

AD-A092 406

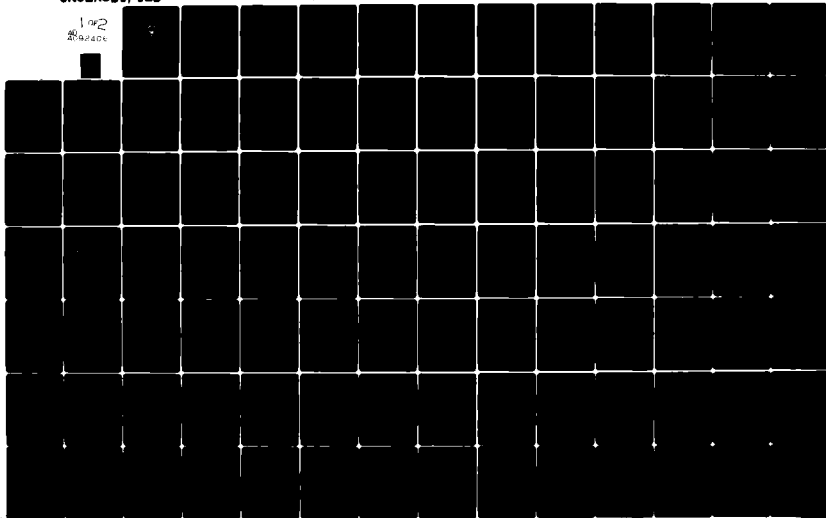
NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL MONTEREY CA
NAVY CIVILIAN CAREERS: A FORMULATION PROBLEM.(U)
JUN 80 R R JACKSON

F/G 5/9

UNCLASSIFIED

NL

1 of 2
20 pages



AD A092406

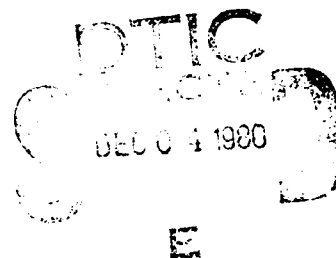
DDC FILE COPY

LEVEL II

②

NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL

Monterey, California



THESIS

NAVY CIVILIAN CAREERS:
A FORMULATION PROBLEM

by

Robert Rawlings Jackson, Jr.

June 1980

Thesis Advisors:

J. W. Creighton
R. D. Evered

Approved for public release; distribution unlimited.

Prepared for:

Naval Postgraduate School
Monterey, California 93940

50 12 0 200

SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE (When Data Entered)

REPORT DOCUMENTATION PAGE		READ INSTRUCTIONS BEFORE COMPLETING FORM
1. REPORT NUMBER	2. GOVT ACCESSION NO.	3. RECIPIENT'S CATALOG NUMBER
	AD-A092406	
4. TITLE (and Subtitle)	5. TYPE OF REPORT & PERIOD COVERED	
Navy Civilian Careers: A Formulation Problem	Master's Thesis, June 1980	
7. AUTHOR(s)	6. PERFORMING ORG. REPORT NUMBER	
Robert Rawlings/Jackson, Jr.		
8. PERFORMING ORGANIZATION NAME AND ADDRESS	9. CONTRACT OR GRANT NUMBER(s)	
Naval Postgraduate School Monterey, California 93940		
11. CONTROLLING OFFICE NAME AND ADDRESS	10. PROGRAM ELEMENT, PROJECT, TASK AREA & WORK UNIT NUMBERS	
Naval Postgraduate School Monterey, California 93940		
14. MONITORING AGENCY NAME & ADDRESS (if different from Controlling Office)	12. REPORT DATE	
Naval Postgraduate School Monterey, California 93940	Jun 80	
	13. NUMBER OF PAGES	
	110	
	15. SECURITY CLASS. (of this report)	
	Unclassified	
	16a. DECLASSIFICATION/DOWNGRADING SCHEDULE	
16. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of this Report)		
Approved for public release; distribution unlimited.		
17. DISTRIBUTION STATEMENT (of the abstract entered in Block 20, if different from Report)		
18. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES		
19. KEY WORDS (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)		
Navy Logistics Military/Civilian Interface Civilian Careers Manpower Programs Manpower Planning Organizational Considerations Career Development		
20. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number)		
Career planning for civilian personnel in the Department of the Navy emphasizes efforts in various intern programs for journeyman level employees. Career planning above those levels is inadequate. Many of the problems that plague the military career system directly affect civilian careers. The Navy's logistics system encompasses a broader range of civilian occupational classifications than do other civilian career programs. The Navy's logistics system is affected by budgetary		

DD FORM 1 JAN 73 1473
(Page 1)

EDITION OF 1 NOV 65 IS OBSOLETE
S/N 0102-014-6401

SECURITY CLASSIFICATION OF THIS PAGE (When Data Entered)

251450

considerations and decentralized management which adds complexity to the civilian logistics career program. It is concluded after comparing current theory and industrial practices to the Navy's civilian career programs that the Navy's program is encumbered by the organizational structure and technologies used, and that there is a lack of an organizational development and analytical capability to effect needed change. Specific recommendations are made to develop the requisite capabilities. A bibliography is included.

Accession For	
NTIS GRA&I	☒
DDC TAB	☐
Unannounced	☐
Justification	☐
By _____	
Distribution _____	
Availability _____	
Dist	Available for Special
A	

Approved for public release; distribution unlimited.

Navy Civilian Careers:
A Formulation Problem

by

Robert Rawlings Jackson, Jr.
Naval Aviation Logistics Center,
Naval Air Station Patuxent River, Maryland
B.S., St. Louis University, 1967

Submitted in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN MANAGEMENT

from the

NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL
June 1980

Author

Robert Rawlings Jackson, Jr.

Approved by:

John W. Creighton
Co-Advisor

Roger D. Cleeland
Co-Advisor

[Signature]
Chairman, Department of Administrative Sciences

[Signature]
Dean of Information and Policy Sciences

NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL
MONTEREY, CALIFORNIA

J. J. Ekelund, Rear Admiral, U.S.N.
Superintendent

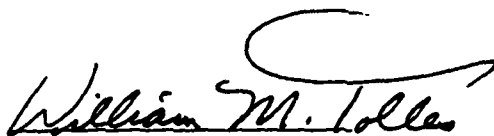
Jack R. Borsting
Provost

This thesis prepared in conjunction with research supported in part by the NAVAL AIR SYSTEMS COMMAND and the NAVAL MATERIAL COMMAND.

Reproduction of all or part of this report is authorized.

Released as a

Technical Report by:


Dean of Research

ABSTRACT

Career planning for civilian personnel in the Department of the Navy emphasizes efforts in various intern programs for journeyman level employees. Career planning above those levels is inadequate. Many of the problems that plague the military career system directly affect civilian careers. The Navy's logistics system encompasses a broader range of civilian occupational classifications than do other civilian career programs. The Navy's logistics system is affected by budgetary considerations and decentralized management which adds complexity to the civilian logistics career program. It is concluded after comparing current theory and industrial practices to the Navy's civilian career programs that the Navy's program is encumbered by the organizational structure and technologies used, and that there is a lack of an organizational development and analytical capability to effect needed change. Specific recommendations are made to develop the requisite capabilities. A bibliography is included.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

I.	INTRODUCTION- - - - -	9
A.	FOUNDATION FOR OBJECTIVES - - - - -	9
B.	OBJECTIVES- - - - -	10
C.	THE NEED FOR LOGISTICS SYSTEM IMPROVEMENT - - -	11
D.	APPROACH- - - - -	13
II.	THE NAVY SYSTEM FOR LOGISTICS - - - - -	15
A.	INTRODUCTION- - - - -	15
B.	DESCRIPTION - - - - -	15
C.	THE NAVY LOGISTICS WORK FORCE - - - - -	20
	1. Work Force Composition- - - - -	20
	2. Work Force Environment- - - - -	21
	3. Issues Influencing the Work Force - - - - -	22
D.	SUMMARY - - - - -	23
III.	THE ORGANIZATIONAL AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT ENVIRONMENT FOR CIVILIANS - - - - -	25
A.	INTRODUCTION- - - - -	25
B.	GUIDANCE FOR THE USE OF CIVILIANS - - - - -	25
C.	BUDGETARY AND RESOURCE CONSIDERATIONS - - - - -	27
D.	CONTRAST BETWEEN THE MILITARY AND CIVILIAN SYSTEMS- - - - -	30
E.	THE INFLUENCE OF MILITARY CAREERS - - - - -	33
F.	SUMMARY - - - - -	34
IV.	CIVILIAN CAREER PROGRAMS- - - - -	35
A.	INTRODUCTION- - - - -	35

B.	CAREER PROGRAM POLICY - - - - -	35
C.	CIVILIAN CAREER PROGRAMS- - - - -	37
D.	CAREER PROGRAM ORIENTATION- - - - -	39
E.	CIVILIAN CAREER PROGRAM CYCLE - - - - -	40
F.	CIVILIAN LOGISTICS CAREER PROGRAM - - - - -	44
G.	ADMINISTRATION OF THE LOGISTICS INTERN PROGRAM- - - - -	46
H.	SUMMARY - - - - -	54
V.	THE EFFECT OF CURRENT THEORY AND INDUSTRIAL PRACTICES ON THE LOGISTICS CAREER PROGRAM - - - - -	55
A.	INTRODUCTION- - - - -	55
B.	ORGANIZATIONS - - - - -	55
C.	INDIVIDUALS - - - - -	56
D.	ASSESSMENT OF THE CIVILIAN LOGISTICS CAREER PROGRAM- - - - -	59
E.	SUMMARY - - - - -	64
VI.	SUGGESTIONS FOR CHANGE- - - - -	65
A.	INTRODUCTION- - - - -	65
B.	RECOMMENDATIONS - - - - -	65
APPENDIX A	DEFINITIONS- - - - -	69
APPENDIX B	ORGANIZATIONAL MANPOWER PLANNING CONSIDERATIONS - - - - -	72
APPENDIX C	BEHAVIORAL FACTORS INFLUENCING CAREER CHOICES - - - - -	87
BIBLIOGRAPHY-	- - - - -	99
INITIAL DISTRIBUTION LIST	- - - - -	-109

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1 The Logistics System- - - - -	16
2 A Comparison of Civilian Career Programs- - - -	38
3 Civilian Career Program Development Cycle - - -	41
4 Complexities of the Civilian Logistics Career Program- - - - -	50
5 Leavitt's Organizational Paradigm - - - - -	57 & 75
6 Four Stages of Career Development - - - - -	60
7 Considerations Impacting the Establishment of a Manpower Planning Program- - - - -	78
8 Schien's Model of an Organization - - - - -	80
9 Career Management and Administration System - -	85

I. INTRODUCTION

A. FOUNDATION FOR OBJECTIVES

This thesis is concerned with career planning for professional personnel in the Navy's civilian logistics work force. It has evolved from a series of discussions with Naval Postgraduate School and Naval Material Command personnel concerning the adequacy, appropriateness and direction of civilian career planning within the Navy's complex logistics system and its environment. From these discussions emerged the belief that substantial contributions to the effectiveness and efficiency of Navy logistics would be feasible if the following could be accomplished.

1. Identification of the current logistics tasks;
2. Identification of the knowledge, skills and abilities needed by individuals to perform the logistics tasks;
3. Determination of the numbers of people within the disciplines needed to perform logistics tasks based upon workload projections and anticipated changes;
4. Establishment of civilian career programs to assure a continuing inventory of competent personnel to perform logistics activities;
5. Establishment of a means to continually review influences and effects of forces impacting on logistics performance within existing logistics organizations;
6. Establishment of a means to develop and implement organizational modifications that would enhance the overall effectiveness of

the logistics activities by providing adequate and timely logistics support within aggregate resource constraints to the fleet.

It is not within the scope of this thesis to completely describe the detailed logistics tasks, systems or responsibilities contained within the logistics organizations of the Navy nor to address, in detail, the subject areas listed above. However, understanding them and the interactions between them is essential before any one of them can be addressed in detail.

B. OBJECTIVES

This thesis will identify areas where change in the civilian logistics career program structure, if pursued, will lead to improvements in overall Navy logistics.

Therefore, the thesis will address the following objectives:

1. To identify changes needed in control of the Navy's logistics capability;
2. To identify changes needed in the control of civilian employment within the Navy;
3. To identify changes needed in the structure and direction of the current civilian logistics career program;
4. To assess the consequences of changes in the Navy's civilian logistics career program on:
 - (a) Current Navy logistics functions,
 - (b) Current theory and industrial practices,
 - and (c) Individual motivations;
5. To suggest modifications of organizational and reward systems that will lead to a substantial improvement of the Navy logistics systems.

C. THE NEED FOR LOGISTICS SYSTEM IMPROVEMENT

In an organization as large and complex as the Navy, there is a logistics system of considerable merit. Otherwise, the Navy would not be able to function at all. However, all systems have weaknesses, suffer varying degrees of obsolescence, and have difficulty in adapting to change. There is, therefore, need for continual improvement.

Logistics in the Navy is a multi-discipline function with the ultimate objective to provide efficient and effective support to the operational forces within budgetary constraints. Logistics by its very nature is either dependent on or provides direct interface to every function performed within the Navy. Logistics is the largest consumer of Navy civilian manpower resources, but is under severe constraints characterized by:

- . the decreasing constant dollar Operations and Maintenance, Navy (O&M,N) appropriations,
- . decreasing allocations of military and civilian manpower ceilings/billets,
- . recruitment and retention rates, and geographic bases,
- . the increasing inflationary, legal, technological, cooperative, and societal pressures,
- . a smaller, more technically complex and internationally compatible force structure and equipments,
- . increasing demands for operational versatility without the aid of hardware development and acquisition programs that have characterized past changes.

The environment of change in technologies is accompanied by ever-increasing societal and organizational forces impacting on Navy systems. Organizations, although more complex and more resistant to change than individuals, face similar directional choices, with potentially more dramatic results [Refs. 54, 55, 71, 90 and 91]. One of the most apparent characteristics of this era of change is that of declining productivity of American workers [Ref. 76].

As an organization, the Navy is responding to its environment through the interactions of its technology, structure, personnel, and task dimensions. The interactions and dimensions establish not only what is to be done, by whom and the needed attitude, knowledge, skill and ability requirements of each position [Refs. 71 and 72], but also the opportunities for an individual's professional growth and career progression [Ref. 64]. This effort is oriented toward the environment and organization rather than toward personnel or technical aspects.

In the following sections, it will be demonstrated that a considerable amount of the work performed by Navy personnel, both military and civilian, is devoted to logistics or logistic-oriented missions. As a result of organizational alignments and the Congressional appropriation structure, it is frequently not apparent to personnel that they are engaged in logistics work. Many missions and tasks are

so named and identified that logistics aspects are played down. The budgetary process, by constraining organizational commands and resources, tends to mask the identity of logistics programs.

D. APPROACH

Chapter I has presented the need and objectives for this study. Progression toward the objectives will proceed in succeeding chapters.

Chapter II addresses the current logistics system. It develops the foundation for future chapters through:

(1) defining logistics because the meaning of the word "logistics" varies among individuals and organizations; (2) outlining the Navy's civilian logistics work force and the civilian system; (3) identifying influences on the logistics system that will determine its future course of action.

Chapter III addresses factors controlling civilian employment in the Navy. By reviewing applicable Civil Service concepts and requirements, the budgetary process, and military, legal and political influences, it establishes the framework whereby the number, series, grade level and quality of civilian personnel are determined and managed. It summarizes the mechanisms whereby personnel are matched to positions.

Chapter IV addresses the structure of the civilian career programs. This chapter, by reviewing civilian career programs and emphasizing the current civilian logistics career program, presents the structure, management strategy and responsibilities inherent in these programs. An assessment is made of the civilian logistics career program accomplishments toward satisfying the needs described in Chapters II and III.

Chapter V addresses the effect of current theory and industrial practices on individuals and the logistics career programs.

Chapter VI presents suggestions for change which include organizational and reward system modifications directed to enhance the overall effectiveness of the Navy's logistics capabilities.

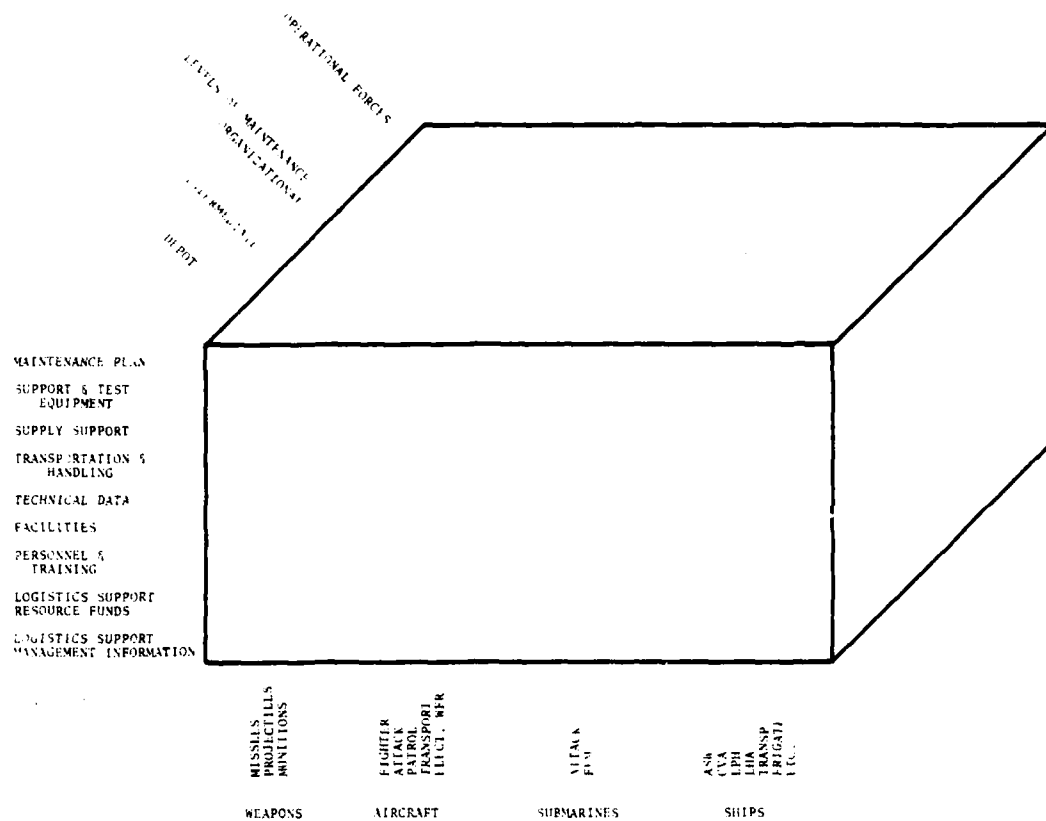
II. THE NAVY SYSTEM FOR LOGISTICS

A. INTRODUCTION

This chapter summarizes and describes the Navy's System for Logistics to provide a foundation for future chapters and the evaluation of the Civilian Logistics Career Program. It defines logistics and its component parts, provides a description of the Navy's civilian logistics work force and the civilian system, and presents issues influencing the direction of military organizations.

B. DESCRIPTION

Department of Defense Directive 4100.35, Development of Integrated Logistics Support for Systems/Equipment, provides the framework within which support systems for the military departments operate. It emphasizes functional management elements, and also relationships between and among discrete areas within logistic areas and between commands. No treatment of Navy logistics systems can be well understood unless the elements of Directive 4100.35 are considered. Figure 1 shows, in chart form, the elements of DoD Directive 4100.35 in such a way that functional management as well as management between discrete areas is emphasized. For further understanding, the essential elements taken from Directive 4100.35 are described.



THE LOGISTICS SYSTEM

Figure 1

1. Elements of DoD Directive 4100.35

a. The Maintenance Plan

This is a technical and managerial description of hardware inspection, handling, servicing, and repair characteristics, forming the basis for workload estimates and technical requirements for the logistics commodities that support the three levels of maintenance (organizational, intermediate, and depot) in all geographic locations. The function includes: engineering and technical services; financial management; procurement and contracting; test and evaluation; configuration status accounting; maintenance management, scheduling and information; life-cycle management, including demilitarization, storage and disposal, foreign military sales assistance, inter-service and international agreements; and interfaces with other commodity functions.

b. Support and Test Equipment

This is a commodity function comprised of technical and management services that include: specific item identification; financial management; procurement and contracting; test and evaluation; inventory, configuration and distribution management; calibration and maintenance management and scheduling; demilitarization; retirement; alternative uses; disposal; and interfaces with other commodity functions.

c. Supply Support

This is a commodity function comprised of technical and management services that include: specific spare, repair part, maintenance kit, maintenance and operational consumable items; petroleum, oil and lubricants (POL), general naval supplies, clothing and survival equipments, and stores identification, cataloging, procurement, inventory control, storage warehousing, distribution and issue; financial management; stock reserves; system purging and disposal; standardization/alternative use management; and interfaces with other commodity functions.

d. Transportation and Handling

This is a support service comprised of technical and management services including: transportation and cargo scheduling and management (air, sea and overland); financial management; procurement and contracting; container and packaging standardization and requirements; receipt control, damage and claim adjudication; and interfaces with other commodity functions.

e. Technical Data

This is a commodity function comprised of technical and management services that include: the identification, procurement, standardization, reproduction, distribution, cataloging, repository and appropriate revisions to engineering drawings, maintenance (inspection and repair)

manuals and charts, operators' manuals and technical specifications; financial management; and interfaces to other commodity functions.

f. Facilities

This commodity function is comprised of technical and management services that include: the identification, design, standardization, construction/renovation/alteration, outfitting and maintenance of maintenance facilities, buildings, warehouses, operational support facilities, runways, docks, etc., and the access, physical security provisions, utilities and physical grounds; procurement and contracting; financial management; and interfaces with the other commodity functions.

g. Personnel and Training

This commodity function is comprised of technical and management services that include: the identification of the numbers and specialties needed to perform maintenance (inspection, repair, servicing, handling and administration), conduct operations and provide administrative and commodity services; recruitment, general and specialized training and educational programs; inventory control and distribution; identification, design, procurement, test and evaluation, inventory control, distribution, maintenance, modification, configuration control, scheduling and disposal of training devices; procurement of services; financial management; and interfaces with other commodity functions.

h. Logistics Support Resource Funds

This is an aggregate management control and allocation function for financial resources used in the procurement and continuing operations of the logistics system and comprised of technical and management services interfacing the logistics functions.

i. Logistics Support Management Information

This is the aggregate of the logistics support management information systems, whether automated or not, used to manage, balance maintain and measure the performance of the logistic elements and of the logistics system.

The preceding identifies the context of logistics, as addressed in this report, as including those elements needed to assure that Naval operating forces receive needed weaponry, vehicles from which to operate the weaponry, and various resources of a support nature needed to maintain operability. It is not intended to include the acquisition of these items nor to address personnel and organizational matters as they pertain to the entire Navy.

C. THE NAVY LOGISTICS WORK FORCE

1. Work Force Composition

The Department of Defense employs approximately three million people of whom approximately one million are civilians, accounting for about 17% of the defense payroll or about \$18 billion in Fiscal Year 1978 [Ref. 12].

Approximately four out of five civilians work in activities with outputs related to supporting combat forces. The majority are involved in either logistics (supply and maintenance) or base operations [Ref. 12]. The Navy employs approximately one-third (300,000) of the defense civilian work force, of which approximately 55% (165,000) are white collar (General Schedule) with the remaining 45% (135,000) blue collar (Wage Grade) [Ref. 83]. Of the Navy civilian employees, approximately 80% are employed by the Naval Material Command (NAVMAT) and its subordinate commands and activities [Ref. 132]. According to outputs generated from the Personnel Automated Data System (PADS), the Navy's logistics civilian white-collar work force consists of approximately 19,000 professional employees servicing aircraft, submarine, surface ship and weapons programs [Ref. 132].

2. Work Force Environment

Unlike the centralized military manpower program, the civilian program is decentralized [Refs. 12 and 83]. Manpower planning and financial support resources are embodied in the Navy's Financial Management System, sponsored by OP-92 (Chief of Naval Operations; Office of Budgets and Reports) and are an integral part of the annual budget cycle of Operations and Maintenance, Navy (O&M,N). Civilian personnel and civilian equal employment opportunity policy and administration have the status of being supported by OP-14 (Chief of Naval Operations; Civilian Manpower Planning

and Programming Division). This office promulgates Navy civilian personnel policy based on directives received from the Congress through the Office of Civilian Personnel (OCP), legal interpretations/decisions rendered through actions before the Merit System Protection Board (MSPB), Federal Labor Relations Administration (FLRA), the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), the President through the Office of Management and Budget (OMB), and Navy operating personnel. Each Naval activity employing civilians receives personnel ceilings and financial support through its operating budget and personnel services and guidance from its supporting personnel activity.

3. Issues Influencing the Work Force

Affirmative action goals, the scarcity of minority or women managers, emphasis on the employment of marginal workers, pressure to retain/retrain older employees, the scarcity of trained managers [Refs. 14 and 64], along with the need to increase productivity at a reduced annual cost [Refs. 1, 12, 18, 76 and 85], are but a few of the many issues influencing the direction of military organizations and the totality of their businesses. Of further influence on the military organizations, particularly those with logistics responsibilities, are:

- (1) Relatively constant Congressional appropriations for defense [Ref. 62] while labor and other costs continue to increase as reflected by the Department of Labor's Consumer Price Index;

- (2) True military manpower costs, the actual cost to the government, are not reflected in the defense activities budget [Ref. 12] nor in the services budget [Ref. 14] which biases cost evaluations in favor of military manpower versus civilian or contractor alternatives;
- (3) Defense Department and Department of the Navy Instructions and Directives assign the responsibility of civilian manpower management and career development to commanding officers who have little or no incentive to exercise these responsibilities [Refs. 12, 100 and 101];
- (4) Although the Civilian Personnel System is characterized as an open system, with entry at any level, in reality, the majority of workers are acquired from resources existing within the defense establishment [Refs. 13, 18, 70 and 83];
- (5) The logistics establishment tends to receive the brunt of program and funding reductions because of the high ratio of military to civilian employees and the inability to establish firm budgetary correlations between material needs and fleet readiness [Ref. 12];
- (6) The current Military Officer Career policies are building excellent operational commanders or technical specialists, not managers [Refs. 17 and 101];
- (7) The passage of the Civil Service Reform Act will further deteriorate [Ref. 118] an existing conflict situation in the Navy's middle management ranks [Refs. 13 and 70], possibly resulting in increased civilian turnover and lower productivity.

D. SUMMARY

This chapter has described the logistics environment. It is within this environment that a civilian employee must perform and gain any rewards which might lead him to higher-level rank. Also it is toward this environment that those

in command must direct their manpower planning resources and actions if high competence in logistics-related activities is to be attained. Both the individual striving for personal success and the commanders and directors attempting to develop a highly effective logistics organization, through ever-increasing competence of individuals within it, should have knowledge of manpower planning and organizational concepts. Knowledge and understanding of these concepts, when combined with skills and understanding of logistics functions, should contribute to higher levels of competence. The next chapter provides a base for understanding the framework and policy within which civilian careers must be developed.

III. THE ORGANIZATIONAL AND CAREER DEVELOPMENT ENVIRONMENT FOR CIVILIANS

A. INTRODUCTION

The manner in which the Department of Defense manages its civilian personnel will be a significant factor in determining its ability to maintain an adequate defense.

DoDD 1430.2 & SECNAVINST 12410.15
9 May 1966

One of the major goals of the Department of Defense is the development of high-caliber civilian career managers of its activities. This goal can be reached only through careful, deliberate career planning and strong leadership from the top.

DoDD 1430.2

This chapter explores the factors controlling civilian employment in the Navy. Through amplifying Chapter II influences, the environment within which civilians are employed, along with a summary of the mechanisms used to match personnel to jobs, will be established. The chapter will explore the policy concerning the use of civilians, budgetary and resource considerations, the contrast between civil service and military service and the influence of military careers.

B. GUIDANCE FOR THE USE OF CIVILIANS

The Secretary of Defense has provided fairly broad general directives to the military departments regarding the management of civilians. Department of Defense Directive

(DoDD) 1100.4, Guidance for Manpower Programs, 20 August 1964, reaffirmed in January, 1970, through DoDD 1000.5, Statement of Personnel Policy for Civilian Personnel in the Department of Defense, states that "Civilian personnel will be used in positions which do not require military incumbents for reasons of law, training, security, discipline, rotation or combat readiness, which do not require a military background for successful performance of the duties involved." Regarding jobs in foreign countries, the basic policy (DoDD 1100.4) specifies that "Indigenous personnel will be utilized to the maximum extent practicable and consistent with security and the necessity for maintaining a high state of readiness." In general, the rules may be summarized as follows: (1) Military personnel are to be assigned to jobs that, according to the armed services, require a military incumbent; (2) All other jobs are to be filled by federal civilians or contracted for in the private sector; and (3) Reliance on the private sector is to be encouraged (DoDD 4100.15, Commercial or Industrial Activities) by requiring proof that a "compelling" reason exists to keep jobs in house.

The decisions necessary to implement the above policy are left to the individual services. In the Navy, the decisions are made by the activity commander through the respective chain of command. It must be noted that, although a decision might be made to create a military billet, the military personnel system recognizes this action as a

1

requirement and does not automatically schedule an individual to fill it. The activity's commanding officer, or designated representative, must make his needs known and conduct follow-up action with the Naval Personnel System to fill the billet.

The use of civilians is also a decision of the activity's commanding officer although guidance, aggregate ceiling points and average grade level requirements may be provided by the respective chain of command. The decision to employ a civilian in a position requires:

- . The development and classification of a position description;
- . The selection and advertisement of the position in a competitive area;
- . The evaluation, ranking and selection of applicants according to law and Merit System requirements for a highly qualified list to be presented to the hiring activity;
- . The evaluation and selection or rejection of an individual to fill the position;
- . The offer to the selected individual;
- . The hiring and orientation process for the new employee.

Often in the shore establishment, military personnel work side by side with civilians doing comparable jobs, or one or the other exercises supervisory responsibility over the other [Ref. 36].

C. BUDGETARY AND RESOURCE CONSIDERATIONS

The use of civilians has two aspects: The first relates to outside-the-military system and the other within the military system.

Outside the military system, despite the impressive size of the defense budget and the growing demands being placed on it, the defense civilian work force has attracted little attention [Ref. 12]. Congressional and Executive controls have been in the form of ceiling limitations which have been criticized by the Government Accounting Office as inefficient [Ref. 63]. There is competition with industry for technical talent in specialized fields. Here the government cannot effectively compete due to restrictions on pay and benefits [Ref. 132]. The net effect is the reduction of the market of potential employees.

Within the military system, which is influenced by the Congressional appropriations structure, civilians are paid out of the annual operations and maintenance appropriation whereas military personnel are paid out of the military personnel appropriation. The military personnel appropriation for the Navy is centrally managed, resulting in a situation where each naval activity does not budget for its own military labor cost. Conversely, civilian labor must be budgeted as an integral part of the activity's budget along with the remainder of its annual operations requirements. The activity's budget requirements, combined with ceiling restrictions and average grade restrictions, produce a stressful situation on civilian manpower, especially in inflationary times.

Manpower issues are raised at several points in the budgetary process, but usually not in the context of evaluating the relative cost and effectiveness of alternatives for specific activities [Ref. 12], especially from a "zero base" [Ref. 62]. As long as national policy makers maintain their interest in controlling the growth of the civilian work force through ceilings, independent of workload, defense planners will have no incentive to consider trade-offs among military personnel, civilian employees, and contracted operations vital to prompting a more efficient defense establishment [Refs. 12, 18 and 62]. Although military commanders prefer military to civilian employees [Ref. 12], there is a basic demographic problem to be faced [Ref. 114]. Estimates show that if the armed forces remain at their present size, recruiting will be more difficult. Instead of attracting one out of every six males, as is the case now, the military services will have to attract one out of every four [Ref. 12]. The demographic problem, when combined with the retention/turnover problem prevalent in the senior technical and officer ranks, portrays not only a manpower shortage but, even more critical, a skilled manpower shortage not easily overcome. This intensifies the inherent conflict over the choice between military and civilian manpower. The relative costs of sustaining military personnel and civilians under current conditions

is less important than the opportunity cost associated with maintaining existing military policies in the face of developing demographic and economic trends [Ref. 12]. Further, until defense planners can definitely show a correlation and impact of logistics resource expenditures on force readiness, logistics will continue to receive the brunt of defense resource reductions [Ref. 12]. Additionally, because vague contours of the personnel guidelines leave a great deal open to interpretation, they are not followed to the letter. This allows both institutional and political forces considerable leeway in interpretation of directives, resulting in a tendency to discourage changes in the manpower mix and to perpetuate the status quo [Ref. 12].

D. CONTRAST BETWEEN THE MILITARY AND CIVILIAN SYSTEMS

Unlike the military, civilians can move in and out of civil service because grade and pay are vested in the position rather than the individual. Theoretically, trained civilians can be hired and enter the system in any job at any level. This is contrary to the military system which requires long-range centralized planning to ensure that people with the right skills and experience are available when needed. Civilian long-term planning, including training programs and career-broadening assignments, is not considered as important [Ref. 12]. As a result of decentralization, policies and regulations governing Civil Service employees

are interpreted locally, often erroneously, and are left to the local base commander or facility manager who has the responsibility to create, abolish and fill civilian positions [Ref. 12]. The military rotation policy causes these commanders and facility managers to be faced with a two- to three-year time horizon within which to perform or get out and strongly orients their perspective toward civilians [Refs. 12, 56 and 101].

Concerning the quality of the military/civilian interface, Navy executives reported that they felt it caused minor problems at executive levels and major problems at middle and lower management levels [Refs. 13 and 70]. Further, the military respondents, for the most part, attributed the cause of the interface problem to the structural differences between the two systems rather than to personnel factors. Although initial steps were taken in the spring of 1978 to bring the military and civilian systems together as part of the total force concept, through Manpower Planning under the Chief of Naval Operations, the structural differences are still considerable. Military personnel have little vested interest in the training of civilians. The civilian system has no ready mechanism for covering the workload of those attending training, thus creating a manpower shortage as contrasted to between-assignments training and open billets in the military system. The acceptance of temporary

assignments by civilians can jeopardize their positions and chances of promotions within their parent organizations because, in their absence, they are not in a position to know of opportunities nor to defend their rights. Civilians are neither required nor encouraged to be mobile and are consequently seen as parochial in experience and outlook. Complementary findings were reported on complaints commonly voiced by military managers [Ref. 47]. Goheen reported three complaints based on the following incorrect perceptions:

- . Restrictions in authority to transfer or reassign civilian employees at management's discretion;
- . Lack of an effective means to deal with marginal employees;
- . Lack of mobility of the civilian workforce.

In contrast, three had validity. They were:

- . Restraints on effective management of the work force during reduction in force greatly reduce effectiveness.
- . Restraints imposed by provisions of the civilian retirement system impose limits.
- . Restrictions and controls on management of the work week for the civilian work force reduce flexibility [Ref. 47].

Lau et al. report [Ref. 70] that the Navy's organizational structure for managing its civilian employees must be adequately understood by the military before the role and the utilization of civilians can be understood. The present aversion of military managers toward civilian employees should not be considered immutable; unfounded concerns could

be dispelled through a training program that would emphasize how to use existing policies and directives to best advantage [Ref. 12]. Implementation of this recommendation is proceeding now with a two-week course [Ref. 84].

E. THE INFLUENCE OF MILITARY CAREERS

In naval activities, it is the military who are the commanding officers and who make the final decisions. The civilian role for white-collar professional employees is principally that of technical advisors and technical specialists [Ref. 84]. The applicant for a particular job must have qualified into one of many specialized civil service job classifications; then he must be chosen. The choice of the applicant by the commanding officer reflects the varied pressures on the activity and the selection personnel. The Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 has made an attempt to change the specialist structure at the senior executive service level to a broader level. However, the fact remains that the military, in pursuit of their own careers, are the decision-makers. Military, as with any other group of aspiring individuals, will attempt to optimize their career potential through career-enhancing choices. For this reason, it is imperative, in the study of civilian logistic careers, to understand the military career and the "carrots" military personnel follow.

Military career patterns are rooted in tradition and are oriented toward warfare and staff specialties [Refs. 2, 57

and 101]. In general, those individuals who pursue warfare specialties, although they might serve in staff specialties, are more likely to achieve a high rank than their contemporaries who choose staff specialties [Refs. 17, 57, 74, 94 and 110]. The choice of assignment and attendant efforts to secure that assignment are based upon assessments of successful predecessors and involves securing noteworthy fitness reports along with the appropriate "tickets punched" [Refs. 5, 9, 67, 75, 88, 94, 101, 110, 131]. Although concern has been expressed as to whether this approach in all the services is viable in light of today's environment and needs, little has been done toward substantial change [Refs. 7, 20, 56, 57, 68, 75, 82, 92 and 93].

F. SUMMARY

This chapter has described the organizational and career development environment for civilians. It is within this environment of adversary relationships that the civilian employee must sort out and optimize situations for career purposes. It is a competitive environment where the decision-makers are frequently rotated and possess shorter time horizons and different goals than those of the civilians. It is an environment in which civilian careers and development opportunities are solely up to the commanding officer and his resource constraints.

IV. CIVILIAN CAREER PROGRAMS

A. INTRODUCTION

This chapter addresses the structure of the civilian career programs. Through reviewing civilian career programs, emphasizing the current civilian logistics career program, the structure, management strategy and responsibilities inherent in these programs are presented. An assessment is made of the civilian logistics career program accomplishments toward satisfying the needs described in Chapter II and III.

B. CAREER PROGRAM POLICY

Civilian career program policy is contained within the Federal Personnel Manual (FPM), Chapter 950, through issuance of instructions that incorporate various other instructions and directives that are adopted for use. For the naval establishment, the Office of Personnel Management has been issuing the Navy Civilian Career Management Instructions (CCMI). Civilian career programs have two perspectives: (1) DoD-wide and (2) Navy. From a policy and detailed requirements standpoint, the DoD-wide civilian career programs appear to be the forerunner of Navy programs. The DoD-wide civilian career programs, according to CCMI 950-A-1 (also DoDD 1430.2), "...shall be developed for occupational specialties employed by such functional areas

as: procurement, supply, finance, research and development, and other appropriate groupings and shall include for each occupational specialty or other subdivision or grouping the program elements contained in DoD Instruction 1430.10 (DoD-wide Civilian Career Programs) and the following elements:

- a. Clear lines of progression to successively more responsible positions.
- b. A coordinated training and development program for the occupational specialty using in-service and non-federal facilities both to improve present performance and to prepare employees for higher responsibilities. Such programs shall include a specific plan for use of leading management training courses available in-house and at facilities outside the Department of Defense.
- c. Provisions for a minimum annual intake of carefully selected career personnel with potential for responsible managerial positions. A minimum annual intake in each occupational specialty is essential to assure a continued flow of persons capable of benefiting from long-term development programs.
- d. Planned work assignments designed to develop managerial and technical competence. Programs of cross-training between installations and components of the Department of Defense will be fostered through rotational assignments and exchanges for specified periods. Exchange of personnel with other Government agencies also will be encouraged.
- e. Procedures for referral of suitable personnel for career development opportunities on an installation, command, component and DoD-wide basis.
- f. Procedures for counseling employees and appraising employee potential."

C. CIVILIAN CAREER PROGRAMS

Since the establishment of the DoD-wide career programs in 1964, there have been only four published programs:

- (1) Procurement Personnel (DoD Manual 1430.10-M-1),
- (2) Quality and Reliability Assurance Personnel (DoD Manual 1430-M-2),
- (3) General Intelligence Personnel (DoD Manual 1430-M-3), and
- (4) Financial Management Personnel (DoD Manual 1430-M-4).

Within the Department of the Navy, and approved for application to the Marine Corps, nine career programs are either in use or under development [Ref. 84]. The career programs are reported to be designed to: (1) improve the quality of the staff in the occupation, (2) standardize training and qualification requirements, (3) facilitate the movement into and within a functional area, and (4) assure a continuing influx of new talent into the career fields. The civilian career programs, summarized in Figure 2, are comprised of:

- . Personnel Management and Equal Employment Opportunity Management,
- . Financial Management,
- . Contracting,
- . General Intelligence,
- . Logistics,
- . Education Specialist
- . Weapons System Acquisition Management,

- . Engineer and Scientist,
- . Automatic Data Processing.

D. CAREER PROGRAM ORIENTATION

The civilian career programs are primarily oriented toward developing journeyman employees through intern programs. NCPC Notice 12950 states: "...the primary concern with supervisory and managerial segments of the work force is the identification and selection of persons who are concerned with managing a program and the personnel necessary to insure its effective operation" [Ref. 84]. Requirements changes effected by the Office of Personnel Management (OPM) and DoD highlighted the need for improved coordination and integration of career programs and the information system which supports them. The Secretary of the Navy in SECNAVINST 12950.12, Civilian Career Management Programs; Responsibilities for; 12 November 1976, assigned to the Director of Civilian Personnel additional responsibilities. These include personnel policy decisions, policy guidance on career systems development, and assistance in career program implementation. Specific actions outlined for the Director of Civilian Personnel are:

1. Identification of a senior official as a representative on career program steering committees (career boards).
2. Serving as liaison between steering committees and the Civilian Executive Management Board.

3. Convening occasional meetings of steering committee chairpersons when common problems or areas of interest are identified.
4. Assuring that all documents issued for implementation of career programs accurately and appropriately reflect sound personnel management policy.
5. Providing management advisory services to senior Navy managers of career systems.
6. Supporting program implementation efforts and defining the nature of OPM support.
7. Identification of career field coverage for all career programs and resolution of program interface problems among program managers.

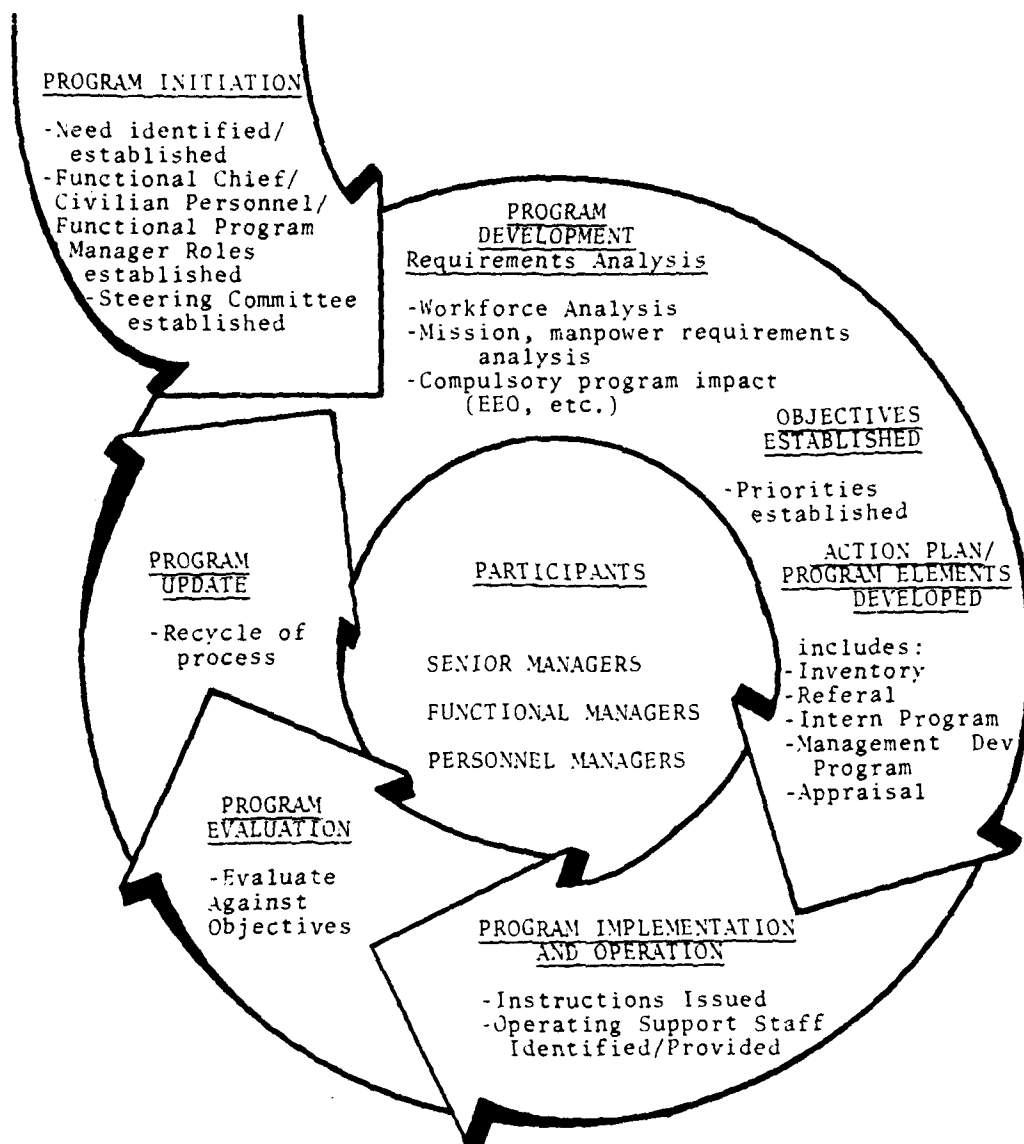
The Civilian Career Program Development Model, Figure 3, outlines the processes used in the development and implementation of civilian career programs [Ref. 84].

E. CIVILIAN CAREER PROGRAM CYCLE

Secretary of Navy Instruction 12950.12 outlines the process for the development and implementation of civilian career programs. This program provides the framework within which personnel to staff logistics-related positions might be developed. It is described in the following outline.

1. Program Initiation

Senior officials initiate career programs which identify existing or probable future work force inadequacies in the functions they manage. The program management structure consists of functional and line managers, supported by the personnel staff who assume the primary responsibility for career programs. Steps in the process follow.



CIVILIAN CAREER PROGRAM DEVELOPMENT CYCLE

SOURCE: SECNAVINST 12950.12

Figure 3

a. Managers and other experts in the function contribute information and judgments concerning required skills, knowledge and abilities.

b. Functional and line managers obtain resources, and direct actions to be taken through the organizational chain of command.

c. Civilian personnel staffs provide guidance on applicable personnel policy and requirements, and assist in such activities as central support processes and work force data analysis.

2. Program Development

Development consists of the identification of career fields and work force analysis and planning. The foundation on which all career program elements are constructed is the work force analysis. It combines current and past quantitative data, primarily obtained from the Navy Personnel Automated Data System (PADS), and qualitative work force data with managerial forecasts. Task analysis, using survey questionnaires and computer processing and analysis techniques, is used to gain understanding of the actual work performed by the occupational group surveyed. The resulting analysis enables functional managers to perform the following tasks.

- . Evaluate the number and kinds of employees and skills needed.
- . Identify employment trends.

- . Establish the personnel processes needed to meet future mission needs.
- . Estimate future work force costs and requirements.
- . Foster affirmative action efforts.

3. Action Plan Development

The action plan focuses on the objectives and the specific personnel and line management actions to be taken. Typically, these actions encompass the intake and advancement, training and development, and appraisal and counseling.

a. Intake and Advancement

There is concern as to the availability of fully qualified personnel at the journeyman positions. Normally recruits enter at the GS-5 and GS-7 levels into career ladder positions although in some specialized occupations pre-entry programs are used to attract needed personnel and provide assistance in meeting entry qualifications.

b. Training and Development

Three major skill areas receive special attention.

- . Technical skills are considered primarily to be those needed to attain full performance levels and to impart the basic technical or occupational skills, knowledge and abilities identified through the functional manager's work force analysis process.
- . Supervisory and managerial skills concentrate on maintaining or improving human relations using OPM-established minimum requirements. Additional formal training identified as critical to the implementation of the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 is included.

- . Appraisal and counseling are carried out at the local level and are primarily the responsibility of the immediate supervisor.

c. Program Evaluation

Measurement of program performance is appraised qualitatively and quantitatively against established goals and objectives.

F. CIVILIAN LOGISTICS CAREER PROGRAM

The Civilian Logistics Career Program is of substantially larger scope than the other Navy civilian career programs. This program is intended to support professional personnel engaged in the following logistics support functions.

- . Supply and Transportation Management.
- . Maintenance Management and Engineering, excluding facilities management.
- . Integrated Logistics Support Management.
- . Quality and Reliability Assurance Management.
- . Logistics Data Management.
- . Support and Test Equipment Management.
- . Personnel and Training Management.
- . Configuration, Status and Accounting Management.
- . Safety Management.
- . Expendable Ordnance Material Management.
- . Fuel Facilities Management.

Note: Guidance from CNM added Expendable Ordnance Material Management, Fuel Facilities Management and divided Supply and Transportation Management into two areas for scenario development [Ref. 87].

The Department of the Navy Civilian Logistics Career Management Program, as established by SECNAVINST 12950.4a (1 February 1973), included all civilians, GS-5 and above, engaged in the logistics support management function. Specific Wage Board and Wage Grade personnel in the Reliability and Quality Assurance functions were also included. The Logistics Career Management Program was established as a centrally managed intern program to produce journeyman level employees with the final selection and placement of the trainees to be in either the headquarters or field activities of the following concerned commands:

- . The Naval Material Command (NAVMAT) which is responsible primarily for research, development, test and evaluation, acquisition and life-cycle material support of the operating forces.
- . The Naval Electronics Systems Command (NAVELEX-SYSCOM) which is responsible primarily for electronic communications, navigation and surveillance systems ashore and afloat as well as aeronautical interfaces.
- . The Naval Sea Systems Command (NAVSEASYSCOM) with responsibilities primarily for surface combatant and noncombatant ships, sub-surface craft, weapons and ordnance.
- . The Naval Supply Systems Command (NAVSUPSYSCOM) which is responsible primarily for stockage, material inventory and management, subsistence supplies, the operation of the Navy wholesale and retail supply system, storage and transportation management, fuels management, and printing and publications services.
- . The Naval Air Systems Command (NAVAIRSYSCOM) with responsibilities primarily for all aeronautical and aeronautical-peculiar hardware, photographic equipment, airborne weapons and aviation interfaces such as catapult and arresting gear.

- . The Naval Facilities Engineering Command (NAVFACENGCOM) which is responsible primarily for the design, acquisition and construction of naval facilities, and real property management.

G. ADMINISTRATION OF THE LOGISTICS INTERN PROGRAM

The administration of the logistics intern program reflects the guidance given by DoD and the Navy for career programs, and consists of initial and follow-up programs.

An initial Individual Development Plan (IDP) must be completed and forwarded by a trainee's permanent supervisor within eight weeks after the trainee reports. It must be reviewed by the career counselor. The IDP is based on model development plans issued to the duty stations. Approved IDP's are then forwarded to the designated training sites for review and the necessary arrangements for the training outlined. Strong emphasis is placed on continued organizational and/or geographic flexibility along with training and other self-development activities. IDP's are to include work experiences in a variety of functions to provide a broad base of technical skills as well as management skills. Related instruction through attendance at service schools, lectures and conferences, formal training at the activity and at non-governmental activities, and orientation to acquaint the trainee with the operations of DoD, DoN, NMC and the systems commands are also included. The programs are based on the following assumptions.

- . Model development plans are complete and accurate and are based on actual attitudes, knowledge, skills and abilities needed.
- . The supervisor has the skills, abilities and knowledge as well as the assessment tools necessary to complete IDP's.
- . The supervisors and career counselors are organizationally motivated and rewarded for their efforts.
- . The training site commands are organizationally motivated to provide appropriate environments.
- . The individual readily comprehends the environment and the long-range goals so as to be able to make supportive decisions.
- . There are readily available instructional opportunities for the trainee to acquire the necessary attitudes, knowledge, skills and abilities.
- . Organizational and/or geographic mobility is the optimum policy.

1. Organization of the Intern Program

The organization and functions of the Logistics

Intern Program are described as follows:

- . Each participating systems command is to appoint functional advisors in each of the logistics disciplines for which trainees are hired to the Logistics Center Management Steering Committee. These advisors provide advice and assistance to program operations and assume responsibility for the evaluation and operation of the programs within their commands.
- . Duty stations are to provide career counselors from among the career groups to which the trainees are assigned. These counselors provide a single point of contact for personnel matters, on-the-job guidance, IDP development, trainee instruction, the maintenance of individual performance records and quarterly appraisals, and administrative support.

- . Logistics Intern Development Centers are established to administer the program.
- . Recruitment is performed by the Capital Area Personnel Services Office - Navy (CAPSO - N) which is responsible for outside recruitment and coordination of trainees. Responsibility for conducting recruitment of displaced DoD employees for the program rests with the Chief of Naval Material.
- . Qualifications are based on the appropriate Civil Service Commission (CSC) Handbook X-118.

2. The Program Function

The assumptions upon which the program was established were not always valid. While initial plans and objectives appear to be well thought out, it is hardly possible for the program to function effectively until the underlying support is assured. Examination of these assumptions raises many questions.

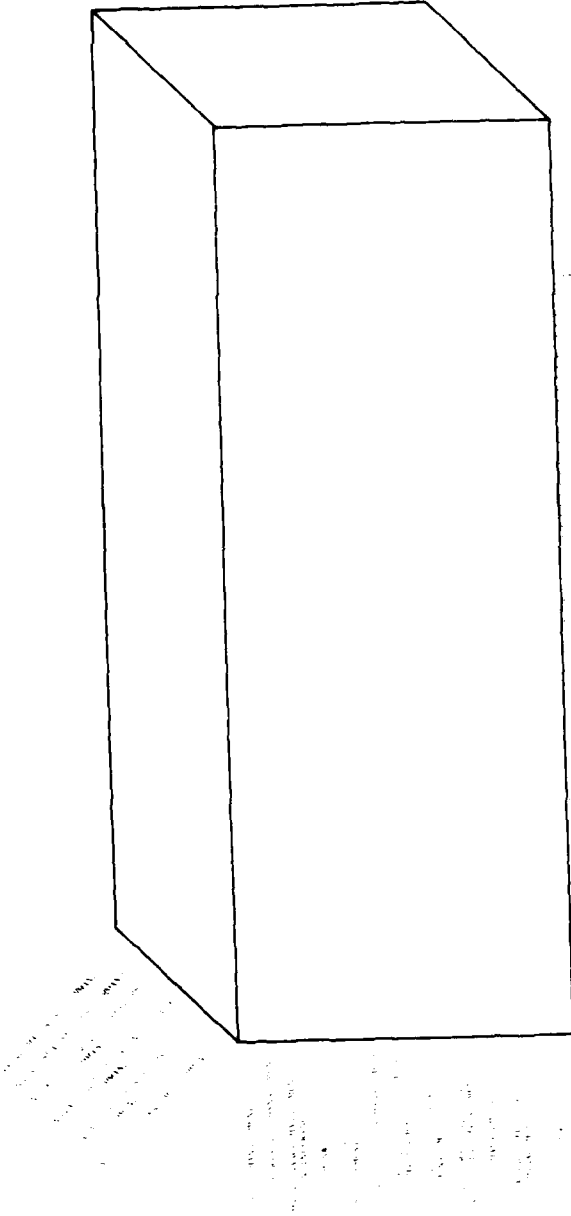
One of the assumptions is that functional advisors have, or have access to, analytical resources within their organizations. This may or may not be true. Another is that policy emanating from a specific functional area within a systems command is consistently followed within the command. Room for doubt is certainly present. It has always been difficult if not impossible for a central recruiting and selecting agency to acquire people with needed disciplines and qualifications in sufficient numbers.

It is doubtful that the logistics organizational technology is broad-based enough to allow decentralized development. Duty stations may not have sufficient internal

resources and capabilities nor the inclination to provide competent development in the prescribed time periods.

The complexities of the Civilian Logistics Career Program can be considered from functional, disciplinary, or command standpoints as illustrated in Figure 4. In 1977, a study was initiated in support of the Civilian Logistics Career Program to develop scenarios applicable to its various functions for long-range planning purposes [Ref. 83a]. A review of the effort [Ref. 60a] identified:

1. The lack of comprehensive review criteria to evaluate the scenarios.
2. The lack of data supporting the scenarios.
3. A referencing of the tasks and duties primarily to weapons areas with lack of attention to others.
4. The lack of some form of logistics model to assess possible impacts.
5. The lack of understanding of the current logistics organization and policies as reflected in the current directives, notices, instructions, etc.
6. The limited logistics educational programs in the private sector.
7. Insufficient attention to logistics interfaces, not only between the logistics functions, but between other functional areas, i.e., engineering, operational forces, and fleet maintenance, encountered throughout the life cycle of the hardware.
8. Unsubstantiated or incomplete assessments of the external constraints or impacts on the operation of the Navy's logistics system.



COMPLEXITIES OF THE CIVILIAN LOGISTICS CAREER PROGRAM

Figure 4
10

Although career planning in logistics is limited to the intake and development of journeyman logisticians in the previously identified functional areas and has a goal of satisfying 50% of the demand requirements, there have been difficulties. These difficulties have been characterized as the inability to attract and recruit sufficient numbers and types of engineering talent to fill known demand; de facto emphasis on certain functional areas where talent is available so as to be able to fill vacant trainee positions and protect both the budget and ceiling points that are allocated; reduction of headquarters staffing needed to develop, coordinate and manage the program; and the lack of a means or a program to transfer development requirements to the remaining 50% of the emerging work force [Ref. 129].

A factor to be considered in the development of the Navy civilian career program for logistics is the current management group at the executive level, GS-16 and above, including political appointees, now designated as the Senior Executive Service (SES). The SES was developed in an attempt to change the civil service concept of rank by position with appropriate pay to rank of an individual with appropriate pay concept, Table I. Distributions of Senior Executive Service personnel in the Navy show the numbers and percentages of GS-16 and higher people by functional discipline, by employer category and by education.

DISTRIBUTION OF SENIOR EXECUTIVE SERVICE PERSONNEL IN THE NAVY

DISTRIBUTION BY WORK CATEGORY

WORK AREA	percent of total
Research and Development	65
Weapons Acquisition	14
Financial Management	8
Personnel Administration	6
All Others	7
Total	100

DISTRIBUTION BY EMPLOYER OR COMMAND

Employer	No. of Persons	
	PERCENT	NUMBER
Operational Forces	1.6	6
Naval Material Command		
Headquarters	2.7	10
Systems Commands	29.8	110
R&D Centers/Labs	20.1	74
Project Management	5.9	22
Field Activities	.5	2
Secretary of the Navy, CNO, ONR, etc.	39.4	146
Totals	100.0	370

DISTRIBUTION BY EDUCATION

Highest Degree	Percent of Total	Academic Discipline	Percent of Total
Doctorate	34	Physical Sciences or Engineering	66
Masters	28	Management or Business	18
Bachelors	36	Other	16
Other	16		
Total	100	Total	100

Source: NPRDC TR-79-27

Table I

The current concept that entry into the federal service might be at any level is intended to encourage the services to broaden the experience base of their employees, particularly at higher grade levels. Information shown in Table indicates the perceived distribution of needs among senior executives simply because evolution has been to the present situation. The following historical information indicates that, if the past is any indication of direction for the future, the concept of entry by individuals at any level might be difficult to bring about.

- . Only 10% entered federal service at the GS-13 to GS-15 level.
- . 14% entered at GS-16 or above.
- . 67% have been employed by the Navy for their entire career.
- . 22% have worked in one other agency.
- . 11% have worked in two or more other agencies.
- . 62% received executive appointment in the same Naval organization in which they were already employed.
- . 13% were from another Naval organization.
- . 25% were from outside the Navy.
- . 35% have changed jobs only once.
- . 16% have been employed only by the Navy.
- . 45% have not changed jobs or tasks in the past five years.

These data indicate a narrowness of background among the Senior Executive Service incumbents and tend to substantiate

the functional specialist concepts of federal civilian employment.

A factor contributing to limit the civilian selection process is that permanent change of station (PCS) funding for civilians must come from the selecting activity's operations and maintenance accounts and not from a centralized account as is the case for military PCS. This tends to cause activities to limit selections of people to fill vacant or new positions to those already on hand.

The tendency to become in-grown is also accentuated by the need for immediate performance by a billet incumbent, particularly at higher grade levels. Commanders hesitate to risk the resources needed to develop the unknown.

There is little or no incentive for employees to take advantage of available opportunities for lateral transfer other than to escape from a dead-end position or an unfavorable working condition.

H. SUMMARY

This paper has indicated the complexity of logistics work in the Naval environment. It has also exposed the Naval environmental conditions which tend to present obstacles to the development of competent logistics managers, particularly into the higher rank levels. Chapter V addresses the effect of current theory and industrial practices on individuals and the logistics career programs.

V. THE EFFECT OF CURRENT THEORY AND INDUSTRIAL PRACTICES
ON THE LOGISTICS CAREER PROGRAM

A. INTRODUCTION

This chapter assesses the effect of current theory and industrial practices on the individual and the Civilian Logistics Career Program. The previous chapters have described the logistics environment, the organizational and career development environment and the civilian career programs. This chapter introduces private sector experiences to further assess the civilian logistics program and to be able to provide suggestions for change in the last chapter. To this end:

- . Appendix B, Organizational Manpower Planning Considerations, will be introduced.
- . Appendix C, Behavioral Factors Influencing Career Choices, will be contrasted.
- . Definitional problems will be addressed in Appendix A.

B. ORGANIZATIONS

Current theory and industrial practices in organizational career programs have identified nine integrated characteristics that are included in Human Resources Management (Appendix B). The characteristics are:

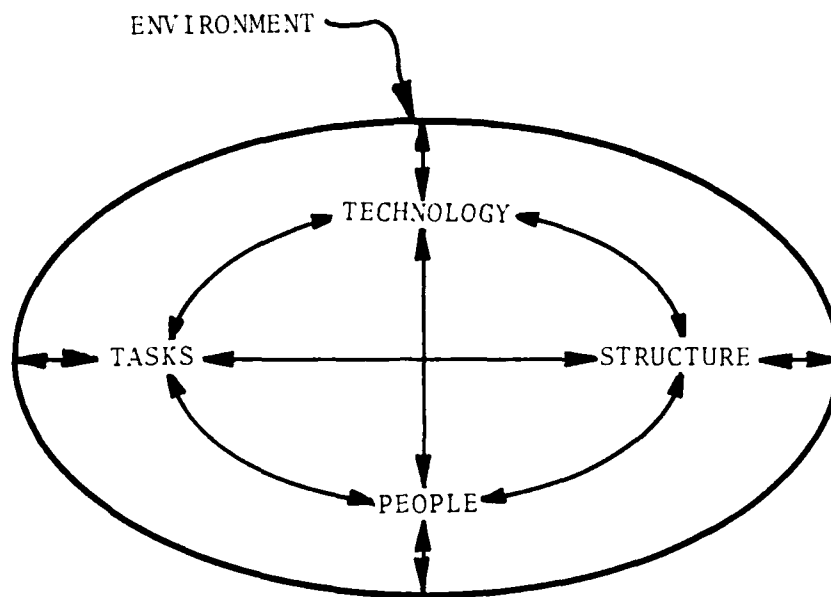
- . A cohesive organizational strategy
- . Long-range and short-range plans

- . Organizational design
- . Manpower policy
- . Human resource planning
- . Personnel management
- . Career management
- . Training and development activities
- . Control, evaluation and audit systems

Organizations practicing career management and development have interpreted the Human Resource Management concepts into their ongoing administrative and operational programs. The Leavitt paradigm, Figure 5, depicting the interaction of the environment with the organizational dimensions of technology, structure, tasks and people best describes the system needed to conduct career management efforts. Due to the differences in markets, products, organizational strategies, regulations and business practices, there is no uniform approach to career development or human resource management nor a consensus as to whether or not the organization should undertake such endeavors. However, it appears that most progressive corporations have adopted career development and human resource management efforts and have done so for economic reasons.

C. INDIVIDUALS

For individuals who desire to develop a career, research indicates that they must have the ability to understand



Leavitt's ORGANIZATIONAL PARADGIM

SOURCE: H.J. LEAVITT;
Managerial Psychology

Figure 5

themselves as they will be the prime change agents [Ref. 64]. As William O. Grabe of IBM Corporation states, "Career planning is more art than science and highly individualized. Nonetheless, some form of plan can greatly enhance the evaluation of various opportunities and enable [one] as a manager to make better career decisions" [Ref. 64]. Raymond R. Dirksen of Eaton Corporation states: "If you have worked out a positive career plan that allows no deviation, any detour or delay over which you have no control can cause severe mental problems" [Ref. 64]. David E. Liebson of Corning Glass states: "In planning his career, a manager should start with one objective: outstanding performance in every position. To demonstrate on the current job how well we can do the general manager's job, or to regard the present job as just another step in our career plan, is deadly. The best guarantee for the future is outstanding performance in the present" [Ref. 64]. For those interested in general management, Grabe states: "Experience in several functions such as engineering, marketing and finance early in a career provides the broad experience base that an individual needs to become a good general manager." Research concerning career-oriented individuals has not conclusively proven that individuals who plan or who do not plan their careers are more likely to "get ahead." It has been shown that individuals who demonstrate competency and make use of opportunities do "get ahead."

Often career models are linked to managerial positions that define what is meant by "getting ahead." The establishment of programs for training and continuing education are based on these premises. "All this money and effort rests on a questionable model. It has not been demonstrated that courses improve performance. Our studies have, in fact, shown repeatedly that high performers are no more likely to have taken continuing education courses than low performers" [Ref. 24]. Research results summarized in Figure 6 concerning professionally trained employees [Refs. 24 and 119] have identified four distinct career stages in which those individuals who were moving successfully through these stages received high performance ratings. Those individuals who remained in the early stages were likely to be low-rated. Further, when tasks performed at each career stage were compared to the next, there was some overlap. It was, therefore, concluded that "fast tracking" or skipping through stage I or stage II proved to have adverse effects on the future careers of the individuals involved because "...they had never learned how to do solid technical work" [Ref. 119].

D. ASSESSMENT OF THE CIVILIAN LOGISTICS CAREER PROGRAM

Chapter IV presented the structure and management of the logistics career program. The program was described as an intern program designed to develop journeyman employees in

	STAGE I APPRENTICESHIP	STAGE II CONTRIBUTER	STAGE III MENTOR	STAGE IV INFLUENCER
CENTRAL ACTIVITY	HELPING, LEARNING, FOLLOWING DIRECTIONS	INDEPENDANT CONTRIBUTER	TRAINING, INTERFACING	SHAPING THE DIRECTION OF THE ORGANIZATION
PRIMARY RELATIONSHIPS	APPRENTICE	COLLEAGUES	MENTOR	SPONSOR
MAJOR PSYCHOLOGICAL ISSUES	DEPENDANCE	INDEPENDANCE	ASSUMING RESPONSIBILITY FOR OTHERS	EXERCISING POWER

Figure 6

THE FOUR STAGES IN CAREER DEVELOPMENT

by Dalton, Thompson, and Price

prescribed amounts of time, to fill approximately 50% of anticipated demand, to heavily rely on the use of IDP's and first-line supervision, to employ ad hoc steering committees for program planning and the decentralized personnel management system for final placement.

With respect to individual interns, the incentives to pursue the program are rapid advancement, educational opportunities, and the ability to delay a commitment to either an activity or a particular logistics specialty until "graduation." With respect to management, excluding first-line supervision, the incentives to participate in the program are first-hand work environment experience with potential employees through which recruiting efforts can be either intensified or downplayed, minimal activity direct cost in either dollars or ceiling points and a convenient means to expose individuals to the naval environment without making a commitment. First-line supervision, with the principal job of ensuring the necessary quantity and quality of work produced, does not necessarily have the incentives to provide intern support. The degree of first-line supervision support is a function of command policy, which is a function of the commanding officer and the military career system pressures.

Reviewing the integrated organizational characteristics developed from current theory and industrial practices

against the civilian logistics career program reveals substantial variance. Fundamental differences regarding the definition of terms was discovered between private sector and government applications of what appeared, on the surface, to be the same human resource concept. Although a direct comparison and analysis of these differences is outside the scope of this thesis, Appendix A was generated as a point of reference and departure for future efforts.

The civilian logistics career program is oriented toward a portion of the journeyman requirements and none of the managerial or executive positions. As a result, a significant portion of the professional work force is excluded. The emphasis of the civilian logistics career program, when compared to the nine private-sector human resource characteristics, appears to be in training and development activities. There does not appear to be any integration with the other Navy systems that perform various aspects of the other private-sector human resource characteristics. The civilian logistics career program is oriented toward functional areas versus the strategic planning and resultant needs. It does not have the vested interest of the military. It appears over-reliant on rotational, geographic and organizational policies versus the recognition of required attitude, knowledge, skills and abilities of the jobs, the career stages of individuals, and organizational incentives which precipitate mobility.

There is no evidence that the logistics career program is based on common knowledge, skills or abilities nor, due to the different scientific technologies involved, are common knowledge, skills or abilities believed practical.

The organizational technology employed in the logistics system is confusing and unclear which has resulted in multiple policies that appear uncoordinated between and within functional areas, the precipitation of multiple ad hoc committees to conduct daily business, and the general lack of understanding of the organization's business. The organizational design process is employed on an activity-to-activity basis to the exclusion of the total organization.

For other than the individual's own goals and purposes, individual development plans are an effort in futility as there are no organizational rewards outside the intern programs for undertaking development. As positions are classified using the appropriate X-118 Handbook, it is probably more advisable for the individual to seek developmental experiences based on those requirements and integrate specialized programs to that context.

The decentralized civilian personnel function lacks the staff and capability to perform analytical work necessary to support civilian career field development.

The Civilian Personnel Automated Data System is still undergoing development and its primary purpose appears to be the collection and processing of work force composition data

for evaluation of Equal Employment Opportunity programs. Career management appears to be an adjunct. This is believed to be principally due to the organizational structure and technology definition problems.

The Navy's organizational and civilian career problems cannot and will not be solved in a short period of time nor at little expense. They are embodied in both tradition and the false perceptions of purpose that pervade the entire organization in both the military and civilian communities.

E. SUMMARY

Current theory and industrial practices have shown the economic advantage of career programs and human resource management. The structure of these programs has been integral to the operation of the organization and has had positive benefits and incentives for both the organization and the affected individual.

The Navy has recognized the need for career programs by virtue of their very existence but has not taken advantage of industrial practices tailored to the Navy's unique requirements. The confluence of the military and civilian personnel systems, along with political dynamics, has had a significant impact on the operation of the current logistics system. To develop and implement a civilian career program and human resources management system will require a substantial effort from the Navy as a total organization.

VI. SUGGESTIONS FOR CHANGE

A. INTRODUCTION

The future of the past is in the future. The future of the present is in the past. The future of the future is in the present.

John McHale

The previous chapters have presented an analysis of the civilian personnel logistics work force and logistics career program from two perspectives, the first being internal to the government and the other through current theory and industrial practice. Organizational problems and their possible causes were presented that provide obstacles to the development and implementation of civilian career development and human resource management efforts.

B. RECOMMENDATIONS

1. Civilian personnel offices should be realigned, along the responsibility-center concept of the Navy's financial management system, to be independent activities reporting to CNO (OP-14) as the major claimant. This realignment would infuse the civilian personnel function directly into the operations and maintenance budget cycle for the dollar and ceiling points. Further, other than for salaries, activities receiving personnel support would contract through work requests for reimbursable services. This

action would require naval activities to plan for the level of civilian personnel support required and to evaluate policies affecting civilians in terms of added support costs.

2. The civilian personnel function, OP-14, should develop an in-house analytical capability to support human resource management, career development and strategic issues. Resources needed, in terms of ceiling points, could be obtained through existing resources within the personnel system and would be within the purview of OP-14 if the civilian personnel function were realigned as suggested in the previous recommendation.

3. Civilian employees must receive training and indoctrination regarding the military personnel and career systems, the military way of life (including family perspectives) and other functional areas so as to be aware of their pressures and to be in a position to optimize decisions on the various alternatives for career development. OP-14, as an adjunct to the military program of indoctrination, would be in a position to develop and disseminate a program for civilians. This suggestion, if adopted and expanded equally for military and civilians, would serve to educate the respective parties from common source material and to spur dialogue concerning common problems that could eventually lead to acceptable solutions.

4. The organizational performance evaluation reward systems for both the military and civilians must be reviewed and revised, as appropriate, to provide the necessary incentives and stipends for human resource management efforts that increase productivity, morale and/or reduce absenteeism, turnover and human inefficiency. Although the full impact of this suggestion cannot be realized without considering the total organization and its dimensions, it is intended to provide a means to induce line management into a more immediate change and to establish a condition whereby a full organizational analysis might be accepted.

5. Long-term solutions require a more thorough understanding of the organization, its needs, its markets and its constraints. In this regard, it is suggested that an external research and development council be chartered and funded to support the organization's study of itself. As objectivity and factual evidence will be essential to the success of this effort due to the inherent emotional responses that may ensue, it is further recommended that this council be comprised of selected faculty members and established at the Naval Postgraduate School, Monterey, California. The council should be chartered with the responsibility to explore the logistics systems's problems as identified herein and orient their efforts toward the design of implementable policies and solutions to those problems by:

a. Developing and proposing the detailed efforts needed to thoroughly understand specific issues.

b. Centrally reviewing recommendations and implementation plans so as to ensure compatibility with the overall goal.

c. Contracting, securing and coordinating the services of those individuals, activities and organizations in both the government and the private sector with the necessary qualifications and interests to support the overall program.

d. Providing both implementation support and follow-up status and evaluation efforts.

e. Providing the basis for and the training program for the development of the needed in-house organizational development and analytical capabilities.

APPENDIX A

DEFINITIONS

ATTITUDES - A relatively enduring system of effective, evaluative reactions based upon and reflecting concepts or beliefs which have been learned about the characteristics of a "social object" (or concept [Fishbein]) or class of social objects (or concepts [Ibid.]), including, of course, the people with whom the individual is associated [Shaw and Wright]. The effect of attitudes is on the person's thinking or behavior.

BASIC HUMAN ABILITIES - Fairly enduring traits which have both learned and genetic components underlying their development [Farina] which has been inferred from certain response consistencies (e.g., correlations) on certain kinds of tasks [Fleischman] usually classified in four general categories [McCormick and Tiffin]: (1) Mental abilities (cognitive or intellectual by contents, operations and products [Gilford]); (2) Mechanical and related abilities (mechanical aptitudes, comprehension of mechanical relations, the recognition of tools for various purposes and related cognitive abilities [Tyler]); (3) Psychomotor abilities (dexterity, manipulative ability, motor ability, eye-hand coordination and other aspects of relatively skilled muscular performance, frequently involving some degree of visual control [McCormick and Tiffin]; and (4) Visual skills (visual acuity, depth perception, color discrimination and postural characteristics [McCormick and Tiffin]).

CAREER - A career covers a sequence of positions, jobs or occupations that one person engages in during his working life [Shartle].

EFFICIENCY - Measured by the cost per unit of output per year and the amount of idle resources per year.

GENERALIST - A common misuse of the English language referring to: (1) the developed attitudes, knowledge, skills and abilities of individuals that, in a general applications sense, are appropriate to different jobs; (2) the individual who, through either training or successfully demonstrating technical competence in several occupations, has expanded the attitudes,

knowledge, skills and abilities beyond that which is required in any one occupational field.

GOALS - (1) An object or end that one strives to attain; aim [Guralnik]; (2) In an organizational sense, there are five categories of goals [Cyert and March] which may be conflicting, and they may be pursued all at once or in sequence [Perrow]:

a. Societal Goals. Referent: Society in general. Examples: Produce goods and services; maintain order; generate and maintain cultural values.

b. Output Goals. Referent: The public in contact with the organization. This category deals with types of output defined in terms of consumer functions. Examples: Consumer goods; business services; health care; education.

c. System Goals. Referent: The state or manner of functioning of the organization, independent of the goods or services it produces or its derived goals. Examples: Emphasis upon growth, stability, profits or upon modes of functioning, such as being tightly or loosely controlled or structured.

d. Product Goals (or more exactly, product-characteristic goals). Referent: The characteristics of the goods or services produced. Examples: An emphasis upon quality or quantity, variety, styling, availability, uniqueness, or innovativeness of the products.

e. Derived Goals. Referent: The uses to which the organization puts the power it generates in pursuit of other goals. Examples: Political aims, community services, employee development, investment and plant location policies, power which organizations may use in consistent ways to influence their own members and the environment.

JOB - A job is a group of similar positions in a single plant, business establishment, educational institution, or other organization. There may be one or many persons performing the same job [Shartle].

JOB-SPECIFIC ABILITIES - Those abilities that have some unique relevance to particular jobs; such abilities typically are learned through experience, training or education [McCormick and Tiffin].

KNOWLEDGE - (1) The act, fact or state of knowing; specifically, (a) acquaintance or familiarity (with a fact, place, etc.); (b) awareness; (c) understanding; (2) Acquaintance with facts; range of information, awareness or understanding; (3) All that has been perceived or grasped by the mind; learning; enlightenment; (4) The body of facts, principles, etc., accumulated by mankind [Guralnik].

MACRO MANPOWER PLANNING - The process concerned with the natural labor force and including projections of labor supply and forecasts of occupational, industrial and total labor force requirements [Lester].

MANPOWER PLANNING - A process concerned with providing the right number and kinds of people, at the right place, at the right time, doing things which help to fulfill organizational as well as individual objectives [Vetter].

MICRO MANPOWER PLANNING - A mechanism for resolving a set of simultaneous decisions concerning recruiting and screening methods, quantity and quality of training, compensation and related personnel factors which have traditionally been considered to be a series of separate, unrelated decisions [Cassell] in a total organizational sense.

MORALE - The extent to which an individual's needs are satisfied and the extent to which the individual perceives that satisfaction as stemming from his total job situation [Guion]. Includes references to the group such as esprit de corps or spirit [McCormick and Tiffin].

OCCUPATION - An occupation is a group of similar jobs found in several establishments [Shartle].

POSITION - A position is a group of tasks performed by one person. There are as many positions as there are workers in the organization [Shartle].

APPENDIX B
ORGANIZATIONAL MANPOWER PLANNING CONSIDERATIONS

INTRODUCTION

Manpower planning is a process concerned with providing the right number and kinds of people, at the right place at the right time, doing things which help to fulfill organizational as well as individual objectives [Ref. 125]. Historically, personnel and personnel management functions have received more attention than organizations as a whole. The principal reason suggested is that one can feel, see and communicate with people whereas one cannot do the same with organizations [Ref. 54]. Further, organizational actions involving personnel to the exclusion of the remainder of the organizational dimensions often do not provide the desired results [Refs. 8, 15, 23, 28, 29, 36, 45, 51, 52, 55, 65, 76, 85, 96, 97, 99, 100, 101 and 133]. Although people within the organization make decisions, those decisions are heavily influenced, if not controlled, by the organization's structure and technology [Refs. 10, 34, 54, 66, 71, 122 and 123].

This appendix addresses the organizational factors and the various influences that result in a system for manpower planning. This forms the basis to evaluate organizational manpower planning by describing organizational concepts. To

this end:

- * The theoretical basis for manpower planning in organizations is developed.
- * An organizational approach using industrial practices is reviewed.
- * The characteristics of a career planning system are established.

THEORETICAL BASIS FOR MANPOWER PLANNING

Weber provides the theoretical framework and the point of departure for much of the current theory and empirical research on complex organizations [Ref. 129]. Weber employed a rational-legal concept that is essential in his definition of a bureaucratic model. In layman's terms, Weber's rational-legal concept means surety, as everything is known, routine, impersonal, and calculative. Of the many virtues Weber attributed to his bureaucratic system, the following are germane to personnel systems:

1. Better use of available talent. This is especially true the more an organization moves to a pure merit system.
2. Reduction of uncertainty with predictable outcomes. To organize is to reduce uncertainty and make things predictable.
3. Performance of complex tasks with precision.
4. Reduction of personnel friction by assigning people to well-defined roles. Organizations typify the interdependence of people on people and people on work.

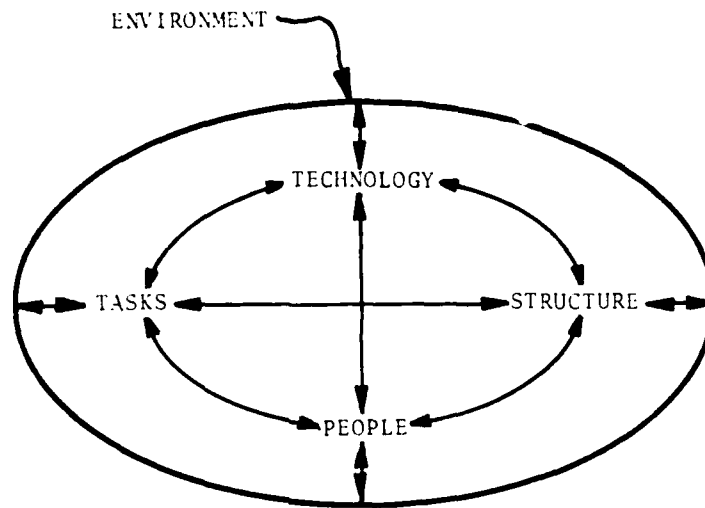
Comprehensive views of modern organizations and their organizational traps support the necessity for developing and maintaining a total open-system perspective [Refs. 8, 34, 54, 55, 66, 71, 91 and 117].

One of the most difficult management decisions to be made in an open-system context concerns the starting point for determining organizational needs. The answer given in the management literature is perhaps best stated by Drucker [Ref. 32].

Anyone who starts out with an analysis of the final product, the work itself, will soon be asking the question, "Why do we do this and why do we do that?" Usually there is no answer other than, "We have always done it." Nor does it begin with identifying operations.

Career development systems begin with analyzing and defining the desired end product [Ref. 34] and the market forces [Refs. 19, 41, 42, 43, 44, 48, 49, 58, 59 and 111] resulting in a series of management choices [Refs. 55, 71, 90, 104, 105, 122, 123 and 124] regarding the combination of factors that consume resources and produce outputs in an organizational context. Leavitt, Figure 5, presents an organizational paradigm that reflects the organization's dimensions [Ref. 71].

Management choices result in the selected technology [Ref. 80, 104 and 105], organizational structure [Refs. 34 and 35], tasks [Refs. 34 and 78] and people [Refs. 24, 44, 64, 76, 78, 81, 115 and 119] from which positions [Ref. 108] are formed and classified into jobs [Ref. 108]. To perform



**Leavitt's ORGANIZATIONAL
PARADGIM**

SOURCE: H.J. LEAVITT;
Managerial Psychology

Figure 5

well in an organizational job, individuals must possess certain attitudes, skills, knowledge and abilities to fit the requirements of the job [Refs. 34, 64, 78 and 119]. To acquire individuals with the requisite attitudes, skills, knowledge and abilities, the organization has basically one of three choices: (1) hire an individual currently possessing them, (2) train an individual, or (3) redesign the position so as to require individuals to possess only those attitudes, skills, knowledge and abilities that are readily available in the market. The underlying assumption is, of course, that if the tasks are not accomplished, some aspect of the operation or the operation itself will not function in an efficient, effective manner.

Conflict may arise when the organization's perspective on jobs and the strategies for change do not meet expectations of individuals in a maturation process on matters of assignment, social environment and promotion [Refs. 35, 58, 59, 64, 71, 78, 80, 81, 91, 99, 100, 113, 115, 119 and 130]. Although occupational and career decisions are ultimately the result of choices the individual makes as either planned or unplanned actions, organizations have a vested economic interest based on stability and growth that few recognize [Refs. 50, 64 and 116].

ORGANIZATIONAL APPROACH TO MANPOWER AND CAREER PLANNING

Many considerations are given as to whether or not an organization should establish a manpower planning program [Ref. 31] (Figure 7). The key appears to be a self-actualization ability by an organization [Ref. 64] similar to that required of an individual [Ref. 81]. Of assistance in understanding some of the sources of conflict as well as establishing a basis for the development of a manpower planning system is the realization that, in establishing jobs, the organization sets certain dimensions affecting jobs over and above the attitudes, skills, knowledge and abilities normally needed for a job [Refs. 34, 54 and 55].

These dimensions, when evaluated, not only provide a clearer indication of the type of personality best suited but also can act, when aggregated, as measures of "relativity" between various jobs. Although there is no universal scheme or accepted practice for job evaluation, not to be confused with job analysis [Ref. 78], the Hay System, from Hay Associates, appears to be gaining private-sector support [Ref. 64] and has, on a limited basis, been used in DoD [Ref. 12]. The Hay system assigns a numerical rating to the total content of each job based on aggregate measures of three basic competencies, which are:

POSITIVE	NEGATIVE
A) The Relative poor quality of the available manpower, such as absence of relevant job skills, negative work attitudes, unrealistic career expectations B) General expansion and diversification in the firm, including a trend towards multi-national operations C) Support of Affirmative Action D) Strengthen management development and reserve programs for high-level positions E) The need to increase worker productivity and managerial efficiencies F) The presence of a strong personality, typically a senior officer or president, who is committed to the concept of human resource planning	A) Past success- "We've been successful- Why change now?" B) Line vs Staff authority- "The line operators have functioned in an autonomous fashion and the personnel department is centralized; there's been no body around to spearhead the M.P. effort" C) Corporate capability- "We've been waiting the start up of corporate planning. Also, we've lacked the staff, necessary skills and even the budget. Besides, we've been too busy." D) Cost benefit- "We're heavily profit oriented and it's pretty hard to relate people development to bottom-line profits." E) Resistance to change- "It's a business-as-usual environment. We don't have a commitment to learning. Corporate knows; regional unsure; districts don't want." F) Budget stability- "Our activity is heavily tied to government contracts, and in this business it's too uncertain to make long-term manpower commitments."

Figure 2

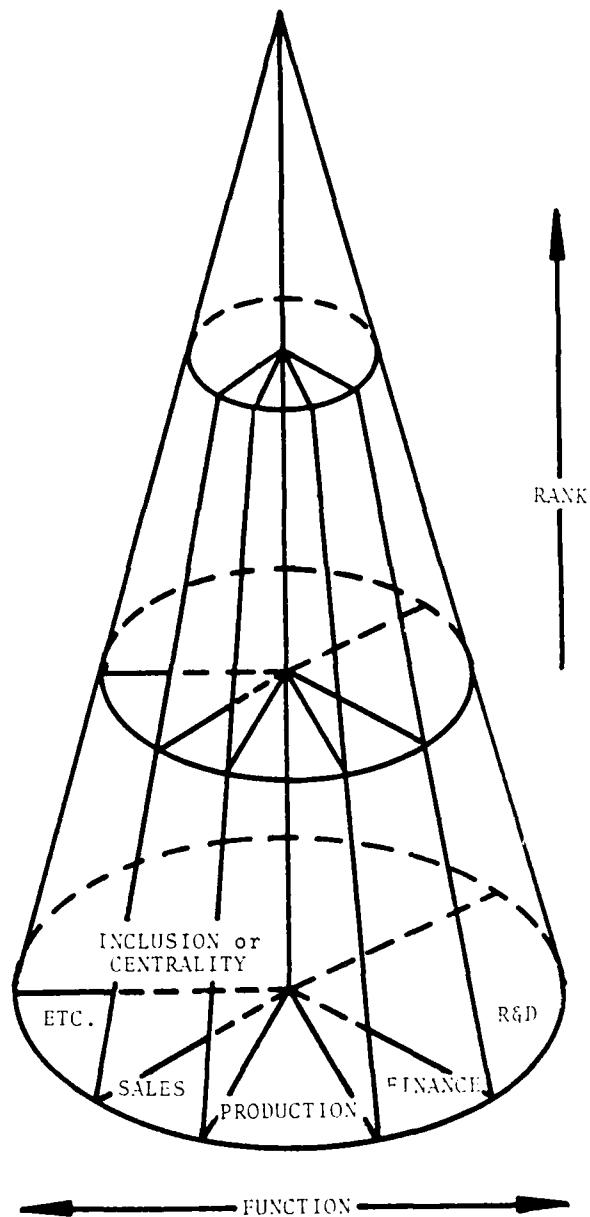
CONSIDERATIONS IMPACTING THE ESTABLISHMENT OF A MANPOWER PLANNING PROGRAM

SOURCE: District of Columbia Personnel Office
for the U.S. Civil Service Commission;
Manpower Planning: The State of the Art, 1973

- . Know-how, regarding technical, managerial and human relations.
- . Problem solving.
- . Accountability.

Thus, for any planned transfer or new hire, the increase or decrease in personnel competencies needed for the next job in each of the component skill areas, as well as the total point values, can be computed and employed for managerial decision making. The resultant organizational use of such a system would be to determine the progressive degrees of difficulty within a functional area having both lateral and hierarchical components. Figure 8, depicting Schein's model [Ref. 106] of an organization, illustrates purposes, the net effect of such an evaluative system. It establishes a framework for a dynamic system, from the top to the lowest level of the organization, which contains many possible lines of progression for an organization and individuals within it. Likewise, the training and control functions can then be tailored specifically to needed behavior along chosen career paths while benefiting both the individual and the organization at reasonable cost [Ref. 127].

Tampering with any one of the three variables -- structure, technology, or people -- is likely to cause significant effects on the others as well as on the tasks [Ref. 71]. Manpower planning must include all elements of the total organization, although commanding some staff support



Schein's MODEL OF AN ORGANIZATION

SOURCE: Schein, 1971

Figure 8

[Refs. 14, 24, 44, 64, 77, 78 and 115], for any major segment not embodied within the working plans is likely to be the forebear of its demise.

CHARACTERISTICS OF PLANNING SYSTEMS EMPHASIZING CAREER DEVELOPMENT

Although there are differences in the way successful manpower planning systems have been implemented, management literature reveals the following characteristics of those which have emphasized career development.

- . A cohesive organizational strategy.
- . Long-range and short-range plans.
- . Organizational design.
- . Manpower policy.
- . Human resource planning.
- . Personnel management.
- . Career management.
- . Training and development activities.
- . Control, evaluation and audit systems.

Cohesive Organizational Strategy

The identification and innovation of needed actions to implement strategies are based on three interrelated elements, namely: the market, including the organization's competitive position; the external environment as affected by regulations, social and economic trends, raw materials, and geographic influences; and organizational policies and strategies

as exemplified by rules, regulations, structure, technology, priorities, etc. The entire process is ultimately constrained by both the external environment, internal resources, and understanding, which results in the development of information needed for both long-range and short-range planning [Refs. 19, 34, 41, 44, 55, 60, 112, 115 and 123].

Long- and Short-Range Plans

Plans require development and analysis of cohesive and innovative alternative approaches, understanding throughout the organization, and decisions and allocations of resources to achieve some future operational state that recognizes the current accounting period's business needs [Refs. 1, 4, 8, 25, 29, 30, 32, 34, 64, 65, 95, 111, 122, 123 and 124].

Organizational Design

The formation of an effective organization requires the alignment or realignment of all the organization's policies, rules, traditions, structure, technology, tasks and people in a cohesive manner to support the variety of expected economic and environmental conditions while supporting current needs [Refs. 8, 29, 34, 55, 97, 102, 103 and 133].

Manpower Policy

The analysis and development of an integrated policy is needed to support both the individual's and organizational needs for the future [Refs. 3, 14, 16, 24, 33, 44, 64, 77, 80, 85, 90 and 115].

Human Resource Planning

The analysis and development of jobs and their relationships to one another, identification of manpower needs and their projection, recruitment possibilities and alternatives, training and development systems, promotion systems, transfer arrangements, retirement provisions, adverse action programs and rewarded and status systems must be accomplished in harmony with one another. This process is constrained by manpower policy and resource availability [Refs. 3, 4, 14, 33, 34, 35, 43, 44, 45, 46, 50, 60, 64, 66, 69, 72, 78, 86, 115, 119 and 120].

Personnel Management

Guidelines and programs needed in the daily resolution and conduct of personnel functions by both the personnel staff and operating management are required [Refs. 15, 23, 24, 34, 37, 44, 45, 76, 89, 98, 107, 115, 119 and 122].

Career Management

The organization should identify and disseminate career path information, collect and employ career management data for use in position management and training and development opportunities, and provide a means for career counseling and for career-oriented performance appraisals [Refs. 24, 34, 44, 64, 106, 113, 115 and 119].

Training and Development Activities

Various training and development systems and evaluation techniques are needed to support the acquisition of needed

employee attitude, knowledge, skill and ability levels considered to be conducive to high productivity and performance [Refs. 6, 34, 35, 43, 44, 50, 61, 64, 86, 109, 115 and 127].

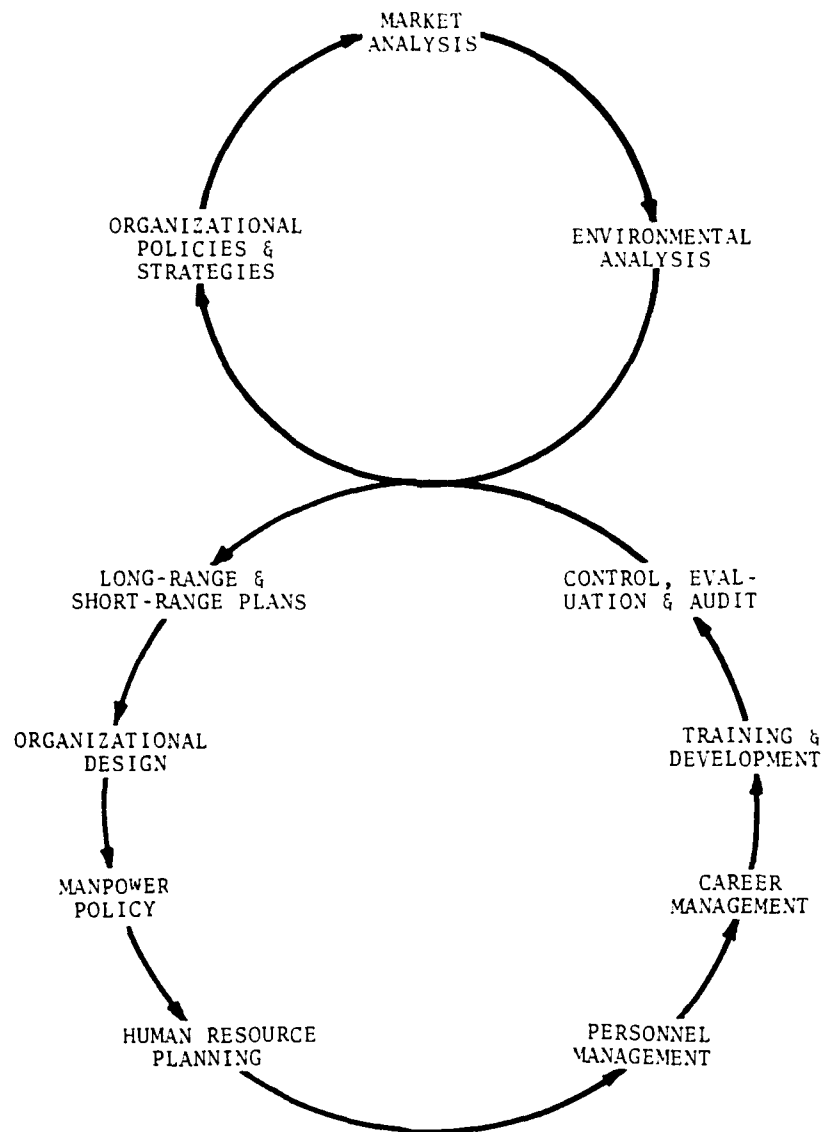
Control, Evaluation and Audit Systems

These systems require an integrated cohesive process that provides the internal visibility of the organization's total performance toward achieving its long-range and short-range plans and direct input into the continuing strategic analysis process [Refs. 21, 25, 26, 28, 34, 107, 115 and 127].

Figure 9 shows the relationship between human resources management and administration systems. The aggregation of the systems depicted embraces all aspects of the organization in a unifying manner. Further, for career development and administration programs to succeed, first-line supervision must have the incentives and the necessary attitudes, knowledge, skills and abilities to be effective developers and managers of resources. Higher levels of management must carry the responsibility for career development.

CONCLUSIONS

Regulations, procedures, offices, jurisdictions, controls, checks, audits, forms, coordinating committees, approvals, schedules, reports and other paraphernalia of organizing exist only to exorcise the hobgoblin of anxiety. Not to embrace these incremental degrees of formalization, not to taste the sweet liqueur of organizing, is to entertain



**CAREER MANAGEMENT and
ADMINISTRATION SYSTEM**

Figure 9

anxiety by leaving things to chance. Nothing will be left to chance. Everything will be left to organizing.

William J. Haga and Nicholas Acocella

Organizations, through the formalization of management's choice in its dealings with its environment through its technology, structure, tasks and people, establishes an inherent ability to undertake human resource development, an aspect of which is career planning. Human resource development and the associated aspects are inextricably linked to the totality of the organization's functions. As a result of this linkage, each organizational system must consider and be evaluated on its contribution to the organization's human resource requirements. Although groupings of elements differ among organizations practicing manpower planning, the nine aspects of manpower planning presented appear consistent with industrial practice and current theory.

APPENDIX C
BEHAVIORAL FACTORS INFLUENCING CAREER CHOICES

INTRODUCTION

Organizational efforts or programs that take into account the needs and motivations of affected personnel and provide the understanding and appropriate incentives for performance are likely to succeed [Refs. 3, 33, 44 and 71]. Career planning and management efforts are no exception [Ref. 126]. Career choice is a personal decision which, depending upon the individual, may involve many alternative processes, typically ranging from a series of planned goal-directed events through unstructured evolution [Ref. 64]. No specific approach can be considered to be more or less successful than another.

Organizational career planning and management efforts are designed to fill organizational needs by influencing the behavior and choice(s) that individuals make, thereby satisfying those needs [Refs. 60, 61, 64, 71, 121 and 133]. The organization establishes its influence on individuals' performance through the formalization and integration of programs or efforts along desired lines [Refs. 10, 50 and 55]. Additional influence is exerted by two other sources [Ref. 64]. The first is by the individual whose behavior and career choice(s) are the object of the organizational program or

effort. The second is the decision-making and value systems of those who are in positions related to the many aspects affecting career planning and management. The result of these influences not only directs performance behavior and choice but also forms attitudes. Therefore, it is this process that organizations have a vested, if not essential, interest in controlling.

This appendix addresses the behavioral factors and the various influences that result in individual choice and performance. It forms the basis to evaluate the behavior of the various individuals involved in career planning and management by describing concepts of human behavior. To this end:

- * A means of conceptualizing human behavior is developed.
- * The mechanisms for behavioral change are reviewed.
- * A basis for evaluating the relationships between people within organizations is established.
- * A basis for evaluating change is established.

HUMAN BEHAVIOR CONCEPTS

With regard to people, some kind of psychological theory is just as necessary for the manager dealing with human problems as is electrical and mechanical theory to the engineers in dealing with machine problems. Without some kind of psychological theory, the manager cannot attach meaning to the red flags of human disturbance; nor can he predict the likely effects of changes in organizational or personnel policy.

Harold J. Leavitt

Behavior is described as a way of adjusting to either tensions or frustrations as well as a means to reduce anxiety by seeking goals that neutralize the causes [Refs. 71, 78 and 81]. Although the literature contains many conflicting generalizations for conceptualizing human behavior, there appears to be agreement on three ideas [Ref 81]. These ideas, which are supported by many modern psychologists, are: causality, directedness and motivation.

Causality. Causality is the concept that human behavior is caused by and represents the response to forces or acts, just as the response of physical objects is caused by forces that act on them. Causality is implicit in the belief that environment and heredity affect behavior and that what is outside influences what is inside.

Directedness. Directedness is the concept that human behavior is not only caused but is pointed toward something. Behavior is goal-directed. People want things, tangible and/or intangible.

Motivation. Motivation is the concept underlying behavioral force that provides a "push," a "motive," a "want," a "need," or a "drive."

Influences that Determine Behavior

It has been found that the most important determinant of one's behavior is the relationship of one's view of the world to one's needs [Refs. 60, 71, 78 and 81]. This finding has resulted in research into two aspects of human behavior. The first was directed toward developing a scheme for identifying the causes, which resulted in Need Theory. The second was directed toward developing a scheme for understanding the resultant behavior. This, in turn, resulted in the concept of "cognitive dissonance."

1

The research resulting in the development of Need Theory (Maslow, Hertzburg, Vroom, et al.) established that individuals, when faced with conflicting choices, will establish priorities and will act accordingly. It was found that the operational needs of adults are different. Hence, different behavior can be expected. In the development of Need Theory, there were two central concepts. The first was one of physical needs, those of the body and the nervous system, with the first priority. The second was one of the outside environmental needs, those of socialization, dependency on others, situations, etc., which establish other priorities. As a result of this research, it was found that satisfaction builds security and fulfills the social needs. In contrast, frustration builds insecurity, hostility and egotistic needs. The infantile learning formula, growth, development and socialization, may prevail at the adult level.

The research resulting in the development of the concept of "cognitive dissonance" concluded that individuals tend to manipulate situations to their perspective and to defend their set of choices [Refs. 38 and 78]. The concept of "cognitive dissonance" simply states that we try to protect and enhance ourselves by trying to manipulate the picture others have of us, or we have of ourselves, by putting up a front that will allow others to think we are what we want to

be. This is a process of internalizing a situation. The resulting behavior can lead to either desirable or undesirable actions from another's perspective, including that of an organization. The positive side of "cognitive dissonance" can lead to rational analysis of choice or the collection of more information for use in decision-making [Refs. 38 and 78]. On the other hand, it can generate apathy, lead to the avoidance of making any decision (a decision itself), cause people to be less critical in analyzing problems, or can lead to political maneuvering toward the end of gaining support for one's point of view.

Attitudes

Individuals' attitudes tend to be related to behavior and personality traits [Ref. 39]. Attitudes are largely transmitted through family and peer groups. Once formed, attitudes are relatively consistent and resistant to change. Attitudes tend to be preserved by selective interpretation and perception of information, avoidance of information that conflicts with existing attitudes, and social approval or disapproval from one's associates.

Within this context, prejudices may be developed whether through contact with others who have the same prejudices or from the object of the prejudice. Once learned, prejudices are preserved and supported by: the needs they help satisfy; the fact that they provide a means of scapegoating, that is, of displacing aggression for which

there might otherwise be no outlet; distortion in perception and judgment that makes prejudices seem "true;" and creating social handicaps for groups which appear to justify the prejudice. Once a personality pattern is prejudiced against something, it is authoritarian in viewpoint and tends to force people to place things in oversimplified categories.

Summary

Individual behavior is the result of one's perception of a situation or relationship to one's changing inner value system. The inner value system changes are constrained by a hierarchy of needs and one's attitudes. Thus, to influence behavior or to elicit specific voluntary responses, the influence mechanism must be oriented so that it will be in the "best" interest of the individual to comply. In an evaluative context, the question "What's in it for me?" must be answered in light of the individual's development experiences and the competing alternatives to determine possible responses.

BEHAVIORAL CHANGE

Individuals change when their present behavior begins to appear inadequate [Ref. 81]. Something or someone has thrown a block across a previously open path. Some new path has become visible and appears to hold greater potential. In any case, the kind of behavior that has been adequate in the past now becomes less adequate.

When present behavior is deemed to be inadequate and few alternatives are immediately available, the classic frustration situation emerges. The frustration emanates from the conflict between the safety and security of the old path and the risk of an uncertain new one [Refs. 71 and 81]. People tend to avoid the unknown, the unmanageable, the unthinkable for some form of surety. Because the degree of surety needed varies from person to person, there are no mass techniques available to determine or quantify the willingness of an individual to either accept or resist change.

Caution toward change exists until the person has developed a willingness to accept change and has internalized the decision [Ref. 81]. It has been found that the change process is embodied in three stages:

1. An "unfreezing" stage, where the results of current behavior are questioned as to appropriateness;
2. A "transition" stage, where a search for appropriate behavior is undertaken; and
3. A "freezing" stage, where reinforcement and the reward process allows internalizing the new behavior.

Summary

Individuals, in seeking to minimize internal conflicts to their value and attitude system, cautiously undertake change. In their search for appropriate behavior, they go through three stages that are inherent in the change process. The key to both the direction and the control of the resultant behavior is in the management of the change process.

RELATIONSHIPS BETWEEN PEOPLE IN ORGANIZATIONS

The concepts presented in Transactional Analysis [Ref. 11] provide a framework and a classification scheme for understanding individuals and the nature of the relationships between people. It is postulated that there is a "contractual" relationship between people. This contractual relationship is comprised of four parts:

1. What A wants or expects from B;
2. What A is willing to give B in return;
3. What B wants or expects from A;
4. What B is willing to give A in return.

The "Contractual" Relationship

The behavior of individuals is a reflection of the terms of the "contract" as each of the parties interprets them. The resultant behavior can range from total cooperativeness through total conflict with possible hostility. The acceptability of the behavior is totally dependent upon the parties and the time horizon involved. Each individual develops these "contracts" with each and every association. The closer the alignment of the contractual terms with the individual's needs, attitudes and values, the stronger the ensuing relationships will be. From these "contractual" relationships, one can better understand group processes and organizational influences.

People in Organizations

In an organizational context, the change process is used to build the "contract" with the individual through:

1. The joining-up process [Refs. 64 and 69];
2. The development and training process [Refs. 50, 61, 72, 113, 127]; and
3. The daily work accomplishment process [Refs. 3, 10, 22, 25, 34, 55, 71, 91, 99, 115 and 130].

Further, due to the proportion of time one spends at full-time employment, the organizational reinforcement and rewards process strongly influences short-term behavior; hence, it is a significant force for long-term behavior and attitudes.

The joining-up process has been researched through new hires and transferred employees. The results have identified that the socialization process (the assimilation of the individual into the organization) is a direct parallel to the change process of individuals. The "unfreezing" stage occurs with the first-line supervisor in combination with the work assigned and the work group. The "unfreezing" stage combinations also provide both the "transition" stage guidance and the "freezing" stage reinforcement.

The development and training processes employ techniques designed to change behavior through changes in attitudes, knowledge, skills or abilities. Changes from either effective or ineffective development and training affect "contractual" relationships.

AD-A092 406

NAVAL POSTGRADUATE SCHOOL MONTEREY CA
NAVY CIVILIAN CAREERS: A FORMULATION PROBLEM.(U)
JUN 80 R R JACKSON

F/G 5/9

UNCLASSIFIED

NL

2002
000000



END
DATE
FILMED
81-12
DTIC

The daily work accomplishment process, although containing elements of the joining-up process and the development and training process, sets the stage for further behavioral change. As the daily work environment embodies the three stages of change, there is a high probability, if conditions are not balanced, that behavioral responses will be other than what is desired, and attitudes toward the work and the organization can be created that may not be healthy in later years [Refs. 10, 69 and 128]. The daily work conditions are to be balanced through the first-line supervisor. It is the first-line supervisor who must undertake development, provide appropriate responses, establish a consistent role model and provide challenging work appropriate to the attitudes, knowledge, skills and abilities sought.

Summary

The behavior of individuals results from agreements reached or broken in "contractual" relationships with others. Individuals can develop strong relationships through these "contracts." Organizations and individuals within organizations influence behavioral responses through the "contractual" processes. There are three processes, namely, the joining-up process, the development and training process, and the daily work process.

A METHOD FOR PREDICTING THE EFFECTIVENESS OF CHANGE ON INDIVIDUALS

The organization influences behavioral responses through the "contractual" process; there are uncertainties associated with the possible outcome. The uncertainties are a result of the confluence of existing organizational systems and individual preferences. As a result, the change attributable to a particular policy or system, however potentially beneficial, may be next to impossible to achieve.

The concept of "cost" is essential for the evaluation of change once a particular policy or system has been determined beneficial to the organization. The "cost" of the change refers to the affected individuals where it must be less than the aggregate of the benefits received. It has been suggested that any effective implementation of change will have to be developed considering the elements of the Gleicher Formula [Ref. 8]:

$$C = (A \cdot B \cdot C) > X$$

where: C = Change;

A = Level of Dissatisfaction with the Status Quo;

B = Clear Desired State;

C = Practical First Step toward the Desired Change;

X = Cost of the change.

Further, it might be necessary to develop the conditions that positively influence the elements of the Gleicher Formula prior to attempting to implement the desired change. An example might be to raise the level of dissatisfaction of a particular aspect or grouping of things. In evaluating change potential, the multiplicative aspects of the Gleicher Formula require positive integer values. This feature requires planning and analysis by the change agent and a comprehensive understanding of the object of change.

CONCLUSIONS

Whether behavioral or attitude development is planned, as is the case when one uses work experiences and training or educational methods, or covert, as is the case when one is involved in an unbalanced organizational setting, it is only meaningful once the behavioral underpinnings are understood. One must realize that, every minute and in every situation, individuals are exposed to forces that are developing behavioral responses and attitudes that, once established, are difficult to change. Change is effected when the appropriate response offers the least conflict with competing alternatives. Thus, to effect change, there must be something in it for the person who must change. Therefore, it is essential that the organization know the behavioral responses that are desired and establish the necessary mechanisms to assure efficient attainment.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

1. Abend, C. J., "Innovation Management: The Missing Link in Productivity," Management Review v. 68, n. 6, p. 25-28, 38, June 1979.
2. Anderson, K. A., Air Force Senior Management Development, Masters Thesis, Air Command Staff College, Maxwell AFB, AL, 1975.
3. Anon, "Changing Employee Attitudes with Incentives," Training, v. 15, n. 6, p. 14-15, June 1978.
4. Anon, "Top-Down and Bottom-Up Approaches to Project Selection," Research Management, v. 21, n. 2, p. 22-24, March 1978.
5. Arraiz, E. S., Career Development of the Venezuelan Supply Officer, Masters Thesis, Naval Postgraduate School, Monterey, CA, 1977.
6. Barrett, F. D., "Metamorphosis by MBO," Canadian Chartered Accountant, v. 107, n. 2, p. 35-41, August 1975.
7. Beasley, D. C., Blue Suit/Flight Suit/Grey Suit; The Rated Officer Dilemma, Masters Thesis, Air Command and Staff College, Maxwell AFB, AL, 1975.
8. Beckhard, R. and Harris, R. T., Organizational Transitions; Managing Complex Change, Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., 1977.
9. Beishke, J. J., Career Progression to General Officer in the United States Air Force, Masters Thesis, Air Force Institute of Technology, School of Systems and Logistics, Wright-Patterson AFB, 1977.
10. Berlew, D. E. and Hall, D. T., "The Socialization of Managers: Effects of Expectations on Performance," Administrative Science Quarterly, v. 11, n. 2, p. 207-223, September 1966.
11. Berne, E., Games People Play: The Psychology of Human Relations, Ballantine Books, Inc., 1964.
12. Binkin, M. with Kanter, H. and Clark, R. H., Shaping the Defense Civilian Work Force, the Brookings Institution, 1978.

13. Broedling, L. A., Lau, A. W. and Walters, S. K., "The Job of the Navy Civilian Executive in Headquarters," The Bureaucrat, v. 8, n. 4, p. 12-18, Winter 1979-1980.
14. Burack, E. H. and Gutteridge, T. G., "Institutional Manpower Planning: Rhetoric versus Reality," California Management Review, v. XX, n. 3, p. 13-22, Spring 1978.
15. Cassell, F. H., "Manpower Administration: New Role in Corporate Management," Personnel Administration, p. 33-37, December 1971.
16. Chakrabarti, A. K., "The Role of Champion in Product Innovation," California Management Review, v. 17, n. 2, p. 58-62, Winter 1974.
17. Coleman, W. J., The Effect on Program Management of the USAF Officer Rotation Policy, Masters Thesis, Air Command and Staff College, Maxwell AFB, AL, 1976.
18. Comptroller General, Military and Civilian Managers of Defense Manpower, General Accounting Office, 1979.
19. Cooper, R., "Strategic Planning for Successful Technological Innovation," Business Quarterly (Canada), v. 43, n. 1, p. 46-54, Spring 1978.
20. Cox, R. V., Military Leadership in the 1990's, Masters Thesis, Naval War College, Center for Advanced Research, 1978.
21. Cutterbach, D., "R & D under Management's Microscope," International Management (U.K.), v. 34, n. 2, p. 18-22, February, 1979.
22. Cyert, R. and March, J., A Behavioral Theory of the Firm, Prentice-Hall, 1963.
23. Dachler, H. P. and Schneider, B., Some General Considerations about Factors Affecting Job Stability and Personnel, University of Maryland, Department of Psychology, 1978.
24. Dalton, G. W., Thompson, P. H. and Price, R. L., "The Four Stages of Professional Careers; A New Look at Performance by Professionals," Organizational Dynamics, Summer 1977.
25. Daugherty, W. and Harvey, D., "Some Behavioral Implications of Budgeting Systems," Arizona Business, v. 20, n. 4, p. 3-7, April, 1973.

26. Davies, T., "Is R&D Accounting a Special Problem?" Management Accounting, v. 57, n. 1, p. 28-30, January 1979.
27. de Chardin, T., The Phenomenon of Man, Harper & Row Publishers, 1959.
28. Deters, J. R., "Renovation and Innovation in Internal Auditing," The Internal Auditor, v. 32, n. 3, p. 28-35, May/June 1975.
29. Diebold, J., "Information Resource Management -- The New Challenge," Info Systems, v. 26, n. 6, p. 50-53, June 1979.
30. Diehl, R. W., "Achieving Successful Innovation," Michigan Business Review, v. 24, n. 2, p. 6-10, March 1972.
31. District of Columbia Personnel Office, Manpower Planning: The State of the Art, on behalf of the U.S. Civil Service Commission, National Technical Information Service, 1973.
32. Dohrmann, R. J., "Matching Company R&D Expenditures to Technology Needs," Research Management, v. 21, n. 6, p. 17-21, November 1978.
33. Dreyfach, R., "Making a Choice between Youth and Experience," Nation's Business, v. 64, n. 2, p. 71-76, Feb. 1976.
34. Drucker, P. F., Management: Tasks, Responsibilities, Practices, Harper and Row, 1973.
35. Duerr, E. C., "What to Expect of Your Employees," Personnel Journal, v. 55, n. 5, p. 232-234, 248-249, May 1976.
36. Elster, R. S. and others, Design of Operational Career Ladders, Naval Postgraduate School, Monterey, CA, 1973.
37. Farina, A. J., Development of a Taxonomy of Human Performance: A Review of Descriptive Schemes for Human Task Behavior, American Institutes for Research, Technical Report 2, 1969.
38. Festinger, B., The Motivating Effect of Cognitive Dissonance, in Lindzey, B., Assessment of Human Motives, Holt, Rinehart, Inc., 1958.
39. Fishbein, M. (ed.), Readings in Attitude Theory and Measurement, John Wiley and Sons Publishers, p. 257, 1967.

40. Fleishman, E. A., "Performance Assessment Based on an Empirically Derived Task Taxonomy," Human Factors, v. 9, p. 349-366, 1967.
41. Frank, R. A., "'Top Brass' Need Briefing on Technical Changes," Computerworld, v. 13, n. 14, p. 13, 2 April 1979.
42. Fustfeld, A. R., "How to Put Technology into Corporate Planning," Technology Review, v. 80, n. 6, p. 51-55, May 1978.
43. Gibbons, J., "The Energetic Pursuit of Economy and Efficiency," Public Utilities Fortnightly, v. 97, n. 6, p. 21-27, 11 March 1976.
44. Glueck, W. F., Personnel: A Diagnostic Approach, Business Publications, 1974.
45. Goggin, W. S., "How the Multi-Dimensional Structure Works at Dow-Corning," Harvard Business Review, v. 52, n. 1, p. 54-65, Jan/Feb 1974.
46. Goldenberg, H. C., "Labor and Management," Labour Gazette, v. 76, n. 5, p. 247-249, May 1976.
47. Goheen, H. W., "Limitations on Managers Brought about by Restrictions of Federal Civil Service System," Defense Manpower Commission Staff Studies, volume 14, Government Printing Office, 1976.
48. Gronhaug, K., "Variations as an Innovative Strategy in New Product Development," Industrial Marketing Management, v. 5, n. 2/3, p. 155-162, June 1976.
49. Gross, A. C. and Wolpert, S. A., "Indicators of the Pace/Quality of Life in the U.S. and their Implications for Marketing Management," American Marketing Association Educator's Proceedings, Series 43, p. 364-368, 1978.
50. Guglielmino, P. J., "Developing the Top-Level Executive for the 1980's and Beyond," Training and Development Journal, v. 33, n. 4, p. 12-14, April 1979.
51. Guilford, P. J., "Three Faces of Intellect," American Psychologist, n. 14, p. 469-479, 1959.
52. Guion, R. M., "Some Definitions of Morale," Personnel Psychology, v. 11, p. 59-61, 1958.
53. Guralnik, D. B. (ed.), Webster's New World Dictionary of the American Language, Second College Edition, William Collins and World Publishing Co., Inc., 1974.

54. Haga, W. J. and Acoecella, N., Haga's Law: Why Nothing Works and No One Can Fix It and The More We Try the Worse It Gets, William Morrow and Co., 1980.
55. Hall, R. H., Organizations: Structures and Processes, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1977.
56. Harrell, T. E. and Rhame, R. L., Instructor Pilot Retention in the Air Training Command: A Survey Analysis, Masters Thesis, Air Command and Staff College, Maxwell AFB, AL, 1979.
57. Hauser, F. C., "The Army's Officer Career System: A Continuing Need for Reform," The Bureaucrat, v. 8, n. 3, p. 7-15, Fall 1979.
58. Hauser, P., "The Chaotic Society: Product of the Social Morphological Revolution," American Sociological Review, v. 34, n. 1, p. 1-19, February 1969.
59. Haynes, C., "Jobs and Skills in the Melting Pot," Personnel Management, v. 11, n. 8, p. 36-40, Aug 1979.
60. Hicks, H. G. (ed.), Management, Organizations and Human Resources: Selected Readings, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1972.
61. House, R. J., Management Development: Design, Evaluation and Implementation, Bureau of Industrial Relations, Graduate School of Business, University of Michigan, 1967.
62. Ippolito, D. S., The Budget and National Politics, W. H. Freeman and Co., 1978.
63. Jackson, R. R., "An Evaluation of Boeing Computer Service Report on 'A Study to Update the Civilian Logistics Career Scenarios,'" unpublished student paper presented to Professor J. W. Creighton, Naval Postgraduate School, Fall 1979.
64. Jelinek, M. (ed.), Career Management for the Individual and the Organization, St. Clair Press, 1979.
65. Judd, F., "Organizing for Forward Motion," Management Accounting, v. 55, n. 10, p. 23-24, April 1974.
66. Kast, F. E. and Rosenzweig, J. E., Organization and Management, A Systems Approach, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1970.
67. Kelly, H. W., A Career Development Guide for Navy Light-Attack Pilots, Masters Thesis, Air Command and Staff College, Maxwell AFB, AL, 1979.

68. Kennedy, D. E., Military Unionization: A More Realistic Solution to the Problem, Masters Thesis, Air Command the Staff College, Maxwell AFB, AL, 1978.
69. Kotter, J. P., "The Psychological Contract: Managing the Joining-up Process," California Management Review, v. 15, n. 4, p. 91-99, 1973.
70. Lau, A. W. and others, The Nature of the Navy Civilian Executive Job: Behavior and Development, Technical Report TR-79-27, Naval Personnel Research and Development Center, San Diego, CA, July 1979.
71. Leavitt, H. J., Managerial Psychology, Third Edition, University of Chicago Press, 1974.
72. Lein, L., "Reviewing Your Training and Development Activities: It's the Best Way to Truly Assess Their Cost and Quality," Personnel Journal, v. 58, n. 11, p. 791-794, Nov 1979.
73. Lester, R., Manpower Planning in a Free Society, Princeton University Press, 1966.
74. Loftus, T. J. and Allen, B. E., Career Development of the Navy Project Manager, Masters Thesis, Naval Postgraduate School, 1973.
75. MacDonald, V. J., The Air Force Military Manager of the 1980's: Leader or Gamesman, Masters Thesis, Air War College, Maxwell AFB, AL, 1978.
76. Mandt, E., "Managing the Knowledge Worker of the Future," Personnel Journal, v. 57, n. 3, p. 138-143, 162, March 1978.
77. McCasley, M. B., "The Management of Ambiguity," Organizational Dynamics, v. 7, n. 4, p. 30-48, Spring 1979.
78. McCormick, E. J. and Tiffin, J., Industrial Psychology, Sixth Edition, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1974.
79. McHale, J., The Future of the Future, George Braziller Publishers, 1969.
80. Michaelis, M., "Humane Technology for Business Betterment," Conference Board Record, v. 10, n. 2, p. 56-60, Feb 1973.
81. Morgan, C. T. and King, R. A., Introduction to Psychology, McGraw-Hill Book Co., 1966.

82. Munkus, S. W., Attitudes and Motivations of Newly Commissioned Officers, Masters Thesis, Air Command and Staff College, Maxwell AFB, AL, 1979.
83. Muier, T., Civilian Personnel and Equal Employment Opportunity, unpublished, Naval Postgraduate School Lecture Series, II April 1980.
84. Department of the Navy, NCPC Notice 12950 Civilian Career Programs, Career Programs Support Branch, Naval Civilian Personnel Command, 25 September 1979.
85. Newbrun, R. W., "Measuring Productivity in Organizations with Unquantifiable End-Products," Personnel Journal, v. 51, n. 9, p. 655-657, September 1972.
86. Newell, G. E., "How to Plan a Training Program," Personnel Journal, v. 55, n. 5, p. 220-225, May 1976.
87. O'Tool, D. L., Civilian Logistics Scenario: Phase I, II and III Reports, Boeing Computer Services Co., Space and Military Applications Division under contract with the Naval Postgraduate School, 1979.
88. Orlando, D. P., Early Career Broadening for Young Rated Officers: A cornerstone for Success in the Air Force, Masters Thesis, Air Command and Staff College, Maxwell AFB, AL, 1978.
89. Parris, J., "Using the Social Sciences to Solve Practical Problems," Personnel Management (U.K.), v. 10, n. 9, p. 30-34, September 1978.
90. Peach, L., "The REsponsible Management of Technological Change," Personnel Management, v. 5, n. 8, p. 18-21, August 1973.
91. Perrow, C., Organizational Analysis: A Sociological View, Wadsworth Publishing Co., Inc., 1970.
92. Pettit, C. C., Leadership and Management in the All-Volunteer Air Force, Masters Thesis, Air War College, Maxwell AFB, AL, 1975.
93. Prisk, C. W., Motivation and Retention of Junior Officers 1979, Masters Thesis, Air War College, Maxwell AFB, AL, 1979.
94. Quinn, J. L., The Logistician Progression Model, Masters Thesis, Air Force Institute of Technology, School of Systems and Logistics, Wright-Patterson AFB, OH, 1970.

95. Quade, E. S., Analysis for Public Decisions, Elsevier North-Holland, Inc., 1975.
96. Raftery, J. M., "The Management of Uselessness: Reassessing the Language of Efficiency," Management International Review, v. 18, p. 17-23, March 1978.
97. Ranft, R. M., "Improving R&D Productivity -- A Study Program and its Application," Research Management, v. 20, n. 1, p. 25-29, January 1977.
98. Rappaport, A., "Executive Incentives vs. Corporate Growth," Harvard Business Review, v. 56, no. 4, p. 81-88, July/Aug 1978.
99. Reif, W. E. and Luthans, F., "Does Job-Enrichment Really Pay Off?" California Management Review, v. 15, n. 1, p. 30-37, Fall 1972.
100. Reshew, J. W., Mid-Career Patterns in the Navy's Civilian Professional Work Force, Masters Thesis, Naval Postgraduate School, Monterey, 1978.
101. Rezin, J. G., Effects of Career Development Factors on the Military Manager in the Support Activity, Masters Thesis, Naval Postgraduate School, Monterey, 1976.
102. Roberts, E. B. and Wolff, M., "What Do We Really Know about Managing R&D?" Research Management, v. 21, n. 6, p. 6-11, November 1978.
103. Roth, R. S., "Equipment Can Reduce Costs and Improve Product Quality," PNPA Press, v. 48, n. 9, p. 26-27, Feb/Mar 1976.
104. Rousseau, D. M., "Technology in Organizations," Academy of Management Review, v. 4, n. 4, p. 531-542, 1979.
105. Rousseau, D. M., Technology in Organizations: A Constructive Review and Analytic Framework, The University of Michigan, Department of Psychology and Institute for Social Research, in press, 1979.
106. Schein, E. H., "The Individual, the Organization and the Career: A Conceptual Scheme," Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, v. 7, p. 401-426, 1971.
107. Shakman, R. J. and Roberts, R. C., Jr., "An Evaluation of Management Effectiveness," Michigan Business Review, v. 29, n. 1, p. 24-27, January 1977.

108. Shartle, C. L., Occupational Information, Third Edition, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1959.
109. Shaw, M. E. and Wright, J. M., Scales for the Measurement of Attitudes, McGraw-Hill Book Co., Inc., 1967.
110. Shepard, P. M., Career Planning Information in Officer Professional Development, Masters Thesis, Naval Postgraduate School, Monterey, 1974.
111. Sommers, W. P., "Today's Technology Requires Managers with Quick Reflexes," Nation's Business, v. 67, n. 2, p. 88, 90, February 1979.
112. Spencer, H., "The Dangers of Social Responsibility, Another Perspective," Conference Board Record, v. 9, n. 11, p. 54-57, November 1972.
113. Staats, E. B., "Accountability for Career Development -- A Must for Improved Program Management," The Bureaucrat, v. 8, n. 3, p. 2-6, Fall 1979.
114. Staff Report, America's Volunteers: A Report on the All-Volunteer Armed Forces, Office of the Assistant Secretary of Defense (Manpower, Reserve Affairs and Logistics), 1978.
115. Strauss, G. and Sayles, L. R., Personnel: The Human Problems of Management, Fourth Edition, Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1980.
116. Taylor, B., "Managing the Process of Corporate Development," Long-Range Planning, v. 9, n. 3, p. 81-100, June 1976.
117. Terry, P., "The Organization of Management," Management Today (U.K.), p. 106-108, 194, November 1977.
118. Thayer, F. C., "Civil Service Reform, Unemployment and the Lost Lesson of the Foreign/Military Sectors," The Bureaucrat, v. 8, n. 3, p. 16-25, Fall 1979.
119. Thompson, P. H. and Dalton, G. W., "Are R&D Organizations Obsolete?" Harvard Business Review, v. 54, n. 6, p. 105-116, November/December 1976.
120. Tongh, A. D., "Improving R&D Productivity -- A Program for Support Operations," Research Management, v. 20, n. 1, p. 30-34, January 1977.
121. Tyler, L. E., The Psychology of Individual Differences, Meredith Publishing Co., 1965, p. 144-145.

122. Twiss, B. C., Managing Technological Innovation, (U.K) Longman Group Limited, 1974.
123. Uyterhoeven, H. E. R., and others, Strategy and Organization: Text and Cases in General Management, Revised Edition, Richard D. Irwin, Inc., 1977.
124. Van Dekamp, T. J., "The Innovative Corporation -- Four Ways to Help it Get Through Better Management," Advertising Age, v. 46, n. 43, p. 51-52, October 27, 1975.
125. Vetter, E. W., "The Nature of Long-Range Manpower Planning," Management of Personnel Quarterly, p. 20-37, Summer 1964.
126. Walter, V., "Self-Motivated Personnel Career Planning: A Breakthrough in Human Resource Management," Personnel Journal, v. 55, n. 3, p. 112-115, 136, March 1976.
127. Warren, M. W., Training for Results: A Systems Approach to the Development of Human Resources in Industry, Addison-Wesley Publishing Co., Inc., 1969.
128. Webber, R. A., "Career Problems of Young Managers," California Management Review, v. 18, n. 4, p. 19-33, 1976.
129. Weber, M., The Theory of Social and Economic Organizations, The Free Press of Glencoe, 1964, Part one Wirtschaft und Gesellschaft (Economics and Society), 1920.
130. Westcott, J. W., "Employee Obsolescence -- A Shared Responsibility," Labor Gazette, v. 76, n. 5, p. 241-243, May 1976.
131. Williams, A. and Knight, C., An Analysis of the Career Progression of the Graduates of the School of Systems and Logistics Management Program, Masters Thesis, Air Force Institute of Technology, School of Systems and Logistics, Wright-Patterson AFB, OH, 1970.
132. Warley, E. L., Logistics Career Programs for Navy Civilians, unpublished interview, Naval Postgraduate School, 12 March 1980.
133. Zager, R., "The Problem of Job Obsolescence: Working it out at River Works," Labor Review, v. 101, n. 7, p. 29-32, July 1978.

INITIAL DISTRIBUTION LIST

	No. Copies
1. Defense Technical Information Center Cameron Station Alexandria, Virginia 22314	2
2. Library, Code 0142 Naval Postgraduate School Monterey, California 93940	2
3. Department Chairman, Code 54 Department of Administrative Sciences Naval Postgraduate School Monterey, California 93940	1
4. Professor J. W. Creighton, Code 54 Cf Department of Administrative Sciences Naval Postgraduate School Monterey, California 93940	5
5. Assoc Professor R. D. Evered, Code 54 Ev Department of Administrative Sciences Naval Postgraduate School Monterey, California 93940	1
6. Professor R. S. Elster, Code 54 Ea Department of Administrative Sciences Naval Postgraduate School Monterey, California 93940	1
7. Assoc Professor R. T. Harris, Code 54 He Department of Administrative Sciences Naval Postgraduate School Monterey, California 93940	1
8. Defense Logistics Studies Information Exchange U.S. Army Logistics Management Center Fort Lee, Virginia 23801	1
9. Mr. J. J. Genovese Headquarters, Naval Material Command (MAT-04B) Washington, D.C. 20360	1
10. Mr. E. L. Warley Headquarters, Naval Material Command (MAT-04E) Washington, D.C. 20360	1

- | | | |
|-----|---|---|
| 11. | Naval Aviation Executive Institute
Naval Air Systems Command (AIR-990)
Washington, D.C. 20361 | 1 |
| 12. | Mr. Robert R. Jackson, Jr.
Route 1, Box 541
Hollywood, Maryland 20636 | 1 |
| 13. | Dean of Research
Naval Postgraduate School
Monterey, California 93940 | 1 |