, T. (2013). Telecommuting and leadership style. *Public Personnel Management*, 42(3), 438–451.
- Davidson, J. (2018, July 9). OPM guidance pushes quick, forceful action on Trump's orders to weaken unions, due process. *Washington Post*. <https://www.washingtonpost.com/news/powerpost/wp/2018/07/09/guidance-pushes-quick-forceful-action-on-trumps-orders-to-weaken-unions-due-process>
- Donahue, J. D., & Nye, J. S., Jr. (Eds.). (2003). *For the people: Can we fix public service?* Brookings Institution Press.
- Education Development Center. (2002, February 1). *Service-learning satisfies young people's desire for public service*. http://main.edc.org/newsroom/features/LID_report.asp
- Ehrenhalt, A. (1998, May). Why governments don't work. *Governing*, pp. 7–11.
- Elling, R. C., & Thompson, L. (2007). Dissin' the deadwood or coddling the incompetents? Patterns and issues in employee discipline and dismissal in the states. In J. S. Bowman & J. P. West (Eds.), *American public service: Radical reform and the merit system* (pp. 195–217). Taylor & Francis.
- Eskridge, R., French, E., & McThomas, M. (2012). The International City/County Management Association code of ethics. *Public Integrity*, 12(2), 127–150.
- Frederickson, H. G., & Ghere, R. (Eds.). (2013). *Ethics in public management* (2nd ed.). M. E. Sharpe.
- Grobman, G. (2007). An analysis of codes of ethics of nonprofit, tax-exempt membership associations: Does principal constituency make a difference? *Public Integrity*, 9(3), 245–263.
- Guy, M. E., & Newman, M. A. (2010). Valuing diversity: The changing workplace. In S. E. Condrey (Ed.), *Handbook of human resource management in government* (3rd ed., pp. 149–170). Jossey-Bass.
- Hannon, S., & Yordi, B. (2011). *Engaging a multi-generational workforce: Practical advice for government managers*. IBM Center for the Business of Government. <http://www.businessofgovernment.org/sites/default/files/Engaging%20a%20Multi-Generational%20Workforce.pdf>
- Hays, S. W., & Sowa, J. E. (2007). Changes in state civil service systems: A national survey. In J. S. Bowman & J. P. West (Eds.), *American public service: Radical reform and the merit system* (pp. 3–21). Taylor & Francis.
- Jacobson, W., & Sowa, J. (2015). Strategic human capital management in municipal government: An assessment of implementation practices. *Public Personnel Management*, 44(3), 317–339.
- Jordon, T., & Battaglio, R. P. (2014). Are we there yet? The state of public human resource management research. *Public Personnel Management*, 43(1), 25–57.
- Kamensky, J. (1999, January). *Brief history of the National Partnership for Reinventing Government*. National Partnership for Reinventing Government. <http://govinfo.library.unt.edu/npr/whowere/history2.html>
- Katz, E. (2018, June 25). 8 key proposals for feds in Trump's reorganization plan. *Government Executive*. <https://www.govexec.com/management/2018/06/8-key-proposals-trumps-reorganization-plan/149258>

- Katz, E. (2020a, February 10). Trump pushes significant federal hiring and firing reforms in 2021 budget. *Government Executive*. <https://www.govexec.com/workforce/2020/02/trump-pushes-significant-federal-hiring-and-firing-reforms-2021-budget/163009>
- Katz, E. (2020b, November 16). How Biden's team seeks to mitigate the impact of a delayed transition. *Government Executive*. <https://www.govexec.com/management/2020/11/how-bidens-teams-seeks-mitigate-impact-delayed-transition/170080>
- Kauffman, T. (2003, April 21). Overhaul at Defense: Sweeping personnel authorities proposed for DOD secretary. *Federal Times*, pp. 1, 11.
- Kearney, R. C., & Hays, S. W. (1998). Reinventing government, the New Public Management and civil service systems in international perspective: The danger of throwing the baby out with the bathwater. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 18(4), 38–54. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0734371X9801800404>
- Kellough, J. E. (2009). Affirmative action and diversity in the public sector. In S. W. Hays, R. C. Kearney, & J. D. Cogburn (Eds.), *Public human resource management: Problems and prospects* (5th ed., pp. 219–235). Longman.
- Kellough, J. E., & Nigro, L. G. (Eds.). (2006). *Civil service reform in the states: Personnel policy and politics at the subnational level*. State University of New York Press.
- Kellough, J. E., & Nigro, L. G. (2010). Civil service reform in the United States: Patterns and trends. In S. E. Condrey (Ed.), *Handbook of human resource management in government* (3rd ed., pp. 73–94). Jossey-Bass.
- Kettl, D. F. (2020, October 29). Why merit matters. *Government Executive*. <https://www.govexec.com/management/2020/10/why-merit-matters/169657>
- Klingner, D. E. (2009). Competing perspectives on public personnel administration: Civil service, patronage, and privatization. In S. W. Hays, R. C. Kearney, & J. D. Cogburn (Eds.), *Public human resource management: Problems and prospects* (5th ed., pp. 3–16). Longman.
- Kwon, M., & Jeon, S. (2017). Why permit telework? Exploring the determinants of California city government's decisions to permit telework. *Public Personnel Management*, 46(3), 230–262.
- Lane, L., Wolf, J., & Woodard, C. (2003). Reassessing the human resource crisis in the public service, 1987–2002. *American Review of Public Administration*, 33(2), 123–145.
- Light, P. C. (1997). *The tides of reform: Making government work, 1945–1995*. Yale University Press.
- Light, P. C. (1999). *The new public service*. Brookings Institution Press.
- Light, P. C. (2008). *A government ill executed: The decline of the federal service and how to reverse it*. Harvard University Press.
- Light, P. C. (2017, September 29). *The true size of government*. The Volcker Alliance. <https://volckeralliance.org/true-size-government>
- Light, P. C. (2019). *The government-industrial complex: The true size of the federal government, 1984–2018*. Oxford University Press.
- Lim, S., Wang, T., & Lee, S. (2017). Shedding new light on strategic human resource management: The impact of human resource management practices and human resources on the perception of federal agency mission accomplishment. *Public Personnel Management*, 46(3), 91–117.
- Lohmann, D. (2016, August 6). Millennials in government—or not? *Government Technology*. <https://www.govtech.com/blogs/lohrmann-on-cybersecurity/millennials-in-government--or-not.html>
- Marston, C. (2007). *Motivating the “What’s in it for me?” workforce: Manage across the generational divide and increase profits*. John Wiley.

- Mastracci, S., & Thompson, J. (2009). Who are the contingent workers in federal government? *American Review of Public Administration*, 39(4), 252–272.
- Menzel, D. C. (2010). *Ethics moments in government: Cases and controversies*. Taylor & Francis.
- Menzel, D. C. (2017). *Ethics management for public and nonprofit managers: Leading and building organizations of integrity* (3rd ed.). Routledge.
- Molina, A. (2018). A systems approach to managing organizational integrity risks: Lessons from the 2014 Veterans Affairs waitlist scandal. *American Review of Public Administration*. doi:10.1177/0275074018755006
- Moore, J. (2014, March 26). *OPM's focus in hiring reform shifting from speed to quality*. Federal News Network. <https://federalnewsnetwork.com/hiring-retention/2014/03/opms-focus-in-hiring-reform-shifting-from-speed-to-quality>
- National Academy of Public Administration. (2017). *No time to wait: Building a public service for the 21st century* [White paper]. <https://napawash.org/academy-studies/no-time-to-wait-building-a-public-service-for-the-21st-century>
- National Commission on the Public Service. (1990). *Leadership for America: Rebuilding the public service*. Lexington Books.
- National Commission on the Public Service. (2003). *Urgent business for America: Revitalizing the federal government for the 21st century*. Brookings Institution Press.
- National Commission on the State and Local Public Service. (1993). *Hard truths/tough choices: An agenda for state and local reform*. Rockefeller Institute of Government.
- Neal, J. (2018a, June 21). *Abolish OPM? What the administration's proposal would do*. Federal News Network. <https://federalnewsnetwork.com/commentary/2018/06/abolish-opm-what-the-administrations-proposal-would-do>
- Neal, J. (2018b, June 26). Another approach for refocusing OPM. *FedSmith*. <https://www.fedsmith.com/2018/06/26/another-approach-refocusing-opm>
- Neal, J. (2020, October 23). *White House drops an F-bomb on the career civil service*. Federal News Network. <https://federalnewsnetwork.com/commentary/2020/10/white-house-drops-an-f-bomb-on-the-career-civil-service>
- Newell, T. (2015). *To serve with honor: Doing the right thing in government*. Loftlands Press.
- Newell, T. (2016, December 13). Beyond ethics: Honor and public service. *PA Times*. <http://patimes.org/ethics-honor-public-service>
- Oppel, R. A., Jr. (2014, June 25). 2 V.A. officials to leave posts as agency seeks to remake itself and rebuild trust. *New York Times*. <http://www.nytimes.com/2014/06/26/us/senior-veterans-affairs-officials-to-step-down.html>
- Perry, J., Wise, L. R., & Martin, M. (1994). Breaking the civil service mold: The case of Indianapolis. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 14(2), 40–54.
- Pfiffner, J. P., & Brook, D. A. (Eds.). (2000). *The future of merit: Twenty years after the Civil Service Reform Act*. Johns Hopkins University Press.
- Phinney, D. (2003, September 22). Opposition to outsourcing builds in Congress. *Federal Times*, pp. 6–7.
- Radin, B. (2012). *Federal management reform in a world of contradictions*. Georgetown University Press. <http://www.jstor.org/stable/j.ctt2tt5wf>
- Rainie, L., & Perrin, A. (2019, July 22). *Key findings about Americans' declining trust in government and each other*. Pew Research Center. <https://www.pewresearch.org/fact-tank/2019/07/22/key-findings-about-americans-declining-trust-in-government-and-each-other>

- Richter, W. L., & Burke, F. (Eds.). (2007). *Combating corruption, encouraging ethics: A practical guide to management ethics* (2nd ed.). Rowman & Littlefield.
- Risher, H. (2018, June 26). It's premature to break up OPM. *Government Executive*. <https://www.govexec.com/excellence/management-matters/2018/06/its-premature-break-opm/149275>
- Risher, H. (2019, July 15). Rebuilding government human capital should be a priority. *Government Executive*. <https://www.govexec.com/management/2019/07/rebuilding-governments-human-capital-should-be-priority/158412>
- Risher, H. (2020, April 29). The civil service system is another pandemic casualty. *Government Executive*. <https://www.govexec.com/management/2020/04/civil-service-system-another-pandemic-casualty/164996>
- Romansky, L. (2020, June 4). *HR's role in advancing equity in times of unrest*. Gartner. <https://www.gartner.com/smarterwithgartner/hrs-role-in-advancing-equity-in-times-of-unrest>
- Sauser, W. I., Jr., & Sims, R. R. (Eds.). (2012). *Managing human resources for the millennial generation*. Information Age.
- Shoop, T. (2018, June 25). Prez to press: Is reorganizing government 'extraordinarily boring'? *Government Executive*. <https://www.govexec.com/federal-news/fedblog/2018/06/prez-press-reorganizing-government-extraordinarily-boring/149231>
- Smith, R. (2018, June 24). Analyzing and reorganizing federal agencies. *FedSmith*. <https://www.fedsmith.com/2018/06/24/analyzing-reorganizing-federal-agencies>
- Stein, L. (1994). Personnel rules and reforms in an unreformed setting. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 14(2), 55–63.
- Suleiman, E. (2003). *Dismantling democratic states*. Princeton University Press.
- Svara, J. S. (2012). Macro-ethics in the code of the pan-generalist American Society for Public Administration. *Public Integrity*, 14(3), 229–246.
- Svara, J. S. (2015). *The ethics primer for public administrators in government and nonprofit organizations* (2nd ed.). Jones & Bartlett.
- Swanson, E., & Blumenthal, M. (2013, March 18). "Wasteful spending" poll: Few agree on what government waste is, most want to cut it. *HuffPost*. https://www.huffpost.com/entry/wasteful-spending-poll_n_2886081
- Thompson, F. J. (1994). The Winter Commission. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 14(2), 5–10. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0734371X9401400202>
- Thompson, J. R. (2001). The civil service under Clinton: The institutional consequences of disaggregation. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 21(2), 87–113. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F0734371X0102100201>
- Thompson, J. R. (2007). Federal labor–management relations under George W. Bush: Enlightened management or political retribution? In J. S. Bowman & J. P. West (Eds.), *American public service: Radical reform and the merit system* (pp. 233–254). Taylor & Francis.
- Thompson, J. R., & Mastracci, S. H. (2005). *The blended workforce: Maximizing agility through nonstandard work arrangements*. IBM Center for the Business of Government. <http://www.businessofgovernment.org/sites/default/files/BlendedWorkforce.pdf>
- U.S. Office of Management and Budget. (2014). *Analytical perspectives, budget of the United States government, fiscal year 2014*. <https://www.govinfo.gov/content/pkg/BUDGET-2014-PER/pdf/BUDGET-2014-PER.pdf>
- U.S. Office of Personnel Management. (2014). *Executive branch civilian employment since 1940*. <https://www.opm.gov/policy-data-oversight/data-analysis-documentation/federal-employment-reports/historical-tables/executive-branch-civilian-employment-since-1940>

- U.S. Office of Personnel Management. (2019). *Governmentwide management report: Results from the 2019 Federal Employee Viewpoint Survey*. <https://www.opm.gov/fevs/reports/governmentwide-reports/governmentwide-management-report/governmentwide-report/2019/2019-governmentwide-management-report.pdf>
- Van Der Wal, Z. (2017). *The 21st century public manager*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Van Wart, M. R. (2003). Codes of ethics as living documents: The case of the American Society for Public Administration. *Public Integrity*, 5(4), 331–346. doi:10.1080/15580989.2003.11770958
- Van Wart, M. R., Hondeghem, A., & Schwella, E. (with Suino, P.) (Eds.). (2015). *Leadership and culture: Comparative models of top civil servant training*. Palgrave Macmillan.
- Wadsworth, L., & Facer, R. (2016). Work-family balance and alternative work schedules: Exploring the impact of 4-day workweeks on state employees. *Public Personnel Management*, 45(4), 382–404.
- Wagner, E. (2020a, October 26). Salary council chairman resigns in protest of Trump order politicizing federal workforce. *Government Executive*. <https://www.govexec.com/management/2020/10/salary-council-chairman-resigns-protest-trump-order-politicizing-federal-workforce/169551>
- Wagner, E. (2020b, November 23). OMB reportedly designates 88% of its employees for Schedule F. *Government Executive*. <https://www.govexec.com/management/2020/11/omb-reportedly-designates-88-its-employees-schedule-f/170275>
- West, J. P. (2002). Georgia on the mind of radical civil service reformers. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 21(2), 79–93.
- West, J. P. (2012). Employee-friendly policies and development benefits for millennials. In W. I. Sauser, Jr., & R. R. Sims (Eds.), *Managing human resources for the millennial generation* (pp. 201–228). Information Age Press.
- West, J. P. (2016). Ethics and human resource management. In R. C. Kearney & J. D. Cogburn (Eds.), *Public human resource management: Problems and prospects* (6th ed., pp. 297–311). Longman.
- West, J. P., & Berman, E. M. (2001). From traditional to virtual HR: Is the transition occurring in local government? *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 21(1), 38–64.
- West, J. P., & Berman, E. M. (2004). Ethics training in U.S. cities: Content, pedagogy, and impact. *Public Integrity*, 6(3), 189–206.
- West, J., & Bowman, J. (2004). Stakeholder analysis of civil service reform in Florida: A descriptive, instrumental, normative human resource management perspective. *State and Local Government Review*, 36(1), 20–34. <https://doi.org/10.1177/0160323X0403600102>
- White House. (2018, June). *Delivering government solutions in the 21st century*. <https://www.whitehouse.gov/wp-content/uploads/2018/06/Government-Reform-and-Reorg-Plan.pdf>
- WJSchroer. (n.d.). Generations X, Y, Z and others. *WJSchroer*. www.socialmarketing.org/archives/generations-xy-z-and-the-others