

THE WHITE HOUSE  
WASHINGTON

January 13, 1958

Dear Mr. Ellsworth:

The seventy-fifth anniversary of the Civil Service Commission gives me an opportunity to express my own personal appreciation for the work of the Commission and to sign the official Proclamation which expresses the gratitude of the Nation.

In this your Diamond Jubilee year, it is well to remember all the men and women who have taken part in advancing the life and spirit of the Civil Service Act of 1883. This means particularly those civil servants whose able and often selfless public service is a credit to the highest standards of American citizenship.

It is fitting that we take this occasion to rededicate ourselves to the principles upon which the merit system was founded. Please give my best wishes to all who are seeking to make this Jubilee celebration a well-known and meaningful observance.

Sincerely,



The Honorable Harris Ellsworth  
Chairman  
Civil Service Commission  
Washington 25, D. C.

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# BIOGRAPHY of an IDEAL

THE DIAMOND ANNIVERSARY  
HISTORY OF THE  
FEDERAL CIVIL SERVICE

by  
Charles Cooke  
Public Information Office  
U. S. CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

U. S. GOVERNMENT PRINTING OFFICE: 1959

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SEVENTY-FIFTH ANNIVERSARY OF THE  
CIVIL SERVICE ACT

BY THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA  
A PROCLAMATION

WHEREAS the Federal civil-service system was established by the Civil Service Act of January 16, 1883, and will be seventy-five years old on January 16, 1958; and

WHEREAS the enactment of that act and the establishment thereunder of a merit system of employment within the Federal Government have given impetus to the establishment of similar systems at State, county, and municipal levels of government; and

WHEREAS a strong civil service, based on the merit principle, is now recognized as an essential factor in stable, responsible government in the United States, as well as in many other countries; and

WHEREAS the seventy-fifth anniversary of the Civil Service Act is an appropriate time to salute the Civil Service of the United States and to increase public knowledge and understanding of its importance in our system of self-government;

NOW, THEREFORE, I, DWIGHT D. EISENHOWER, President of the United States of America, do hereby call upon the people of the United States to participate in the observance of the seventy-fifth anniversary of the Civil Service Act on January 16, 1958, and throughout the ensuing year.

I also call upon the heads of Federal departments and agencies, governors, mayors, and other public officials, as

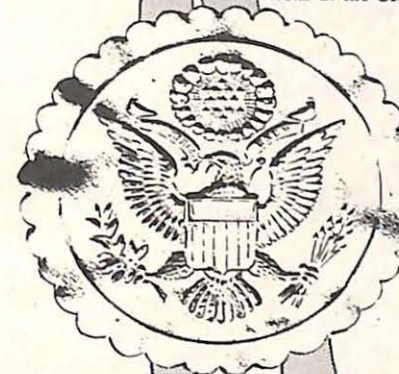
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well as leaders of industry and labor and members of all public-spirited groups, to study our Federal, State, and local civil-service systems, with a view to their continuous improvement in every way possible, and to arrange appropriate ceremonies in honor of the public service of our able and devoted civil servants throughout the country.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, I have hereunto set my hand and the Seal of the United States of America to be affixed.

DONE at the City of Washington this thirteenth day of

January in the year of our  
Lord nineteen hundred and  
fifty-eight, and of the  
Independence of the United  
States of America the one  
hundred and eighty-second.



by the Pre

*Dwight D. Eisenhower*  
Secretary of State

The original proclamation is in the National Archives, Washington, D. C.





**T**HIS display board was designed for exhibition throughout the Diamond Anniversary Year of 1958 in the first-floor lobby of the Civil Service Commission Building at 8th and F Streets, Washington, D. C. The Civil Service Commission seal, at center, is reproduced in enlarged size on the back cover of this history, and the story of its origin, development, and significance is printed on the inside back cover.

## Foreword

by HARRIS ELLSWORTH

*Chairman, United States Civil Service Commission*

In this year of 1958 we are celebrating the 75th anniversary of the signing of the Civil Service Act . . . a year-long birthday party commemorating the formal establishment of the "merit" concept in Federal civil-service employment. This volume, "Biography of an Ideal," represents one part of our birthday celebration. It presents the story of the civil service in the United States.

The word "merit" has many meanings and connotations. However, when we talk of the merit system in the public service, we feel it is important to make clear exactly what we are talking about. Some people think of merit as simply "no politics in employment, advancement, or retention." To us in the United States Civil Service Commission, it means much more than this. It includes positive values, as well as the negative value of the absence of political influence in personnel management.

Before we look at the events of civil-service history, I would like to reemphasize certain basic principles to which we are dedicated: it is these principles, inherent in our system of Government, which make possible a strong, efficient, and responsive public service in the United States.

As we see it, there are three basic elements involved in a complete merit concept. They are:

### *Competence*

We seek the best-qualified people we can attract to perform the work of the Government.

### *Stability*

The complexities of modern government require a stable "career" work force, which serves all the people regardless of changes in political administration.

### *Equality of opportunity*

All citizens of our country, regardless of their politics, religious beliefs, race, creed, or color, have the right to compete for employment on the



basis of their ability and fitness for the work to be done. It is this which makes our civil service "representative" of all the people in our country.

These three elements, taken together, represent the basic creed of our Federal merit system. The mechanism by which we seek to achieve these objectives is found in the process of what we call "open competition." This, too, embodies a number of basic principles which underlie the way in which we go about our daily job of helping to staff the Federal service. The basic elements involved in this concept (as required by the Civil Service Act of 1883) are:

#### *Adequate publicity*

The facts must be made public, so that interested citizens have a reasonable opportunity to know about Federal job vacancies and how they are filled.

#### *Opportunity to apply*

Citizens who are interested must have a chance to make their interest known and to receive consideration.

#### *Equal application of realistic and reasonably valid standards*

Standards which are related to the requirements of the job to be filled, or the career to be entered, must be applied impartially to all who make their interest known.

#### *Absence of discrimination*

The standards used must contain factors which relate only to ability and fitness for employment.

#### *Ranking on the basis of ability and selection from among the best*

The very essence of competition implies a ranking of candidates on the basis of a relative evaluation of their ability and fitness and a selection process which gives effect to this ranking.

#### *Knowledge of results and opportunity for review*

The public must be able to find out how the process works, and any individual who believes that the process has not been applied properly in his own case must have a chance for administrative review.

We in the Civil Service Commission believe that these principles are basic to our form of government and to sound modern personnel management. The history which follows tells the story of the long struggle to make them a reality in our public service.

But this is only a portion of the story, for keeping politics and other extraneous factors out of appointments to the civil service has long since ceased to be the sole or primary function of the Civil Service Commission. Years ago public opinion solidified on the side of the merit system and this has permitted increasing emphasis on what are called the "positive" features of personnel management. The Government's personnel program, geared to agency workloads that have increased tremendously in size and complexity, has necessarily concerned itself mainly with the recruitment and retention of an effective Federal work force, with all that this implies in terms of improving working conditions, benefits, and incentives. Some of the elements in modern personnel administration, such as use of agency boards of examiners rather than concentration of examining work within the Commission, can be traced back to the Civil Service Act itself. Other modern concepts were undreamed of by the pioneers and will be dealt with in this history at the point at which they emerged as parts of the personnel system. Generally speaking, however, the Civil Service Act has stood the test of time and has proved itself to be a very wise and flexible law.

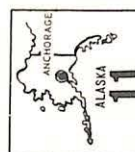




# UNITED STATES CIVIL SERVICE REGIONS



As of January 1958, nearly 2,300 of the Civil Service Commission's approximately 4,100 employees were stationed outside Washington, D. C., in 11 regional offices in principal cities and at other duty stations. Each regional office is a miniature Civil Service Commission, serving the area over which it has jurisdiction, assisted by many boards of examiners. More than 90 percent of the Government's 2,334,000 employees work outside the Washington, D. C., metropolitan area.



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## Part 1 Introductory

### I. HISTORIC TABLE

A little table stands in the second-floor rotunda of the Civil Service Commission Building in Washington, D. C. There's a bronze plaque on it, indicating that it has historic interest. The table looks rather lonesome, however, because few people notice it, let alone stop to read the plaque.

But that modest table is an eloquent symbol of contrast: it vividly symbolizes the spectacular growth of Civil Service in America.

The plaque reads: "THE UNITED STATES CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION MET ABOUT THIS TABLE IN 1883 AND DRAFTED THE ORIGINAL RULES." Those meetings took place shortly after the signing, on January 16, 1883, of the epoch-making Civil Service Act. The plaque further indicates, by listing their names, that those early conferees numbered exactly four.

#### Historic Quartet

These are the names of the historic four, inscribed in bronze: Dorman B. Eaton, John M. Gregory, and Leroy D. Thoman (the original three Commissioners), and their stenographer, John T. Doyle.

There were also, in that first Commission, an examiner, a secretary, and a messenger—seven in all. But all seven couldn't have crowded in around that tiny table, and an unusual rhetorical question might be asked: "How large would a table have to be to seat 4,100?"

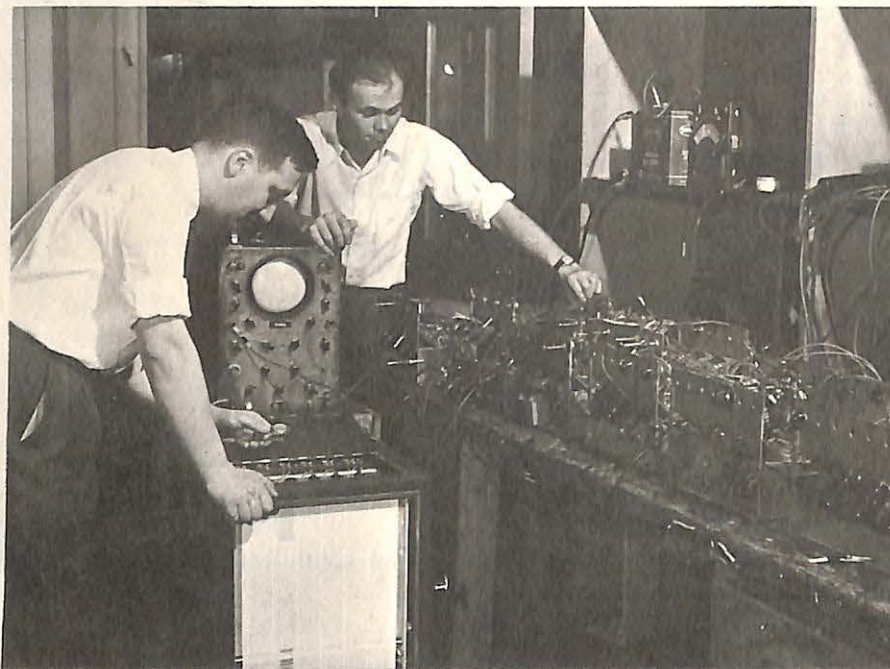
Because today, with some 2,334,000 civilians employed by the Federal Government, the January 1958 roster of the Civil Service Commission—the agency largely responsible for administering the personnel rules for that huge work force—is nearly 600 times larger than its 1883 roster . . . a leap from seven to 4,100. (This purely numerical comparison does not reflect the vast increase in the Commission's complexity of functions between 1883 and 1958.)

Incidentally, the first office of the Commission consisted of two rooms in a private dwelling at 612 Fourteenth Street NW., in Washington, rented for \$3 a day in March 1883. That was the first *operational office* the Commission had, but for 2 weeks prior to that it had held meetings in the apartment of Mr. Dorman B. Eaton, author of the Civil Service (Pendleton) Act and first head of the Commission, in Wormley's Hotel, 15th and H Streets NW.

Today, the main Civil Service Commission Building in Washington



Engineering draftsman.



Physicists.



is a massive stone structure with a Parthenon-like portico. During the Civil War, when it was the United States Patent Office, this building housed 2,000 beds for battle casualties, later easily accommodated the 4,000 persons who attended Lincoln's second inaugural ball. And the Commission's Bureau of Departmental Operations fills Washington's former Civil War Pension Office, a huge brick building in which 18,000 people danced at the 1909 inaugural ball. Civil Service Commission personnel also work in the Washington buildings known as Temporary D and Temporary E.

In the first report of the United States Civil Service Commission, forwarded to President Arthur on February 7, 1884, there is a paragraph more expressively revealing than any amount of comparative statistics. The Commissioners wrote, rather plaintively:

The clerical force of the Commission is inadequate. It has been worked beyond the customary hours of the Departments. At least *one* additional clerk seems indispensable.

At the start of Washington's administration, less than 350 persons made up the Federal work force.

In 1883, there were 132,800, only 10.5 percent of which—13,900 positions—came under the new competitive service. These were mostly minor clerkships.

In January 1958, the Federal work force numbered more than 2,334,000, staffing more than 70 Government departments and agencies, and stationed throughout the continental United States, its Territories and possessions, and in many foreign countries. These staffs ranged in size from the million-man, worldwide Department of Defense civilian staff to the Commission of Fine Arts, Washington, D. C., which had four paid employees.

Our Federal work force is larger than those of eight of America's biggest private enterprises put together. Combined, the American Telephone & Telegraph Co., General Motors, U. S. Steel, Standard Oil of New Jersey, the Great Atlantic & Pacific Tea Co., the Pennsylvania Railroad, the Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., and Consolidated Edison have 2,112,000 employees.

In one way or another, the work of Federal employees touches every American every day. Government workers function in the areas of foreign policy, national defense, and missile and space development. They print and mint our money, control narcotics, regulate immigration, collect taxes and duties. They help to conserve land and revitalize land that is unproductive, bring electricity into rural homes, enforce Federal laws, and administer social security. They operate the atomic energy program, forecast the weather, and protect national parks and forests. They conduct research—in physics, electronics, meteorology, geology, metallurgy, and other scientific fields—which has far-reaching effects on the health, welfare, economy, and security of our Nation. They control

our airways, standardize our weights and measures, develop flood-control measures, deliver our mail, and perform hundreds of other services required by the American people.

Percentagewise, the competitive service—in other words, the merit system—has grown to approximately 86 percent of all the civilian jobs in the Federal Government.

### Epoch-making, Idealistic

The Civil Service Act was not only epoch-making but idealistic. This legislation, entitled "An Act to Regulate and Improve the Civil Service of the United States" (see Appendix I), marked the transition from the wild, unbridled "spoils system" of public service in this country to the orderly, unpolitical, and infinitely more efficient "merit system."

This book which you hold in your hands does not attempt to recount everything that happened in the Federal service in the 96 years from 1787 to 1883 and the 75 years from 1883 to 1958. Such a work would fill more volumes than an encyclopedia. Our book offers, instead, some of the more significant highlights of those 171 years:

- It tells how two pistol shots, resulting in tragedy, consolidated an indignant American public opinion and literally forced the passage of the long-overdue Civil Service Act: an inspiring example of the power of public opinion at its idealistic best.
- It shows how the story of civil service is inextricably entwined with the history of America, and vice versa. To wit: the very first debate ever held in the United States Senate revolved about a public-service problem (see p. 9). Also, certain famous American sayings, such as "To the victor belong the spoils" and "Turn the rascals out!" sprang from early Government-service practices (see pp. 19, 20).
- In emphasizing the indispensable role played by the merit system in representative government, "Biography of an Ideal" also seeks to increase public understanding of the work done by Government employees and the way these services affect the day-to-day life of every United States citizen.
- Finally, the book seeks to stimulate interest in Government service as a career and stresses the great strides that have been made in developing a true *career* civil service in this country.

### The Time Frame, and a Crossroads Date

The time frame of this history runs from September 17, 1787, to January 16, 1958.

On January 16, 1883—a significant "crossroads" date—the Civil Service Commission was created, but this is the history of Federal civil service in the United States, not of the Civil Service Commission alone. The Commission and the merit system might be said to have a 96-year



background and a 75-year foreground, and this history deals with both—with the whole 171 years.

### A "Momentous Work Executed"

Before retiring on the night of September 17, 1787, a certain idealistic American made the following entry in his diary:

The Constitution received the unanimous vote of eleven States. The business being thus closed, the Members adjourned to the City Tavern, dined together, and took cordial leave of each other, after which I returned to my lodgings to meditate on the momentous work which had been executed.

The diarist was George Washington.

The "momentous work" which he recorded that night in Philadelphia was the approval of the Constitution of the United States by the Second Constitutional Convention, which had been meeting for the preceding 4 months.

By 1788, the required nine States had ratified the Constitution, one small portion of which—in the second paragraph of the second section of its second article—is of basic and special significance (see p. 7) in any history of Civil Service in the United States:

... the Congress may by Law vest the Appointment of such inferior Officers as they think proper, in the President alone, in the Courts of Law, or in the Heads of Departments.

### Diamond Anniversary

January 16, 1958, marked the 75th anniversary of the passage of the Civil Service Act, and the entire year of 1958 was designated as civil service's "Diamond Anniversary Year."

It's an eventful story, with "heroes" and "villains," great names and forgotten ones, hard-won victories and bitter defeats, dilemmas, crises, climaxes, anticlimaxes, suspense, tragedy, and humor. Above all, it is part of the story of American democracy and American strength.

Civil service in the United States has been surprisingly sensitive to the deepest desires of the people, to the needs of the Government, and to major political, economic, and social developments, not only in the United States but, in more recent years, in the world at large.

We find this reflected in "Biography of an Ideal." It is the story of a continuous striving to make the American civil service meet the de-

mands of our people, our Government, and "the times," whether 1787, 1828, 1883, 1941, or 1958.

### The Changing Federal Service

Public service has undergone such drastic changes during its 171-year history in America that it is considered, today, to have had four distinct "personalities":

One: The staid, able service of the Federalist era (see chapter 2);

Two: The fantastic "Dark Ages," when national elections were gigantic lotteries, with Government employment as the prize (see chapters 3 through 6);

Three: The early, unspectacular years of the competitive civil service, when high-level professional and executive career jobs were relatively few (see chapter 8);

Four: The modern civil service, whose career employees serve, worldwide, in assignments requiring high levels of professional and executive capacity, judgment, energy, and skill (see chapters 8 and 9).

### The Bad With the Good

The United States civil service has its share of faults. The Civil Service Commission is the last to condone them, or gloss them over.

This isn't the place to talk about the brain-cudgeling and soul-searching with which the Commissioners, and the Commission's executives, face the manifold problems of the future of civil service in this critically important era. However, here are some vital areas which are under constant study with a view to improvement:

- How to speed up all our processes.
- How to compete more successfully with private employers in attracting our fair share of the Nation's best brains.
- How to introduce into our civil service an aggressive program of personnel training comparable to those of the military and of private industry.
- How to develop better techniques to select employees on the basis of their knowledge, skills, and abilities.

The public should take care to distinguish between real faults of the civil service and, on the other hand, inconveniences caused by the vast size of the civil service operation.



## Know Your Civil Service

The pages which follow will, it is hoped, reveal what civil service is in the perspective of its long background—especially in relation to the chaos that existed before January 16, 1883. In this Diamond Anniversary year of 1958, a newly aroused public opinion looks toward our Government to lead this country and the free world safely through international crises which are the gravest in the history of civilization. Some observers are calling our civil service the key to national survival.

### That Table Again . . .

Readers of "Biography of an Ideal," should they ever happen into the Civil Service Commission building at 8th and F Streets in Washington, will feel, we hope and believe, that our historic little table, on display in the second-floor rotunda, has a rich and a thought-provoking significance.



## Part 2    Ninety-Six Premerit Years

### II. FOUR CALM DECADES

Any history of public service in the United States will unquestionably put major emphasis on the spoils system versus the merit system and the superiority of the latter. This superiority is one main theme, one big point, of the civil service story.

The merit system became official when President Chester Alan Arthur signed the Civil Service Act on January 16, 1883, and this historical fact has given some people the idea that the vicious spoils system held sway from that date back to the beginning of our Republic.

It didn't.

There existed, during the first six presidencies of the United States, an unofficial merit system which, though not completely "pure," worked well.

The Constitution made clear, in Article II, Section 2, paragraph 2, the method for appointment of higher officials, namely "Ambassadors, other public Ministers and Consuls, Judges of the Supreme Court, and all other Officers of the United States whose Appointments are not herein otherwise provided for." The President nominates these officials by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, which thereby holds a veto over the President's choices.

### One Interpretation of "Inferior": "Vitality Important"

The Constitution was more indefinite about the method of appointment of "inferior officers"—the somewhat unfortunate term used by the document's drafters to designate the vitally important corps of employees responsible for the operating work of the Government—namely the Government work force.

Congress may designate the appointing authority for these employees, and the 31 significant words quoted earlier (see p. 4) will bear repetition:

. . . the Congress may by Law vest the Appointment of such inferior Officers, as they think proper, in the President alone, in the Courts of Law, or in the Heads of Departments.



For more than 80 years, however, Congress made comparatively little use of this power.

The first report to President Grant by the so-called "Grant Civil Service Commission" (see pp. 13, 38-40) was dated December 18, 1871. It discussed the earliest days of public service:

During the early administrations, appointments [to public office] were made from considerations of character and fitness, and removals took place for cause. This practice, as it was the wisest and most reasonable, was also to be expected, because Washington, having been unanimously elected to the Presidency, party divisions, as we know them, developed only toward the close of his administration. He required of applicants proof of ability, integrity, and fitness. "Beyond this," he said, "nothing with me is necessary, or will be of any avail to them, in my decision." John Adams made few removals, and those for cause. Jefferson said the pressure [on him] to remove was like a torrent. But he resisted it. Madison, Monroe, and John Quincy Adams followed him so faithfully that the Joint Congressional Committee on Retrenchment reported in 1868 that, having consulted all accessible means of information, it had not learned of a single removal of a subordinate officer, except for cause, from the beginning of Washington's administration to the close of that of John Quincy Adams.

Actually, the above-quoted portion of the report of the "Grant Commission" seems somewhat naive. Presidents Washington, John Adams, and Jefferson did not espouse pure merit as unqualifiedly as the report makes it appear.

### Washington's "Fitness Test"

Washington, twice chosen President by unanimous vote of the Electoral College, enjoyed high prestige and great popularity. A lesser man might have attempted to use this secure position and patronage<sup>1</sup> power for his own advantage. Instead, Washington set a high standard, selecting his nominees carefully, after investigating their capabilities and reputations. Honesty and efficiency were his paramount considerations, and he also took into account such matters as pre-Revolutionary adherence to the cause of the colonies. His "fitness test" included, in addition to the requirement for genuine ability, the unstated question: "Is he a Federalist?"

Furthermore, he occasionally gave preference to officers of the Revolutionary Army (if they passed his "fitness test"); he selected the principal Federal officers from different regions of the country; he staffed field establishments with local residents; and he sought the opinions of Congress in making local appointments.

<sup>1</sup>"PATRONAGE: In politics, the right, or control, of nomination to political office; also the offices, contracts, honors, etc., which a public official may bestow by favor." *Webster's Unabridged Dictionary*.



GEORGE WASHINGTON

From the very first days of our infant Republic, public service was an important concern of both the executive and legislative branches. During the first fortnight after Washington's inauguration, the First Congress debated for 6 days whether the power of removal (and hence the control) of executive officials belonged to the President, the Senate, or both. The Senate, after a tie broken by the vote of Vice President John Adams, took the position that the President held both the appointing and removal power, but that only the appointing power was limited by the requirement for Senate confirmation.

It was during this debate that Representative James Madison struck a strong blow in favor of a merit system by declaring that "wanton removal of a meritorious officer is an impeachable offense." (After he became President, Madison acted strictly in accordance with this belief.)

The making of minor appointments was, as Washington prophesied in his preinauguration writings, "the most difficult and delicate part" of his work.

### Adams' "Midnight Appointments"

The able and obstinate John Adams continued, in general, the policies of his predecessor, adhering to Washington's policy of demanding demonstrable ability in a candidate for public office. However, he allowed personal prejudice and partisan politics to influence him more than they had influenced Washington.

And, at the end of his term, Adams, in making his so-called "midnight appointments," tarnished the reputation he had earned by the moderation and high standards with which he had made the great majority of his appointments.





When he knew that he would be succeeded by a President of the opposition (Democratic-Republican) party, he yielded to party feeling and attempted to obtain some control of the judicial branch of the new administration. This he did by appointing some Federalists to circuit court judgeships, others to justice of the peace positions in the District of Columbia. At the State Department, late on the night of March 3, 1801, signatures and seals were still being placed on these commissions. Suddenly the new Attorney General appeared and ordered the proceedings stopped.

### Pendulum Begins to Swing

Thomas Jefferson and his party were greatly embittered by Adams' action, and sought means of retaliation.

Ability was a primary consideration in Washington's "fitness test" and even in Adams' "midnight appointments"; thus these were benign examples of partisanship, rather than the malignant form that came later. Still the pattern for much of the subsequent shabby history of the spoils system was set in those early days.

The growth of political parties in America, and their struggles for supremacy, soon showed that it would be very difficult to keep the public service outside the sphere of party politics.

Each party endeavored to place in office as many as possible of its members. Then its successor took revenge by removing as many as possible of the defeated party. Thus changes were constantly taking place among Government personnel, and continuity of administrative programs was impossible. Once this pendulum started swinging, it became increasingly difficult to stop. As years went by, politics became less a contest of issues and more a partisan struggle for appointment to

public office. These struggles sometimes provided a dramatic spectacle, but one for which the public paid a high price.

### Jefferson "Redresses the Balance"

During Thomas Jefferson's first term, the political factor became, for a time, openly more important than true fitness in the making of both appointments and removals—the "Grant Commission" report (see p. 8) to the contrary notwithstanding.

Jefferson found most Government positions occupied by Federalists, as a result of Washington's "fitness test" and Adams' policies. Democratic-Republican Jefferson therefore felt compelled to "redress the balance," i. e., appoint only Democratic-Republicans until a balance between his party and the Federalist party was attained.

However, Jefferson wrote that when this had been accomplished, he would "return with joy to that state of things when the only questions concerning a candidate shall be: Is he honest? Is he capable? Is he faithful to the Constitution?"

Jefferson, one of our "strong" Presidents and also one of our most skillful politicians, moved cautiously in removing Federalists. He attempted to establish justification in each case, on legal or moral grounds, and he tested the public reaction to each step before taking the next. His removals were not sudden and wholesale but cautious and gradual. His appointments were not rewards for partisan political activity, as such, nor did they imply increased partisan activity in the future.

He required that the fitness of new appointees be considered, and he stressed that civil servants were "trustees" of the people, not an elite self-perpetuating group and not representatives of one political party.



THOMAS JEFFERSON



By these means, he accomplished one of the cleverest feats in early American politics: He more than "redressed the balance" while at the same time maintaining a high quality of appointees, avoiding censure from a public sensitive to administrative abuse, keeping his friends in his own party, and not alienating the mass of Federalist adherents he was attempting to woo from their leaders.

His opponents had felt certain that an angry public reaction to his purge of Federalists would work his political ruin . . . and this would probably have happened, had he been less adroit politically.

### Not the True Spoils System

Jefferson has been frequently and unjustifiedly called the first President to introduce partisan political considerations as a factor in removals and appointments.

Since his election marked the first change of party in the young Republic, the people Jefferson removed were Federalists because Washington and Adams had staffed the service with Federalists. And Jefferson wrote Monroe that his removals would be "as few as possible, done gradually, and bottomed on some malversation or inherent disqualification." Most of his removals were in fact carried out on this principle; incumbents were given advance notice of their removal, and were treated courteously. This was in sharp contrast to the policies of certain administrations during the later "Dark Ages" of the spoils system.

Jefferson regarded those who held Adams-manipulated "midnight appointments" as being illegally in office, and his party took its revenge by repealing the act authorizing circuit court judgeships, thus abolishing the lifetime positions to which the "midnight judges" had been appointed.

Politics certainly entered into Jefferson's policy toward public service more deeply than it had with Washington and Adams, but he was not the first to introduce this factor. Nor did his policy remotely resemble the full-blown spoils system which, already rampant in some states, would later blight the Federal Government.

As a matter of fact, Jefferson issued what is probably the earliest order directed at stopping political activities on the part of Government employees. This order, issued in 1801, proclaimed the principle that the Civil Service Act put into effect 82 years later:

The right of any officer [i. e., officeholder] to give his vote at elections as a qualified citizen is not meant to be restrained, nor, however given, shall it have any effect to his prejudice; but it is expected that he will not attempt to influence the votes of others nor take any part in the business of electioneering, that being deemed inconsistent with the spirit of the Constitution and his duties to it.

### Stability Despite Mounting Pressure

The 1871 report of the "Grant Civil Service Commission" continued (see earlier quotation from this report on p. 8):

During all this time [the administrations of Madison, Monroe, and John Quincy Adams], party pressure for removals was not unknown. When an auditorship of the Treasury became vacant under Monroe, among the applicants were five United States Senators and thirty Representatives! In 1828, the Chief Justice of [New York] State was a candidate for a place in the Treasury Department to which none but third-rate men would aspire. The party pressure was already "tormenting" and, as the number of offices increased, and the power of patronage developed, it was to be expected that an attempt would be made to control the whole civil service for the benefit of a party. This practice was virtually declared a rule of action in the year 1832 [third year of the administration of Andrew Jackson].

Madison and Monroe, being of the same political party as Jefferson, saw no reason to disturb the wholly satisfactory "redressed-balance" civil service which they inherited.



### Madison and the War of 1812

War has always caused an abnormally sharp and sudden increase in the number of civilian as well as military personnel. Prior to 1883, the whole of such increases was added to the patronage enjoyed by the President and other officials with the power to appoint.

The War of 1812, during Madison's administration, was no exception.

Madison, however, did not take advantage of this increased patronage for the benefit of his party, but gave opposition members a share in civilian appointments. This was not only in accord with his principles,



but also had the practical advantage of securing him united support in the crisis of the war, when defeat looked uncomfortably near and large areas of American territory, including the Capital, suffered invasion.



JAMES MONROE

### Monroe and the "Tenure of Office Act"

James Monroe took office in the so-called "Era of Good Feeling." Strife between political parties was at a minimum during his two administrations. And he furthered the good feeling of that period by adopting what he called an "amalgamation policy," under which selections for appointments were made irrespective of party.

This peaceful era was a deceptive calm before the storm.

The most significant event of Monroe's administration—as the stable public service of that period plunged on, all unknowingly, toward the chaos that lay ahead—was the passage of the "Tenure of Office Act" of 1820, which unintentionally, one might say innocently, opened the door to the spoils system. This act and the "rotation in office" policy, aggressively espoused by Andrew Jackson, formed, in fact, the twin cornerstones of the spoils system.

Under the provisions of the "Tenure of Office Act," the terms of many officials were limited to four years, to correspond with that of the President. Ostensibly, the purpose of the act was to compel a regular submission of accounts, at the end of each term of office, from officials handling public funds. Supporters of the law claimed that most of-

ficials would be reappointed, but that a convenient means would also be provided for removing, by failure to reappoint, unsatisfactory officials without damaging their reputations.

Jefferson and Madison warned against the intrigue and corruption that would result from this legislation, which changed the earlier Federal practice of permitting administrative and executive officials, except Cabinet officers, to serve during good behavior, as distinct from elective officers who served fixed terms. Jefferson wrote to Madison: "It will keep all the hungry cormorants for office in constant excitement." Madison agreed, and protested to Monroe, who nevertheless signed the bill.



### Calm Continues (and Concludes) Under John Quincy Adams

The "Tenure of Office Act" made removal of all incumbents, whether satisfactory or not, easy and (eventually) customary. But neither Monroe nor John Quincy Adams took advantage of the immense power the act put in the hands of the Chief Executive: they both consistently reappointed to public office all those who had performed their work meritoriously.

John Quincy Adams, as a matter of principle, refused to disturb the civil service after he came into office, although his political views were not the same as those of his three predecessors, and he was under considerable pressure from his party for patronage.

John Quincy Adams, carrying out his policy of "no changes for political reasons," removed only 12 Presidential officers in 4 years. He was the last to make conservative use of the power of appointment and removal.



Public service's four calm decades ended when his term expired in 1829.

### An Evaluation

The first six Presidents were among the great men who helped formulate the Constitution. They hoped to make it work by giving the country both a sound Federal Government and wide liberty for the individual citizen. The spoils system would have been unthinkable to them as a system for staffing the civil service.

During those early years, of course, political parties had not yet become powerful, and the need for patronage was not felt strongly, either as a weapon in political warfare or as financial support for party treasuries and party workers. The number of Federal jobs was small in those days, and Government expenditures, for payrolls or contracts, were not temptingly high.

In addition, there was still fairly general acceptance of the theory that Federal jobs were the property of the Government, not of the victorious political party.

Thus these Presidents were able to develop a civil service which, while not perfect, was of high quality. The civil servants of that day had both ability and integrity. It was a good civil service for its time.

It was also one to which the country could never return, even after the spoils system had been killed and buried, for the work of civil servants in that era was largely clerical and administrative routine. No distinction was then made between policymaking and policy-executing jobs. Little authority was delegated below Cabinet level. And, despite Jefferson's influence in the other direction, appointments were made largely from the more well-to-do families—the educated class—to the exclusion of the largest part of our population: The farmers, the workers, the small shopkeepers, the frontiersmen.

### Greatest Defect: Undemocratic

The fact that it was not a democratic civil service was its greatest defect, and played a part in bringing on the evils of the spoils system—evils which are vividly described in the three quotations at the beginning of the next chapter.

### III. "IT IS A DETESTABLE SYSTEM"

It is a detestable system, drawn from the worst period of the Roman Republic. And if it were to be perpetuated—if the offices, honors, and dignities of the people were to be put up to public scramble, to be decided by the result of every Presidential election—our Government and institutions, becoming intolerable, would finally end in a despotism as inexorable as that at Constantinople.

—Henry Clay, *U. S. Senator, on the Senate Floor: 1832.*

Every four years, the whole machinery of the Government is pulled to pieces. The country presents a most ridiculous, revolting, and disheartening spectacle. The business of the nation and the legislation of Congress are subordinated to the distribution of plunder among eager partisans. Presidents, secretaries [of departments], senators, representatives are dogged, hunted, besieged, besought, denounced, and they become mere office brokers. The country seethes with intrigue and corruption. Economy, patriotism, honesty, honor, seem to have become words of no meaning.

—George William Curtis, *leader in the fight for civil service reform: 1870.*

The spoils system was more fruitful of degradation in our political life than any other that could possibly have been invented. The spoils-monger, the man who peddled patronage, inevitably bred the vote-buyer, the vote-seller, and the man guilty of misfeasance in office.

—Theodore Roosevelt, *Civil Service Commissioner, in a letter dated February 8, 1895.*

The above evaluations of the spoils system are examples of, respectively, futile foresight, horrified direct observation, and indignant hindsight.

The "four calm decades" discussed in the preceding chapter encompassed the administrations of our first 6 Presidents. Now we move on to the administrations of the next 15: The span of more than five decades from Andrew Jackson to Chester A. Arthur. That was the notorious "spoils era." From the point of view of the public service, it was a brash, noisy, tumultuous, shameful, inefficient half-century. Toward the end of this period, frantic attempts at reform were made, but they came to nothing. It is a sorry chapter in the history of public service, giving us, as we look back, much to deplore and little to be proud of.

But look back on it we must; and we can hardly do so without being devoutly grateful that the end of that era was also the beginning of the "merit era."

### Plague of Locusts

At the height of the "spoils era," each change in national administration was the signal for wholesale removal of Government employees to



provide jobs for the supporters of the new President, his party, the party leaders, and sometimes for the leaders of a faction within the party. This occurred even on the death-in-office of a President and the succession of a Vice President. It became routine for the incoming President, his Cabinet, and the heads of departments to put aside all other business for the month following the inauguration, in order to concentrate on settling the aggressive, brazen, and conflicting claims of the hordes of office-seekers who descended like locusts on Washington.

The struggle for jobs caused much bitterness, and jobs were openly bought and sold.

Particularly under weaker Presidents, appointments under the spoils system were often made not by the President or the department heads but by Congressmen and political leaders. This was, for most of the better-paying jobs and the positions of influence and importance, largely a matter of rewarding the friends and punishing the foes of the leaders of the dominant faction of the victorious party. However, for many positions of the clerical type, the pressures for patronage were more often to find jobs for certain constituents who could not otherwise find employment.

These latter were the so-called "humanitarian" cases—as, for example, a widow who needed a job and went to her Congressman for help. The result of this type of patronage was to load the Federal payroll with unemployables—persons who were hired not for their ability to do a job but because of their inability to hold a job elsewhere.

Once appointed, the worries of a successful office-seeker were not necessarily ended until the next election. To keep his job, he might have to fight off disappointed but still hungry job-seekers, grant favors in his official capacity to party leaders, and contribute a portion of his pay to the party treasury.

Bestowing public office on individuals as a reward for political activity resulted, of course, in lack of continuity and experience, appointment of unfit incumbents, and encouragement of low moral standards, including the tempting of employees to seek, from public funds, reimbursement for the expense of getting and keeping jobs. Not only incompetence but graft, corruption, and outright theft became common.

### Jackson Overvilified

With these evils so clear, what brought the United States, a young and idealistic country occupying an honored place among the governments of the world, to adopt such a fantastic mode of political administration as a *public service based on the spoils system*—especially after Washington and John Quincy Adams had placed the fledgling Republic's feet firmly on another path?

Andrew Jackson is rather widely identified in the public mind as the

originator, the strongest supporter, and the most extreme practitioner of the spoils system. This, however, is not in accord with the historical facts, although he did introduce the system to the National Government on a more calculated and open basis than any previous President had.

We have already traced some symptomatic, though not malignant, evidences of the influence of partisanship in making appointments during the first four decades of our country's existence. And Jackson did not *originate* either of the two major aspects of the spoils system: the application of the "rotation theory" to appointive officers; or the use of patronage for practical political advantage.



ANDREW JACKSON

Furthermore, it must be borne in mind that well before Jackson took office in 1829, "spoils patronage" was solidly established in some States. This was especially true of several Northern and Western States, in particular New York, whose leaders (Aaron Burr, Martin Van Buren, William Learned Marcy, and others) were hard-headed, practical politicians. These members of the so-called "Albany Regency"—all of them influential in the Jackson administration—had built up New York State's strong political machine by cynical use of "spoils patronage" as a weapon in campaigns and in party warfare, and to build and maintain party strength.

The Presidential campaign of 1828 was one of the bitterest America had ever seen. The triumphant party was bent on revenge, also on whatever incidental profit its members could secure.

It was the Jacksonians whose battle cry against the supporters of John Quincy Adams was: "Turn the rascals out!"



## "To the Victor Belong the Spoils"

And it was Marcy, at that time a United States Senator, who coined a phrase destined to become famous—or, more accurately, infamous—in civil service history: "They see nothing wrong in the rule that to the victor belong the spoils of the enemy."

That was in 1832, in a debate with Senator Henry Clay over Jackson's nomination of Martin Van Buren as Minister to Great Britain, the same debate from which we excerpted Clay's "It is a detestable system" quotation at the beginning of this chapter. In that debate, Clay flatly stated that "to this gentleman [Van Buren] is principally to be ascribed the introduction of the [spoils system] in the Government of the United States."

By the time Jackson took office, the spoils system, full-blown, had become an integral part of the American political scene below the national level.

The professional politicians who rode into power behind the immense popularity of "Old Hickory" demanded that the system be introduced into the Federal Government—and the majority of the population supported them. There was a strong feeling on the part of many Americans that there was now a real need to "democratize" the civil service by bringing into it people from all strata of the country, and not restricting it, as our first six Presidents had, to the better-educated classes.

## Critical Turning Point

A critical turning point had now been reached in American history when the spoils system was destined to be applied at the national level. Jackson, as party leader and as political leader, therefore had little choice, if he was to lead his party and its supporters.

However, all historical indications point to Jackson as being quite ready to make Government jobs the spoils of political war.

He removed many appointees solely to make room for his supporters and to provide patronage for the leaders of his party. He leaned heavily on patronage to strengthen his party and to gain support for his programs.

Fitness for office was given far less consideration under Jackson than under Jefferson, and the quality of public service was seriously affected for the first time. And, under Jackson, political sympathy and partisan activity were required as a condition of appointment—and so was an understanding, or sometimes an outright promise, of future partisan activity.

An unprecedented horde of jobseekers flooded into Washington at the time of Jackson's inauguration. The unabashed, unashamed, aggres-

sive, and unruly manner in which they pressed their claims—in the Government departments, in the White House, in the Capitol—shocked a city accustomed to the dignified behavior of the Federalists.

The job-hungry mobs pushed and shoved into the White House on Jackson's Inaugural Day, and there snatched the orange-iced cakes and other dainties as greedily as they clamored for post office, customhouse, and Treasury Department appointments. With the persistence of vultures, they searched for job pickings in every nook and cranny of the Federal service. The new President was never free from their solicitations; his Cabinet officers were similarly besieged.

## Jackson "Justifies"; Job-seekers Jostle

Jackson attempted to justify his patronage policies on much the same grounds as those advanced by Jefferson when he "redressed the balance," i. e., "better government," "conformance to republican ideals and to the 'high principle of rotation in office,' " etc.

Jackson stated that the trained officials in Washington constituted a dangerous bureaucracy, and that continuance in an office would lead to the establishment of a proprietary right to that office.

He also believed, and so stated in his first annual message, that the "duties of all public offices are, or at least admit of being made, so plain and simple that men of intelligence may readily qualify themselves for their performance." He added: "I cannot but believe that more is lost by the long continuance of men in office than is generally gained by their experience." Washington and Jefferson had taken the opposite view: They recognized the value to the Government of employees trained in administrative methods.

By Jackson's time, Government service had become relatively complex. Population had grown. Wealth had increased. New territories had to be administered, public lands sold, Indian problems handled, imported goods appraised for customs rulings, patents granted, etc. The rotation system, however, placed in these specialized positions men who had little or no training for them, and whose terms of office were too short and too uncertain to encourage them to undertake what we call, today, on-the-job training.

Only a country with the immense resources which the United States was developing during the years following 1829 could have borne the expense of the spoils system.

But the professional politicians and greedy jobseekers weren't interested in efficiency, principles, or careers in Government service. They were interested, frankly and unblushingly, only in what they could grab for personal profit.

"Whether I shall get anything in the general scramble for plunder," wrote one prominent jobseeker to a friend, "remains to be proved. I



think I shall, however, if it be only the Bergen lighthouse. I recommend you to push like the devil if you expect anything."

### A King-sized Paradox

The wide discrepancy between Jackson's stated theories and his actions relative to the public service constitute a king-sized paradox. The party platform on which he ran for reelection in 1832, with Martin Van Buren as his running mate, contained a ringing condemnation of the spoils system, written by the party convention barely 3 months after Senator Marcy's "To the victor belong the spoils" speech. This was its pious wording:

The indiscriminate removal of public officers for a mere difference of political opinion is a gross abuse of power, and the doctrine lately boldly preached in the United States Senate, that to the victors belong the spoils of the vanquished, is detrimental to the interests, corrupting to the morals, and dangerous to the liberties of the country.

Thus was "confusion worse confounded."  
And the worst was yet to come.

### IV. LOWEST EBB

AN EDUCATED AND HIGHLY RESPECTABLE LADY desires a position in one of the Government departments; will pay 40% of salary for same.

A RELIABLE GENTLEMAN will furnish the best political papers and will pay \$150 to anyone who will help him secure a position of any kind in Washington.

As the rot of the spoils system widened and deepened, following Jackson's administration, ads like those above became commonplace in Washington newspapers. They caused no comment—not even raised eyebrows—although today they would set off congressional investigations, probably followed by criminal prosecutions. Everybody knew that Government jobs were handed out as rewards for political services or sold to the highest bidders.

The cynicism of the jobseekers of that era almost passes belief today, as does their bland acceptance that jobs would change hands whenever Presidencies changed hands. Following William Henry Harrison's victory over Martin Van Buren, an Ohio Whig wrote to a friend, a Democrat who had a job in the United States Pension Office: "I want your place. I will come to Washington to look after the matter, and I will stay at your house until I get it through."

As much as \$5,000 was paid, in some cases, for the influence that would obtain a position paying only \$1,500 a year. Payment of a year's salary for a 4-year appointment was not uncommon. The Public Treasury supplied the means by which appointees repaid themselves.

Now that the spoils system had taken firm root in the Federal Government, it seemed almost impossible to eradicate, although committees investigating the conduct of the new type of appointees during Jackson's incumbency uncovered startling evidences of fraud, inefficiency, and disloyalty to the interests of the Government.





### Van Buren: Heir Apparent

Jackson hand-picked Martin Van Buren as his successor, and his opponents nicknamed him "the heir apparent." Educated in the spoils-oiled political machine that controlled New York State, Van Buren proved himself a master at building a political machine at the Federal level. With Jackson's influence, and with the support of the officeholders whom he had indebted to himself during Jackson's administration, Van Buren was elected.

His election was an outstanding example of success won through the spoils system.

He closely followed Jackson's politically motivated method of removals and appointments, for which the Whig press castigated him roundly, although they, the Whigs, were soon to be entrenched themselves and enthusiastically doing the same thing.

The results of Jackson's wide-open spoils system operations caught up with Van Buren. Defaulters in public office were discovered in dismaying profusion, including the notorious Samuel Swartwout, Collector of the Port of New York, whose funds had been found \$210,000 short during his first term of office under Jackson. He had nevertheless been reappointed and then, under Van Buren, he decamped to Europe with over \$1,250,000 of Government money. A series of bank failures began, with accompanying loss of Federal funds which the Government had deposited in them for political rather than for sound financial reasons. The panic of 1837 caused a countrywide economic depression.

And now, for the first time, the cry for reform of the spoils system arose. It came, significantly, not from the politicians, but from the people.

It was a futile wail.



### Tippecanoe . . .

Indignant though they had been over Jackson's and Van Buren's use of the removal and appointing authority, the Whigs lost no time in making use of the same tactics when William Henry Harrison was elected in 1840.

Van Buren had sought reelection as the "Champion of the People," but Harrison, the elderly military hero, won by his spectacular "log cabin" campaign, on his past glory as a general (the public never forgot his victory over the Indians at the Tippecanoe River in 1811), and on his promise of reform of Government administration.

His running mate was John Tyler.

Unfortunately, the spoils virus had by this time so thoroughly infected the body politic that "reform," to the mass of Harrison's followers, meant only one thing: the chance to get someone else's job.

This time some 40,000 office-seekers swarmed into Washington for the inauguration. Armed with letters, claims, and appalling gall, they took up their stations in Cabinet members' offices and in the White House. Some brought bedding and slept in the White House corridors.

Harrison, curiously enough, was in favor of one part of the spoils system but not another. He planned to remove large numbers of office-holders for political activity while in office and called for a revival of Jefferson's prohibition against it (see p. 12). On March 20, 1841, Daniel Webster, Secretary of State, issued, at Harrison's direction, an order prohibiting political activity by Federal employees.

Harrison, who was nearly 70 when elected, was worn out when he took office, by both the strain of the campaign and the shamelessly importunate demands and counterdemands of the multitudinous job-seekers. He became ill during the third week of his term and died during the



fourth. The official certificate gave pneumonia and general weakness as the causes of his death, but the opinion of many historians is that the real cause was the spoils system, which 40 years later (see p. 43 et seq.) was to cause the death of another President.



### . . . and Tyler Too

John Tyler was not really a member of the Whig Party, but he considered himself bound to carry out Harrison's intentions as to removals and appointments. However, it is generally considered by historians that he proceeded with more moderation than Harrison had planned to use.

### The United States Trapped

Now that the spoils system had achieved bipartisan approval at the national level, there could no longer be any hope that it would be merely a temporary phenomenon on the American political scene. The United States was entrapped by a pernicious personnel system which had no real future and an inglorious past, but which knew well how to make the most of the present.

### Spoils System at Its Height

During the 1845-65 period, the spoils system functioned at its most unrestrained and unashamed. The grossly corrupted Federal service had become a national scandal.

Wholesale dismissals and replacements followed when James Polk was inaugurated in 1845; when the Whigs came in again with Zachary Taylor in 1849; when Millard Fillmore succeeded Taylor on the latter's death in 1850; when the Democrat, Franklin Pierce, took office in 1853; when the Democrat, James Buchanan, succeeded Pierce in 1857; and when the Republican, Abraham Lincoln, became President in 1861.

Polk, in his inaugural speech, promised the removal of dishonest officers, but was silent as to retention of those who had performed meritoriously. The usual multitude of office-seekers, encouraged by his attitude, descended on Washington, and Polk removed more incumbents than any of the 10 Presidents who preceded him.



JAMES K. POLK

The vicious effects of the spoils system became increasingly apparent. General Winfield Scott found himself seriously hampered in the Mexican War by insubordinate volunteer officers who had been appointed for political reasons. The spoils system having been extended into the Army and Navy, it impaired the effectiveness of our forces not only in 1848 but in many Civil War campaigns.





ZACHARY TAYLOR

W. H. Seward (later Secretary of State under Lincoln) wrote of Taylor's inauguration:

The world seems almost divided into two classes: those who are going to California in search of gold, and those going to Washington in quest of office.

During Taylor's administration, one-third of the total of Government employees resigned or were removed. By this time the political opinions even of applicants for the position of doorkeeper were being carefully examined.



MILLARD FILLMORE

## A Gesture Toward Reform

In 1851—Fillmore was President then—Congress passed a resolution requesting the Cabinet officers to formulate:

... some plan of classifying the clerks in the several departments; for apportioning their salaries according to their services; also, some plan to provide for a *fair and impartial examination of the qualifications of clerks* and for promoting them from one grade to another, upon due regard to their qualifications and services. [Italics added.]

This was a significant straw in the wind: a sudden if fleeting flash, reminding America that the country's character was still basically fine, even in an era of general degradation in the public service.

## Pioneer Legislation Results

The above-quoted resolution was obviously designed to remedy some of the worst defects of the spoils system civil service. The resultant 1853 legislation, however, merely set a salary scale for four "grades" of clerks in the Washington offices of the Treasury, War, Navy, and Interior: \$900 through \$1,800 annually.

## "What Did You Have for Breakfast?"

This legislation contained a provision which is historically significant: it was in fact the first Federal attempt to secure the appointment of qualified employees in the public service. The major departments were required to establish examining boards to hold "pass examinations" for applicants in the four clerical grades in the Washington service.

"Pass examinations" were not the solution, and they were often cynically applied: Only one person could take a "pass examination" and he usually secured this privilege through political pull; requirements for identical positions were varied according to the person taking the examination; questions were often farcical, such as "What did you have for breakfast this morning?"; and often the examination, though required by law, was omitted entirely.

However, the grotesque "pass examination" was the ancestor of the democratic "competitive examination" which, introduced in 1872, was established on a permanent basis by the Civil Service Act in 1883.

## Pierce to Buchanan to Lincoln

Attempts at reform seemed useless. The 1853 act was considered to be as much as Congress had either the desire or the power to accomplish.





By the time Franklin Pierce was inaugurated, the spoils system had become the accepted means of conducting the public business. Now, different factions of the incoming political party began to quarrel over the division of the "spoils of the enemy."



JAMES BUCHANAN

Even Senator Marcy, originator of the spoils-system slogan, attempted, as Secretary of State, to bring a measure of reform into his department. He failed.

Buchanan entered the Presidency in 1857, in a period of gathering political storms. The country was seething with conflict which in 4 years would burst into one of the bloodiest civil wars in history.

Buchanan, however, busied himself with spoils-system operations as though no crisis impended. He removed all officeholders who had supported Pierce, his rival for nomination, although they were nominally members of the same political party. This marked a culminating development of the spoils system: thereafter, Government employees were to be removed not only for affiliation with the defeated party but for supporting an unsuccessful nominee of the victor's own party. The bitterness caused by this policy was no aid in uniting the Democrats to combat the rising power of the new Republican Party.

And Buchanan issued what was probably the most extreme statement on spoils ever made in the United States when he announced that, in carrying out the policy of rotation, the civil service should be completely remanned and that he would reappoint no person whose term of office had expired, except under the most unusual circumstances. Thus the breaking-in of an entirely new set of officials every 4 years, or oftener, appeared to have been made compulsory by Buchanan's interpretation of "rotation."

This was the somber stage setting that greeted Abraham Lincoln in 1861.





## V. REACTION AGAINST SPOILS GAINS STRENGTH

During Lincoln's first term, the spoils current was running strongly, but a countercurrent now began to make itself felt. The population of the country was growing, the demands on our Government increasing. The need for a trained civil service, stable yet responsive to changing policies, became more and more important, and public calls for reform grew.

### Lincoln: Idealist and Realist

Abraham Lincoln was an idealist, as amply proved by his words and deeds. He was also, politically, a realist.

Trained in the hard realities of pioneer life, educated in the rough-and-tumble State and National legislatures of the time, he knew the political game. In spite of a profound dislike of the spoils system and a clear realization of its dangers, he made, in 1861, the cleanest sweep of office-holders yet seen. He accepted conditions as they were, and turned the spoils system into an instrument to gain and keep the political support he needed in the emergency he faced. He used patronage (1) to combine the diverse, hostile elements of the new Republican Party, and (2) to obtain the cooperation he needed from Congress during the Civil War.

At Lincoln's inaugural, not all minds were occupied with thoughts of war and the perilous days ahead. This was the first victory of a party which had conducted its first campaign only 4 years before, and its politicians were eager to profit.

Crowds of victorious party workers flocked to the Capital to present, in terms payable in Federal positions, their bills for party service.

Lincoln made over 1,400 removals of incumbents of positions which

had been filled by Buchanan. That was more than twice as many removals as Pierce had made—and Pierce, in his day, had held the record.

### Documentation of Exasperation

All day long, in his first weeks as President, Lincoln heard the restless tramp of jobseekers up and down the White House corridors. When he left his office to go to dinner, he had to pass through a mob whose members pushed and shoved about him and tried to thrust papers and petitions into his hand. He could hardly snatch the time to attend to the grave issues facing the country, because of constant interruptions from jobseekers.

Although he made political capital out of the spoils system, his exasperation with it is well documented.

Schuyler Colfax, Vice President of the United States from 1869 to 1873, wrote:

Lincoln was annoyed from the very opening of his administration by persistent office seekers engrossing nearly all his time. He used to exclaim: "I am like a man so busy letting rooms at one end of his house that he has no time left to put out a fire that is blazing and destroying at the other end."

On another occasion, pointing out to a friend the swarming, eager multitude of jobseekers thronging the White House, Lincoln said:



Cartoonist's pre-1883 drawing in *Harper's Weekly* entitled "The Office-Seekers' Invasion of the White House—Awaiting an Interview With the President." This cartoon was drawn by Charles H. Broughton.



"There you see something which will in the course of time become a greater danger to the Republic than the Rebellion itself."

On still another occasion, he remarked: "If ever this free people—this Government itself—becomes utterly demoralized, it will be the result of this incessant human wriggle and struggle for office."

And once, when he was prostrated in the White House by an attack of smallpox, he said to his attendants: "Tell all the office-seekers to come in at once, for now I have something I can give to all of them."

In a more serious vein, he observed to Carl Schurz: "I am afraid this thing is going to ruin republican government."

Lincoln found spoils a distinct hindrance in both civil and military administration. Civilians who were influential politicians received commissions ranking them ahead of experienced soldiers, and the humorist, Artemus Ward, laid the blame for the Union's loss of the first Battle of Bull Run on the news of three vacancies in the New York Custom-house.

It is probably true that the Civil War would have ended much sooner than it did if Government appointments had been made on the basis of ability.

### New Attempts at Reform

Even during the stress of the Civil War, a new movement was begun to increase the efficiency of the Federal service by changing the method of appointments. Earlier attempts had ended, as we have seen, in failure, and the Civil War attempts at reform made little more impact. Yet during the next 20 years, scarcely a session of Congress went by without the introduction of at least one civil service reform bill. The work, individual and cumulative, of many forward-looking statesmen was to be needed before a practical, permanent instrument of reform, the Civil Service Act of 1883, was enacted.

In 1863, John Bigelow, American Consul General in Paris, at the request of Secretary of State Seward, submitted a report on the French customs service, which described and recommended a system of appointment by competitive examinations.

In 1864, Senator Charles Sumner introduced a bill requiring that civil service appointments be made by competitive examination.

Lincoln himself, although he had made such extensive use of patronage, dealt a blow to the influence of the rotation theory when, at the beginning of his second term, he rejected proposals that he remove officials appointed during his first administration to make room for a new set of supporters as yet unrewarded. He felt that the time had now come when he could discard the cumbersome and disagreeable spoils system, and he flatly refused to turn out experienced workers and undertake the labor and worry of replacing them. From the date of his re-

fusal, the slow death of the rotation theory began, although it was still to continue through many administrations.

### Had Lincoln Lived . . .

Had Lincoln lived, not only might the reconstruction of the South have been accomplished without causing long-lingering bitterness, but reform of the Federal civil service might have been achieved much sooner. Instead, the contest between Congress and the President for control of the spoils of office was renewed after Lincoln's death, in a struggle more bitter and persistent than before.

Lincoln's tragic death at the hands of John Wilkes Booth renewed the sordid patronage struggle, and the public reacted in 1868 by electing General Grant, whose platform promised civil service reform (see p. 37).



ANDREW JOHNSON

### Jacksonian Johnson

Andrew Johnson, Lincoln's successor, was a "Jacksonian Democrat" who had been nominated as Vice President by the Republicans in an attempt to conciliate all factions and gain unified support for the war. For many years, as Congressman and as Senator, Johnson had been an advocate of the Jacksonian spoils theory, and, in his bitter fight with



Congress for control of the reconstruction, he used patronage to strengthen his position.

The impeachment proceedings finally brought against him were caused by a controversy between him and Congress over the removal power: Congress passed the Tenure of Office Act of March 2, 1867, over his veto, extending the requirement of Senate concurrence even to removals of Cabinet members. Johnson considered the act unconstitutional, summarily removed Secretary of War Edwin McMasters Stanton, and the resultant impeachment proceedings lacked only one vote of the two-thirds majority necessary for conviction.

### Reform Movement Gains Momentum

By this time the public was becoming increasingly disenchanted with the spoils system. The expense and scandals it caused in the Federal service were attracting attention and causing disgust. The cost of the Federal service had been much increased by the creation of many useless positions, in attempts to satisfy as many jobseekers as possible. Some positions were even held by absentees who rendered no services at all or hired substitutes to do their "work" at lower salaries.

A climate favorable to reform was developing rapidly. Reformers, convinced that the United States was being sold short for the benefit of the political parties and bosses, had been for decades an uninfluential minority. Now they began to be heard. Their influence waxed.

The theme of our history now becomes "Reform."

### A Major Milestone

We have described several of the previous unsuccessful attempts at reform, and will mention here only the final report (1868) of the Joint Select Committee on Retrenchment, which had been directed to inquire into, among other things, the question of examinations for appointments to Federal jobs. Congressman Thomas A. Jenckes of Rhode Island, the first of the great names in civil service reform, was an important member of this committee.

Its final report, a major milestone on the road to reform, contained a thorough critical discussion of the evils of the existing system, together with detailed analyses of the public-service systems in Great Britain, France, Prussia, and China. It recommended the introduction of competitive examinations. The novelty and sweeping nature of this recommendation are probably what caused its defeat.

But this defeat could not stem the rising tide of reform sentiment.

Nor were the studies, reports, and bills of Jenckes and the Retrenchment Committee wasted. They provided valuable information, and ammunition, for such later reform leaders as George William Curtis,

Dorman Eaton, Carl Schurz, William Dudley Foulke, Everett P. Wheeler, and Silas W. Burt; and their influence was important when the Pendleton Act, which established the merit system in 1883, was under consideration.

### Rocky Road to Reform

By 1870, the reform movement had begun to pick up steam.

But the reformers had no easy task. Although the spoils system was no longer, by this time, gaining strength, and even had gone somewhat on the defensive, its adherents were prepared to fight it out from strongly entrenched positions, with skilled leadership and overwhelming numerical superiority. And the professional politicians still did not feel too worried about the efforts of the reformers, whom they had long contemptuously regarded as idealistic and naive amateurs.

It is interesting to note how the dominant power over patronage shifted from era to era. Carl Russell Fish, in his book, "The Civil Service and the Patronage," stated that Washington controlled appointments more than any other President; that under Monroe, Cabinet members possessed their greatest power; that under Pierce, the congressional State delegations were most dictatorial in patronage matters; and that senatorial courtesy became preeminent later and Senators the principal patronage dispensers.



ULYSSES S. GRANT

### Grant Elected on Reform Platform

Gen. Ulysses Simpson Grant was elected on a reform platform which included a promise of civil service reform. However—and this is another example of the political paradoxes in our story—he did not mention civil service reform in either his inaugural address or his first annual



message. This omission surprised and disappointed protagonists of improvement in the Federal service.

But Grant did appoint Jacob D. Cox as his Secretary of the Interior, and Cox introduced the merit system into the Interior Department by a departmental order dated July 1870, under which appointments in the Patent Office, the Census Bureau, and the Indian Office were to be made on the basis of competitive examinations. But the pressure on Cox from spoils politicians was too great, and, in November of that year, he resigned.

Also, in July 1870, George S. Boutwell, Secretary of the Treasury, issued a departmental order setting up a system of competitive examinations from which appointments to lower-grade Treasury positions were to be made. These were described in the order as "written examinations adapted to a moderate standard of attainment."

### **"One Abuse of Long Standing"**

Although Grant's two administrations were marked by corruption on the part of many of his appointees, it is nevertheless true that he came out strongly for civil-service reform.

In his second annual message in December 1870, he asked Congress for a law "to govern not the tenure but the manner of making appointments. Always favoring practical reforms," his message continued, "I respectfully call your attention to one abuse of long standing, which I would like to see remedied by this Congress by means of a reform in the civil service of this country. \* \* \* The present system does not secure the best men, and often not even fit men, for public place."

A number of bills were introduced in response to Grant's plea but none met with success. Finally, however, on the closing day of the session, March 3, 1871, a rider was attached to the last appropriation bill, reading:

The President is authorized to prescribe such regulations for the admission of persons into the civil service of the United States as may best promote the efficiency thereof, and to ascertain the fitness of each candidate in respect to age, health, character, knowledge, and ability . . . and for this purpose [the President] may employ suitable persons to conduct such inquiries, and may prescribe their duties, and establish regulations for the conduct of persons who may receive appointments in the civil service.

Twenty-five thousand dollars was appropriated for this purpose.

### **Modest Launching of First Federal Merit System**

Senator Trumbull of Illinois, who introduced this law, said:

It goes a very little way but it is a beginning in the right direction, and I should hope that good would grow out of its adoption.

With this modest introduction, the first Federal merit system was launched.

This law, incidentally, is still in effect as section 1753 of the Revised Statutes; under its authority, and that of the Civil Service Act of 1883, the President issues Executive orders and rules governing the civil service.

### **First Civil Service Commission**

Under the 1871 act, President Grant appointed an "Advisory Board of the Civil Service," later called the "Civil Service Commission." It consisted of seven members: Three from within the Government service, four from outside. George William Curtis, noted writer and one of the great leaders in civil service reform, was chairman.

The "Grant Commission" died in 1873 when Congress, influenced by the still-strong forces favoring patronage, refused to appropriate further funds for it. However, its 1871 report—already quoted from twice in this history (see pp. 8 and 13)—is an interesting and significant document in any study of America's progress toward the merit system.

Among other things, it wisely advised that no attempt be made to control the President's power of removal, and by this recommendation it effected a long-needed separation of the civil service reform movement from the Senate's struggle for superiority over the President with respect to removals.

The rules recommended by this early Commission provided for:

- Classification of all positions into groups according to the duties to be performed, and into grades for purposes of promotion.
- Competitive examinations for appointment to all positions within the lowest grade of each group.
- Competitive promotion examinations to fill positions in grades above the lowest.
- A 6-month probationary period following appointment.
- Boards of examiners in each department to do the actual work of examining candidates and maintaining lists of qualified applicants.

The first Civil Service Commission had supervision over the competitive entrance and promotion examinations conducted at both Washington and New York, and, in April 1872, competitive examinations under the Commission's rules were held for appointments to civil service positions in the cities of New York and Washington.

This was a tentative first step toward establishment of a merit system, but no second step was taken at that time. When Congress cut off the Commission's funds in 1873, Grant declared in his 1874 annual message that, unless positive support was forthcoming from Congress, he would drop the experiment. When Congress adjourned without making any



appropriation for the Civil Service Commission, Grant, in March of 1875, formally abandoned the first trial of competitive examinations in this country.

This 3 years' trial of the merit system, though it ended in a setback, was valuable to those who advocated the Civil Service Act of 1883. Grant's Commission was perhaps too ambitious. Its members attempted to solve, in addition to the problem of competitive examinations for entrance, such thorny problems as position classification, competitive promotion, and efficiency ratings.

But that first Civil Service Commission did accomplish enough to prove that the merit system was both beneficial and practical, and that its reintroduction was a worthwhile aim.



RUTHERFORD B. HAYES

### Hayes Makes Some Progress

Rutherford Birchard Hayes entered the Presidency without the full support even of his own party (no candidate had an undisputed electoral majority in 1876).

But Hayes took seriously his campaign promise of civil service reform, and endeavored throughout his administration to gain legislative co-operation. In his first annual message, he asked for money to administer the act of 1871, calling attention to the fact that Grant's Commission, although inactive because of lack of funds, was still in existence. Hayes didn't get the money, but he appointed Carl Schurz, another great name in the reform movement, as Secretary of the Interior, and Schurz re-

vived the merit system which had been initiated in his department by Cox (see p. 38).

The civil service reformers were encouraged by Hayes' attitude, and his administration became in fact a period of rapid growth both in the activity of the reformers and their support by the public. A number of reform associations were formed, and, in 1881, following the shooting of President Garfield, they combined as the National Civil Service Reform League. The League, minus the word "Reform" in its revised title, is still actively working in support of the merit system in the Federal, State, and local governments.

Congress, however, remained unresponsive, and the only gains made by Hayes were those which he could accomplish by use of his Executive authority.

He issued a number of Executive orders reviving and extending competitive examinations for positions, and prohibiting political activity by Government employees. He instituted competitive examinations in the New York City customhouse in 1879, and in the New York City post office in 1880.

In his last annual message—December of 1880—Hayes stated:

In the city of New York during the past two years, over 2,000 positions in the civil service have been subject, in their appointments and tenure of place, to the operation of the published rules for this purpose. The results of these practical trials have been very satisfactory, and have confirmed my opinion in favor of this system of selection.





Cartoon by Thomas Nast in *Harper's Weekly*, February 5, 1881, five months before shooting of Garfield, shows a public opinion already strongly aroused against the spoils system. Cartoon's caption was "OH, THE DEGRADATION OF IT!" and "Office-Holder" at right is saying: "One might as well be an Army or Navy officer, or a mere Machine, if Civil Service Reform is to be enforced! We will have to submit to examination as to competence for office, just as if a Statesman wasn't able to fill any position! And then promotion according to merit! One would have to wait a lifetime for a Cabinet position! No, no, let's stick to the old, time-honored Jacksonian system."



JAMES A. GARFIELD

## VI. ASSASSINATION OF GARFIELD

James Abram Garfield, taking office as the fourth of four consecutive Republican Presidents, was inaugurated at a time when, although the spoils system was still in massive use, the executive branch was pushing moderately hard for civil service reform, public opinion was moderately favorable toward it, and the Congress was moderately rather than violently opposing it. This moderate political action and reaction might have gone on indefinitely, accomplishing little or nothing, had a shocking event not acted as a sudden catalyst.

Garfield, like his immediate predecessors, had the preelection support of the reform element. On the basis of his record, he was strong for reform. His first speech in Congress in 1870 had attacked political influence in appointments. He had also supported appropriations to continue Grant's Civil Service Commission.

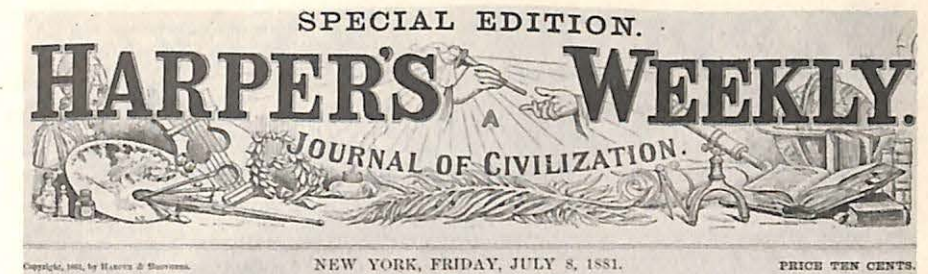
However, in another of those paradoxes we have been meeting along the road to reform, Garfield's inaugural address mentioned only regulation of removals and omitted all reference to the competitive examinations his party platform had endorsed.

Then followed a patronage dispute between the President and Senator Chester A. Conkling over the collectorship of the Port of New York, a dispute which attracted much attention and especially interested the





The drawings shown on this page appeared in *Harper's Weekly* in a special issue published on July 8, 1881, and devoted entirely to the shooting of Garfield by Guiteau. See reproduction of cover on facing page. The drawing of the firing of the second bullet, above, was by W. A. Rogers, those below by (left) W. P. Snyder and (right) George G. White.



This is the cover of the special eight-page issue of *Harper's Weekly* devoted entirely to the shooting, and picturing Guiteau.





This is the cover of the July 23, 1881, issue, with a fine engraving of President Garfield.

eccentric Charles J. Guiteau, who, along with the hordes of other office-seekers, had been visiting the White House daily to press his claim to a job.

On the warm morning of July 2, 1881, as the President was waiting in the old Baltimore and Potomac railroad station in Washington for a train which was to take him on a vacation trip, Guiteau, using a 44-caliber British "Bulldog" revolver, fired two shots at him. The first cut across the President's arm. The second entered his back and, two and a half months later, on September 19, proved fatal.

"That cruel shot," wrote the historians Charles A. and Mary R. Beard, in "The Rise of American Civilization," "rang throughout the land, driving into the heads of the most hardened political henchmen the idea that there was something disgraceful in reducing the Chief Executive of the United States to the level of a petty job broker."

The country's profound reaction was mirrored in Harper's Weekly, the influential magazine which was edited by George William Curtis, one of the most noted of civil service reformers. In a special issue dated July 8, 1881, and devoted entirely to the shooting, an editorial by Curtis, "The Tragedy at Washington," began: "No Fourth of July in our history was ever so mournful as that which has just passed."

In Harper's issue of September 24, the leading editorial was lined in mourning black, and began: "At last the blow so long apprehended has fallen. He is dead."

The October 1 issue contained an editorial, "The Significance of Guiteau's Crime," in which the spoils system was eloquently condemned by Curtis. The following is an excerpt:

But for the practice which we have tolerated in this country for half a century, and which has become constantly more threatening and perilous, Guiteau would not have felt that working for the party gave him a claim to reward, or a right to demand such a reward as his due and to feel wronged if he did not get it. This dire calamity is part of the penalty we pay for permitting a practice for which as a public benefit not a solitary word can be urged, and which, while stimulating the deadliest passions, degrades our politics and corrupts our national character. The spoils system is a vast public evil.

### A Message to Garfield

Guiteau was executed on June 30, 1882.

Although insanity was raised as a defense at Guiteau's trial, the general consensus that Garfield was literally slain by the spoils system is true . . . just how literally (and vulgarly) true being evidenced by an interesting letter which has escaped the notice of most researchers who have studied this assassination.

Guiteau, having forced himself on Garfield as an election worker, wrote, during the campaign in the fall of 1880, a leaflet entitled "Gar-



field Against Hancock." (Gen. James Winfield Scott Hancock, Democrat, was Garfield's opponent.) The leaflet was incoherent, full of factual errors, opaque in style, and generally sleazy, but Guiteau maintained that it swung the election to Garfield.

After Garfield took office, Guiteau decided that he was entitled to be appointed United States consul in Paris. In addition to visiting the White House daily, he bombarded Garfield with letters, which Garfield never answered. On March 26, 1881, he wrote a letter which read (*italics added*):

Gen. GARFIELD:

I understand from Col. Hooker of the Nat'l committee that I am to have a consulship. I hope it is the consulship at Paris, as that is the only one I care to take. Wish you would send in my name for the consulship at Paris. Mr. Walker, the present consul, has no claim on you for the office, I think, as *the men that did the business last fall are the ones to be remembered.*

Very respectfully,

CHARLES GUITEAU.

No more revealing description of the spoils system has ever been penned.

## Part 3 The Merit System is Officially Born

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### VII. BIRTHDAY: JANUARY 16, 1883

President Garfield's death aroused more public indignation than the reformers had been able to stir up over the previous two decades. Impatience now became anger. The spoils system was denounced by the press and from pulpits, but Congress, apparently underestimating the strength of the popular feeling, still dragged its feet on civil-service legislation.

### Reformers Win First Great Victory

On December 6, 1881, five months after Garfield was shot and two and a half months after his death, Senator George H. Pendleton of Ohio, chairman of the Senate Committee on Civil Service Reform, introduced a bill. This bill had been drafted by Dorman B. Eaton, assisted by George William Curtis and other members of the National Civil Service Reform League.

The National Civil Service League was, and still is, one of the most powerful forces backing the merit system. It was founded in 1881, a month after the assassination of Garfield, by a consolidation of a number of local civil service reform groups. The new league made the passage of a national civil service law its first project.

The Pendleton bill was reported to the Senate on May 15, 1882, more than 5 months after its introduction. It aroused little enthusiasm in Congress, although petitions for civil service reform, signed by thousands of names, had been received throughout the session.

In a report of May 1882, the Senate Committee on Civil Service and Retrenchment published such a blistering report on the spoils system that we quote its four key paragraphs in full:

The President is compelled to give daily audience to those who personally seek places, or to the army of those who back them. He has to do what some predecessor of his has left undone, or undo what others before him have done; to put this man up and that man down, as the system of political rewards and punishments shall seem to him to demand. Instead of the study of great questions of statesmanship, of broad and comprehensive administrative policy, either as it may concern this particular country at home or the relations of this great nation to the other nations of the earth, he must devote himself to the petty business of weighing in the balance the



political considerations that shall determine the claim of this friend, or that political supporter, to the possession of some office of profit or honor under him.

The office of the Chief Magistrate has undergone a radical change. The President of the republic created by the Constitution in the beginning, and the Chief Magistrate of today, are two entirely different public functionaries. There has grown up such a perversion of the duties of that high office, such a prostitution of it to ends unworthy of the great idea of its creation, imposing burdens so grievous and so degrading of all the faculties and functions becoming its occupant, that a change has already come in the character of the Government itself, which, if not corrected, will be permanent and disastrous. Thus hampered and beset, the Chief Magistrate of this nation wears out his term and his life in the petty services of party and in the bestowal of the favors its ascendancy commands. He gives daily audience to beggars for place and sits in judgment upon the party claims of contestants.

The Executive Mansion is besieged, if not sacked, and its corridors and chambers are crowded each day with the ever-changing but never-ending throng. Every Chief Magistrate since the evil has grown to its present proportions has cried out for deliverance. Physical endurance, even, is taxed beyond its power. More than one President is believed to have lost his life from this cause. The spectacle exhibited of the Chief Magistrate of this great nation feeding, like a keeper of his flock, the hungry, clamorous, crowding, jostling multitude which daily gathers around the dispenser of patronage is humiliating to the patriotic citizen interested alone in national progress. Each President, whatever may be his political associations, however strong may be his personal characteristics, steps into a current, the force of which is constantly increasing. He can neither stem nor control it, much less direct his own course, as he is buffeted and driven hither and thither by its uncertain and unmanageable forces.

*The necessity of good administration imperatively demands a change.* The Executive must be lifted out of this current, or be carried away with it.

### Enraged Voters Act

The fall elections of 1882 demonstrated beyond any doubt that the people wanted the Civil Service Act to become law. Newspapers and magazines continued printing articles blasting the spoils system, and ministers continued preaching sermons calling for reform. No action having been forthcoming from Congress, the enraged voters took advantage of the 1882 elections to show unmistakably that they meant business. In a number of congressional districts, the issue of civil service reform decided the election. In the important State of New York, Grover Cleveland, reform mayor of Buffalo, was elected Governor.

When Congress met again, its mood was positive toward reform, rather than negative or neutral. Some of its members having been soundly defeated on the reform issue, the legislators were at last convinced.

Powerful help came when President Chester A. Arthur, who had been considered a spoilsman, declared that he would give his "earnest support" to whatever civil service legislation Congress should enact, and that, failing enactment of legislation, he would recommend an appropriation to restore Grant's Civil Service Commission. He urged Congress to act immediately—and Congress did.



CHESTER A. ARTHUR

On the first day of the new session, December 12, 1882, seven months after the bill had been reported to the Senate, debate began on it and continued almost daily until December 27.

The final debate was largely concerned with the effect the bill, if enacted into law, would have on the two major political parties. The basic issue involved was that the Republicans had been in office for 20 years but the Democrats anticipated victory in the Presidential elections in 1884. The Democrats, of course, hoped to do some vigorous "re-dressing of the balance."

### Con

Many Democrats therefore opposed the bill because they believed it would retain Republican appointees in office and give Democrats a chance to compete only for new vacancies that might be created. Taking the position that the "Pendleton bill" didn't go far enough, they called for more thoroughgoing legislation which would throw all positions open to competitive examination, including those held by Repub-



lican appointees. One major amendment made on the floor of the Senate showed the effects of this pressure.

Opponents scoffed at the bill, with humorous references to the "Chinese origin" of the competitive examinations, the "unsophisticated character" of the reformers, and the "preferable procedure" of playing poker or tossing coins for Government jobs.

More serious objections spoke of the alleged un-American and monarchical nature of the system, the danger of Government workers becoming an aristocratic class or "Praetorian Guard," etc.

Opponents further claimed that the bill was British, not American; that business firms did not use competitive examinations; that only college graduates would have a chance; that examinations would favor younger persons at the expense of older applicants; and that political parties could not exist unless they could reward their workers from the public treasury.

How much these objections represented real fears and how much they cloaked more basic objections is difficult to determine.

There was extended argument about the power of removal, many Senators feeling that limitations on the President's power of removal would be necessary to insure adequate reform.

## Pro

The bill's supporters took the view that a guard at the "front door" would give adequate protection to the system, and that it would not be necessary to watch the "back door" as well. They felt that there would be no temptation to remove employees for political reasons, if the replacements could not be selected politically. This approach avoided problems that had arisen in earlier attempts to reform the civil service by legislation. Earlier bills had been strongly objected to on the grounds that they impinged on the President's Constitutional powers of removal. The "Pendleton bill," following the lead of the "Grant Commission," avoided this issue.

The advocates of the bill stressed the evils of the spoils system and pointed out the efficiency, economy, and democracy of the merit system. They backed their statements with facts and figures about those parts of the service where open competitive examinations had already been tried. In the New York City post office, for example, the volume of business had increased severalfold since the introduction of competitive examinations, but the cost of personnel had increased by only 2 percent.

Another argument for the bill was the relief the President and Members of Congress would obtain from the burdensome, suffocating demands of office-seekers.

## The Vote

In the Senate, the vote was 38 to 5 in favor of the bill, with 33 Senators absent. As a result of the Senate debate, the bill had been amended in a number of respects.

In the House, where there had been almost no debate, the vote was 155 for and 47 against, with 85 not voting.

The vote, both for and against the bill, did not follow party lines, but cut across them.

Passage of the bill was a dramatic example of the impact which an aroused citizenry can have on governmental processes in the United States.

## The Great Day Comes

And then, at long last, the epoch-making bill, marking the beginning of the merit system in Federal service, came up for signature. It had been introduced by a Democratic Senator, George H. Pendleton, and it arrived on the desk of a Republican President, Chester A. Arthur, on January 16, 1883.

The Cabinet met with the President that morning, at his request, specifically to discuss Senator Pendleton's Act. The meeting was front-paged not only by Washington's leading newspapers—Star, Post, and National Republican—but by New York's Tribune and Sun. This coverage indicated the high importance of the occasion, for it had to compete with many other items of news.

General Grant was in town, and drew admiring crowds as he strolled down Pennsylvania Avenue.

Red Cloud, the Sioux Indian Chief who had once terrorized the frontier, was also in town, bitter and very vocal about losing the peace.

There was considerable talk about the new Ambassador who had just arrived from the Kingdom of Hawaii.

Congress was debating bigger pensions for veterans of the Mexican War, and wondering whether to spend \$20,000,000 to combat illiteracy in United States Territories.

The cause of the merit system was helped in the news that day by reports of a fanatic who, calling himself "Charles Guiteau, the Second," had threatened to murder the Governor of Massachusetts because of a grudge involving a patronage job.

The Cabinet meeting lasted several hours.

At its conclusion, President Arthur signed the Civil Service Act into law.





Here Harris Ellsworth, Chairman of the United States Civil Service Commission, is shown delivering personally a letter from President Eisenhower to the "First Lady of the Civil Service" on the occasion of her 100th birthday. The President's letter read in part: "With the creation of this [Civil Service] system 75 years ago, a door was opened to a new world of careers for women in our land, and you were the first to enter through it. Therefore, as the symbol of the women now comprising one-fourth of the entire Federal service, you have a special place in our hearts."

Opposite page, top: This photograph of Miss Mary Francis Hoyt was taken shortly before she was appointed to a \$900-a-year clerkship in the Bank Redemption Agency of the Treasury Department. She was the second appointee under the provisions of the Civil Service Act and the first woman appointee. In 1888, she married Mr. Brice J. Moses, also an employee of the Treasury Department. The first "Government Girl" under the merit system (and, for many years prior to her death on October 19, 1958, the oldest living graduate of Vassar College), she celebrated her 100th birthday in her New York City home on June 17, 1958—75 years, 5 months, and 1 day after the Civil Service Act became law.

Opposite page, bottom: Old print entitled "Lady Clerks Leaving the Treasury Department, Washington" pictures a scene of the gas-light and hansom-cab days when Miss Mary F. Hoyt worked as a Treasury clerk, the first woman to be appointed under the merit system.





## Part 4 Seventy-Five Years of Growth and Progress

### VIII. FIFTY-FIVE YEARS: 1883-1938

The body of law and practice designed to prevent the entrance of political and other improper considerations into the process of selection [for Federal jobs] was, in the main, the product of a *great popular movement* in the 70's and 80's. \* \* \* The force behind that support was the more remarkable because it represented the economic and social aspirations of no particular group. It may be said of it, as of few other forces in our political history, that it sprang from a moral or idealistic *revolt*, on the part of citizens of all such groups, against a system which debauched and degraded political life.—*Lewis Mayers in "The Federal Service."* [Italics added.]

The immensely important new law, known informally as "The Pendleton Act" or "The Civil Service Act," was entitled: "An Act to Regulate and Improve the Civil Service of the United States." The complete original text of the act, which may surprise you by its brevity, is printed as Appendix I of this volume beginning on page 142.

It was, and is, a blueprint for a civil service America could respect and trust. Its basic principles, which have not changed in 75 years, have stood both the test of time and the transition of the United States from a pioneer society to one of the most complex in the world.

It provided for a Civil Service Commission of three members (appointed by the President with the advice and consent of the Senate), not more than two of whom could be adherents of the same political party. Recommendation of applicants for career jobs by Members of Congress on matters other than character and residence could not be considered. Veterans' preference provisions already on the statute books were reaffirmed by the act, and employees were protected from political removals, demotions, and assessments. Appointments were to be made from those graded highest in the examinations.

The Civil Service Act gave this country, for the jobs it covered, a completely democratic hiring system. Firstly because it required that these Federal positions be filled through competitive examinations which were open to all citizens. Secondly because it required selection of the best qualified applicants without regard to political considerations. Merit, as a basis for hiring, was now guaranteed by law.

To the citizen who applies for a Federal job and for the one who is

a Federal career worker, the merit system established by the Civil Service Act is, to this day, a guarantee that he may qualify for a job on the basis of ability to do the work, without discrimination with regard to race, religion, national origin, or politics. It entitles him to consideration for promotion on the same basis, and it provides protection from arbitrary dismissal and from being obliged to render any political service or tribute.

To the citizen who is not a Federal employee and who does not seek such employment, the merit system guarantees selection of the best qualified people available for the public service. It requires of public servants high standards of conduct and competence in their employment.

To all citizens, it means a stable Government service capable of preserving the continuity of essential Government programs required by the American people. It means freedom from the upheavals of the old spoils system which, with each change of administration, saw such mass removals of Government workers that the Government machinery was frequently brought to a complete standstill.

It is important to remember that merit selection had important goals in addition to that of eliminating the spoils system—namely: Obtaining the best qualified people available; giving all citizens an equal chance to compete for jobs or careers in the public service; serving the cause of good government; and raising the prestige of the public service.

At the outset only some 13,900 positions—clerkships ranging in salary from \$900 to \$1,800 a year—were placed in the competitive civil service system. These positions—all of them in the Washington departments or in field post offices and customs houses—represented only 10.5 percent of the 132,800 positions in the civil service of the time. The remaining 89.5 percent were still staffed under the spoils system, which was obviously far from dead, even after passage of the act.

For the next 75 years, two main threads are evident in the civil service story: The gradual extension of the act's coverage until, on its 75th birthday, January 16, 1958, it included 86 percent of the positions in the executive branch of our Government; and the transformation of the civil service into a modern, responsive instrument to perform the will of the people in an increasingly complex society.

### Arthur Appoints First Commission

The first Civil Service Commission took office on March 9, 1883. The establishment of the Commission provided a permanent central agency responsible for transforming into reality the ideals of the civil service reform movement.

This movement did not cease when the act was passed. It continued as a potent political factor, but henceforth with a twofold goal: The strict enforcement of the act; and the extension of the competitive service.



President Arthur's appointment of Dorman B. Eaton of New York was an almost inevitable choice. Eaton, a man of wealth, had devoted himself to the cause of civil service reform. His colleagues were John M. Gregory of Illinois—lawyer, minister, editor, writer, teacher, and former president of Illinois University—and Judge Leroy D. Thoman—lawyer and newspaper editor.

The first Commission was excellent.

So was its first staff, which consisted of a chief examiner (Charles Lyman of Connecticut), a secretary (William S. Roulhac of North Carolina), a stenographer (John T. Doyle), and a messenger (Matthew F. Halloran).

Appropriations were not large enough, then, to enable the Commission to hire the necessary number of people to do its work. To augment its scanty resources, it was forced to borrow employees, office space, and even stationery from other Government departments. Significant light is thrown on the scope of the Commission's earliest activities by the fact that when it moved from temporary quarters in a private dwelling to the Agriculture Department Annex, Mr. Doyle, the stenographer, and Mr. Halloran, the messenger, moved all the Commission's belongings in a pushcart.

### First Rules

The first Commissioners worked day and night prior to the date—July 16, 1883—when the provisions of the act were to go into effect. At the little table now on display in the Civil Service Commission Building in Washington (see Chapter 1), they drafted the original rules.

These first rules—promulgated by President Arthur on May 7, 1883—divided the competitive service into three branches: the departmental service in Washington; the postal service; and the customs service. Minimum-maximum age limits for postal service candidates were set at 16 and 35; in the other services at 18 and 45. At the request of appointing officers, four names to be considered for each vacancy were to be certified from the top of the register of eligibles. In 1888, this was changed to three, now known as the "Rule of Three."

The Commission prepared application forms, established registers of eligibles, and toured the country setting up local boards of examiners at post offices and customs houses.

### Boards of Examiners: An Important CS Concept and Program

A central examining board and three special boards for, respectively, the State Department, the Patent Office, and the Pension Bureau, were established in Washington. Boards were also set up at 23 post offices and at 11 customs houses in the field.

These boards, operating under the supervision of the Civil Service Commission and acting as agents of the Commission within Federal agencies, were responsible for the actual work involved in examining applicants. They consisted of groups of three or more agency officials authorized by the Commission to run the competitive examining program, or a part of this program, for an agency installation or a group of installations.

The Civil Service Act specifically provided for delegating to agencies, through boards of examiners, the authority to recruit and examine personnel seeking Federal employment. The wording of the act on this important point is as follows:

The Commission shall, at Washington, and in one or more places in each State and Territory where examinations are to take place, designate and select a suitable number of persons, not less than three, in the official service of the United States, residing in said State or Territory, after consulting the head of the department or office in which such persons serve, to be members of boards of examiners. \* \* \* Such boards \* \* \* shall be so located as to make it reasonably convenient and inexpensive for applicants to attend before them. \* \* \*

The Commission did not directly conduct examinations or mark or grade those examined. However, it experienced considerable difficulty with those early boards of examiners, and concluded that a better job could be done by persons who were regular Commission employees. The most serious complaint against the boards was that a department would frequently nominate its less efficient employees to serve as board members, and the Commission had to accept such nominations or the work would not be done.

### First Appointee

The first person appointed under the merit law was Ovington E. Weller of Maryland. On August 29, 1883, he was appointed to a post office clerkship at a salary of \$1,000 a year. Mr. Weller, a lawyer by profession, was later elected United States Senator from Maryland.

### Second Appointee

Miss Mary F. Hoyt of Connecticut was the second appointee and the first woman appointee. On September 5, 1883, she was appointed to the Treasury Department as a \$900-a-year clerk in the Bank Redemption Agency.

A Vassar graduate, she left her history-making civil service position in 1888 to marry Mr. Brice J. Moses. At the time of preparation of this



history, she was living in New York City. She celebrated her hundredth birthday on June 17, 1958. [She died on October 19, 1958.]



GROVER CLEVELAND

### Cleveland's First Term: He Yields to Pressure

By the time the 1884 campaign rolled around, all political parties—Republican, Democratic, and Prohibitionist—supported the new law. (As one historian put it: “By this time, being against the spoils system was like being against sin.”) Next to tariff revision, civil service reform was the chief issue. The fact that Grover Cleveland was regarded as a more thorough reformer than James Blaine was partly responsible for his election.

But when Cleveland took office, he found himself in a difficult position.

He hated the spoils system. On May 18, 1883—four months after the Pendleton bill became law—he, then Governor of New York State, had signed the first State civil service law to be enacted. It resulted from a bill introduced into the State legislature by Assemblyman Theodore Roosevelt, then 25 years old and beginning his public career.

But pressure on him was heavy, owing to the fact that the Republicans had been in power for 24 years. The regulars of his party were shouting for the 88 percent of Federal jobs still unprotected by the Civil Service Act. Cleveland yielded to the extent of making sweeping removals in this “excepted” civil service. Within 16 months, he removed 68 percent of the “excepted” Interior Department employees, and 31,000 out of the

55,000 postmasters. However, he removed only 6½ percent of the officials and employees under the competitive system.

Even though the Civil Service Act had been passed, jobseekers monopolized the President's time almost as though the spoils system were still in full control. Neither waking nor sleeping was he free of their petty problems. He wrote to a friend: “I have fallen into the habit, lately, of wrestling with this cursed office-filling even in my dreams.”

Despite his partial surrender to spoils, Cleveland in general stood behind the new Commission, frequently consulted with it, and made suggestions looking toward strengthening its rules.

On the whole, however, Cleveland did little to justify the hopes and support of the civil service reformers—until he was defeated for reelection in 1888.

Then he made what was, until his second administration, the largest single extension of the classified service. The Railway Mail Service had been the subject of a number of scandals centering about patronage appointments. On December 31, 1888, Cleveland “blanketed in”\* these 5,320 positions, thus increasing by one-third the number of positions in the classified service.

An interesting aspect of civil service history is the frequency with which new problems arose:

- Jefferson was the first to find supporters of the opposition party in most offices.
- Jackson had to meet the popular demand for a more democratic civil service at a major turning point in America's political history.
- Lincoln used the patronage he cordially disliked in fighting a great war and solidifying a new political party.
- Cleveland was the first to enter office under the combined conditions of a long period of opposition power and the recent establishment of the merit system.

And Benjamin Harrison, when he became President in 1889, was confronted with a new dilemma.

### To the Vanquished Belong the Spoils?

Cleveland, during his first term, had “blanketed in” to the competitive service entire organizations staffed with Democrats. It seemed to many

\* “Blanketing in” is the popular term for placing Federal positions under the civil service rules. It is the principal method of adding positions to the competitive system. Although the practice represents a deviation from the merit principle, it makes future appointments to the “blanketed-in” positions subject to merit rules. Through the years since 1883 it has been done by both the executive and legislative branches, and by both Republican and Democratic administrations.





BENJAMIN HARRISON

observers that Cleveland had deliberately extended the competitive service to protect his party friends. Carl Russell Fish, in "The Civil Service and the Patronage," wrote of this problem:

When the opposition party comes to power and finds its opponents securely lodged in offices which had [so recently] been patronage, and from which its own members may have been but recently expelled, a severe strain is put upon belief in the morality of civil service reform: it seems like saying that to the vanquished belong the spoils.

By the time Harrison was inaugurated, Cleveland's order to include Railway Mail Service jobs under the competitive system had not yet been completely carried out. Harrison decided to postpone for 3 months application of the order to the still-unconverted jobs. He then made more removals in this branch of the service than Cleveland had made in his entire first term. Very few Democrats escaped Harrison's ax.

Although by 1890 Harrison had made 38,500 removals—15,000 more than had been made by Cleveland—he nevertheless acted during his term to strengthen civil service:

- He announced that he would firmly adhere to the civil service rules.
- He appointed the vigorous Theodore Roosevelt as Civil Service Commissioner (see chapter 11).
- He was responsible, in 1891, for the innovation of keeping efficiency records on employees, to be used as a basis for making promotions.

- He "blanketed in" the Indian Service (where reform was needed more than perhaps anywhere else), the Fish Commission, and the Weather Bureau.
- His Secretary of the Navy took steps to improve the employment system for navy yard laborers and to keep them out of politics.

And it was in 1890 that the Civil Service Commission, long dissatisfied with the work of the boards of examiners, began to ask for appropriations for a staff of its own. Since then, Congress has annually appropriated funds to the Commission for examining work.

After his defeat for reelection, Harrison, in an action paralleling that of Cleveland,, "blanketed in" the employees of all free delivery post offices not previously classified.

### Cleveland's Second Term: More "Blanketing In"

On taking office again in 1893, Cleveland extended the competitive system to a number of agencies and positions, including lighthouse keepers and clerks in the Pension Office. Eventually, he doubled the size of the merit civil service.

In 1896, by one order alone he increased the size of the competitive civil service by one-third, adding 32,000 positions. This resulted in a total of 87,000 competitive positions out of a total civil service of 205,000 (as compared to 13,900 out of 132,800 in 1883).

An effort was made by some of Cleveland's supporters to persuade him to delay the date of Harrison's order classifying employees of free delivery post offices, in order that these positions might first be treated as political spoils—as Harrison had done in the case of the Railway Mail Service. Cleveland refused to retaliate in this manner.

Through the efforts of Cleveland and the Commission, the merit system was considerably improved by the end of his second administration. The Commission made a number of improvements in the type and scope of its written tests, and also developed and adopted a method of rating experience.

In May 1896, he promulgated unified civil service rules to replace the separate ones which had been growing up in each agency. The new rules also increased by 32,000 positions the size of the classified service; this was accomplished by numerous additions to the list of departments, agencies, and types of positions to which competitive appointments, under Cleveland's new rules, were required.

By this single Executive order, Cleveland increased the classified service by more than one-third: proof not only of the sincerity of Cleveland's praise of the merit system, but also of the general approval which the system had already gained.

Cleveland continued Theodore Roosevelt and Charles Lyman as Civil



Service Commissioners, even though this meant having only one Commissioner of his party.

### McKinley Takes the First Backward Step

Under President William McKinley, the merit system underwent considerable strain. This strain, however, must be kept in perspective: It was merely the first, and one of the least, of the strains the system was to undergo.

McKinley came into office in 1897 with an excellent record on civil service matters. As a Congressman, he had voted for the Civil Service Act and had always supported appropriations for the Civil Service Commission, but the merit system made few gains during his administration. In fact, to McKinley belongs the dubious distinction of having been the first President to take, in his handling of the merit system, a backward step.



WILLIAM MCKINLEY

One positive contribution made by him was an Executive order which he issued early in his administration—on July 27, 1897—providing that classified employees should not be removed without (1) being given a written statement of the charges against them and (2) an opportunity to answer the charges in writing. Also, a merit system for the Philippines was established during his administration, and Puerto Rico was encouraged to establish one.

The story of McKinley's backward step is as follows:

Cleveland, during his second administration, had brought a large number of jobs under the competitive service, thereby removing them

from the grasp of spoils-minded politicians. These politicians, as a result, brought heavy pressure to bear on McKinley. The pressure was only temporarily relieved by the Spanish-American War, which made possible the temporary appointment of party supporters without regard to civil service rules.

When the 6 months' war ended, the pressure was increased—this time looking toward conversion of the temporary wartime appointments into permanent appointments. About 3,500 persons had been appointed without examination, although the Civil Service Commission had on its registers thousands of applicants who had qualified, by examination, for these appointments. About half of those appointed without examination were, by Executive order, given permanent classified appointments.

Further inroads on the classified service were made when, on May 29, 1899, McKinley's revision of the civil service rules excepted over 5,000 positions from the competitive service, including deputy collectors of customs.

Owing to the growth of civil service brought about by the war, and owing further to the administration of the new Territories placed under the protection of the United States after the war, a large increase took place in the classified as well as unclassified civil service positions. Therefore, despite McKinley's Executive order of May 29, 1899, the classified service increased from 1898 to 1901 to a total of 106,000—or 41.5 percent of the entire executive civil service.



THEODORE ROOSEVELT

### Theodore Roosevelt's Vigorous Administrations

McKinley was reelected by a vote of 7,206,677, the largest popular majority ever given a Presidential candidate up to then.



On September 6, 1901, six months after his inauguration, he was shot by an anarchist named Leon Czolgosz. He died on the 14th of September and Theodore Roosevelt became President.

The vigorous personality of the new President made itself felt almost immediately. Expansion, modernization, reform crackled like electricity in the national atmosphere.

The merit system now had a strong supporter in the White House. Roosevelt's aggressive tour as a Civil Service Commissioner (1889-95) gave him as great a name in the civil service reform movement as those of Jenckes, Curtis, Eaton, and Schurz before him (see chapter 11). William Dudley Foulke, who served as a Civil Service Commissioner under Roosevelt, wrote in his biography of the President: "His 6 years' experience as a Civil Service Commissioner gave him a better knowledge of the service than any other President had ever had."

Unlike the Presidents who preceded him, Roosevelt—

- brought many jobs into the competitive service early in his administration;
- defined the "just causes" for which an employee could be dismissed;
- sharpened (and required stricter compliance with) the restrictions against political activity;
- forbade disbursing officers to pay the salaries of persons illegally appointed to civil service positions.

Because the Republicans had been in power for the preceding 4 years, Roosevelt was one of the fortunate few President who—like John Adams, Madison, and Monroe in the earliest days—were under little pressure for widespread removals. (Of all the Presidents who experienced strong political pressure for large-scale removals, only John Quincy Adams had refused to bow to it.)

On the other hand, some of Roosevelt's decisions ran directly counter to subsequent public policy:

- He vigorously opposed Government-employee unions, recognition of which first became a prominent issue during his administration. In Executive orders in 1902 and 1904, he forbade employees, on pain of dismissal, either as individuals or as organizations, to seek any pay increases or to attempt to influence legislation before Congress, except through the heads of their departments.
- In 1907, he revoked the requirement (which McKinley had established) that an employee being removed be given a written copy of the charges against him and a chance to reply. (This important employee protection was restored by Taft.)

Roosevelt's labor policies, insofar as Government-employee unions were concerned, were conservative. The time had not yet arrived for the two strong currents—civil service reform and employee unionism—to be allowed to flow freely together.

On the administrative side, the number of civil service field examining boards had increased, by 1904, from the original 34 established in 1883 to an unwieldy 1,250. This was multiplication with a vengeance. In 1883, the civil service rules had been applied outside Washington to only 23 post offices and 11 customs houses, but by 1904, four-fifths of all competitive positions in the Government were in the field. The central office of the Commission could no longer effectively supervise the work of this great number of boards and the many actions involving field employees. Roosevelt issued in 1904 an Executive order establishing 13 United States Civil Service districts and consolidating the local boards under district boards. District offices were set up to function as miniature United States Civil Service Commissions, performing locally the mission of the central office under whose supervision they worked.

### **Congress Halts Detailing of Agency Personnel to CSC**

For some time after 1890, the year Congress first appropriated funds to the Civil Service Commission for examining work, the Commission continued to request agencies to detail employees as members of boards of examiners to supplement the Commission's staff. In 1906, Congress stopped this practice by placing a restriction in the Commission's appropriations for that year, providing "that no detail of clerks or other employees to the Commission for the performance of duty in the District of Columbia shall be made during fiscal year 1906."

As a result of this restriction on appropriations, examining work for the departmental service was largely centralized in the Washington headquarters of the Commission. Examining in the field, however, continued primarily through boards of examiners until 1924.

### **T. R. Laid Foundations of Modern Federal Government**

During Roosevelt's 7 years as President, the foundations of the modern Federal Government were laid. Many new agencies were created to perform functions for which the need had long existed. It was a period of major governmental expansion. A Reclamation Act, establishing irrigation projects, was passed in 1902. A Department of Commerce and Labor was created in 1903. A Pure Food and Drugs Act and a Federal Meat Inspection Act were passed in 1906, and Roosevelt added almost 150,000,000 acres of public lands to the 45,000,000 acres set aside as public conservation areas by his three predecessors. This expansion increased the necessity of obtaining more efficient organization and administration of functions of the executive branch.

Growing modernization of the merit system was aided in 1906 by the calling of a conference in Washington of the various Civil Service Commissions of the States and cities. This conference formed a permanent



organization, known since 1956 as the Public Personnel Association (prior to that: The Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada).

Roosevelt's Committee on Departmental Methods, established in 1907, made the first modern job survey in the Federal service, and devised a position-classification plan based on duties.

Of the new positions created by Federal expansion during Roosevelt's administrations, over 90,000 were placed in the competitive service. In addition, 35,000 formerly excepted positions were made competitive by Roosevelt: 6,000 free delivery carriers, 15,000 fourth-class postmasters, the permanent staff of the Census Bureau, and the field services of the War Department.

The competitive service was thus increased from 110,000 to 235,000 positions, and the percentage of competitive positions increased from 41.5 percent to 63.9 percent of the whole executive civil service. This was a tremendous expansion from the 13,900 competitive jobs in 1883, and the 10.5 percent of the civil service which was originally under competitive rules.

For the first time, the merit system passed the spoils system in numbers of jobs in the executive service.

### Taft Continues T. R.'s Civil Service Policies

William Howard Taft in general continued Roosevelt's civil service policies, including defense against the attacks of spoilsmen, support of attempts to modernize personnel practices, and (until the latter part of his administration) opposition to Government workers' unions.



WILLIAM HOWARD TAFT

Training courses in the Federal service were begun by Taft when he directed the Patent Office, the Bureau of Standards, and the Forest Service to institute such courses to increase the efficiency of their employees and to prepare them for more responsible work.

In 1909, in an Executive order similar to those issued by Roosevelt in 1902 and 1904 (see p. 66), Taft directed that all petitions from employees to Congress must come through the heads of their departments—and that no information could be given Congress except by department heads. In 1912, just before passage of the "antigag law" (see below), Taft modified this Executive order to require that department heads must forward such petitions without delay. This modification, however, did not prevent passage of the "antigag law."

The "antigag law" is the nickname given to the Lloyd-LaFollette Act, which, as a result of injustices to postal service employees which came to light during Taft's administration, was enacted on August 24, 1912. It guarantees to civilian employees of the Government the right to petition Congress, either individually or through their organizations. It also forbids the removal or demotion of any employee for joining postal unions, other than those imposing an obligation to strike against the Government, and prescribes procedures which must be followed in discharging civil service employees. In practice, the permission granted postal employees by the Lloyd-LaFollette Act to join unions has been extended to all Federal employees.

One of the most interesting developments throughout the Roosevelt and Taft administrations was the growing concern over administrative efficiency in Government. Our Federal organizational structure and procedures were unplanned and chaotic. There were numerous independent agencies, overlapping and uncoordinated. Lines of responsibility were often unclear.

In reaction to this confusion, a trend toward establishing "scientific management" developed in several governmental areas, including the important one of personnel management.

The Civil Service Commission kept pace with the new demands now made on it. During Taft's administration, the Commission made studies of areas to which it had not, until then, given much attention: the problems of retirement; the need for a position-classification system; the level of Government salaries. The Commission also established a Division of Efficiency to set up a system of uniform efficiency ratings for the departmental service, for use as a basis for promotions, demotions, and dismissals.

Taft extended the competitive service to cover the 36,000 fourth-class postmasterships not previously "blanketed-in" by Roosevelt, and also added 3,000 assistant postmasters and clerks.





WOODROW WILSON

### Wilson Faces Patronage Pressures

When Woodrow Wilson took office in 1913, sixteen years had elapsed since the last Democratic administration, and a clamor for Government jobs was immediately set up by politicians and party workers. Washington again swarmed with office-seekers.

Although most of the new positions created by the expanding Government of that period were placed within the competitive service, the pressure on Wilson for patronage led him to make some important exceptions from merit-system appointment.

From 1914 on, World War I caused a steady expansion in the work and the size of the Federal civil service. The entry of the United States into the war in April 1917 brought about (1) a vast increase in the work of the existing agencies, and (2) the creation of many new agencies.

Appointments from civil service examinations increased tremendously: the number of persons appointed during the year ending June 30, 1917, was more than twice that of 1916, and the number appointed in 1918 was two and a half times that of 1917.

This vast stepup in appointments was achieved without lapsing from established qualification standards, and was greatly aided by an intensive countrywide recruiting campaign carried out by the Commission with the cooperation of numerous other agencies, public and private.

The theme of this massive campaign was: "Enter Government service as a patriotic duty." For certain temporary positions, minimum age limits were lowered from 18 to 16. Examinations were held by day and

by night. In occupations in which trained workers in the needed quantity were scarce—such as typing, stenography, statistics, and naval architecture—colleges and schools cooperated with the Civil Service Commission by inaugurating intensive training courses.

The Commission assisted in many ways in the staffing of the defense agencies.

For example, the navy yards sent daily telegrams to the Commission regarding their needs for skilled workers who could not be recruited from local eligibles. The Commission immediately recruited qualified eligibles from other parts of the country, and provided transportation at Government expense to those who signed 6-month work contracts. As a result of such cooperation, the number of skilled workers in navy yards increased from 20,000 at the beginning of the war to over 100,000 by the time the armistice was signed.

Wilson met the problems of labor shortages and increased cost of living in much the same way Lincoln had met them during the Civil War, half a century earlier. "Bonus" legislation was enacted again, adding percentages (later flat sums) to the lower classes of the 1853 salary schedule. The 1917 "Bonus Act" affected salaries up to \$1,300 per annum, the 1918 act up to \$2,620, and the 1919 act up to \$2,740.

The total Federal work force almost doubled during World War I, to a total of nearly 1,000,000. The Commission estimated that more than 950,000 applicants were examined during the 19 months of American participation in the war, and that about 400,000 of those who met the requirements of the tests were appointed.

Generally speaking, Wilson held off the spoils-seekers and placed most of the new jobs in the competitive service, with the result that 70 percent of the total civil service was under the merit system when, on November 11, 1918, the war ended. World War I was the biggest crisis the merit system had yet had to meet, and the fact that it served the country so efficiently added to the esteem in which, by now, the country held the principles and procedures established by the Civil Service Act.

### Retirement Act Passed

On May 22, 1920, the Civil Service Retirement Act was passed. This act largely solved the problem of superannuation in the Federal service which had received attention as early as the administration of Monroe.

In the early decades of the United States, Federal officials had been reluctant to dismiss employees of long service solely because of their age or infirmities. But as the Republic grew older, the problems of superannuation became increasingly acute. On a number of occasions Congress investigated superannuation, but passed no legislation. The Civil Service Commission, beginning in 1899, recommended each year



the adoption of a retirement plan financed in whole or in part by deductions from employees' salaries.

Prejudice against pensions for civilian Government workers was strong, and was based largely on the great expense of the military pensions which, from Revolutionary days, had been awarded to war veterans and to their wives and children. Also, there prevailed in some quarters the belief that workers, no matter how small their salaries, should rely on their own savings to provide for their old age.

Influencing final passage of the Retirement Act was the United States Civil Service Retirement Association, an organization of Government employees, which had been founded in 1900 with the purpose of working toward a formal retirement plan.

The immediate effect of the 1920 Retirement Act was that within 2 months over 5,000 aged employees, some of whom were more than 90 years old, were retired.

The act provided (1) for the compulsory retirement, on annuity, of employees who had reached the retirement age and who had had at least 15 years of Government service, and (2) for annuities to employees who became disabled after at least 15 years of service. Employee contributions to the fund were  $2\frac{1}{2}$  percent of basic salary.

The age of retirement depended on the employee's occupation: age 70, for example, for clerical, supervisory, professional, and similar groups; age 65 for mechanics, city and rural letter carriers; age 62 for railway mail clerks.

When an employee reached retirement age, he was automatically separated. If he was not entitled to an annuity (at least 15 years of service), his contributions were refunded at 4 percent interest.

The most important civil service events during Wilson's terms of office may be summed up as follows:

- The demonstrated ability of the Commission to recruit the great numbers of workers needed during World War I.
- The maintenance of merit system standards throughout the war.
- The growth of Government employee unions.
- An increase in veteran preference benefits.
- The passage of the Civil Service Retirement Act.
- The beginning of "modern" spoils system methods, as typified by the 2-year exception made of new Internal Revenue Bureau jobs, and the excepting of deputy collectors of internal revenue.

It is from about this time that we can begin to see clearly the interplay of six of the major forces which were, in the future, to shape personnel management in the civil service: "Modern" subtle spoils methods; merit principles; "scientific" personnel management; union-management relations; veteran preference; and "human relations."

To complete our picture of the Wilsonian era, reference should also be made to two Constitutional amendments which affected the Federal service to some extent:

- The Prohibition Amendment (effective January 16, 1920) provided that prohibition agents, and others charged with the enforcement of the new law, might be appointed without regard to the civil service laws. When, more than 7 years later, the Bureau of Prohibition was made subject to the Civil Service Act, character investigations revealed that a number of those appointed "without regard to the civil service laws," particularly in law-enforcement positions, were of a type unsuitable for Government employment.
- The Women's Suffrage Amendment (effective August 26, 1920) was followed by the appointment of a number of women to Presidential offices. One of the first to be appointed to a major office was Mrs. Helen H. Gardener, U. S. Civil Service Commissioner from 1920 until her death in 1925. (In 1919, the Civil Service Commission had opened all examinations to women.)



WARREN G. HARDING

### Gains and Losses Under Harding

The election of Warren Gamaliel Harding marked another change of party and, consequently, another demand for patronage.

Harding, finding himself in this familiar and unpleasant situation when he took office in 1921, was less able than Wilson to hold his voracious supporters in check. He was persuaded to modify the Executive order governing the appointment of postmasters in order to create some



patronage, and a number of politically motivated dismissals were made in various areas of the Federal service.

During Harding's administration, which lasted only 2 years and 3 months, the Federal service was still undergoing reduction after the World War I expansion. The opportunities for spoils were therefore not as great as they might otherwise have been—but this only made President Harding's position more difficult.

All in all, the competitive classified service, during Harding's term, was probably fortunate to be able to hold most of the ground it had previously gained.



CALVIN COOLIDGE

### **Classification Act Bridges Harding-Coolidge Administrations**

During the Harding administration, a very important reform—the Classification Act of 1923—was achieved. This reform, establishing the principle of equal pay for equal work, had been urged for years by the Civil Service Commission and by many other organizations and individuals interested in the civil service and in public administration.

The act authorized the classification of positions in accordance with their duties and responsibilities, and assigned salaries to such positions. It covered only positions in the departments in Washington, certain divisions of the District of Columbia municipal government, and certain branches of the legislative service, such as the Library of Congress, the Botanical Garden, and the office of the Architect of the Capitol. It did not apply to the field service.

Although the act was passed on March 4, 1923—while Harding was in office—the classification plan which it authorized did not go into effect

until July 1, 1924, by which time Calvin Coolidge was President. Coolidge had succeeded to the Presidency following Harding's death on August 2, 1923.



HERBERT HOOVER

### **Consolidation and Growth Under Coolidge and Hoover**

The Coolidge and Hoover administrations were primarily periods of consolidation and growth of the civil service.

The most important advance in the merit system under Coolidge was the reorganization of the State Department's Diplomatic and Consular Service into the Foreign Service. This was achieved by the Rogers Act of 1924, introduced in the House by Representative John Jacob Rogers of Massachusetts. This act had two objects: to establish a career system of promotion which would make the Foreign Service attractive to all brilliant young men, and not just to those of wealthy families; and to set up a retirement system for the Service, to be administered by the State Department.

Although the Foreign Service is not part of the classified service, its entrance examination is one of the most difficult given by the Federal Government. It requires graduation from college, and a very comprehensive written test. Those who pass the latter are admitted to an oral examination held in Washington, D. C. The Civil Service Commission, as a courtesy to the State Department, conducts the written examinations at its various examination points throughout the country. The



Commission's Executive Director is a member of the board of examiners for the Foreign Service.

### **Fivefold Increase in Appropriation for CSC Field Force**

Until 1924, examining in the field for appointment to Federal positions continued through boards of examiners. However, the Commission had the same difficulties with some field boards as it had had before in Washington (see p. 63).

The Commission in 1924 asked Congress for larger appropriations, so that its field service could be adequately staffed. The Commission then received a more than fivefold increase in its appropriation for the field force—and at the same time the restriction, in the appropriation act, on detailing agency employees to the Commission was extended to cover the field offices.

### **Coolidge-Hoover Era Comparatively Uneventful**

The Coolidge-Hoover era, while important for the enactment of basic legislation on retirement and job classification, was comparatively uneventful insofar as important legislative or Presidential action affecting the Civil Service Act itself, or its coverage, was concerned.

The principal extensions of the competitive service during this period were: The "blanketing in" of the Bureau of Prohibition on March 3, 1927; and the granting of status without examination to about 2,000 Government employees who had been appointed during World War I. All in all, about 13,000 previously excepted positions were placed in the competitive service by act of Congress or by Executive order; while only a little over 100 positions were withdrawn. Few of the positions created during these administrations were excepted from the provisions of the Civil Service Act. This fact, together with the normal growth of the classified service accompanying the growth of population, was the principal factor in the increase in the proportion of the classified service. By the end of Hoover's administration in 1932, 80 percent of the executive branch civilian positions were in the classified service.

### **1920-30 Retirement Act Changes**

Some important changes in the provisions of the Retirement Act were made during the 1920-30 decade:

The act of September 22, 1922, provided annuities for employees involuntarily separated after serving 15 years and reaching the age of 55.

The act of July 3, 1926, provided for increasing the amount of annuities; permitted employees reaching retirement age to continue in

employment until they acquired 15 years of service; and increased retirement deductions to 3½ percent.

The Retirement Act was completely revised by the act of May 29, 1930, which provided the following major improvements: Two new plans for computing annuities, introducing the "high 5-year average salary" concept; reduction to 5 years of the amount of service required for disability retirement; and authorizing, for employees with 30 years of service, optional retirement 2 years before reaching automatic retirement age.

### **The Depression of the 1930's**

Although the classified service percentage increased by the end of Hoover's incumbency, the great depression, occurring during the latter part of his administration, created grave problems: severe economies and retrenchments in Government were ordered.

Many employees were dismissed, or given indefinite furloughs. To aid these employees in finding new jobs, the Commission was directed by an Executive order of September 20, 1932, to establish a "Reemployment List" of furloughed or dismissed employees—primarily those with permanent civil service status.

A number of economy and reorganization measures were authorized in a series of so-called "Economy Acts," the first of which was enacted on June 30, 1932.

This act established payless furloughs of 1 month in each year for all Government employees earning \$1,000 a year or more. Actually, the employees affected were usually required to remain at work during the payless month, and even to put in overtime.

Other provisions of the Economy Acts included: Reduction of annual leave and per diem travel allowances; elimination of salary increases even in the Postal, Customs, and Immigration Services, where automatic promotion had been required by law; and prohibition of the filling of vacancies except by special executive permission. The last two provisions, particularly, caused a lowering of morale in the service.

The best known and most disliked of the Economy Act provisions was the one which became nationally famous as "Section 213." Under its provisions, employees whose wives or husbands were in the service of the United States or District of Columbia were ordered dismissed first in reductions in force. All others were given preference over such persons. Since it was ruled that "in the service of the United States" included persons on pensions and enlisted personnel in the Armed Forces, this ill-considered law often caused severe personal hardships. (Although "Section 213" was difficult and expensive to administer, and although it set up criteria other than ability and fitness in the selection and retention



of public employees—in violation of the spirit of the Civil Service Act—it was not repealed until July 26, 1937, when the Civil Service Act was amended to forbid discrimination on the grounds of marital status.)

The great depression of 1929 and the early 1930's was unprecedented in the United States, and, in meeting the resultant problems, experimentation and trial and error were unavoidable.

There was, however, one bright spot in an otherwise dreary picture. On April 23, 1931, Executive Order No. 5612 was issued establishing a Council of Personnel Administration under the chairmanship of the President of the United States Civil Service Commission. This order recognized the Commission's role of leadership in Federal personnel administration and established a method for cooperation in personnel administration among the various Government agencies.



FRANKLIN D. ROOSEVELT

### Roosevelt's First Term: Heavy Pressure for Patronage

The situation of the Civil Service Commission at the beginning of Franklin D. Roosevelt's first term in 1933 was not propitious for the health of the merit system. The lack of private employment opportunities during the depression caused a large increase in the number of applications filed for each examination that was held. Decreasing appropriations and increasing workload made it very difficult, as the reins of Government passed from Hoover to Roosevelt, for the Commission to carry out its missions promptly and efficiently. The pressures were

particularly severe in 1933 because of the millions of unemployed workers in the country. The merit system now entered a precarious phase of its voyage.

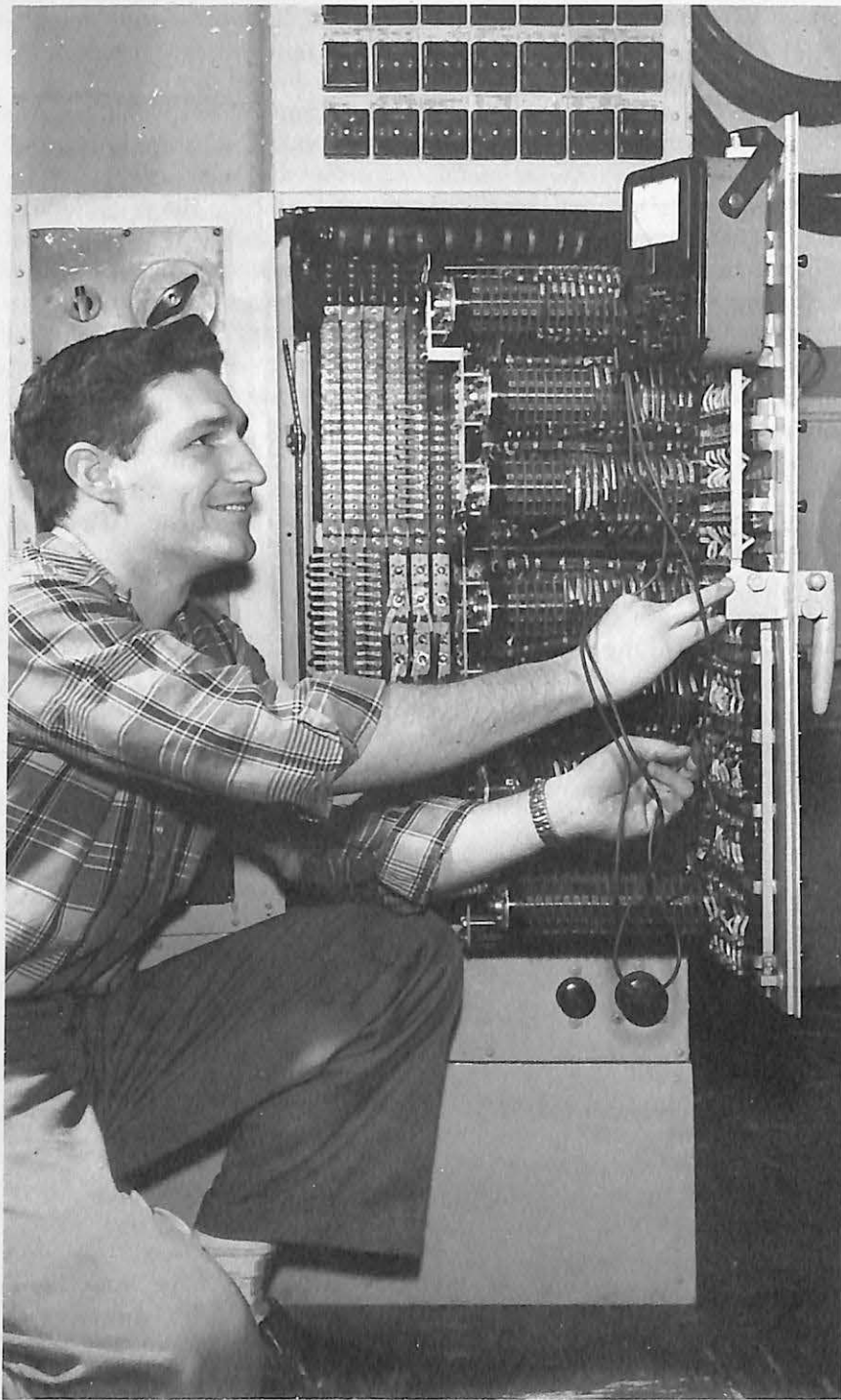
During Roosevelt's first term, many emergency governmental activities were set up to administer public relief, public works, agricultural aid, financial assistance, economic controls, and conservation. The large majority of the new agencies were excepted from the Civil Service Act, and, in many cases, from the Classification Act as well, on the grounds that they were temporary emergency agencies.

Roosevelt was thus enabled to meet, by means of appointments to these agencies, some of the demand for patronage; however, the Civil Service Commission of that period protested vigorously as the years went on against this practice which by 1936 had caused the proportion of jobs under civil service to fall to 60.5 percent.

In 1933, Roosevelt substituted a 15 percent salary cut without furlough in place of the payless furlough established by the Economy Act of June 30, 1932 (see p. 77). This cut was reduced to 10 percent on February 1, 1934; to 5 percent on June 30, 1934; and finally—on March 1, 1935—was abolished.

In fact, most of the measures established by the three Economy Acts were repealed in the years immediately following 1933. However, the full amount of leave—30 days of annual leave and 30 days of sick leave—which had been granted before the first Economy Act was enacted, was not restored.





Fire-control mechanic.



Cadastral Surveyor.



## IX. THE LAST TWENTY YEARS: 1938-1958

With the year 1938, we enter the era of modern personnel administration, the third phase of our history. During the long first phase, from the founding of the Republic until 1883, we were concerned with the worsening spectacle of public service under the "spoils system," finally culminating in basic reform. From 1883 to 1938, our central theme was the firm establishment, extension, and success of the merit principle in Federal employment. There were setbacks during that period, and there were still challenges to come, but in general the system had proved itself in the judgment of public and politicians alike. The big test of the third phase was to be whether a system conceived for an essentially negative purpose, i. e., the control of patronage and corruption in appointment to public office, could be adapted to modern needs, discoveries, and requirements in personnel management. This task was very shortly to be complicated by growth of the Federal work force to an undreamed-of size during World War II. Although very substantial contraction took place after the war, the Federal service leveled off to an apparently stable plateau of something over 2 million workers, and the last decade, reflecting postwar scientific progress, brought an absolutely staggering complexity and variety to Government work.

Some of the trends in personnel administration which became evident in the two decades from 1938 to 1958 were foreshadowed by earlier events. One such event was passage of the Retirement Act in 1920. The Civil Service Commission, which under the Civil Service Act of 1883 was concerned mainly with enrollments for Government service, then gained responsibility also for the mustering-out operation at the end of the line. Thus the career span had a well-defined beginning and a well-defined end, but little special attention was being paid to problems of the Federal employee during the whole time he was on the job.

One gap in the Government's employment policy had been filled in 1923 with passage of the Classification Act. This legislation established the principle in Government of equal pay for equal work, and helped lay a foundation for the comprehensive personnel programs that were to come. The late Dr. Warner W. Stockberger, usually regarded as the pioneer in the field of Government personnel administration, originally was detailed to the office of the Secretary of Agriculture to carry out the provisions of the Classification Act. Many related matters required his attention; the problems were present, but there were no established methods of dealing with them effectively. Such important aspects of personnel work as employee morale, human relations, and utilization of manpower were as yet virtually untouched.

The pioneering done by Dr. Stockberger was an important antecedent to President Roosevelt's Executive order of 1938 which required that all

Federal departments establish divisions of personnel. This order can justly be said to have marked the beginning of modern personnel administration in the Federal Government, but it was many years before the Federal service acquired all of the components that comprise the comprehensive, well-rounded personnel programs of the present day. The history of the last two decades, as told in this chapter, is necessarily replete with references to new and developing concepts in personnel administration.

### Roosevelt's Second Term: Two Important Executive Orders

June 24, 1938, marked the issuance by President Roosevelt of two important Executive orders, one of which has been referred to above. These Executive orders, among other things:

- Required the establishment of divisions of personnel management in the executive departments and in 13 of the largest agencies, each to be headed by a director of personnel.
- Extended the competitive service almost to the limit of the President's authority.
- Revitalized the Council of Personnel Administration (later the Federal Personnel Council and now the Interagency Advisory Group), which was later to become a strongly influential force for the improvement of Federal personnel management.
- Gave support to agency in-service training programs, and assigned to the Commission responsibility for cooperating with the agencies in this area.
- Completely revised and modernized the civil service rules for the first time since 1903.

The orders accomplished four basic things:

- They strengthened the merit principle.
- They gave support to positive personnel programs.
- They enhanced the positive leadership of the Civil Service Commission.
- They provided machinery, in the form of a personnel council and agency personnel divisions, for the President, the Commission, and agency heads to exercise leadership in positive personnel management.

Also, on September 8, 1939, Executive Order 8248 established the Liaison Office for Personnel Management in the White House.

### Attention Is Turned to Political Activity: Hatch Act I

On August 2, 1939, President Roosevelt signed the Hatch Act.

This act, named for Senator Carl D. Hatch of New Mexico, prohibited (1) coercion of voters in Federal elections, and (2) active par-



ticipation in politics by employees and officials of the executive branch. The act was passed largely because of disregard of the civil service "political activity rule" during the 1938 elections. Excepted from the act's provisions were: The President, the Vice President, employees of the office of the President, heads and assistant heads of executive departments, and officials appointed by the President and confirmed by the Senate who determined foreign policy, or policy in the nationwide administration of Federal laws.

Penalties included heavy fines and imprisonment for coercion in Federal elections, and removal from office for political activity on the part of Federal employees.

The act also prohibited payment of salary to an employee belonging to an organization advocating the overthrow of the Constitutional form of government in the United States.

### **Hatch Act II**

The so-called "Second Hatch Act"—enacted July 19, 1940—extended the prohibition against political activity to employees of State and local agencies whose principal employment was in connection with activities financed in whole or in part by Federal loans or grants. Excepted from the provisions of the act were: Governors, lieutenant governors, mayors, elected heads of departments whose positions were not under a merit system, and officers holding elective office.

Penalty for violation was removal from office and, if the removal was not made within 30 days after notice, the Civil Service Commission was required to certify to the appropriate Federal agency an order to withhold from the State or local agency concerned the amount of 2 years' of the violator's salary.

### **Congressman Ramspeck Sponsors a Major Advance**

On November 26, 1940, President Roosevelt signed the very important Ramspeck Act. This act was sponsored by Representative Robert Ramspeck of Georgia, long an outstanding advocate of merit principles in the civil service and later (1951-52) Chairman of the Civil Service Commission.

The Ramspeck Act paved the way for an unprecedented extension of the merit system. It also provided for extension of the Classification Act to the field service of the Government, and it established efficiency-rating boards of review.

Title I of the Ramspeck Act authorized the President to cover into the competitive service any offices or positions in the executive branch, with the exception of (1) those in the Tennessee Valley Authority and the Work Projects Administration, (2) Presidential appointees confirmed by the Senate, and (3) assistant United States district attorneys.

In effect, the act authorized the extension of the competitive service to more than 182,000 permanent positions—almost all the non-policy-determining positions in the executive civil service, with the exceptions listed above. It thus authorized the President to sweep away virtually all the exceptions which had accumulated since the passage of the Civil Service Act in 1883, and even permitted the extension of the merit system to unskilled laborers, who had been excepted by the Civil Service Act itself.

The Executive orders issued by President Roosevelt under the authority of the Ramspeck Act brought merit system jurisdiction to its all-time high, covering not only routine positions but also most high-level professional and administrative positions. By means of Executive Order 8743 of April 23, 1941, and other orders, the President extended the competitive service to all previously excepted positions other than (1) temporary positions, (2) those excepted by Schedules A and B of the civil service rules, and (3) those expressly excepted by the Ramspeck Act itself.

### **Civil Service Adjusts to the Emergency**

In the early days of World War II, the role of the Civil Service Commission as the central personnel supply agency of the United States was first put in question, then directly challenged.

In September 1939, Germany declared war on Poland; Great Britain, Canada, Australia, New Zealand, the Union of South Africa, and France declared war on Germany; and Russia invaded Poland. In that same month, President Roosevelt authorized the departments to make temporary appointments when the Commission had no eligibles available. This order—similar to one issued by Wilson in 1917—permitted extensive appointments to be made outside of the competitive system.

The fall of France in the spring of 1940 turned the thinking of our Government toward active defense measures. The Commission set new objectives for itself:

- To furnish all civilian personnel requested by national defense agencies when the agencies wanted them.
- To keep in constant touch with national defense agencies in order to meet their personnel needs efficiently.
- To undertake an intensive program of recruitment to meet prospective shortages.
- To encourage training programs.
- To insure that all persons appointed as a result of Commission activities were loyal and of good character.
- To keep politics out of defense.



The Commission also set aside many of the usual requirements for examination and certification. The transfer system was modified: first it was tightened, as the older agencies sought to protect themselves against loss of employees; then it was progressively loosened, as the need of the emergency agencies for experienced Government personnel became clear. Classification procedures were also modified to meet the new conditions.

### **War Department Attempts To Bypass the Commission**

In the autumn of 1940, the War Department, without consulting the Civil Service Commission, advised the House Military Affairs Committee that it needed authority to appoint emergency civilian personnel without reference to the Commission. The War Department argued that the Commission would not be able to operate rapidly enough, that the Commission's customary procedures were not suited to the tempo of an emergency, that War Department and business executives in Government would do a better job of hiring, and that their efficiency would be impaired unless they could pick their own officials and assistants.

The House committee was apparently ready to go along with this request.

### **Flemming Appeals to Congress**

Arthur S. Flemming, one of the outstanding Civil Service Commissioners, made a dramatic appeal to the Congress to retain the Commission as the Government's central personnel agency. He insisted on the need to retain such authority for the Commission in the interest of the war effort itself; he defended the Commission's ability to produce results; and he pointed out the confusion which would result if Government agencies were permitted to compete against each other in the tight labor market created by the emergency.

After further conferences with the Commission, the War Department dropped its request. Congress did not disturb the Commission's central authority. It was a close decision.

The issue was not seriously raised again during the emergency.

Meanwhile, the Commission had delegated to Flemming the responsibility for its "war program activities" during the emergency. Flemming turned in one of the finest wartime jobs in official Washington.

### **Major Policy Change: Centralization Abandoned**

From 1924 until World War II, the Commission maintained a central and field office staff to conduct competitive examinations for most positions—except skilled trades and semiskilled and laboring positions in agencies having boards of examiners.

A sharp change in policy occurred during the defense buildup before, and during, World War II. The Commission's examining facilities were faced suddenly with an unprecedented demand for personnel.

The executive civil service, which was about 800,000 strong in 1938, expanded to almost 4,000,000 by 1945. Although competitive examining was largely laid aside, because of emergency needs, and new appointees were given war-service appointments that did not lead to permanent status, boards of examiners became a major recruiting facility in the field service. New boards were set up as new governmental facilities were established in the field, existing boards were substantially increased in size, and boards took on responsibility for recruiting in areas which for many years had been the province of the Commission's own staff.

Boards of examiners made a significant and important contribution to the staffing of our Government during this vital period.

### **Roosevelt's Third Term: Veterans' Preference Act of 1944**

The most important personnel legislation enacted during the war period was the Veterans' Preference Act of 1944. This act redefined and consolidated into law certain benefits previously granted to veterans, either by law or regulation, and also added new benefits, some of which had the effect of amending the Civil Service Act. Among other provisions, it provided for:

- Adding 5 or 10 points to examination scores of veteran preference eligibles.
- "Superpreference" (i. e., listing disabled veterans and others granted 10-point preference ahead of all other eligibles on many registers).
- Crediting veterans with time spent in the Armed Forces, in examinations in which experience was a factor.
- Waiving age, height, and weight requirements for preference eligibles in most examinations.
- Waiving, for veterans, the "members of family" rule and apportionment provisions of the Civil Service Act.
- Waiving physical requirements for veterans found to be physically able to do a job without endangering themselves or others.
- Establishing the requirement for review by the Commission of reasons given by an agency for passing over a veteran to appoint a nonveteran.
- Establishing the right of veterans to appeal to the Commission in removals and certain other adverse actions by the agency which had hired them.
- Giving the Commission greater authority in retention-preference administration throughout the Federal service, requiring that, in reductions in force, veteran-preference employees with ratings of "Good" or better be retained in preference to any nonveterans in competition with them.



## Staff, Budget, and Workload Expansion of Commission During War

During the war, the Commission's staff, budget, and workload underwent a huge expansion. Some statistical examples, covering different time periods, illustrate this.

On June 30, 1938, the employees of the Civil Service Commission numbered 1,206. On June 30, 1943, they numbered 6,938.

Expenditures for fiscal year 1938 were about \$2,420,000. For fiscal year 1943, about \$18,400,000.

In his book, "Civil Service in Wartime," the late Leonard D. White, professor of public administration at the University of Chicago and a former Civil Service Commissioner, published a chart which illustrates and summarizes the staffing and workload history of an important Commission regional office—Chicago—from 1938 to 1943:

	Fiscal year ending June 30, 1938	Fiscal year ending June 30, 1943
Size of staff.....	20	362
Placements.....	5, 862	203, 381
Visitors.....	88, 960	882, 730
Outgoing mail.....	62, 542	1, 838, 876

A regional workload of this magnitude was never dreamed of before World War II.

### Evaluations of Civil Service Performance in World War II: White, Flemming, Kammerer, and the CSC

The World War II performance of the civil service system and the Civil Service Commission have been evaluated by several observers.

Leonard D. White, in his book, "Civil Service in Wartime," stated that the magnitude of the job of finding enough qualified civilian Government employees was unparalleled in our history—perhaps in the history of any country. He indicated that the assignment to the Civil Service Commission of central responsibility for securing civilian Government employees set a precedent of major significance for the future development of the public service. He stated:

My observation leads me to believe that, on the whole, the wartime record [of public service achievement] is one in which genuine satisfaction can be taken by all who place their faith in the capacity of democracies to organize themselves effectively for war or for peace.

Arthur S. Flemming, a member of both the Civil Service Commission and the War Manpower Commission, drew the following conclusions from his study of the civil service during the war years:

- The Federal civil service system can be adapted to emergency conditions.
- The Civil Service Commission as the central personnel agency, and the operating departments and agencies, can cooperate to the maximum in the conduct of recruiting and examining programs.
- Government, functioning as an employer, can abide by the rules and regulations which it imposes upon private employers.

Flemming stated, discussing the adaptability of the civil service system to emergency conditions:

In the future, those who want to have positions exempted from the civil service system will not be able to use the argument that the element of time makes it impossible to wait for the system to operate. If it can operate in a sufficiently flexible fashion to serve the Nation in the midst of war, it can serve the Nation under any other circumstances which may confront it.

Unquestionably a better job could have been done than was done. Unquestionably we can draw on the mistakes of the past four and a half years to improve the service to be rendered in the years which lie ahead. Nevertheless, the fact remains that an infinitely better job was done by keeping the recruiting operation within the civil service system than could possibly have been done if all the agencies of Government had operated on their own without regard to the needs of the Government as a whole.

Gladys M. Kammerer, in her book, "Impact of War on Federal Personnel Administration, 1939-45," reviewed the wartime functioning of the civil service. She identified five major achievements and five major unsolved problem areas of wartime personnel administration.

She listed as achievements: The survival of merit system principles through the adaptability and flexibility of the personnel system; success in recruitment for staffing the expanded Federal service; progress in the building of training programs; realization of the importance of employee relations in the public service; and a new recognition of personnel administration itself.

She listed as unsolved problems: Adequate control over transfer of employees between agencies; adequate control over the promotion of employees; inadequate Federal salary structure; need for an effective manpower-utilization program to control the size of the civilian work force; and control of subversive elements in the public service.

To conclude our roundup of evaluations of civil service's World War



II performance, we list the major effects of the war period as given in the 1945 Annual Report of the Civil Service Commission: Emergence of the Commission as the Government's central personnel agency; preservation of the merit system; emphasis on positive recruitment; reliance on direct recruitment; emphasis on more efficient utilization of personnel; recognition of the need for improvement in supervision; extension of position-classification standards to the field service; extension of retirement coverage; development of better relationships with the agencies; and increased emphasis on internal management improvement.



HARRY S. TRUMAN

### Conversion From War to Peace Under Truman

When hostilities ended in 1945, the Civil Service Commission faced the task of drastically reducing the huge wartime civilian work force. Regulations were established to permit an orderly reduction in force. A program was set up to help displaced career employees find reemployment in the Government. A Veterans' Employment and Advisory Service was established to assist returning veterans. On August 16, 1945, for example, the Commission announced that applications for civil service positions would be accepted only from persons with military preference entitled to have examinations reopened, and from certain persons separated in reductions in force.

On February 4, 1946, President Truman issued Executive Order 9691 directing the Commission (1) to resume holding examinations leading to probational appointment and (2) to begin a program of displacement of war-service and temporary appointees (neither of which types of appointment led to permanent status).

Pursuant to this order, the War Service Regulations were canceled and Temporary Civil Service Regulations were issued, to take effect March 7, 1946. Under the provisions of the latter, authority was delegated to agencies to make temporary appointments, while the Commission devoted its resources to the establishment of registers leading to permanent appointments.

New civil service rules, issued pursuant to Executive Order 9830 of February 24, 1947, and replacing the temporary regulations, became effective May 1, 1947. An attempt was made to continue, in the new rules, the best practices developed during the war. The policy of delegating authority to agencies to act in individual personnel matters without prior Commission approval—such as individual promotions, reassignments, and transfers—was confirmed and extended. These actions, however, were subject to Commission standards, and to inspection and postaudit by the Commission for compliance with these standards.

Executive Order 9830 also:

- Reaffirmed the Commission's role as the Government's central personnel agency.
- Outlined the general responsibilities of the Commission and of all Federal agencies in the field of personnel management.
- Established the Commission's new inspection program.

### Huge Postwar Examining Problem

Some competent observers have stated that conversion following World War II constituted the most difficult and complex problem ever faced by the Commission. The major reconversion project was to establish probational registers from which to fill vacancies and displace war-service and temporary appointees.

Appointments during the war had been made on a "war service indefinite" basis, for the duration of the emergency plus 6 months. Permanent status was withheld because millions of Americans were in the Armed Forces or in war work and for that reason could not compete for civil service positions.

Therefore it became necessary, after the war, to hold open competitive examinations for the positions occupied on an indefinite basis by employees without competitive status. This huge examining job was necessary even though reductions-in-force were going on at the same time, resulting in an overall drop in the size of the work force of more than a million. At the end of the war, the number of employees in the competitive service with competitive status had dropped to a low of about 33 percent, so the job was a tremendous one.





Radio Engineer.

The nonstatus incumbents of Federal jobs competed in the examinations on the same basis as members of the general public. If their scores earned them sufficiently high standing on the registers, their appointments were converted to probational. If not, they were replaced by eligibles on the top of the registers.

Between July 1946 and July 1949, the Commission announced 104,413 examinations and processed 4,769,735 applications, which resulted in 1,348,470 placements. This was a truly fantastic workload. It testified to the basic soundness of the civil service machinery and to the energy and ability of Commission personnel.

Boards of examiners received a new impetus, because the magnitude of this job was far beyond the resources of the Commission itself. Boards of examiners were responsible for over two-thirds of the examination announcements issued during the first 3 years after the war.

The proportion of employees with permanent status rose from 33 percent at the end of World War II hostilities to 84 percent in June 1949. During the same period, the proportion of employees in the continental United States with veteran preference rose from 16 percent to 47 percent.

### 1939-48 Retirement Act Changes

The period between 1939 and 1948 saw changes in Retirement Act provisions. The following were the major ones:

The act of August 4, 1939: Granted retirement status to classified postmasters; provided for joint and survivorship annuities; and allowed employees to make voluntary contributions to purchase additional annuities.

The act of January 24, 1942: Ended, for purposes of retirement coverage, the distinction between classified and unclassified employees, and extended coverage to practically all officials and employees of the Federal Government; provided uniform compulsory retirement at or over age 70 with 15 years of service; provided optional retirement as early as age 55 with 30 years of service, and at age 62 with 15 years of service; provided a discontinued-service annuity beginning at age 62 for an employee separated after 5 or more years of service; and increased retirement deductions to 5 percent.

The act of February 28, 1948: Liberalized the formula for computing annuities; liberalized immediate reduced annuity at age 55 with 30 years of service; provided automatic survivorship benefits to widows and children; and increased salary deductions to 6 percent.

The act of July 2, 1948: Provided annuities at age 50 with 20 years of service for certain employees engaged in investigations and law enforcement (previously provided for FBI agents by the act of July 11, 1947).



## **Postwar, Pre-Korea Developments . . . New Inspection Program**

In 1946, the Commission organized inspection divisions in its central office and in its regional offices. This program was designed to provide the Commission with current and accurate information on the manner in which specific delegations of authority from the Commission were exercised by the agencies. It was also a program designed to give advice and assistance to the agencies in the administration of their personnel-management responsibilities.

## **. . . Pay Raises**

On several occasions, Congress adjusted the pay of Federal employees. The Federal Employees' Pay Acts of 1945 and 1946 provided raises averaging, respectively, 15.9 percent and 14.2 percent. The Postal Rate Revision and Federal Employees' Salary Act of 1948 increased Classification Act salary rates, and certain other statutory salary rates, by \$330 annually, for an average pay raise of 11 percent. The Classification Act of 1949 brought an incidental adjustment in salaries that averaged 4.1 percent. Further pay raises were enacted in 1951 and 1955 without substantial modification of the pay system.

## **. . . Fair Employment Board**

On October 21, 1948, the Commission established a seven-member Fair Employment Board, pursuant to the requirements of Executive Order 9980, to consider appeals from decisions of agencies on complaints of discrimination.

The Board functioned within the Civil Service Commission until it was abolished under the provisions of Executive Order 10590, of January 18, 1955, which established the President's Committee on Government Employment Policy. Executive Order 10590 reaffirmed the Government policy, with respect to all personnel actions in the executive branch, that there shall be no discrimination because of race, color, religion, or national origin. Although the order shifted responsibility in this area of personnel administration from the Civil Service Commission to the White House, it also stated that "the records and property of the Fair Employment Board shall remain with the Civil Service Commission and shall be available for the use of the Committee." The office of the Committee's Executive Director is located in the Civil Service Commission Building in Washington.

## **. . . 1949 Classification Act**

The Classification Act of 1949, in addition to the salary adjustment mentioned above, incorporated many important features which had long been recommended by the Commission. Among other provisions, it established new and simplified schedules of grades and salaries; provided for three new grade levels at the top of the classification structure (the new "supergrades" were GS-16, GS-17, and GS-18); and delegated to each department and agency the authority to classify its own positions, below the three highest grades, in accordance with Civil Service Commission standards and subject to a postaudit review by the Commission. The new Classification Act provided for bringing about 20,000 additional positions under its provisions, and, all in all, covered about 885,000 positions in the departmental and field services of the Government.

## **. . . Truman's Loyalty Program**

One of the most publicized developments of the postwar period was the employees' loyalty program which was set up pursuant to President Truman's Executive Order 9835 of March 21, 1947. It called for investigations of all employees then on the Federal rolls and of applicants for Federal positions. Agency loyalty boards were appointed by agency heads, and regional boards and a central review board were set up under the Civil Service Commission. These boards held over 4,000 hearings in connection with individual cases.

From the beginning of the program until May 1953, loyalty checks were made of virtually all employees and prospective employees of the executive branch. In all more than 4,700,000 forms on individuals were checked. The FBI made over 26,000 full field investigations of cases that involved questions of loyalty. In some 6,800 cases, loyalty proceedings were discontinued because the persons involved left the service or withdrew their applications. As a result of action by the various loyalty boards, 560 persons were removed or denied Federal employment on loyalty grounds, and 16,503 were cleared. The remaining cases (totaling about 2,300) were considered solely under security laws or under the successor security program.

## **. . . Hiring of Physically Handicapped**

Public Law 617, approved June 10, 1948, affirmed the Commission's war-developed policy of hiring the physically handicapped. It banned discrimination against physically handicapped persons in filling any positions whose duties they could perform efficiently without endangering themselves or others.



### . . . Report of "First Hoover Commission"

Important personnel recommendations were made in the February 1949 report of the Commission on Organization of the Executive Branch of the Government (informally known as the "First Hoover Commission"). As a result of these recommendations:

- Reorganization Plan No. 5, effective in August 1949, changed the title of the head of the Civil Service Commission from "President" to "Chairman." It made the Chairman individually responsible for the administrative direction of the Commission's operations.
- The Commission prepared and issued, in the Federal Personnel Manual, "Guides for Determining the Nature and Scope of Agency Personnel Programs." This guide discussed the functions which should be included in each agency plan: position classification, recruitment and selection, in-service placement, promotion, employee-performance evaluation, employee relations and services, special incentives, re-trenchment, disciplinary action, and the processing and maintenance of personnel records.

### . . . Junior Personnel; Career Executives

During the reconversion period, the Commission took steps to attract competent junior personnel into the Federal service, and also announced a new program for the development of career executives. Through executive-development agreements with the Commission, agencies were given greater latitude to assign employees to various fields of administration in order to broaden their experience.

The "Junior" program, which by the mid-1950's was destined to get more attention than almost any other aspect of civil service, had its inception some 20 years earlier than that. In the ancient days of civil service, no provision was made for young college graduates, without work experience, to enter the Government service in their field of specialization. Graduates were reluctant in many cases to come in at the low salaries paid to clerks, and they lacked the experience required for the professional examinations. The late Leonard D. White of the University of Chicago, a Civil Service Commissioner from 1934 to 1937, was the first to give major attention to this problem. He wrote extensively on the subject and emphasized the usefulness to the Government of having a considerable number of college trained people coming into the Government right from the campus. The program which was started at that time under the title "Junior Civil Service Examiner" was the forerunner of the Junior Professional Assistant examination of the 1940's and the expanded Federal-Service Entrance Examination of the late 1950's. All of these examinations emphasized the recruitment of college-caliber young people on the basis of their intelligence and poten-

tial, with the idea of providing an annual intake of talent for future leadership.

Executive development also was destined to assume an even more important role in personnel administration.

### . . . Promotion Program

In April 1950, the Commission took a step toward setting standards for promotion programs. The objective of a seven-point program for Federal agencies was to encourage systematic consideration of all qualified employees when vacancies occurred.

[Early in 1958, selection for promotion from among the best-qualified employees was made a requirement. Under this program, agencies are required to set up and follow systematic procedures in making selections for promotion. The new program also requires agencies (1) to publish agency guidelines, i. e., the general promotion policy of the agency, (2) to consult with employees and employee organizations on merit promotion plans, (3) to inform employees about promotion procedures, and (4) to document promotion actions.]

### Korean Emergency Explodes

The Federal personnel system had barely been put on a peacetime basis when, in June of 1950, the Korean emergency exploded.

The Commission, its World War II experience still fresh, immediately began to adapt its operation to cope with the new situation. Within a few days after the UN and the United States undertook to resist the Communist aggression against the Republic of Korea, the Commission entered into agreements with the Army, Navy, Air Force and other defense agencies, giving them the authority to make "emergency-indefinite" appointments not leading to permanent status. This gave the agencies concerned the flexibility they needed to create or expand staffs quickly, by authorizing them to hire employees who met the Commission's qualification standards, if appropriate registers of eligibles were not immediately available.

The Commission also began to shape its policies in the direction of preventing the new emergency from causing a substantial increase in the permanent Federal civil service staff, but much of its discretionary authority was soon removed by congressional action.

In September 1950, Congress enacted the so-called Whitten amendment to the Supplemental Appropriation Act of 1951. To carry out the provisions of this amendment, President Truman on November 13, 1950, issued Executive Order 10180—"Establishing Special Personnel Procedures in the Interest of the National Defense"—and on December 1, 1950, the Commission's new regulations under the order became



effective. The effects of the Whitten amendment and the resultant Executive order were: To put new appointments to most positions on an "indefinite" basis; to put transfers, promotions, and reinstatements also on an "indefinite" basis; and to authorize the Commission to set up a system of reemployment rights to encourage transfers to defense agencies.

The Whitten amendment was revised and reenacted in 1951 as part of the Supplemental Appropriations Act of 1952, liberalizing transfer provisions but taking measures to insure that Federal employees would not be promoted too rapidly. Another revision of the amendment was included in the third Supplemental Appropriations Act (also 1952), correcting some of the difficulties in administering the law and giving agencies wider hiring flexibility.

These amendments seemed to start a trend toward "personnel administration by rider." Other riders to appropriation acts during this period included:

- The Thomas leave rider, which required forfeiture, each June 30, of unused leave earned during the preceding year.
- The Jensen-Ferguson amendment, restricting by arbitrary formula the filling of vacancies, in order to reduce agencies' personnel ceilings.
- The Byrd rider, cutting down, by a flat 25 percent for three successive years, the size of publicity and information staffs.
- Other riders setting arbitrary ratios of personnel workers to total agency employment.

### Examining by Boards Expanded

At the direction of the President, the Commission expanded its program for examinations conducted by boards of civil service examiners, and undertook to coordinate agencies' recruiting.

From a post-World War II low of 1,943,400 in January 1950, Federal employment reached, in July 1952, a peak of 2,604,300.

The work of boards of examiners after World War II showed that they provided an effective method of decentralized examining. More and more agencies realized that they had a sizable stake in the competitive recruiting system. Earlier complaints about the ineffectiveness of boards no longer held true.

When the Korean emergency began, the Federal service was again faced with urgent recruiting needs. To meet this need, the Commission instructed its operating offices to establish boards of examiners to the maximum practical extent, so long as they avoided unwarranted duplication. Boards of examiners demonstrated, during the emergency, that they could do a huge competitive recruiting job with speed and effectiveness.

New boards were created and existing boards were expanded. Many boards were given authority to announce examinations for types of positions which had previously been handled by Commission offices exclusively. For example, boards announced examinations for stenographers, typists, and other clerical jobs.

Largely through the expansion in board activity, a substantial proportion of recruitment during the Korean emergency was conducted through open competitive examinations. This was done during a time of acute need for fast recruitment as well as a restriction on the type of appointment available. Most appointments during this period were indefinite and did not confer competitive civil-service status.

In 1951, the Commission invited agencies to establish boards of examiners in their headquarters offices to give them a greater opportunity to participate in the selection of their own personnel and to get improved and faster recruiting services. Many agencies accepted this invitation. Although boards in Washington are responsible for a smaller proportion of the examining load than in the field service, the board program in the Washington area has moved forward with steady progress.

Since the armistice in Korea, there has been a very substantial decrease in the size of the Federal work force. However, the board of examiners program has nevertheless continued to play a large and vital role in the operations of the competitive civil service system.

### Serious Manpower Shortages

Serious manpower shortages resulted in many occupational areas because the Korean conflict caused marked increases in defense activities both within the Government and by contract with private firms. Unprecedented demands arose for engineers, physicists, metallurgists, electronic scientists, and highly skilled tradesmen.

To meet these extraordinary manpower needs, the Commission encouraged defense agencies to develop intensive training programs to supply certain lacks in the education and experience of new employees. In some shortage areas, the Commission intensified recruiting and also revised examination standards to permit more applicants to qualify.

A special recruitment and placement unit in the Commission's central office was given primary responsibility for locating and placing career employees of proven ability in high-level positions in certain newly established defense agencies. A Federal Administrators' examination was announced for employees who had served at least a year in grade GS-12 or higher, and the resultant registers were used for promotions within agencies and for filling high-level jobs by transfer to other agencies.

The Commission urged agencies to take measures for conservation and full utilization of manpower—a program which was a direct result of the Korean emergency.



Increased emphasis was given to the already-existent program to encourage agencies to make increased use of women, older workers, and physically handicapped workers.

An act of July 5, 1952, provided that, with certain exceptions, no maximum age limits should be established for positions in the competitive service. (It also provided that no person who had reached his 70th birthday could be appointed on other than a temporary basis.)

In 1952 public confidence in the civil service system was demonstrated again in a dramatic way. Revelations of gross misuse of high appointive offices in the Bureau of Internal Revenue created a vigorous public demand for placing these positions under civil service, and this was done by means of a reorganization plan submitted by President Truman and approved by the Congress. The Civil Service Commission then began conducting competitive examinations for nearly all high-level Internal Revenue positions which had hitherto been subject to patronage.

Beginning in late 1951 and continuing throughout 1952, then Chairman Robert Ramspeck of the Civil Service Commission conducted a vigorous defense of the loyalty and dedication to their work of the vast bulk of civil service employees. In a series of speeches before influential national conferences and conventions, he urged that the highly publicized misdeeds of a few Federal employees, who had betrayed their trust, not be allowed to lead to blanket condemnation of Federal employees as a group.

### **Brief Recap: 1938-52**

The period from 1938 to 1952 was a decade and a half of great fluctuations and changes for Federal personnel management and for the civil service.

The period saw a significant increase in competitive coverage, from 66 percent of the total civil service in 1938 to 86 percent in 1952.

It also saw the reorganization of the Civil Service Commission and its continuing evolution from a "policing" agency to the central personnel arm of the executive branch of our Government. The reorganized Commission assumed leadership in the conservation and efficient utilization of manpower (especially during the Korean emergency), supervisory development, employee grievance procedures, fair promotion policies, streamlining of veterans' appeals, and simplification of reduction-in-force procedures.

Modern personnel divisions were established in Federal agencies during this period and civil service examining work was increasingly decentralized to agency examining boards. Modern personnel manage-

ment became increasingly significant in the handling of Federal personnel problems.

Great upheavals occurred during these 15 years—following the economic depression there was the pre-World War II defense emergency, then the war, a gigantic postwar reconversion program, and then Korea. Concurrently, many important changes took place directly affecting the Federal service: Basic and comprehensive legislation was enacted in the areas of pay, grade structure, leave policy, veteran preference, and retirement. A fair-employment program was initiated, and the Hatch Act, dealing with political activity on the part of civil servants, was enacted.

Reorganization Plan No. 1, of 1952, put all jobs in the Bureau of Internal Revenue (except the Commissioner and Bureau attorneys) under the competitive service—a significant change involving 600 positions.

Federal employment fluctuated from 1,042,800 in June of 1940, to 3,816,300 in June of 1945, to 1,943,400 in January of 1950, to 2,604,300 in July of 1952. Unquestionably, the recruiting and reduction-in-force problems resulting from this alternating expansion and contraction constituted the biggest and most complex personnel task ever successfully undertaken by any personnel agency.



DWIGHT D. EISENHOWER

### **1953-58: A Period of Positive Personnel Management**

The first change of party in the National Government in 20 years came when President Eisenhower took office in January 1953. The civil service, which had come out of the depression and World War II stronger than ever before, was to be tested by one of the most dramatic changes in administration in our history, the return to power of a



political party after long years out of office and dedicated, as it took over, to a complete overhaul of Government management.

The new administration, which could not have been expected to accept without challenge all the directions in which Federal personnel management had been moving for so many years, moved swiftly to put its personnel philosophy into effect.

On March 31, 1953, Executive Order 10440 was issued by President Eisenhower. It created a new class of positions excepted from the competitive service by the Civil Service Commission. This category of jobs, known as Schedule C, was to include all positions excepted from the competitive service because of their confidential or policy-determining character. The order also directed the Civil Service Commission to review all positions that it had previously excepted for practical reasons to determine whether they should (1) continue to be excepted or (2) be returned to the competitive service.

The purpose of the new Schedule C was to draw a clearer distinction between the competitive service and the excepted service. During the long Democratic regime, many policy-determining positions, and positions in a confidential relationship to agency heads, had been brought into the competitive service. Also, many employees in excepted positions (who formerly had been in competitive jobs) had protection against summary removal which had been intended to apply only to the career civil service.

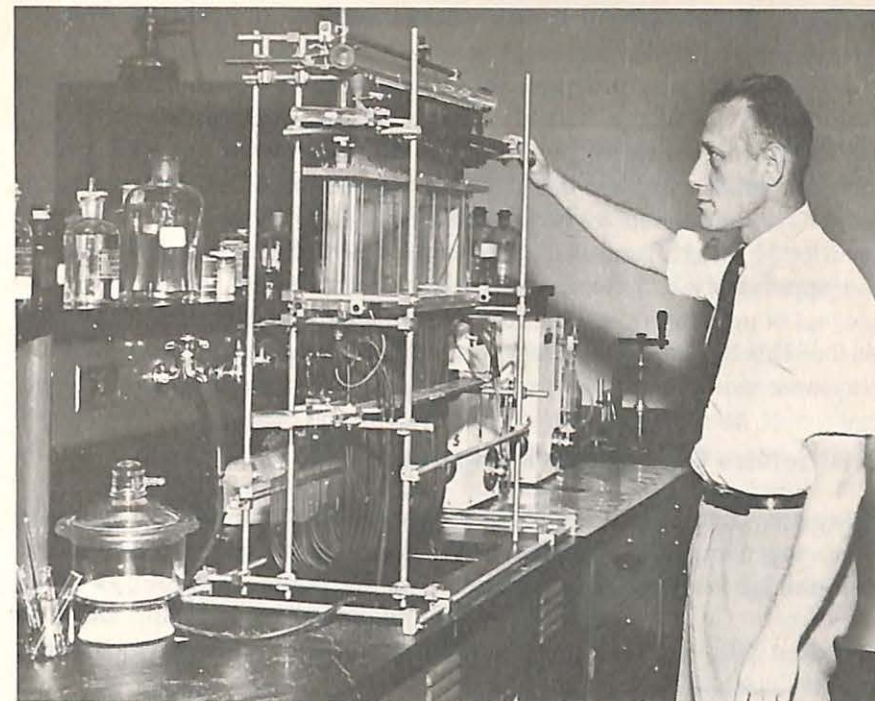
By December 31, 1953, a total of 848 jobs had been placed in Schedule C. Of these, 436 had previously been excepted, 225 were transferred from the competitive service, and 187 were new positions. Schedule C, which some had predicted might eventually include "many thousands" of jobs, later leveled off to a comparatively stable coverage of 1,200 positions.

Protections against removal provided persons in the competitive service were taken away from those serving in Schedule C. However, veterans holding excepted positions continued to enjoy the protections provided by the Veterans' Preference Act.

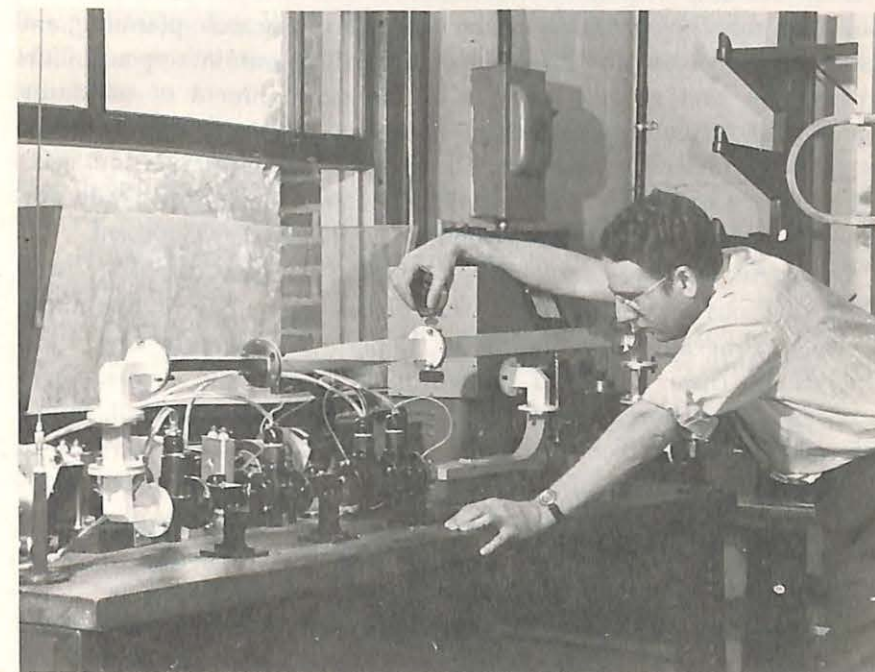
### New Security Program

Another early action of the Eisenhower administration was the termination of the employee loyalty program of the previous regime.

Executive Order 10450, of April 27, 1953, directed that the existing loyalty program (in operation since 1947) be superseded by a new and broader security program which would insure that the employment of all present and future Federal employees was clearly consistent with the interests of the national security. Effective date of the new program was May 28, 1953, but the Civil Service Commission's regional loyalty



Biochemist.



Nuclear physicist.



boards and the Loyalty Review Board were authorized to continue operations for 120 days, in order to complete certain pending work.

Under the loyalty program, the highest body to which a civil service employee could appeal was the Commission's Loyalty Review Board. Under the new security program, the decision of the agency head, in any individual case, was final. However, an employee whose employment was considered to be inconsistent with the interests of national security (1) was informed of the charges against him, and (2) was given the opportunity to request a hearing before a board composed of employees of agencies other than the one which employed him. The decision of this board was advisory to the head of the agency for which the employee worked.

### Civil Service Commission Reorganized

A general reorganization of the Civil Service Commission—to tighten its management control and to emphasize its Governmentwide planning and standard-setting responsibilities—was started in August 1953 under the direction of Chairman Philip Young, who had been appointed by President Eisenhower to head the Commission and to serve concurrently as Presidential adviser on personnel.

The reorganization took cognizance of changes in the Commission's functions which had been gradually taking place for years. The Commission, looking toward improvement in the Federal personnel program, had been developing steadily in the direction of research, planning, and leadership. Also in the direction of delegating certain responsibilities to agencies, and guiding agencies by the establishment of standards, issuance of regulations, inspection of agency personnel actions, taking corrective action when necessary, and generally giving advice and assistance. The Commission had, further, promoted Governmentwide programs of training, executive development, and career development.

In the August 1953 reorganization, most of the Commission's central office divisions and staff offices were placed under one of five major bureaus: Programs and Standards, Departmental Operations, Field Operations, Inspections and Classification Audits, and Management Services. These bureaus and 3 staff offices—Security Appraisal, Public Information, and Office of the General Counsel—reported directly to the Executive Director of the Commission. The Executive Director's span of control was thus reduced from nearly 20 divisions and offices to 5 bureaus and 3 staff offices.

The number of regional offices was reduced from 14 to 11.

The Independent Offices Appropriation Act of 1953 required the abolishment of the Federal Personnel Council and the transfer of its functions to the office of the Commission's Executive Director. In

January of 1954, the Commission established the Interagency Advisory Group to take over these functions.

### Major Reduction in Force

Federal civilian employment was reduced by 212,700 between January and December 1953. About half of the reduction was accomplished by not filling vacancies due to resignation, retirement, or death; the remainder was achieved through reduction in force (RIF) and termination of temporary appointments.

In Washington, there was a period of uneasiness brought about by the reduction of the force plus published accounts of patronage pressures on the new administration. Local merchants complained that "job jitters" were causing a "local business recession." Chairman Young spoke before District of Columbia business and banking groups and gave them the facts on the extent of the reduction in force and reiterated the administration's pledge to strengthen and improve the merit system. By the end of 1953, merchants were laying plans for a record Christmas business.

However, the reduction in force did require the separation of many career employees with long Government service. In fairness to them, and to protect the Government's investment in their experience, a program was set up to reemploy, wherever possible, these separated careerists. The separating agency was required to monitor every career worker about to be separated against all positions in the commuting area for which the worker was qualified and which were occupied by indefinite appointees.

If the separating agency failed to find a job held by an indefinite employee for which the career worker was qualified and available, it gave the separated employee a statement to that effect. The separated careerist then became eligible to displace indefinites in other agencies in the commuting area, at and below the highest grade he held on or before September 1, 1950.

By January 29, 1954, separated career workers to the number of 3,169 had been placed, under this program, in the Washington area alone.

RIF procedures were revised and simplified, effective February 15, 1953.

The old RIF system recognized six tenure groups, each divided into veterans and nonveterans. In RIF's, employees in higher groups had retention preference over those in lower groups. They also had the right of reassignment to a position in the same or lower grade if it was held by an employee in a lower group. These provisions led to extensive "chain reactions," i. e., abolishing one job could lead to a whole series of personnel actions.



The new RIF procedure reduced the tenure groups to three, divided as before into veterans and nonveterans. However, veterans in the lower (indefinite) group were no longer given the privilege of replacing non-veterans in that group. And the right to replace an employee in a lower-tenure group was sharply limited.

### **Changes Made in Leave Law**

The act of July 2, 1953, reflected the Civil Service Commission's recommendations for changes in the leave law, and repealed the rider to the Independent Offices Appropriation Act of 1953, which would have required forfeiture on each June 30 of all unused leave earned during the preceding year.

The new act also reduced maximum permissible accumulations of leave from 90 to 45 days for certain overseas employees and from 60 to 30 days for others. It limited lump-sum leave payments due on separation or death to 30 days, or to the amount of leave carried forward at the end of the previous leave year, whichever was larger. It removed from coverage under the Annual and Sick Leave Act of 1951 all Presidential appointees paid at a rate higher than the maximum allowed under the Classification Act (then \$14,800). And it provided that employees who transferred from one leave system to another could transfer, within certain limits, any annual leave they had earned.

### **Veterans' Preference Act Amended**

The year 1953 brought enactment of a Veterans' Preference Act amendment which had long been sought by the Civil Service Commission and groups interested in public personnel administration.

It required that veterans must obtain passing grades in civil-service examinations before having 5- or 10-point preference added. It also provided that only veterans with a compensable service-connected disability of 10 percent or more could automatically go to the top of certain registers. Previously, the privilege of "floating to the top" of these registers was accorded to all 10-point preference eligibles.

The amendment further restricted agencies in passing over an eligible veteran to select a nonveteran.

### **President Eisenhower's Legislative Program for Personnel Management**

In February 1954, after thorough staff studies of the Government's personnel system had been completed in the Civil Service Commission

and the office of the President's Adviser (both under the direction of Chairman Young), President Eisenhower announced a 9-point legislative program for personnel management. Most of this program was enacted as part of the Fringe Benefits Act of 1954 or as separate legislation. The most important features of this legislation will be described in the pages that follow.

### **Largest Group Life Insurance Program in the World: A New Fringe Benefit**

Low-cost group life insurance, one of the most important additions to the Federal personnel program in recent years, was inaugurated when the Federal Employees' Group Life Insurance Act was passed on August 17, 1954. This law (Public Law 598) is the legal basis for the largest group life insurance program in the world. It was a key point in the Eisenhower administration's plans to revamp Federal personnel practices to accord better with practices of progressive private employers.

The program involves insurance equivalent to 10 percent of the total group life insurance presently in force in the United States, and is administered to conform as nearly as possible to insurance practices in private industry.

The Insurance Act's formula for determining participation of United States insurance companies in the program was purposely weighted in favor of middle-sized and small companies. As of January 1958, 166 of the 250 companies eligible to underwrite insurance for the program were participating.

This valuable new program was designed to provide additional economic security for Government workers and their families. It was also expected to aid materially in minimizing employee turnover and in attracting new employees to the Government service. The response to the program by Federal workers is indicated by the fact that, although participation in it is optional, over 95 percent of the 2,200,000 eligible employees have taken it.

Each employee who participates in the program is insured for the amount of his annual salary carried to the nearest upper thousand. Through payroll deductions, he pays 25 cents per \$1,000 of insurance per pay period—or \$6.50 a year for each \$1,000—to which the Government adds an additional 50 percent, or \$3.25. Benefits are paid in case of death, and for accidental loss of limb or of eyesight. The death benefit is doubled if death is accidental.

As of January 16, 1958, approximately 2,100,000 United States Federal employees were covered by group life insurance, and the insurance in force amounted to \$11,000,000,000.



From the inauguration of the program in August 1954 through January 1958, the families of about 36,000 deceased Federal employees received approximately \$175,000,000 in benefits.

### **New Incentive Awards Program Established**

Title III of Public Law 763, 83d Congress, September 1, 1954, authorized a liberalized, and Governmentwide, incentive awards program for Federal employees. The law was a firm expression of the intent of Congress and the President that incentive awards should be used to encourage all Federal employees to participate in improving the efficiency and economy of Government operations. Good ideas and superior performance were to be sought out, recognized when found, and rewarded.

The program, which became effective November 30, 1954, repealed several awards programs of limited scope which had been in effect for a number of years. It provided for three types of awards: Cash for suggestions, cash for superior performance, and a variety of honorary awards.

An agency may make a cash award up to \$5,000. With the approval of the Civil Service Commission, an agency may make an award up to \$25,000.

Honorary awards, granted independently or in addition to cash awards, may be given for long and faithful service or for acts of personal heroism; they are not intended to serve as a substitute for cash awards.

Capping the awards program, a plan for Presidential awards was worked out early in 1958 and the first awards, five in number, were conferred on January 16, 1958.

In 31 months of operation of the incentive awards program, from November 30, 1954, to July 1, 1957, over \$312,000,000 in dollar value benefits have accrued to the Government. Over 200,000 employee suggestions have been adopted, and 68,000 individual superior achievements recognized. Cash awards to employees during this period totaled over \$16,000,000, showing a return of nearly \$20 in tangible benefits for every dollar invested in the incentive awards program.

### **New Career-Conditional Appointment System**

One of the most complex problems facing the new administration had been that of converting back to permanent appointments following the Korean emergency. The end of the conflict found hundreds of thousands of employees on the rolls with only "indefinite" appointments. Many indefinites left the Federal service during the reductions of 1953 but many thousands were needed for continuing work in their agencies. In general, nothing but indefinite appointments had been made in the

Federal service since December 1950. The problem was how to do justice to the equities of these employees and the needs of their agencies, while at the same time reopening the career gateway to new applicants for employment.

To bring order out of this complex chaos a new "career-conditional" appointment plan was established by an Executive order of November 22, 1954, made possible by modification of the Whitten amendment 2 months earlier.

The "career-conditional" appointment has features designed to give flexibility to the Federal personnel system while assuring stability of the career service during the expansions and contractions resulting from limited national emergencies.

Under this appointment system, it should not be necessary, in future periods of emergency short of full mobilization, to suspend normal hiring procedures or to resort to such expedients as the "indefinite appointment" system used during the Korea period.

The new system recognizes (1) the fact that not all persons who enter Government service intend to spend the rest of their working lives in that service, and (2) the fact that the Government may not have continuing jobs for all those who may be needed during an emergency.

Therefore the new appointment system requires that appointees, after qualifying competitively, serve a 3-year conditional period before attaining full career standing. The conditional period of service provided by the new system was designed to enable employees who intend to make careers in public service to demonstrate this intention; also to enable the Government to provide reasonable assurances of continuing career opportunities.

Just before the effective date of the new "career-conditional" appointment system, there were 670,500 "indefinite" employees in the competitive civil service, representing 34 percent of the total. On January 23, 1955, 399,500 of these "indefinite" employees were automatically converted to "career" or "career-conditional" appointments, since they had originally been appointed, in regular routine actions, from civil-service lists of eligibles. Most of the remaining "indefinite" employees were given an opportunity to take competitive examinations, and, if within reach for selection, were certified to their agencies for "career" or "career-conditional" appointment according to the 3-year formula.

By the close of fiscal year 1955, an estimated 120,000 "indefinite" employees, or only 6 percent of the total competitive service, had not yet met the criteria for conversion to "career" or "career-conditional" appointments. These—plus the approximately 110,000 temporary employees—constituted only 12 percent of the total competitive service. Thus at the end of the fiscal year 1955, 88 percent of the total population of the Federal competitive service held either "career" or "career-conditional" appointments.



## Strengthened College Recruiting Program

Even during the massive reductions in force of 1953, the Commission had clung firmly to the principle that a yearly intake of promising young men and women from the college campuses was essential to provide future leadership for Federal agencies. Evidence of the validity of the principle was the stature achieved in Government by a number of outstanding career executives who were the product of pioneering efforts made 15 or 20 years before to bring into the Federal service men and women of college caliber who gave early promise of executive potential.

When the reduction had run its course and the new "career-conditional" appointment system had again opened the gate to permanent-type appointments in Government service, the Commission's college recruiting program reached an unprecedented intensity. Before unleashing its campus-bound forces, however, the Commission took careful stock of the "deal" the Government had to offer.

The addition to the Government's personnel program of the fringe benefits enacted in 1954, together with the full career opportunity which had been opened up, weighed heavily on the plus side of the ledger. Less prepossessing were the Government's arrangements for giving consideration to college-caliber applicants. Under existing examining programs the Government had never provided for more than a trickle of a few hundred graduates entering the Federal service each year. The Commission therefore acted decisively to streamline its examining arrangements. More than 100 individual examinations were consolidated into one—known as the Federal-Service Entrance Examination—and definite arrangements were made with Federal agencies to fill thousands of jobs with college graduates, where only hundreds had been filled in earlier years.

The new examination, covering practically every kind of professional entrance hiring done by the Government except for engineering and the physical sciences, was launched in the fall of 1955 as an intensive, Governmentwide effort under Commission leadership with full backing of the White House. More than 900 campus visits were made by Government recruiters representing mainly the various hiring agencies themselves, and the advance estimates that 7,000 or 8,000 Federal jobs would be filled through the Federal-Service Entrance Examination in the first year were substantially fulfilled.

The success of the FSEE did not, however, alleviate manpower shortages in engineering and physical science, where the pressure was the greatest. Throughout 1956 and 1957 our Nation's accelerated scientific progress made necessary the employment by Government scientific agencies of more and more engineers and physical scientists, while at the same time college-trained persons in these specialties were critically

needed by private contractors engaged in defense projects for the Government. In general, private contractors enjoyed more flexibility in starting salaries and other inducements, despite the Commission's extensive use of authority Congress had granted in 1954 to set starting pay rates above the minimum for the grade in shortage occupations.

By the end of 1957 the Civil Service Commission had used this authority to the limit in the engineering and physical science occupations, but private contractors were pretty consistently outbidding the Government for scarce talent.

Early in 1958 there were in prospect two sources of relief for hard-pressed Government recruiters of scientists: (1) The prospect that a general pay increase would be enacted for Government workers during the current session of Congress, and (2) signs that an industrial recession might cut back the demands of private employers for personnel in scarce categories.

## Retirement Act Revised in 1956

The Retirement Act was again completely revised by the act of July 31, 1956, Public Law 854, 84th Congress. The 1956 amendments considerably liberalized the benefit structure of the civil service retirement system, resulting, in nearly all cases, in substantially larger retirement annuities. The most important changes contained in the 1956 Act are listed below:

- A liberalized formula for annuity computation provides larger annuities.
- Liberalized provisions for survivor annuities provide greater benefits for widows and dependent children.
- Smaller reductions in annuities for nondisability retirement under age 60, or to provide survivor annuities.
- A minimum annuity provided in the case of disability retirement.
- Annuities provided for dependent widowers of female employees.
- Immediate reduced annuities allowed employees who are involuntarily separated after reaching age 50 with 20 years of service.
- Employee contributions increased to 6½ percent.
- Employing agencies contribute directly to the retirement fund an amount equalling their employees' contributions.

The more attractive annuities provided by the 1956 amendments undoubtedly accelerated the retirement of many employees who were already qualified to retire. It is also fair to assume that many already qualified employees postponed their retirement in anticipation of the enactment of the 1956 amendments.



## Evaluation

From a means for separating superannuated and disabled employees, the civil service retirement system has evolved into a modern staff retirement plan which provides protection to career employees and which is of great value to the Government in attracting and retaining able employees. The system, now in its 38th year, has increased its coverage from 300,000 employees in 1920 to 2,100,000 in 1958. Changes in the civil service retirement system also reflect the progress made in the United States in providing economic security to older citizens, and protection against the loss of family income because of death or disability.

## Extension of Career Service Overseas

In 1956 the Federal civil service became a worldwide career system for the first time. On April 1 of that year the Commission extended the coverage of the civil service system to approximately 20,000 Department of Defense positions held by American citizens in foreign countries and island possessions. Taken together with the 10,000 jobs in Alaska which had been brought under civil service coverage the previous year, this was one of the large, historic extensions of the Federal merit system.

The overseas extension was the culmination of several years of planning, studies, and negotiations between the Commission and the Departments of Army, Navy, and Air Force. Perhaps its most significant single effect was that it made possible, for the first time, the reassignment of employees to and from overseas positions without loss of their standing in the civil service. Lack of an opportunity of this kind often had been cited as one of the biggest obstacles faced by agencies trying to maintain abroad the kind of work force which could get the job done and at the same time make a contribution to American prestige in foreign countries.

In dealing with current incumbents of overseas positions, the Commission provided that they could be granted status in the competitive civil service if they were recommended by their agency, met the job requirements, and had at least 6 months of satisfactory Government service immediately prior to April 1, 1956.

As soon as procedures for conversion of the Defense positions were well under way, the Commission began a survey of nonmilitary agencies to determine whether their overseas positions, fewer by far in number, could also be brought into the competitive civil service.

## Growth of Federal Employee Organizations

The Lloyd-LaFollette Act of 1912 specifically provides the right of Federal employees to join or refrain from joining employee organizations. Although the postal service and skilled trades employees had strong unions even before the administration of Theodore Roosevelt, unionization did not take place among the clerical and professional employees of the Government until 1916. The immediate cause of the formation of a union of general Federal employee membership was an attempt to lengthen the working day by legislation introduced by Representative William P. Borland in February 1916. This legislation was never enacted.

An organization to protest against the Borland measure was formed among a few clerks in the War Department and spread rapidly throughout the departments and agencies. By May, when the National Federation of Federal Employees, sponsored by the American Federation of Labor, was formally organized, it had over 6,000 members. In 1931 the NFFE broke away from the AFL following a dispute, and became an independent organization. The following year the American Federation of Government Employees, affiliated with the AFL, was formed. These two are today the largest general employee organizations.

Federal employee organizations have had a significant effect upon the development of Federal personnel management, and their views are sought by both the legislative and executive branches of Government. The Post Office Department is the most highly organized agency, with approximately 90 percent of its employees belonging to 1 of approximately 13 different postal employee organizations. Craft unions represent the wage board, or blue-collar, workers.

## Board of Examiners Program Today

In January 1958, there were 777 boards of examiners under the jurisdiction of Commission field offices and 57 boards of examiners in Washington, D. C. These 834 boards are located in about 400 different labor markets throughout the United States.

Another indicator of current board activity is the number of examinations announced. During fiscal year 1957, boards of examiners announced a total of 14,784 examinations, as compared with a total of 11,755 examinations announced by Commission offices. Boards, therefore, were responsible for about 56 percent of the total number of announcements issued during the fiscal year.

And boards of examiners processed 1,023,420 applications during fiscal year 1957, as compared with 712,026 applications processed by Commission offices. Boards were therefore responsible for processing



about 69 percent of the total number of applications handled during the fiscal year.

In summary, the Commission's experience with the board of examiners program has fully demonstrated that it is a speedy, efficient, and effective means of staffing the Government service through merit-system methods. There is good reason to believe that, without it, the merit system in the Federal service might have foundered under the weight of the crises it has had to meet during periods of war and postwar adjustments. But there has been much more than this to the program. Its positive results have been a practical demonstration of the real advantages of decentralized administration of a personnel management program.



#### First President's Awards for Distinguished Federal Civilian Service

On January 16, 1958, the 75th birthday of the Civil Service Act, President Eisenhower announced the names of five outstanding Government career employees as the first recipients of the President's Award for Distinguished Federal Civilian Service. This award, the highest honor the United States Government can bestow on career civilian employees, was established under the authority of the Government Employees' Incentive Awards Act, approved September 1, 1954.

The five selected as recipients "for exceptionally meritorious civilian service" were chosen by the President on the basis of recommendations of the Awards Board. Secretary of Labor James P. Mitchell was chair-

THE WHITE HOUSE  
WASHINGTON

January 16, 1958

#### MEMORANDUM FOR THE HEADS OF EXECUTIVE DEPARTMENTS AND AGENCIES

I am announcing today that the first President's Awards for Distinguished Federal Civilian Service are being made to these five career employees:

Loy W. Henderson, Deputy Under Secretary of State for Administration.

Sterling B. Hendricks, Chief Chemist, Agriculture's Pioneering Research Laboratory for Mineral Nutrition of Plants.

John Edgar Hoover, Director, Federal Bureau of Investigation.

Roger W. Jones, Assistant Director for Legislative Reference, Bureau of the Budget.

William B. McLean, Technical Director, U. S. Naval Ordnance Test Station (China Lake, California).

I know you share my great satisfaction in their exceptional contributions to this Nation in the fields of diplomacy, science, law enforcement, and administration. Their accomplishments exemplify the great capabilities of the people in the Federal service.

It is of the utmost importance that we develop and utilize the full ingenuity and skill of every employee. Never has there been a more vital need for new ideas and superior performance in all fields of endeavor. To meet better this need, management must provide a working climate in which employees are encouraged to do their best. Certainly, public recognition of achievements is a valuable asset to maintaining such a climate.

During 1958 we will be celebrating the 75th Anniversary of the Federal merit system of employment. It is particularly gratifying that these first Awards for Distinguished Federal Civilian Service could be announced today, the 75th Anniversary of the signing of the Civil Service Act. Throughout this year we should bring to the attention of all the people the accomplishments of Federal career employees whose dedicated service is contributing significantly to the effective operations of government.

*Dwight D. Eisenhower*



man of this board. Other members were: Dr. Alan T. Waterman, Director of the National Science Foundation; Louis J. Hector, member of the Civil Aeronautics Board; William P. Rogers, the Attorney General; and Percival Brundage, Director of the Budget. Harris Ellsworth, Chairman of the Civil Service Commission, served as executive secretary.

On the preceding page is reproduced the President's memorandum to heads of executive departments and agencies announcing the awards, in which he stated: "It is particularly gratifying that these first Awards for Distinguished Federal Civilian Service could be announced today, the 75th anniversary of the signing of the Civil Service Act."

In the photo on page 114, the recipients, left to right, stand with the President in the order in which listed below:

LOY W. HENDERSON, Deputy Under Secretary of State for Administration. Citation: "Exceptional contributions to the formulation and execution of United States foreign policy." Mr. Henderson, one of four officers of the Foreign Service to be named Career Ambassador, entered Federal service in 1917. He was formerly Ambassador to India and Ambassador to Iran.

STERLING B. HENDRICKS, Chief Chemist of the Department of Agriculture's Research Laboratory for Mineral Nutrition of Plants. Citation: "Extraordinary and versatile achievements through basic research in the Department of Agriculture \* \* \* particularly with reference to nutritional problems relating to soil and plants." Dr. Hendricks served in the Federal Government from 1928 and is a pioneer in studies on the structure of matter and the mineral nutrition of plants.

J. EDGAR HOOVER, Director of the Federal Bureau of Investigation. Citation: "By brilliant leadership has contributed immeasurably to the preservation and strength of the Nation, its Constitution, and its laws." Mr. Hoover entered Federal service in 1917 with the Department of Justice, became Director of the Federal Bureau of Investigation in 1924, and has served continuously in that position since that year.

ROGER W. JONES, Assistant Director for Legislative Reference, Bureau of the Budget. Citation: "Has with exceptional objectivity and constructiveness made outstanding contributions to the development of Federal legislation." Mr. Jones entered Federal service in 1933 and served with the Bureau of the Budget from 1939.

WILLIAM B. MCLEAN, Technical Director of the United States Naval Ordnance Test Station. His conception and development of the Sidewinder Guided Missile System "provided," according to the citation, "an extremely effective, simple, and economical air-to-air missile system of incalculable value to the defense of the Nation." Mr. McLean entered Federal service in 1941 as a research physicist with the National Bureau of Standards.



Plant geneticist.



Space scientist.





Satellite technicians.

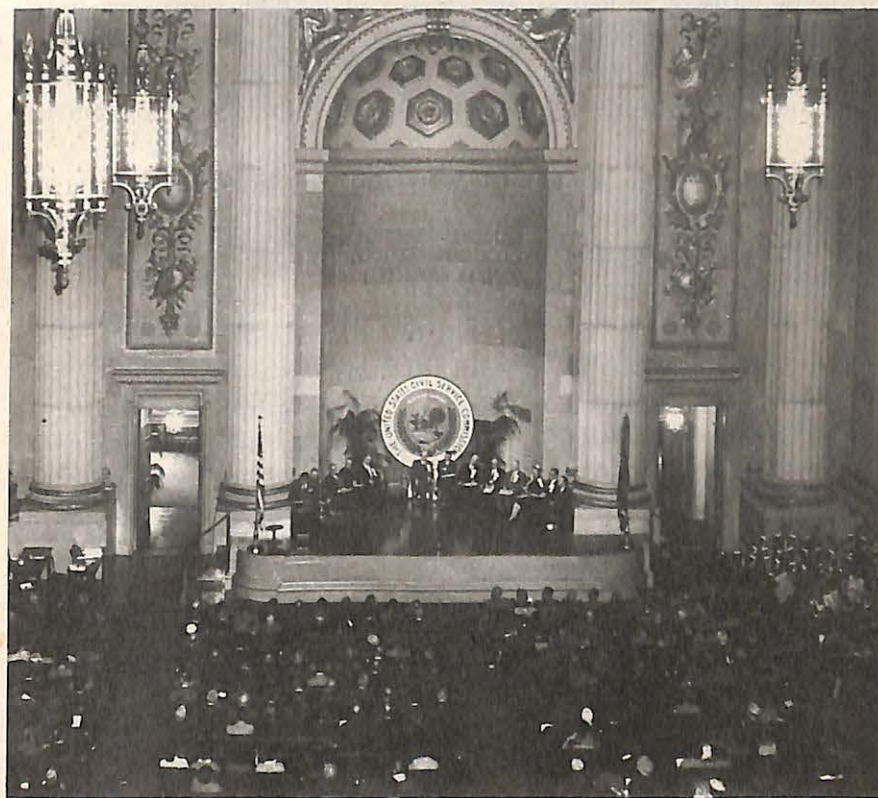
## Part 5 The Present and the Future

### X. THE CHANGING PICTURE

The foregoing material traces the Federal civil service for the 171 years from 1787 to 1958. Now let us consider some of the contrasts between early days and the present, and finally what the future holds for the civil service.

#### Size and Scope of the Federal Civil Service

The Federal work force numbered fewer than 350 in Washington's day. By 1801, the number had risen only to some 3,000. It increased



Ceremonies were held on January 16, 1958, in the Departmental Auditorium in Washington, celebrating the 75th birthday of the merit system. The principal speakers were Secretary of Labor James P. Mitchell and Civil Service Commission Chairman Harris Ellsworth.



to 49,000 in 1861 and to 208,000 at the turn of the century. In June 1914, it stood at 482,700; in June 1917, at 517,800; by 1923, 515,800; by 1933, 572,000. Then the figure shot up rapidly, to 920,000 by 1939 and reached its all-time high of 3,816,000 during World War II. It dropped under 2,000,000 in 1950, rose to 2,604,000 during the Korean war, and in January 1958 stood at 2,334,000.

Almost half of all Government employees today contribute to the national defense as civilian employees of the Departments of the Army, the Navy, the Air Force, and the Office of the Secretary of Defense. Twenty-three percent transport and deliver the mail. Eight percent provide services to war veterans and their families. Thus it will be seen that well over three-quarters of all Government employees work for three departments or agencies: Defense, Post Office, and the Veterans Administration.

The remaining 23 percent of civilian employees handle all of the other services performed by the remaining Government departments and agencies. They range from highly skilled scientists and top executives to unskilled manual laborers.

The majority of all Federal employees—about 82 percent—are distributed throughout the 48 States. Only 9.6 percent are stationed in and near Washington, D. C., 2.9 percent work in the Territories and possessions, and 5.5 percent are stationed in other countries throughout the world.

The increase in the United States' population since 1883 is not the only cause of the growth of the Federal service, as is demonstrated by the fact that nearly three-quarters of the positions in today's service were established within the last 20 to 25 years.

The phenomenal growth of civil service can be traced to three causes other than population growth:

1. Increased Government activities during the great depression of the early thirties. This brought into being the Federal Deposit Insurance Corporation, the Social Security Board, the Federal Housing Administration, the Farm Security Administration (now the Farmers Home Administration), the Rural Electrification Administration, and many other agencies or units of agencies.
2. World War II and the postwar international situation, as a result of which many organizations were established, or expanded, e. g., the Department of Defense, the Selective Service System, the Foreign Operations Administration, the United States Information Agency, the Office of Defense Mobilization, and the Federal Civil Defense Administration.
3. Technological advances, as a result of which the Atomic Energy Commission, the Civil Aeronautics Administration, and the Federal Communications Commission came into existence.

## Coverage of the Competitive Civil Service

Originally only 13,900 positions, or 10 percent, of the positions in the Federal Government were put under the merit system established by the Civil Service Act of 1883. Today over 2,000,000, or 86 percent of the total, are under the merit system. Of the remaining 14 percent, many are under merit systems outside normal civil service procedures but with distinct career services and constructive, forward-looking personnel systems of their own.

Included in the latter group are the approximately 15,000 positions in the Tennessee Valley Authority, the 13,800 in the Federal Bureau of Investigation, the 17,500 in the Foreign Service of the State Department, the 6,800 in the Atomic Energy Commission, and the 3,300 in the commissioned corps of the United States Public Health Service.

In the continental United States, 91 percent of all positions in the Federal service are in the competitive civil service. Outside the United States, in the Territories and possessions of our country, 63 percent are now included in the competitive service. Competitive appointments are held by 30 percent of all Federal employees overseas, and by 70 percent of all United States citizens who work for the Federal Government overseas. (Of the 196,500 overseas positions in the Federal service, 111,000 are filled by foreign nationals.)

## Personnel Concepts and Programs

The changes in the Federal Government's personnel management during the past 75 years are a dramatic illustration of the changing role of the Civil Service Commission and the changing nature of Federal personnel administration.

The Commission, under the Civil Service Act, has a definite enforcement, or "policing," function—designed to insure preservation of the merit system against the inroads of patronage. For many years, however, this function has been increasingly supplemented by a broader and more positive function—that of providing leadership in the development of an effective personnel program for the executive branch, one enabling the Government to do its work well and to treat its employees fairly.

The modern philosophy is clear. An optimum civil service cannot be built merely from (1) initial employment on an open competitive basis, and (2) observance of the principle of "equal pay for equal work." Federal personnel management's "big job" has emerged as that of securing the ablest people available for the public service and maintaining a well-trained, satisfied, resourceful, and productive working force. This has meant enlargement of the personnel function to embrace much more than examining and pay. It has meant working toward:



- Making the public service attractive as a career for graduates of the Nation's schools and colleges.
- Development of in-service training in program orientation, improvement in skills, increasing potential for advancement, and creating a sense of unity and common purpose.
- Development of internal-placement policies and methods to insure that promotion and transfer are based on merit and on the needs of the Government service.
- Development of effective personal counseling.
- Establishment of services and conveniences making life in Government service more satisfying.
- Inauguration of positive incentives: special recognition for superior work in the form of cash and honor awards.
- Improvement of relations with employee organizations, and recognition of the right of employees to organize and to be heard on matters affecting their work status and their work conditions. [The importance of good employee-management relations in the Federal Government was reemphasized in 1958 when Rocco Siciliano, Special Assistant to the President for Personnel Management, directed agencies to evaluate their activities in this significant area and requested the Civil Service Commission to give particular attention to them during agency inspections.]
- Increased emphasis on human relations, i. e., the human aspects of management.
- Creation of an atmosphere in which employees are motivated to work with enthusiasm and are able to derive genuine satisfaction from their jobs.
- Provision of a modern employee-benefits system.
- Providing more recognition for senior career executives. [Early in 1958, the President established a 7-member bipartisan Career Executive Board to improve the selection, development, and use of top-ranking civilian career employees in Government administrative and managerial positions through operation of a Federal career executive service. Frederick J. Lawton, Civil Service Commissioner, was appointed to the Board, which was headed by Arthur S. Flemming.]

The changing role of Federal personnel management has been fully recognized and supported by the Congress, particularly by two standing committees—the House and Senate Committees on Post Office and Civil Service—and their staffs. Progressive, forward-looking legislation enacted by the 83d, 84th, and 85th Congresses is the basis for most of the significant advances of recent years, which have provided Federal employees with a modern, up-to-date personnel system.

## The Future of the Civil Service

The importance of Government in the life of every American citizen was never more apparent than it is today. Citizens look to the Federal Government to meet the challenge of the space age. Government is only as good as the talents of the people who do its work, and this underscores the importance to the American public of the civil service system under which almost nine-tenths of the Federal Government's work force is chosen.

The merit system has produced an exceptional corps of able and enthusiastic workers. In today's highly complex Government establishment, with more than two million civilians working for it in just about every occupation known to civilized man, the public business must be carried on by trained, competent careerists. The Civil Service Commission is working constantly to improve all the various aspects of personnel administration in the Nation's biggest business—the Government of the United States.

Institutions built on a high promise of public service, as the merit system was built, must fulfill that promise—or they will surely be discarded and replaced by something else. If the merit system had failed to function properly in the past 75 years, it would have been cast aside as firmly and permanently as was the spoils system that came before it.

A testimonial to the merit system was contained in a statement by Secretary of the Army Wilber Brucker following the successful launching of America's first earth satellite, Explorer I:

I speak for the entire United States Army when I say we are extremely proud of the military and civilian personnel who worked together to make possible this historic contribution to the scientific progress of our country and the world during this first International Geophysical Year. Major General John B. Medaris and Dr. Wernher von Braun, of the Army Ballistic Missile Agency, Huntsville, Ala., symbolize our common effort. They represent the hundreds of military and civilian scientific, technical, and administrative people of the Army responsible for this achievement. This accomplishment exemplifies to the highest degree the dedication and effective teamwork which characterizes both the military and civilian members of the United States Army. It is particularly significant during the 75th anniversary of the Federal civil service.

The present achievements of our merit-system Federal service are firmly rooted in the 75 years of the system's past, and they forecast an even more exciting and productive future as the United States moves with gathering momentum into a revolutionary scientific age—an age of new frontiers that stagger the imagination and that will place new and critically urgent demands on our Government. How well these demands will be met depends not only on Government employees, up and down the line, but also on the strength of the merit principle as an ideal in the minds and hearts of men.



Public opinion brought about the establishment of the civil service system 75 years ago. This system, which has been largely responsible for the high quality of the Government work force in the United States today, needs public interest, public knowledge, and public support. It is hoped that the Diamond Anniversary Year of the Federal civil service will spark a real rebirth of citizen interest in the personnel problems of the Government.

### Diamond Anniversary Awards

One of the significant trends of recent years in personnel administration has been the development of closer working relationships between the Civil Service Commission and a variety of nongovernmental organizations interested in the maintenance of a healthy merit system. Prior to adopting new programs and proposals, the Commission has increasingly sought advance consultation with such interested groups as Federal employee unions and veterans organizations. Professional societies concerned with personnel administration likewise have contributed to the development of the Government's personnel system through the interchange of views and experience they make possible. And, since the health of the merit system can be maintained only through an informed public opinion, the cooperation of newspapers and radio and television stations has been essential.

In order to acknowledge, appropriately, its indebtedness to these groups, the Commission decided late in 1957 to establish the Diamond Anniversary Award, a plaque signed by the three Civil Service Commissioners, to be awarded to selected national organizations in recognition of outstanding cooperation in support of the merit system of Federal employment. Organizations designated by the Commission for award of the plaque were the following: The National Civil Service League, the Junior Chamber of Commerce (for its sponsorship in Washington, D. C., of the Arthur S. Flemming Awards program), the Society for Personnel Administration, the Public Personnel Association, the American Society for Public Administration, the AFL-CIO Government Employees Council, the American Federation of Government Employees, the National Federation of Federal Employees, the American Legion, the Veterans of Foreign Wars, the Disabled American Veterans, the AMVETS, the American Society of Newspaper Editors, and the National Association of Broadcasters.

## Part 6 Special Topics

### XI. THEODORE ROOSEVELT

Theodore Roosevelt probably contributed more to the development and extension of civil service than any other person in the history of the United States. This fact tends to be lost sight of in the spotlight played upon Theodore Roosevelt the President, the Rough Rider, the conservationist, the explorer.

His interest in the merit system displayed itself early in his career. A year and a half after his graduation from Harvard, he sent the following handwritten letter to the New York Civil Service Reform Association:



Mrs. Alice Roosevelt Longworth, or "Princess Alice," as she was known during the Presidential administration of her father, Theodore Roosevelt, is shown here with Chairman Harris Ellsworth of the United States Civil Service Commission, a photograph of Commissioner Theodore Roosevelt of the United States Civil Service Commission (1889-95) between them. Mrs. Longworth and Mr. Ellsworth are standing by the desk which, used by Roosevelt during his term as a Commissioner, is on display in the second-floor rotunda of the Civil Service Commission Building, 8th and F Streets, Washington, D. C. The picture was taken following the memorial tribute to Mrs. Longworth's father held on May 13, 1958, the 69th anniversary of his appointment to the Commission. The year 1958, Diamond Anniversary of the Civil Service Act, is also the centenary of Theodore Roosevelt's birth.



Dec. 31st, 1881

DEAR SIR:

It will give me great pleasure to join the Civil Service Reform Assn. If I am elected please notify me and I will at once pay my dues. I am heartily in accord with any movement tending toward the improvement of the "spoils" system—or, I should say, to its destruction.

Very sincerely yours,

Theodore Roosevelt

The preceding fall Roosevelt had been elected a member of the lower house of the New York Legislature, an office to which he was twice reelected. As an assemblyman, he worked hard for passage of the New York Civil Service Act of May 4, 1883—the first to be adopted by a State. He was also largely responsible for another law passed in 1884 which required cities in New York to come under the State civil service law.

### Became Commissioner in 1889

Leaving the New York Legislature in 1884, Roosevelt held no office for the next few years, although he remained politically active. Then in 1889 he accepted President Harrison's offer of the position of United States Civil Service Commissioner.

This position was considered relatively undesirable. It was low-salaried and its duties were largely of a routine character. The jurisdiction of the Commission was over only about 28,000 subordinate positions at that time, and the Commission's activities were under frequent attack by some Congressmen and other advocates of spoils.

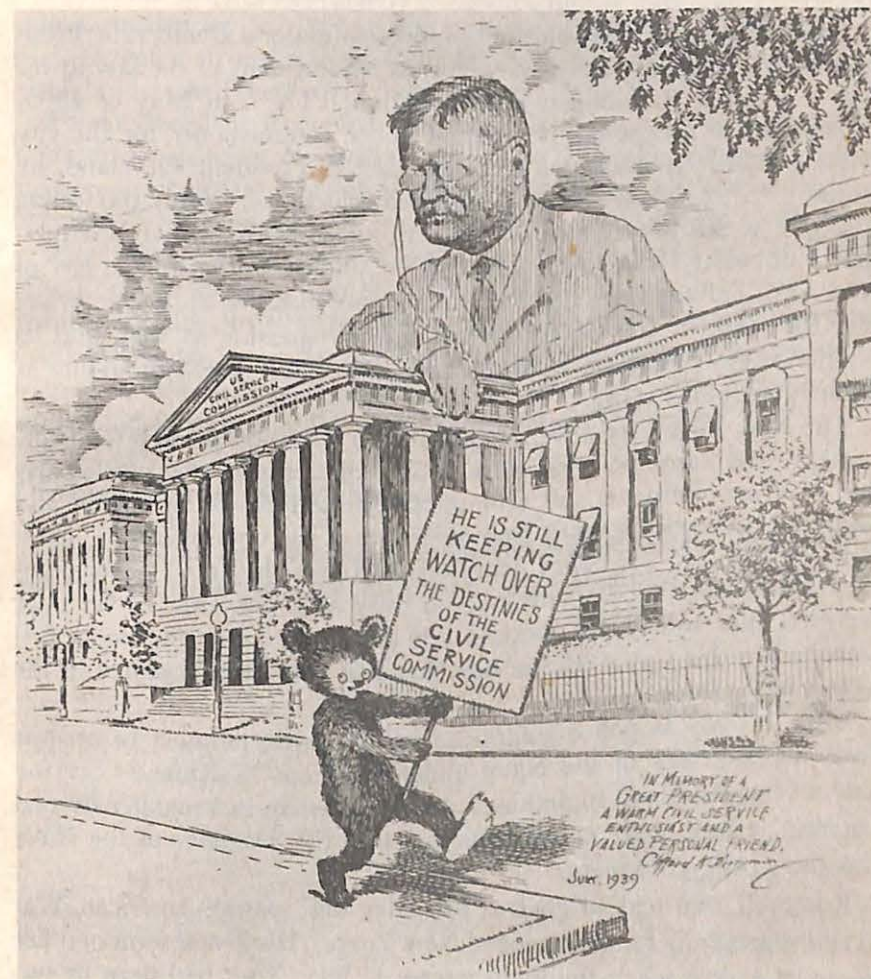
Nevertheless, Roosevelt took the position and served in it for 6 years. According to William Dudley Foulke (a prominent figure in the reform movement and later a Civil Service Commissioner under Roosevelt), when Roosevelt took office the Commissioners began to execute the law as it had never been executed before.

### Main Purpose: Elimination of Spoils

One of his principal activities throughout his tenure as Commissioner was to investigate personally charges of the levying of political assessments on classified employees, and illegal appointments and dismissals, principally in post offices. Although he believed firmly in the merit system as a means of insuring that Government work be done efficiently, and as a means of providing employment opportunities to all Americans regardless of politics, religion, or social class, he saw as its main purpose the elimination of the spoils system, which he considered the most potent of the forces for the degradation of politics.

While doing battle with the spoilsmen, Roosevelt found time to make many civil service practices more practical and workable. For example, he insisted on practical examinations for entry into the public service—examinations that would test ability to perform the actual duties of the job to be filled. He also, through publicity, was able to attract applications from various parts of the country so that appointments in Washington were more nearly apportioned in a fair way among residents of the different States and Territories.

During the 1892 Presidential campaign, many charges were made that political assessments were being levied on classified employees in violation of the law. For the first time, the Civil Service Commission actively interfered in the midst of a Presidential campaign to prevent



The late Clifford K. Berryman, noted cartoonist of the *Washington Star*, drew this cartoon in 1939 for a Civil Service Commission exhibition of Rooseveltiana held during the 20th anniversary year of Roosevelt's death.



collection of these assessments, and later reported that it believed this action had a most beneficial effect and that employees felt, as they had never felt before, that they were protected and did not need to contribute unless they chose to do so.

### **Served Under Presidents of Both Parties**

As a result of the 1892 elections, Cleveland succeeded Harrison as President. As March 4, 1893, the date of the succession drew near, Roosevelt expected to retire from office as Civil Service Commissioner. However, he continued in this office for another 2 years. According to Foulke, he was continued because Cleveland was well satisfied with Roosevelt's impartial administration of civil service law.

Roosevelt's last 2 years on the Commission under a Democratic President were marked by the same vigorous enforcement of the law as his first 4 under a Republican administration. Then, in May of 1895, he resigned to accept the position of police commissioner for the city of New York. In his letter of resignation to President Cleveland, he wrote: "\* \* \* I leave with the greatest reluctance. Only the feeling that just at this time I have no right to refuse Mayor Strong's request that I do what I can to help him in the administration of the city of New York induces me to go. It is a genuine pleasure to be able to say that the work of the Commission is now progressing so well, and its position is established on so firm a basis, that I feel there is no doubt as to the future of the cause."

The New York City government in 1895 was shot through with corruption, and administration of the police department was particularly lax, with appointments and promotions on the force being bought and sold, and bribes being taken from members of the underworld.

In cleaning up the police department, Roosevelt turned to the competitive examination for entrance on duty as a policeman. He later reported that the system worked admirably, and that the policemen recruited in this way were the best that had ever been obtained in the history of the force.

After 2 years as police commissioner, Roosevelt resigned to become Assistant Secretary of the Navy under President McKinley. Serving only a year, Roosevelt maintained the merit system in a manner beyond criticism, a task made easy by the fact that the Secretary of the Navy was also a believer in merit.

Roosevelt returned to civilian life after the Spanish-American War to run successfully for Governor of New York. His 2-year term of office began at a time when the merit system in New York had been undermined. "Merit and fitness" were the rule in appointments, but merit was declared by law to be one thing and fitness another. Under this

curious interpretation, passing an examination provided 50 percent of a rating, and the other 50 percent was determined by a process which enabled the politicians to get in the men they wanted.

Roosevelt called upon the legislature to restore the earlier law, which they did, and during the remainder of his term of office the merit system was enforced.

### **President From 1901 to 1909**

Roosevelt's short term as Vice President ended upon the assassination of President McKinley. On September 14, 1901, he became President, remaining in that office until March 3, 1909.

From the merit system point of view, the distinction of Roosevelt's administration lay in vigorous enforcement of existing civil service law. He appointed strong men as Civil Service Commissioners, encouraged them, and backed them up in their actions.

Under President Roosevelt, the competitive service was extended to additional categories of positions, in all by 116,000 positions. When he became President, only 46 percent of the service was competitive; at the end of his terms, it had been increased to 66 percent of the total.

The rules were strengthened to stop leaks and irregular appointments. The Commission was given power to withhold salaries from persons appointed illegally, to stop temporary appointments when eligibles were available, to deny transfers to persons who had not passed examinations, to prevent the reinstatement of persons who had been dismissed for cause, and to stop promotions through political influence.

### **Lifelong Interest in Civil Service**

After leaving the Presidency, Roosevelt was naturally less active in respect to civil service, but his interest in it continued throughout his life.



## XII. WOMEN IN THE FEDERAL SERVICE

Today, women are employed far and wide in the United States civil service: At typewriters, filing cabinets, microscopes, test tubes, drawing boards, hospital bedsides—running the full gamut, in fact, from card-punch operator to director of a bureau engaged in professional and technical work. Practically everywhere that men are at work, women are at their side, working with them, for them, and, not uniquely, sometimes supervising them. As someone has said: "How the old order changeth!"

What was the "old order"?

### Controversial Experiment

In 1868, the Treasury Department was in the midst of a controversial experiment, the employment of "ladies." (The word "woman" had not yet achieved respectability.) Not all officials of that Department were sympathetic to the idea. The tax collector at Kalamazoo declared: "I do not think that the service of females could be made efficient in the collecting department or *brought within the range of propriety.*" A New York tax assessor joined in: "If the nerves and firmness of a man can rarely be found to withstand the wily exactions of dishonest taxpayers, I doubt the wisdom of filling their places with females."

The ladies were not without support, however. The assessor at Manchester, N. H., wrote: "Female clerks are more attentive, diligent, and efficient than males, and make better clerks. I intend very soon to have none but female clerks in my office."

### The First: Miss Goddard, 1773

It goes without question that women in the Federal service were a novelty in 1868. However, there were isolated cases as far back as 1773. Miss Mary K. Goddard, postmaster at Baltimore, Md., had been holding that office for 14 years when the Constitution was signed in 1787. Mrs. Elizabeth Cresswell was appointed postmaster at Charlestown, Md., in 1786. These two were probably the first women ever employed by the Federal Government.

Other women worked for the postal service in the early years of the Nation. Mrs. Rebecca Morton was postmaster at Warwick, Md., from 1798 to 1799, and Mrs. Ann Blount was post rider between Edenton and Indiantown, N. C., from 1794 to 1796. Mrs. Blount may not have actually performed the duties of post rider but may have contracted for a substitute to do her work—a practice not uncommon in the early days of civil service. These few women were exceptions; as a rule, women in

both Government and industry did not receive titles, responsibility, or man-sized salaries for many years to come.

### "Revolt of the Women"

In 1848, the "Revolt of the Women" got off to a noisy start. In that year, the first potful of feminine indignation boiled over at the historic first "Woman's Rights" convention at Seneca Falls, N. Y. Meeting in the Wesleyan Chapel, the ladies told the somewhat deaf world about their social, civil, religious, and political grievances. Drafting a woman's "Declaration of Independence," they declared that "woman is man's equal," that women of this country "ought to be better enlightened," that the double standard (to use modern jargon) should be abolished, and that women should be given the right to vote.

The Seneca Falls revolt against the "children, church, and kitchen" role of women caught on fast, and similar soprano cries joined the chorus across the land. The attitude of the "indulgent" male generally was: "Let 'em yell. We'll *still* rule the roost and run the world."



This 1918 photograph shows dormitories for women Government employees between Union Station and the Capitol.



### Three Clerk-Copyists

But by 1854 there were already three women among the clerk-copyists in the Patent Office in Washington. They were Clara Barton (later founder of the American Red Cross), a Mrs. Thompson, and a Mrs. Cook. Concerning the last two, the following testimony was given at a congressional investigation:-

These ladies, employed as temporary clerks, copied the papers of the office at their respective places of residence. \* \* \* Mrs. Cook's work is done by another person at half price. \* \* \* Mrs. Cook and Mrs. Thompson were appointed without reference to their political opinions or sympathies and simply from their destitute and necessitous situation. \* \* \*

Clara Barton held her Government position throughout the Civil War, paying for a substitute to perform her Patent Office duties while she served as nurse at the battlefield. However, the Patent Office salary was the only one she drew from the Government during this period.

In 1855, the Secretary of the Interior, addressing a Congressman who had written to intercede for Clara Barton, who was about to be dismissed, wrote:

There is every disposition on my part to do anything for the lady in question, except to retain her, or any of the other females at work in the rooms of the Patent Office. I have no objection to the employment of females in the performance of such duties as they are competent to discharge, but there is such obvious impropriety in the mixing of the sexes within the walls of a public office, that I determined to arrest the practice. If the Patent Office can find any work for Miss Barton, out of the office, I have no objection.

Miss Barton's employment was not terminated, but the records do not show whether she continued working in the Patent Office Building or took the work home.

### First Statutory Recognition

The first statutory recognition of the employment of women by the Federal Government came just prior to the Treasury Department's 1868 experiment. A law of March 14, 1864, established a maximum salary of \$600 a year for women clerks. At this same time, male clerks received from \$1,200 to \$1,800 a year. Only the Division of Printing of the Treasury claimed to subscribe to the principle of "equal pay for equal work." The chief of this division, asked by Congress whether there were any women in his office, answered:

There are; compensation half that of males, but they do not perform same class of work. But where service is same, pay is equal.

Congress asked the same question of the Librarian of Congress. His reply, though generally favorable to the employment of women, was col-

ored by the widespread belief that women workers could hardly be worth as much, salarywise, as men:

No females as yet employed. Under competitive tests, I think half the number here employed might usefully be women, and that the resulting economy to the Government would be great. For example, I know of educated and industrious women who could do all that assistant librarians receiving \$1,200 to \$1,800 now do, and who would think themselves well paid at \$1,000 a year.

### Equal Pay Permitted

Several years later, Congress passed a law which permitted the heads of Government departments to pay women the same salary as men, provided the work was the same. The law, not being mandatory, was often ignored and women continued to be second-class workers. The few who were successful in getting on the public rolls generally were hired because of one of two reasons, or both:

- The Government could save money by paying them less than men.
- They were worthy charity cases: Ladies without means of support, widows with children, or maiden ladies without living fathers or brothers to support them.

Against this background, it is easy to understand the significance of the Treasury experiment. In 1862, Gen. Francis E. Spinner, Treasurer of the United States, had hired one Jennie Douglas, Treasury's first woman employee, to cut and trim paper. This work, a hand operation, had previously been done entirely by men. General Spinner was so pleased with his experiment that he remarked that the first day Miss Douglas spent on the job "settled the matter in her behalf and in woman's favor." He subsequently appointed many other women to various positions in the Treasury. In later years, the women of the Treasury erected a statue of him which is now in Myer Park, Herkimer, N. Y. On the pedestal is a quotation which he made:

The fact that I was instrumental in introducing women to employment in the offices of Government gives me more real satisfaction than all the other deeds of my life.

### Julia and Florabelle

It is impossible to take a census of women in Government in those early years. Personnel and payroll records were not saved; but there is enough evidence to show that many officials who hired women were ashamed of it. A few remaining records show, for example, the employment of a J. T. Smith or an F. Graham. Further digging discloses that J. T. was Julia T. and that F. Graham was not Frank or Festus but Florabelle.



## Government Versus Industry

How were Government women's counterparts faring in industry? Somewhat better. By the mid-19th century, the industrial revolution had advanced and solidified in the United States to the point where industry's manpower needs were far greater and more diverse than Government's. Women, particularly immigrants, were employed in the less attractive occupations, particularly domestic work. The ladies were also staking a claim as school teachers, seamstresses, agricultural workers, textile workers, and nurses. The mass-producing factory had not yet emerged, but many manufacturing operations were "farmed out" to women who could stay at home and turn out items such as dolls, costume jewelry, and garments.

The Civil War brought additional women into the schoolrooms to replace men, caused numbers of them to undertake nursing duties, and gathered groups of them together in "sewing rooms" to manufacture clothing and other articles required for military personnel. The war also caused Government appointing officers to be somewhat wary of draft eligibles. Consequently, more women were successful in securing appointments.

## Under Merit System Women Encouraged To Compete

The Civil Service Act of 1883 established a true merit system in the Federal Government. Under the new system, women were permitted, even encouraged, to compete in many civil service examinations on the same basis as men. Mary F. Hoyt of Connecticut, whom the Treasury appointed on September 5, 1883, held the distinction of being the first woman appointed under the Civil Service Act (see p. 59). By this time, a new invention, the typewriter, had been on the market some 10 years and was in fairly common use in Government departments. This revolutionary device slowly but surely brought women into their own in Government service. Women quickly caught on that they were well suited for typing and stenographic training. Typing and shorthand schools sprang up overnight. Classrooms were filled, and Government appointing officials soon learned that women were at least the equal of men in both these skills.

The census of 1870 listed only seven women stenographers and no typists (the typewriter was not yet on the market), but by 1894 women were receiving about 14 percent of Government appointments to typist positions; in 1904, 21 percent; in 1914, 25 percent.

Prior to World War I, women had begun to branch out into other fields in the Federal service, but their numbers in occupations outside

typing and stenography were relatively few. However, World War I gave them their greatest opportunity to show what they could do.

## 1918: "They Are Everywhere"

The Civil Service Commission's annual report of 1918 stated:

The most notable change in Government personnel brought about by the war is in the employment of women. They are everywhere, and offices which formerly insisted on men employees are now acceding to the Commission's recommendation that their examinations be open to women applicants.

Many of the examinations for technical and scientific positions which in past years have been limited to men may now be taken by women; and the departments are appointing women to these positions.

The gains of women in the clerical field were consolidated and publicized by the war. In almost no work of this type was their ability again questioned. But in the higher paid and more desirable occupations, the war had given women few real or permanent footholds.

In September 1919, the Women's Bureau of the Labor Department began a survey of the Federal service to determine the status of women. The Bureau reported that during the preceding 6 months, women had been excluded from 60 percent of all examinations announced, and from 64 percent of all examinations in the professional and scientific service. The old and deeply entrenched practice of limiting examinations and registers to one sex worked a hardship on the departments, on the Civil Service Commission, and on would-be women employees of the Government. In November 1919, the Commission prescribed the following regulation, which is still in force:

Both men and women, if qualified, may enter all examinations, but appointing officers have the legal right to specify the sex desired in requesting certification of eligibles.

Further evidence of the Commission's favorable attitude toward women is shown by its encouraging them to enter examinations for scientific and professional positions. In January 1921, the Commission widely circularized a letter which read, in part:

The purpose of this communication is to suggest the advisability of recommending to women students in preparatory schools and in colleges the advantage of pursuing technical and scientific courses, rather than the purely academic courses. The Commission believes that the changing conditions [in the labor market] are not peculiar to the Government service, but are found in private employ as well; and that the war experience of employers generally has had the effect of removing in considerable measure any prejudice which may have existed against the employment of women for technical and scientific work.





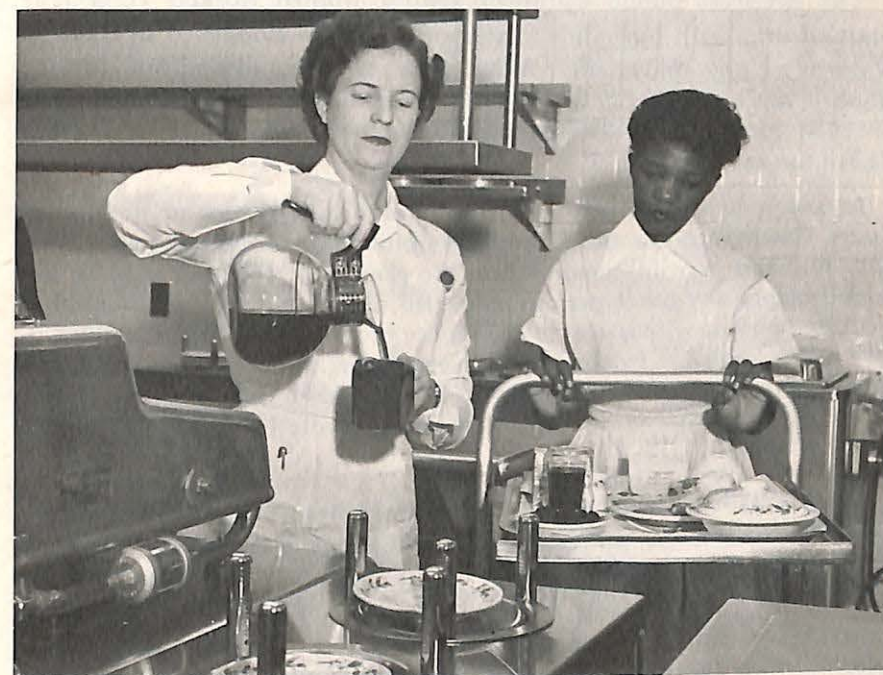
Clerk Stenographer.



Mycologist.



Visiting nurse.



Dietitian and hospital aide.



The Commission correctly observed that while women in industry were serving the Nation in war, they were demonstrating to themselves, to industry, and to the public the extent to which they were capable of serving in wider fields of industrial responsibility in time of peace. Although women were already accepted in many industries prior to World War I, the war emergency forced the experiment of woman labor in many industries where she had been excluded or had made little headway. Women made great strides in the labor market during these years.

### Equal Pay Becomes Mandatory

The Classification Act of 1923 (see page 74) made mandatory the exercise of the former permissive power to pay equal wages for equal work, regardless of sex.

This new principle of "equal pay for equal work" knocked out the longstanding philosophy that women were valuable chiefly for their low wage scale. Saving money for the Government by displacing men with equally qualified but lower-paid women was a practice unfair to both sexes and harmful to the wage standards of both. The Classification Act, a genuine improvement in many areas of personnel administration, facilitated the advance of women by reason of their ability and not because they constituted a cheaper labor commodity than men.

The strongest public sentiment against women workers (especially married ones with husbands to support them) is evidenced in times of widespread unemployment. When jobs are easier to find and competition is not so great, such antagonism diminishes. The Economy Act of 1932 (see p. 77) discriminated against married women. Section 213 of the act read:

In any reduction of personnel in any branch of service of the United States Government or the District of Columbia, married persons (living with husband or wife) employed in the class to be reduced, shall be dismissed before any other persons employed in such classes are dismissed, if such husband or wife is also in the service of the United States or the District of Columbia. In the appointment of persons to the classified civil service, preference shall be given to persons other than married persons living with husband or wife, such husband or wife being in the [Government] service.

Section 213 met with strong opposition from groups devoted to women's interests, such as women's bar associations and the League of Women Voters. They feared that the discrimination against married women might be the entering wedge in a movement to drive all women from gainful employment, as had been done in certain European countries. In the summer of 1937, 5 years after passage of the act, Congress

repealed section 213, which was by then almost the last Economy Act provision still in force.

By 1940, approximately one-fourth of all workers in the United States were women. Nine out of every ten persons working as stenographers, typists, secretaries, and telephone operators were women. Eight out of every ten office-machine operators were women.

### Enormous Opportunities in World War II

Even with these substantial increases, women were given enormous opportunities during World War II. Not only did their importance as white-collar workers increase, but the vital role they played in coveralls was an important contribution to Allied victory. During the 24 months from June 1941 to June 1943, the number of women in Government increased more than 3½ times. During 1944 and 1945, 1 million, or around 37 percent of all Federal workers, were women.

During the peacetime years, 1946-50, the number of women in the Federal service dropped to less than a half a million. The hostilities in Korea brought another moderate increase in women's employment in Government, but their number dropped to about 525,000 in 1954 and 1955. The ratio of 1 woman to 3 men has continued approximately unchanged since 1947.

Who is today's "Woman in Government Service"? She is—

- a nurse in the VA hospital in Seattle.
- the lady postmaster whose office is serviced by muleback at Supai, Ariz., a small community in the bottom of the Grand Canyon.
- a public affairs assistant with the United States Information Service in Bangkok, Thailand.
- a bureau chief in the Nation's Capital.
- a record searcher in the Federal Records Center in St. Louis.
- a mathematician at Langley Field, Va.
- a secretary in the Pentagon.
- a telephone operator at Fort Bragg, N. C.
- a public health nurse who makes her rounds by dog sled at Kotzebue, Alaska.
- an engineering draftsman with United States Army engineers in Cincinnati.
- a supervisory clerk with the Forest Service in Denver.
- a social worker with the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare in Chicago.
- a typist at the naval shipyard at Portsmouth, N. H.
- a clerk with the Internal Revenue Service in San Francisco.



a bacteriologist at the Plum Island Animal Disease Eradication Laboratory on Long Island, N. Y.

a communications assistant with the Foreign Service in Paris.

She is all this, and more. She may be either single or married. She is employed in nearly four-fifths of all occupations in the Federal Government, and earns from \$3,000 to \$16,000 a year. Not considering herself different as an employee, she expects no favors or special treatment on the job.

### **Today: Indispensable**

Looking back over the years, women in Government realize they have come a long way in public life: they have proven conclusively that they are indispensable to the intricate operations of modern Government.

### **XIII. FAMOUS NAMES: A FOOTNOTE**

Quite an imposing number of people who later became famous, or were already famous, worked for our Federal Government at some period in their lives. In reading the partial list below, it should be borne in mind that not many of them were merit-system employees, owing in some cases to the pre-1883 period of their employment, in others to the fact that they held "excepted" jobs; however, every one of the following worked, as indicated, for the United States Government:

Washington Irving, the author, was an attaché at the United States Embassy in Madrid from 1826 to 1828; secretary of the United States Legation in London, 1829-32; and United States Minister to Spain, 1842-46.

Abraham Lincoln was postmaster in the town of New Salem, Ill., from 1833 to 1836.

Nathaniel Hawthorne, the author, was a weigher in the Boston Customhouse, 1839-41, Surveyor of the Port of Salem, Mass., 1845-49, and United States consul in Liverpool, England, 1853-58.

James McNeill Whistler, the artist, worked as a draftsman in the Coast Survey office in Washington, 1854-55.

Clara Barton, founder of the American Red Cross, was a clerk in the United States Patent Office, Washington, 1854-61.

John Burroughs, the naturalist, worked for 10 years, beginning in 1863, as a clerk in the Treasury Department, Washington.

Walt Whitman, the poet, worked as a clerk in the Department of the Interior, Washington, in 1865, later as a clerk in the Attorney General's office.

Chester A. Arthur, whose signature as President in 1883 made the Civil Service Act law, was, from 1871 to 1877, Collector of the Port of New York.

Alexander Graham Bell, the inventor of the telephone, worked in 1890 as a special agent of the Census Bureau.

Knute Rockne, the football coach, was a clerk in the Chicago post office from 1907 to 1910.

Harry S. Truman was appointed postmaster of the town of Grandview, Mo., in 1914.

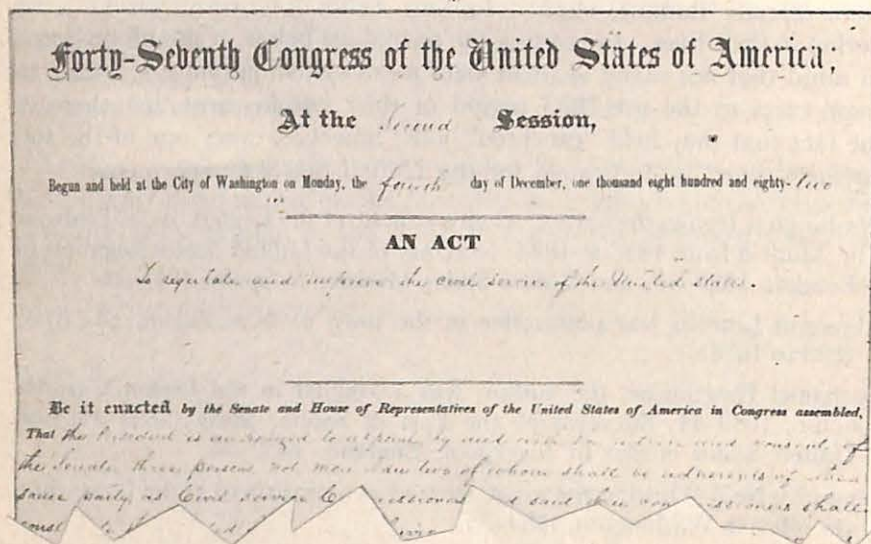
James Thurber, the humorist, was a code clerk in the State Department in Washington and in the United States Embassy in Paris, 1918-20.

Charles A. Lindbergh, the aviator, was appointed technical adviser to the Aeronautics Division of the Department of Commerce in January 1929.



# Appendix I Text of the Civil Service Act

[As originally passed]



## FORTY-SEVENTH CONGRESS OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA;

AT THE SECOND SESSION,

Began and held at the City of Washington on Monday, the fourth day of December, one thousand eight hundred and eighty-two

AN ACT To regulate and improve the civil service of the United States

Be it enacted by the Senate and House of Representatives of the United States of America in Congress assembled, That the President is authorized to appoint, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, three persons, not more than two of whom shall be adherents of the same party, as Civil Service Commissioners, and said three commissioners shall constitute the United States Civil Service Commission. Said commissioners shall hold no other official place under the United States.

The President may remove any commissioner; and any vacancy in the position of commissioner shall be so filled by the President, by and with the advice and consent of the Senate, as to conform to said conditions for the first selection of commissioners.

The commissioners shall each receive a salary of three thousand five hundred dollars a year. And each of said commissioners shall be paid his

necessary traveling expenses incurred in the discharge of his duty as a commissioner.

SEC. 2. That it shall be the duty of said commissioners:

FIRST. To aid the President, as he may request, in preparing suitable rules for carrying this act into effect, and when said rules shall have been promulgated it shall be the duty of all officers of the United States in the departments and offices to which any such rules may relate to aid, in all proper ways, in carrying said rules, and any modifications thereof, into effect.

SECOND. And, among other things, said rules shall provide and declare, as nearly as the conditions of good administration will warrant, as follows:

First, for open, competitive examinations for testing the fitness of applicants for the public service now classified or to be classified hereunder. Such examinations shall be practical in their character, and so far as may be shall relate to those matters which will fairly test the relative capacity and fitness of the persons examined to discharge the duties of the service into which they seek to be appointed.

Second, that all the offices, places, and employments so arranged or to be arranged in classes shall be filled by selections according to grade from among those graded highest as the results of such competitive examinations.

Third, appointments to the public service aforesaid in the departments at Washington shall be apportioned among the several States and Territories and the District of Columbia upon the basis of population as ascertained at the last preceding census. Every application for an examination shall contain, among other things, a statement, under oath, setting forth his or her actual bona fide residence at the time of making the application, as well as how long he or she has been a resident of such place.

Fourth, that there shall be a period of probation before any absolute appointment or employment aforesaid.

Fifth, that no person in the public service is for that reason under any obligations to contribute to any political fund, or to render any political service, and that he will not be removed or otherwise prejudiced for refusing to do so.

Sixth, that no person in said service has any right to use his official authority or influence to coerce the political action of any person or body.

Seventh, there shall be non-competitive examinations in all proper cases before the commission, when competent persons do not compete, after notice has been given of the existence of the vacancy, under such rules as may be prescribed by the commissioners as to the manner of giving notice.

Eighth, that notice shall be given in writing by the appointing power to said commission of the persons selected for appointment or employment from among those who have been examined, of the place of residence of such persons, of the rejection of any such persons after probation, of transfers, resignations, and removals, and of the date thereof, and a record of the same shall be kept by said commission.

And any necessary exceptions from said eight fundamental provisions of the rules shall be set forth in connection with such rules, and the reasons therefor shall be stated in the annual reports of the commission.



THIRD. Said commission shall, subject to the rules that may be made by the President, make regulations for, and have control of, such examinations, and, through its members or the examiners, it shall supervise and preserve the records of the same; and said commission shall keep minutes of its own proceedings.

FOURTH. Said commission may make investigations concerning the facts, and may report upon all matters touching the enforcement and effects of said rules and regulations, and concerning the action of any examiner or board of examiners hereinafter provided for, and its own subordinates, and those in the public service, in respect to the execution of this act.

FIFTH. Said commission shall make an annual report to the President for transmission to Congress, showing its own action, the rules and regulations and the exceptions thereto in force, the practical effects thereof, and any suggestions it may approve for the more effectual accomplishment of the purposes of this act.

SEC. 3. That said commission is authorized to employ a chief examiner, a part of whose duty it shall be, under its direction, to act with the examining boards, so far as practicable, whether at Washington or elsewhere, and to secure accuracy, uniformity, and justice in all their proceedings, which shall be at all times open to him. The chief examiner shall be entitled to receive a salary at the rate of three thousand dollars a year, and he shall be paid his necessary traveling expenses incurred in the discharge of his duty. The commission shall have a secretary, to be appointed by the President, who shall receive a salary of one thousand six hundred dollars per annum. It may, when necessary, employ a stenographer, and a messenger, who shall be paid, when employed, the former at the rate of one thousand six hundred dollars a year, and the latter at the rate of six hundred dollars a year. The commission shall, at Washington, and in one or more places in each State and Territory where examinations are to take place, designate and select a suitable number of persons, not less than three, in the official service of the United States, residing in said State or Territory, after consulting the head of the department or office in which such persons serve, to be members of boards of examiners, and may at any time substitute any other person in said service living in such State or Territory in the place of any one so selected. Such boards of examiners shall be so located as to make it reasonably convenient and inexpensive for applicants to attend before them; and where there are persons to be examined in any State or Territory, examinations shall be held therein at least twice in each year. It shall be the duty of the collector, postmaster, and other officers of the United States, at any place outside of the District of Columbia where examinations are directed by the President or by said board to be held, to allow the reasonable use of the public buildings for holding such examinations, and in all proper ways to facilitate the same.

SEC. 4. That it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Interior to cause suitable and convenient rooms and accommodations to be assigned or pro-

vided, and to be furnished, heated, and lighted, at the city of Washington, for carrying on the work of said commission and said examinations, and to cause the necessary stationery and other articles to be supplied, and the necessary printing to be done for said commission.

SEC. 5. That any said commissioner, examiner, copyist, or messenger, or any person in the public service who shall willfully and corruptly, by himself or in co-operation with one or more other persons, defeat, deceive, or obstruct any person in respect of his or her right of examination according to any such rules or regulations, or who shall willfully, corruptly, and falsely mark, grade, estimate, or report upon the examination or proper standing of any person examined hereunder, or aid in so doing, or who shall willfully and corruptly make any false representations concerning the same or concerning the person examined, or who shall willfully and corruptly furnish to any person any special or secret information for the purpose of either improving or injuring the prospects or chances of any person so examined, or to be examined, being appointed, employed, or promoted, shall for each such offense be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and upon conviction thereof, shall be punished by a fine of not less than one hundred dollars, nor more than one thousand dollars, or by imprisonment not less than ten days, nor more than one year, or by both such fine and imprisonment.

SEC. 6. That within sixty days after the passage of this act it shall be the duty of the Secretary of the Treasury, in as near conformity as may be to the classification of certain clerks now existing under the one hundred and sixty-third section of the Revised Statutes, to arrange in classes the several clerks and persons employed by the collector, naval officer, surveyor, and appraisers, or either of them, or being in the public service, at their respective offices in each customs district where the whole number of said clerks and persons shall be all together as many as fifty. And thereafter, from time to time, on the direction of the President, said Secretary shall make the like classification or arrangement of clerks and persons so employed, in connection with any said office or offices, in any other customs district. And, upon like request, and for the purposes of this act, said Secretary shall arrange in one or more of said classes, or of existing classes, any other clerks, agents, or persons employed under his department in any said district not now classified; and every such arrangement and classification upon being made shall be reported to the President.

Second. Within said sixty days it shall be the duty of the Postmaster-General, in general conformity to said one hundred and sixty-third section, to separately arrange in classes the several clerks and persons employed, or in the public service, at each post-office, or under any postmaster of the United States, where the whole number of said clerks and persons shall together amount to as many as fifty. And thereafter, from time to time, on the direction of the President, it shall be the duty of the Postmaster-General to arrange in like classes the clerks and persons so employed in the postal service in connection with any other post-office; and every such arrangement and classification upon being made shall be reported to the President.



Third. That from time to time said Secretary, the Postmaster-General and each of the heads of departments mentioned in the one hundred and fifty-eighth section of the Revised Statutes, and each head of an office, shall, on the direction of the President, and for facilitating the execution of this act, respectively revise any then existing classification or arrangement of those in their respective departments and offices, and shall, for the purposes of the examination herein provided for, include in one or more of such classes, so far as practicable, subordinate places, clerks, and officers in the public service pertaining to their respective departments not before classified for examination.

SEC. 7. That after the expiration of six months from the passage of this act no officer or clerk shall be appointed, and no person shall be employed to enter or be promoted in either of the said classes now existing, or that may be arranged hereunder pursuant to said rules, until he has passed an examination, or is shown to be specially exempted from such examination in conformity herewith. But nothing herein contained shall be construed to take from those honorably discharged from the military or naval service any preference conferred by the seventeen hundred and fifty-four section of the Revised Statutes, nor to take from the President any authority not inconsistent with this act conferred by the seventeen hundred and fifty-third section of said statutes; nor shall any officer not in the executive branch of the government, or any person merely employed as a laborer or workman, be required to be classified hereunder; nor, unless by direction of the Senate, shall any person who has been nominated for confirmation by the Senate be required to be classified or to pass an examination.

SEC. 8. That no person habitually using intoxicating beverages to excess shall be appointed to, or retained in, any office, appointment, or employment to which the provisions of this act are applicable.

SEC. 9. That whenever there are already two or more members of a family in the public service in the grades covered by this act, no other member of such family shall be eligible to appointment to any of said grades.

SEC. 10. That no recommendation of any person who shall apply for office or place under the provisions of this act which may be given by any Senator or member of the House of Representatives, except as to the character or residence of the applicant, shall be received or considered by any person concerned in making any examination or appointment under this act.

SEC. 11. That no Senator, or Representative, or Territorial Delegate of the Congress, or Senator, Representative, or Delegate elect, or any officer or employee of either of said houses, and no executive, judicial, military, or naval officer of the United States, and no clerk or employee of any department, branch or bureau of the executive, judicial, or military or naval service of the United States, shall, directly or indirectly, solicit or receive, or be in any manner concerned in soliciting or receiving, any assessment, subscription, or contribution for any political purpose whatever, from any officer, clerk, or employee of the United States, or any department, branch, or bureau thereof, or from any person receiving any salary or compensation from moneys derived from the Treasury of the United States.

SEC. 12. That no person shall, in any room or building occupied in the discharge of official duties by any officer or employee of the United States mentioned in this act, or in any navy-yard, fort, or arsenal, solicit in any

manner whatever, or receive any contribution of money or any other thing of value for any political purpose whatever.

SEC. 13. No officer or employee of the United States mentioned in this act shall discharge, or promote, or degrade, or in manner change the official rank or compensation of any other officer or employee, or promise or threaten so to do, for giving or withholding or neglecting to make any contribution of money or other valuable thing for any political purpose.

SEC. 14. That no officer, clerk, or other person in the service of the United States shall, directly or indirectly, give or hand over to any other officer, clerk, or person in the service of the United States, or to any Senator or Member of the House of Representatives, or Territorial Delegate, any money or other valuable thing on account of or to be applied to the promotion of any political object whatever.

SEC. 15. That any person who shall be guilty of violating any provision of the four foregoing sections shall be deemed guilty of a misdemeanor, and shall, on conviction thereof, be punished by a fine not exceeding five thousand dollars, or by imprisonment for a term not exceeding three years, or by such fine and imprisonment both, in the discretion of the court.

J. WARREN KEIFER

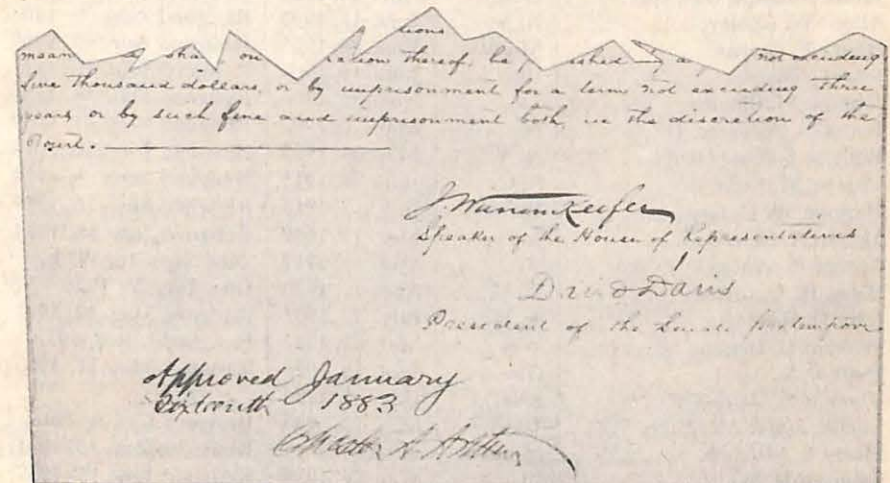
*Speaker of the House of Representatives*

DAVID DAVIS

*President of the Senate pro tempore*

Approved January  
sixteenth 1883

CHESTER A. ARTHUR





## Appendix II Historical Register

### UNITED STATES CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

*Commissioners and other specified officials from 1883 through  
September 12, 1958*

Name	Whence appointed	Date of oath of office	Date of retirement
COMMISSIONERS			
Dorman B. Eaton	N. Y.	Mar. 9, 1883	Resigned Apr. 17, 1886.
John M. Gregory	Ill.	do.	Resigned Nov. 9, 1885.
Leroy D. Thoman	Ohio	do.	Do.
William L. Trenholm	S. C.	Nov. 9, 1885	Resigned Apr. 17, 1886.
Alfred P. Edgerton	Ind.	do.	Removed Feb. 9, 1889.
John H. Oberly	Ill.	Apr. 17, 1886	Resigned Oct. 10, 1888.
Charles Lyman	Conn.	do.	Resigned May 24, 1895.
Hugh S. Thompson	S. C.	May 9, 1889	Resigned June 23, 1892.
Theodore Roosevelt	N. Y.	May 13, 1889	Resigned May 5, 1895.
George D. Johnston	La.	July 14, 1892	Removed Nov. 28, 1893.
John R. Proctor	Ky.	Dec. 2, 1893	Died Dec. 12, 1903.
William Gorham Rice	N. Y.	May 16, 1895	Resigned Jan. 19, 1898.
John B. Harlow	Mo.	May 25, 1895	Resigned Nov. 14, 1901.
Mark S. Brewer	Mich.	Jan. 19, 1898	Died Mar. 18, 1901.
William A. Rodenberg	Ill.	Mar. 25, 1901	Resigned Mar. 31, 1902.
William Dudley Foulke	Ind.	Nov. 15, 1901	Resigned Apr. 30, 1903.
James Rudolph Garfield	Ohio	Apr. 24, 1902	Resigned Feb. 25, 1903.
Alford W. Cooley	N. Y.	June 18, 1903	Resigned Nov. 6, 1906.
Henry F. Greene	Minn.	June 20, 1903	Resigned Apr. 30, 1909.
John C. Black	Ill.	Jan. 16, 1904	Resigned June 10, 1913.
John A. McIlhenny	La.	Nov. 30, 1906	Resigned Feb. 28, 1919.
James T. Williams, Jr.	N. C.	May 5, 1909	Resigned May 25, 1909.
William S. Washburn	N. Y.	May 26, 1909	Resigned June 30, 1913.
Charles M. Galloway	S. C.	June 20, 1913	Resigned Sept. 7, 1919.
Hermon W. Craven	Wash.	July 3, 1913	Resigned Mar. 16, 1919.
Martin A. Morrison	Ind.	Mar. 13, 1919	Resigned July 14, 1921.
George R. Wales	Vt.	Mar. 17, 1919	Died Sept. 16, 1933.
Helen H. Gardener	D. C.	Apr. 13, 1920	Died July 26, 1925.
John H. Bartlett	N. H.	July 15, 1921	Resigned Mar. 12, 1922.
William C. Deming	Wyo.	Mar. 31, 1923	Resigned July 6, 1930.
Jessie Dell	Ga.	Sept. 18, 1925	Resigned May 11, 1933.
Thomas E. Campbell	Ariz.	July 7, 1930	Do.
Lucille Foster McMillin	Tenn.	May 12, 1933	Resigned Oct. 8, 1946.
Harry B. Mitchell	Mont.	do.	Resigned Mar. 15, 1951.
Leonard D. White	Ill.	Mar. 26, 1934	Resigned June 15, 1937.
Samuel H. Ordway, Jr.	N. Y.	Sept. 15, 1937	Resigned May 31, 1939.
Arthur S. Flemming	D. C.	July 8, 1939	Resigned Aug. 30, 1948.
Frances Perkins	N. Y.	Oct. 9, 1946	Resigned Apr. 15, 1953.
James M. Mitchell	Ill.	Oct. 18, 1948	Resigned Mar. 31, 1953.

See footnotes at end of table.

Name	Whence appointed	Date of oath of office	Date of retirement
COMMISSIONERS—continued			
Robert Ramspeck	Ga.	Mar. 16, 1951	Resigned Dec. 31, 1952.
Philip Young	N. Y.	Mar. 23, 1953	Resigned Feb. 28, 1957.
George M. Moore	Ky.	Apr. 14, 1953	Do.
Frederick J. Lawton <sup>1</sup>	D. C.	Apr. 27, 1953	
Harris Ellsworth <sup>2</sup>	Oreg.	Apr. 18, 1957	
Christopher H. Phillips <sup>3</sup>	Mass.	do.	Resigned Dec. 30, 1957.
Bernard L. Flanagan	Vt.	Jan. 2, 1958	Resigned July 25, 1958.
Barbara Bates Gunderson <sup>4</sup>	S. Dak.	Sept. 12, 1958	
EXECUTIVE DIRECTORS <sup>5</sup>			
Lawson A. Moyer	S. C.	Aug. 28, 1933 <sup>6</sup>	Retired July 31, 1952.
Clarence L. Edwards	Colo.	Aug. 1, 1952	Resigned May 31, 1953.
John W. Macy, Jr.	Va.	Aug. 3, 1953	Resigned Jan. 31, 1958.
Warren B. Irons	Va.	Feb. 1, 1958	
CHIEF EXAMINERS <sup>5</sup>			
Charles Lyman <sup>7</sup>	Conn.	May 11, 1883	Resigned Apr. 17, 1886.
William H. Webster	Conn.	Aug. 28, 1886	Died Mar. 23, 1896.
A. Ralph Serven	N. Y.	June 4, 1896	Resigned June 7, 1903.
Frank M. Kiggins	Tenn.	June 8, 1903	Died Oct. 26, 1908.
George R. Wales <sup>7</sup>	Vt.	Dec. 16, 1908	Resigned Mar. 16, 1919.
Herbert A. Filer	Md.	May 25, 1920	Died Feb. 10, 1927.
Fay C. Brown	Iowa	Mar. 14, 1927	Resigned Mar. 16, 1927.
Howard A. Edson	D. C.	Mar. 21, 1927	Resigned Aug. 27, 1933.
SECRETARIES <sup>8</sup>			
William S. Roulhac	N. C.	June 11, 1883	Died Apr. 17, 1884.
Robert D. Graham	N. C.	Apr. 25, 1884	Resigned Sept. 15, 1886.
John T. Doyle	N. Y.	Sept. 15, 1886	Retired June 30, 1932.
E. Claude Babcock	Mich.	July 2, 1932	Resigned July 31, 1933.

<sup>1</sup> Term extended for 6 years beginning March 1, 1957, under authority of Title II, Public Law 854 of July 31, 1956.

<sup>2</sup> Appointed for 2 years beginning March 1, 1957, and designated Chairman, under authority of Title II, Public Law 854 of July 31, 1956.

<sup>3</sup> Appointed for 4 years beginning March 1, 1957, and designated Vice Chairman, under authority of Title II, Public Law 854, of July 31, 1956.

<sup>4</sup> Appointed to serve unexpired portion of term of Commissioner ending February, 28, 1961.

<sup>5</sup> The title "chief examiner" was changed to "executive director and chief examiner" on June 29, 1938. Under the President's Reorganization Plan No. 5 of 1949, which became effective August 20, 1949, the position of executive director and chief examiner was abolished, and the position of executive director was established.

<sup>6</sup> On this date, Mr. Moyer's position was entitled "chief examiner." The title was changed to "executive director and chief examiner" on June 29, 1938, and to executive director on August 20, 1949, the effective date of the President's Reorganization Plan No. 5 of 1949, which established the position of executive director.

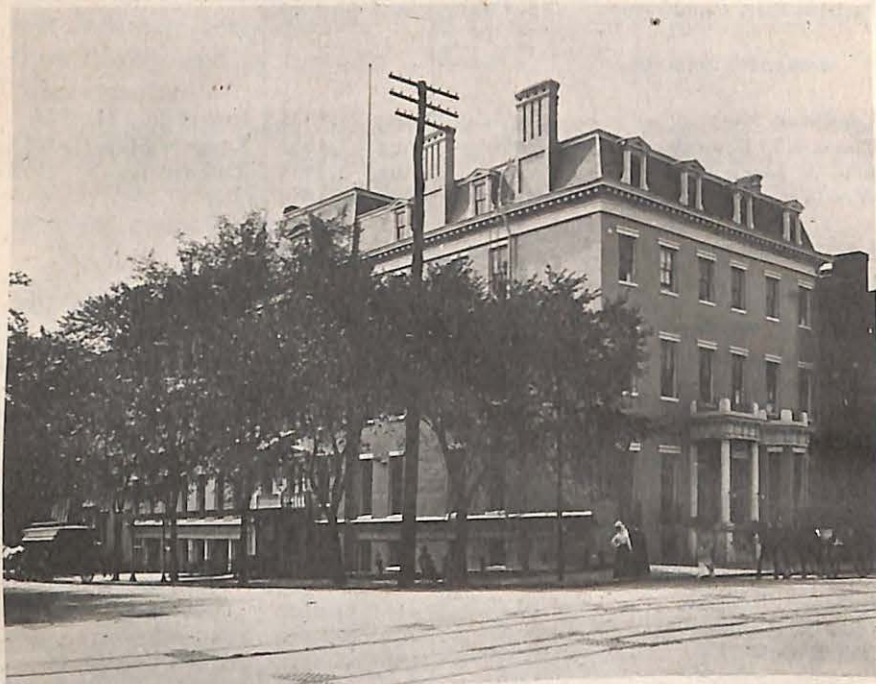
<sup>7</sup> Appointed Commissioner.

<sup>8</sup> On September 12, 1933, the Commission transferred the functions of the secretary to the chief examiner and ruled that the position of secretary would not be filled.



## Appendix III Odyssey of the Civil Service Commission

The growth of the competitive civil service in size and importance is reflected in the growth of the Civil Service Commission.



**1. FIRST MEETING PLACE: 1883.** The new Civil Service Commission held its first meetings in March 1883, in the apartment of Dorman B. Eaton, author of the Civil Service (Pendleton) Act and first head of the Commission, in Wormley's Hotel, 15th and H Streets NW. This building, now gone, was at that time one of Washington's finest hotels. The site is now occupied by the Union Trust Co. The Commission then had three employees: the Commissioners themselves. There were 13,900 positions under the new merit system established by the act; however, no competitive examinations had, as yet, been held.



**2. FIRST OPERATIONAL OFFICE: 1883.** In about 2 weeks, the Commission began operations in two rooms on the second floor of a residence at 612 14th Street NW., rented at \$3 a day. No. 612 is the brick house with shutters—note arrow. This house was torn down in 1929 to clear space for Garfinckel's building. Commission employees: 5.

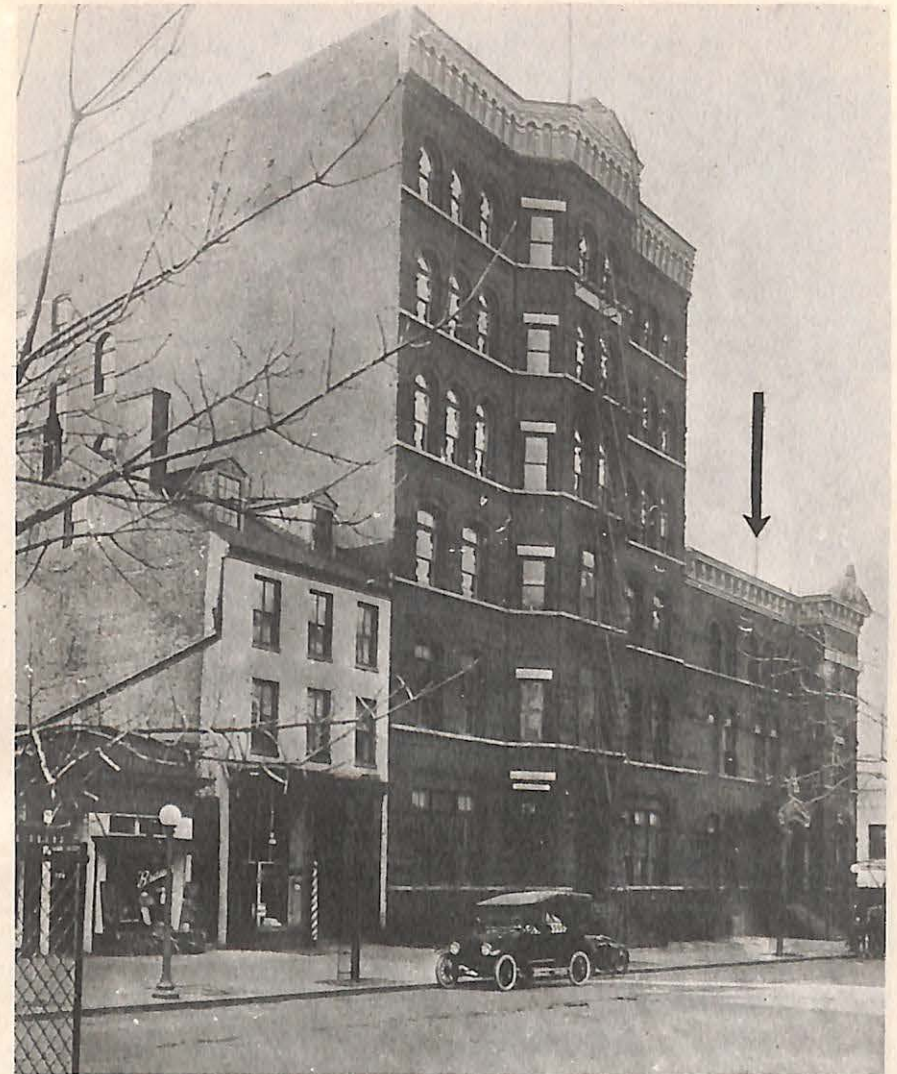


**3. FIRST OFFICIAL HOME: 1883-87.** One month later, official quarters were provided for the Commission on the second floor of the Seed Building of the Department of Agriculture near 12th and B Streets SW. John T. Doyle, stenographer, and Matthew Halloran, messenger, moved the Commission's belongings to its new home in a pushcart. This building was torn down after the new Agriculture Administration Building ("North Building") was constructed. Commission employees: 5.





4. **THE CITY HALL: 1887-93.** Needing more space after 4 years, the Commission was given several rooms in the west wing of the City Hall (now the Court House) on Indiana Avenue between 4th and 5th Streets NW. Theodore Roosevelt came here as a Commissioner in 1889 and served until 1895. Commission employees in 1887: 13. Total positions under civil service in 1887: 15,600.



5. **CONCORDIA BUILDING: 1893-1900.** Crowded out of City Hall, the Commission moved in 1893 to the old Concordia Building, a former beer hall on the southeast corner of 8th and E Streets NW., which had been remodeled to accommodate the Commission. E Street between 7th and 8th is shown in the picture. The Concordia Building is the three-story building at the right-hand end of the block, indicated by arrow. A six-story building which is part of Lansburgh's department store now occupies this corner. The tall building in the middle of the block is still there, also occupied by Lansburgh's. Commission employees in 1893: 22. Total positions under civil service in 1893: 43,900.





6. FIRST "CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION BUILDING": 1900-1911. The increased stature and importance of the Commission was marked by the acquisition, in 1900, of a fine office building of its own on the northwest corner of 8th and E Streets NW., the first to be known as The Civil Service Commission. This building still stands, but has been unoccupied for many years. Some years ago, the first floor was lowered to the street level and the first-floor walls replaced by glass show windows. This building was used again by the Commission, in addition to several others in the immediate neighborhood, during the immense temporary expansion of World War II (see box at end of this Appendix). Commission employees in 1900: 58. Total positions under civil service in 1900: 94,900.



7. "CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION": 1911-32. By 1909, the Commissioners were complaining about "wholly inadequate space," and in 1911 the Commission took on new dignity with its move into a new six-story building at 1724 F Street NW., rented for its use. Although considered adequate at the time, the new building was soon outgrown and extra rooms were assigned to the Commission in various other buildings (see box at end of this Appendix). During this period, the Commission was given several additional responsibilities, among them the administration of the Retirement Act of 1920. The building at 1724 F Street has been used continuously by Government agencies since the Commission moved out. Its present occupant is the United States Employment Service. Commission employees in 1911: 214 (163 in Washington; 51 in the field). Total positions under civil service in 1911: 227,650.





8. **THE PATENT OFFICE: 1932.** The Commission was moved in 1932 into one of the most admired public buildings in Washington—the historic and beautiful Patent Office, built in 1840, which occupies a two-block site between 7th, 9th, F, and G Streets NW. Originally given only two floors, the Commission was later permitted (see photograph No. 10) to take over the whole building. This building was designed and constructed to house both the offices and the museum (or “Model Hall”) of the Patent Office. During the Civil War, part of the building was used as a hospital. Lincoln’s second inaugural ball was held here in 1865. The imposing flight of steps facing 8th Street on the F Street side, shown in this 1882 print, led up to the front entrance on what is now the second floor of the building. It was removed in 1936 in order to widen F Street. Commission employees in 1932: 600 (430 in Washington; 170 in the field). Total positions under civil service in 1932: 467,160.



9. **PENSION BUILDING: 1954.** Over a period of years, the Commission’s growth required the assignment of extra space in several scattered locations. Since 1954, the Commission’s largest bureau—the Bureau of Departmental Operations—has been housed in the old Pension Building which was built as a memorial to Union veterans in 1883, the same year during which the Commission began its Odyssey around the Capital City. The Pension Building, between 4th, 5th, F, and G Streets NW., was occupied for several years by the General Accounting Office. It was assigned to the Civil Service Commission after the GAO moved into its new building on the other side of G Street.



10. **THE CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION: 1958.** The old Patent Office Building is still the headquarters of the Civil Service Commission. The building is now known as the Civil Service Commission. Commission employees in 1958: 4,100 (1,800 in Washington; 2,300 in the field). Total employees in the competitive civil service, worldwide, in 1958: 2,012,900. Total employees in the civil service, worldwide, competitive and excepted: 2,334,000.

#### MISCELLANEOUS BUILDINGS IN WASHINGTON, D. C., PARTIALLY OCCUPIED BY THE CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION

1725 F Street NW. (some time between 1912 and 1932).

Ten-cent store, Seventh and I Streets NW.

#### DURING WORLD WAR II

916 G Street NW. (the Mather Building).

Ten-cent store, 11th and G Streets NW.

805 G Street NW. (the Ouray Building).

930 F Street NW. (the Atlantic Building).

724 Ninth Street NW. (the Victor Building).

Tariff Building, E. Street between Seventh and Eighth Streets NW.

613 G Street NW. (Hecht’s warehouse).

Police station, Sixth Street and Indiana Avenue NW.

808 E Street NW.

Warehouse in “Pork Steak Alley,” between D, E, 9th, and 10th Streets NW.

801 E Street NW. (the old Civil Service Commission Building: See photograph, p. 154).

#### AFTER WORLD WAR II

Tempo R.

903 E Street NW. (the Darby Building).

Tempo D (still in use).

Tempo E (still in use).



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## Acknowledgments and Credits

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## Civil Service Commission Seal

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