

**CIVIL SERVICE REFORM IN SIX STATES:
EXAMINING PERCEPTIONS OF
STATE HUMAN RESOURCES PROFESSIONALS IN COLORADO, FLORIDA,
GEORGIA, KANSAS, MISSOURI, AND SOUTH CAROLINA**

by

JUNG IN KIM

(Under the Direction of J. Edward Kellough)

ABSTRACT

Comparisons of HR practices among states that have implemented significant elements of the civil service reform agenda should contribute to developing more accurate strategic HR plans and policies by providing both scholars and practitioners with opportunities to diagnose issues and problems of the current civil service systems. Based on Hays and Sowa's 2007 study of U.S. state governments' personnel system changes, each state's personnel policies, and Whalen and Guy's 2008 study, this research found that six states, Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Kansas, Missouri, and South Carolina, have implemented significant elements of the civil service reform agenda, including HR decentralization, at-will employment, a narrow range of grievable issues, declined job security, pay-for-performance, and broadbanding. By focusing on these six states, the present study examines four main research questions: (1) How do state civil service systems differ?; (2) What are the key elements of each state's civil service reform?; (3) How do HR

professionals evaluate their states' use of elements of the civil service reform agenda with regard to effectiveness?; and (4) What key factors influence HR professionals' satisfaction with their states' civil service reform elements?

According to 2010 Civil Service Reform Assessment survey results, most states had implemented an online-hiring process, strategic workforce planning (only Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina), employee suggestion programs (no employee suggestion programs in Colorado), employee development programs, performance appraisal guidelines, workforce diversity programs, and audit systems at the time of survey administration. Six states have experienced the implementation of the civil service reform elements to different extents. Through the data analyses, the present study has found that many HR professionals who participated in the survey were not satisfied with their states' civil service systems and civil service reform elements. For instance, overall assessment of civil service systems and civil service reform elements by HR professionals in the Missouri and South Carolina state governments who responded to the survey are less positive than other states (except in their assessment of broadbanding). Compared to them, HR professionals in Florida and Georgia who experienced radical civil service reform seemed to more positively assess effectiveness or efficiency of their states' civil service systems and civil service reform elements. The results from ordered logistic regression analyses showed that HR professionals' perceptions of management leadership on employee value, attitudes towards resources or opportunity allocation to employees, HR professionals' perceptions of helpfulness of CSR consultation, and HR professionals' demographic characteristics may influence HR professionals' attitudes towards civil service systems and their assessments of civil service reform elements.

The present study contributes to developing strategic and adaptable civil service reform

design through the comprehensive examinations of overall civil service systems and civil service reform elements in six states that have experienced substantial civil service reforms. By exploring HR professionals' attitudes towards civil service systems and civil service reform elements, the present study found what factors influence HR professionals' satisfaction with or agreement with the effectiveness of civil service reform elements. The study findings have emphasized the importance of human capital management and benchmarking process management.

INDEX WORDS: Civil Service Reform, At-will Employment, Pay-for-Performance, Broadbanding, Human Resources Policy Innovation, Civil Service Systems, Human Capital Management, CSR Consultation

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

While scholars and practitioners have debated government efficiency and productivity (Wilson 1887; Holzer and Rabin 1987; Goodsell 2004), criticisms that civil service is inflated, expensive, unresponsive, and incapable of adapting to environmental or organizational changes have provoked (Peters and Savoie 1994; Lavigna 2002) calls for civil service reform. Arguments about ill executed governments (Light 2008) and concerns about misdiagnosis of civil service problems (Peters and Savoie 1994) have also urged scholars and practitioners to develop effective and practicable models for managing government (Mintzberg 1996) or for delivering public services (Battaglio and Condrey 2007; Condrey Forthcoming).

To respond to demands for efficient and effective government, civil service reforms taking place at the federal level and in state and local governments have intensified, yielding significant changes to civil service rules and procedures as well as personnel practices (Kellough and Selden 2003). For instance, reforms decentralize personnel systems (Hou, Ingraham, Bretschneider, and Selden 2000; Coggburn 2005), increase at-will employment by eroding traditional merit protections (Hays and Sowa 2006; Ingraham 2006), adopt pay-for-performance (Kellough and Nigro 2002; Montoya and Graham 2007), and employ broadbanding in classification and compensation systems (Whalen and Guy 2008) in all levels of government. Additionally, developing strategic plans about people and performance based on partnerships (e.g., a labor-management partnership) has been prioritized to cope with challenges for public service deliveries when reforms are designed (Denhardt and Denhardt 2003), as Ingraham,

Selden, and Moynihan argued in their 2000 study.

Public Service Model

To build better structures of public service delivery, scholars (e.g., Mintzberg 1996; Battaglio and Condrey 2007; Condrey Forthcoming) have constructed models for public service management. According to Mintzberg (1996), there are five models of government management, which include the government-as-machine model, the government-as-network model, the performance-control model, the virtual-government model, and the normative-control model. Condrey (Forthcoming) has developed five models of public human resource management, and those include the traditional model, reform model, strategic model, privatization or outsourcing model, and hybrid model. Previously, most U.S. civil service systems were based on the government-as-machine model wherein government is considered as a machine, which is dominated by rules and regulations (Mintzberg 1996: 80), and the traditional model of public human resource management, in which public service delivery is centralized and enforced by unified rules, policies, and procedures. However, since the 1990s, U.S. governments have adopted the performance-control model that emphasizes reconstructing the roles of governments to be more like business and improving flexibility, creativity, and individual initiative in the public sector (Mintzberg 1996: 81), and the reform model that is a manager-centered and decentralized service delivery model in the public sector (Battaglio and Condrey 2007; Condrey Forthcoming).

Public Service Management Models

While discussing government management, Mintzberg (1996)'s models reflect the different types of public service delivery systems. First, the government-as-machine model focuses on rules, regulations, and procedures. Each agency controls its employees, and centralized rules govern agencies and employees' behaviors. Although this model was developed as a counteraction to corruption and misuse of political power, the lack of flexibility and responsiveness has become a major pitfall of this model. Second, the government-as-network model emphasizes organizational or individual connection, communication, and collaboration since government in this model is considered as one entity, and short-term or long-term relationships among stakeholders are constructed to solve social problems. Third, the performance-control model aims at creating business like government. This model emphasizes the roles of managers for planning and appraising performance. Fourth, the virtual-government model assumes that the best government is no government. That is, all government functions can be taken over by the private sector. Fifth, the normative-control model is composed of five key elements, including selection based on values and attitudes, socialization built by a membership, guidance by accepted principles, responsibility shared by all members, and judgment that performance is assessed by experienced people. This model focuses on selection, socialization, and judgment, and the model remains less machinelike and less hierarchical.

In a similar vein with Mintzberg's five models, Kamarck (2003) presented four governing systems, including traditional government, reinvented government, government by network, and government by market. According to Kamarck (2003), the roles of public servants have been changed based on the different governing systems. First, the traditional government model has an accountability mechanism based on rules and regulations, and managers focus on

implementing such rules and regulations. This model has characteristics similar to those of Mintzberg’s government-as-machine model. However, this model has pitfalls related to weak performance by emphasizing accountability too much. Second, the reinvented government model is similar to Mintzberg’s performance-control model. The reinvented government model emphasizes performance goals for the organization and innovative performance management focusing on flexibility and efficiency. However, this model has disadvantages as well. Ignorance in favor of traditional accountability measures raises concerns about public sector values, such as equity. Third, the government by network model resembles Mintzberg’s government-as-network model. The accountability mechanism of the model is based on performance goals for the network and for each actor, and managers play roles of defining successful network performance and analyzing elements of success and failure of the public sector performance. Finally, the government by market model has an accountability mechanism according to performance goals for the market. This model is not exactly like Mintzberg’s virtual-government model, but some elements of these models are relevant to each other. Such market-based governance systems underscore enhancing efficiency and productivity through business-like management tools. However, such models have issues with monitoring service quality and with guaranteeing cost savings for public service delivery.

Table 1. Public Service Management Models

	Mintzberg’s model (1996)	Kamarck’s model (2003)	Condrey’s model (Forthcoming)
Centralized and rule based model	Government-as-machine model	Traditional model	Traditional model
Performance- and result-oriented model	Performance-control model	Reinvented government model	Reform model
Private sector management model	Virtual government model	Government by market model	Privatization or outsourcing model
Collaborative management model	Government-as-network model	Government by network model	Strategic model
Mixed approach model	Normative-control model		Hybrid model

Public Service Delivery Models

Battaglio and Condrey (2006 and 2007) and Condrey (Forthcoming) have developed five models of public human resource management, and these models can be compared with public service management models by Mintzberg (1996) and Kamarck (2003). First, the traditional model has centralized service delivery systems. This model focuses on uniform enforcement of rules, policies, and procedures, and it is based on top-down communication. Merit, which emphasizes qualifications, competence, and political neutrality, is a core value (Ingraham 2006), and roles of human resource managers are related to enforcement of merit. Second, the reform model emphasizes an agenda that includes decentralized service delivery (e.g., civil service reforms in Georgia and Florida). This model has manager-centered goals, and the communication pattern is two-way. The reform model values immediate responsiveness to organizational mission and goals, and a human resource manager has diminished authority and control. Third, the strategic model focuses on collaborative service delivery (e.g., civil service reforms in Louisiana). Organizational goals are keys for this model, and multidirectional communication is constructed. Effective organizational functioning is related to a respect for effective human resource management practices, and human resource managers play roles as organizational consultants to support line managers. Fourth, the privatization or outsourcing model is based on contracts (e.g., civil service reforms in Florida). Therefore, effective contract negotiation and administration are important. In this model, communication is patterned by reports and contract monitoring. Efficiency and private sector preference are key values in the privatization or outsourcing model, and human resource managers work as contract negotiators and administrators. Finally, the hybrid model provides mixed service delivery systems. This model focuses on mission-centered goal orientation, and multidirectional communication,

including contract monitoring, is emphasized. Based on mission-centered values, human resource managers have important roles as key organizational players.

Public Service Delivery Model Application and Issues of Civil Service Reforms

Generally speaking, civil service reforms from the late 1980s to the early 2000s are mostly based on the performance-control and reform models, and they are targeted primarily at decentralizing personnel practices by placing more authority in line agencies and their managers (Kellough 1999; Hou, Ingraham, Bretschneider, and Selden 2000) since proponents believe that increased discretion and flexibility among bureaucrats may help to improve performance efficiency and effectiveness (Goodsell 2004). However, emphasis on efficiency and businesslike goals has raised concerns about the loss of other important governmental values, such as equity and accountability, which sometimes take precedence over efficiency (Kellough 1998), and scholars such as Frederickson (1996a) have predicted another reform movement based on ethical values like trust (Battaglio and Condrey 2009). In a similar vein, some scholars (e.g., Durant 2008) have warned that reform can be wrongfully used, and, therefore, designing transparency-included reforms are needed for the future (Durant 2008). Experiences of implementing the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 have revealed some unexpected results caused by the conflicts among stakeholders, such as political appointees and public servants (Ingraham and Rosenbloom 1992; Hood and Lodge 2006). Additionally, distinctions between the public and private sectors, such as legal constraints and the political environment, may inhibit the effectiveness¹ of governmental reforms modeled on business practices (Thompson 2003; Riccucci and Naff 2008). Nevertheless, since the Winter Commission was established in 1991 (Riccucci and Naff 2008),

¹ According to Rainey and Steinbauer (1999: 13), the concept of effectiveness refers to “whether the agency does well that which it is supposed to do, whether people in the agency work hard and well, whether the actions and procedures of the agency and its members are well suited to achieving its mission, and whether the agency actually achieves its mission.”

civil service reform has been actively expanded from the Federal government to state and local governments (Thompson 2002; Nigro and Keollough 2008) by emphasizing performance-and result-oriented goals.

In one of their civil service reform studies, Kellough and Selden (2003: 172) stated that “state governments are an important laboratory” to study civil service reforms because each state has a different political, managerial, and socioeconomic environment. State governments employed over 20 million workers in 2008 (The U.S. Census Bureau 2009), and states enact and implement their own policies (Thompson 2002). Despite their intergovernmental management role in the American system of federalism, state governments can nonetheless operate very distinct human resource management systems to improve efficiency and effectiveness in their own civil services. For instance, Nebraska operates employee online suggestion and employee recognition programs, including “State House Observer,” to increase employee participation in the human resource management process,² and Delaware provides employees with the “DelaWell” program to enhance state employees’ wellbeing.³ Since 2000, many scholars (e.g., Cogburn 2001; Selden, Ingraham, and Jacobson 2001; Kellough and Selden 2003; Condrey 2005; Hays and Sowa 2006; Elling and Thompson 2006; Condrey and Battaglio 2007) have attempted to identify state governments’ civil service reforms. Some scholars (Nigro and Kellough 2006; Hays, Byrd, and Wilkins 2006; Cogburn 2006a; Bowman and West 2007) have tried to draw lessons learned from case studies about selected states, such as Florida, Georgia, Texas and South Carolina, and some other scholars (Brudney, Hebert, and Wright 1999; Selden, Ingraham, and Jacobson 2001; Brudney and Wright 2002; Lavigna 2002; Brudney and Wright 2002; Kellough and Selden 2003; Chi 2005; Elling and Thompson 2006; Hays and Sowa 2006;

² <http://www.das.state.ne.us/personnel/observer/>

³ <http://delawell.delaware.gov/>

Kearney 2006; Whalen and Guy 2008) have attempted to identify all fifty states' civil service reforms in terms of extent or intensity. However, neither scholars nor practitioners have been able to compare systematically the different state governments' civil service systems and reforms that are designed based on different public service management or service delivery systems, and implemented to survive changing environments and to meet citizens' demands. Regarding this, an unanswered question is whether we can articulately diagnose the problems of public service and fix those problems through reforms (Donahue and Nye 2003) still remains.

Research Statement

Through various case studies, many scholars (e.g., Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough 2007; Hays and Sowa 2006 and 2007) have found that the civil service reform agenda includes key elements such as structural decentralization and delegation, streamlined and simplified job classification and pay systems (e.g., broadbanding), streamlined reduction-in-force, grievance, and appeals processes, pay-for-performance, contracting out or privatization, and at-will employment. More specifically, Hays and Sowa (2007) argued that state governments have experienced changes in human resource management with regard to the level of HR decentralization, expansion of at-will employment, range of grievable issues, and decline in job security (p. 9). Based on Hays and Sowa's 2007 study of U.S. state governments' personnel system changes, each state's personnel policies, and Whalen and Guy's 2008 study, the present study examines four main research questions: (1) How do state civil service systems differ?; (2) What are the key elements of each state's civil service reform?; (3) How do HR professionals evaluate their states' use of elements of the civil service reform agenda with regard to effectiveness?; and (4) What key factors influence HR professionals' satisfaction with their

states' civil service reform elements?

Through the careful examination of information from previous studies and state personnel policies, this research found that six states, Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Kansas, Missouri, and South Carolina, have significant elements of the reform agenda in place, including decentralization, at-will employment, a narrow range of grievable issues, reduced job security, pay-for-performance, and broadbanding (See Table 2). The Council of State Governments (1991-2006) also published the result of the extent of state civil service reforms showing that these states have experienced wholesale civil service reforms in the past twenty years (The Council of State Government 1991-2006). Therefore, the present study examine the perception of state personnel management professionals in their states in order to understand their perceptions of the causes and impacts of these types of reform elements and their views of the effectiveness of their state HR systems.

Table 2. State Selection Criteria

State	Decentralization	At-will	Range of Grievable Issues	Declined Job Security	Pay-for-performance	Broadbanding
Alabama	Partial	No	Agency Specific	Yes	Yes	No
Alaska	Centralized	No	Restricted	No	Yes	No
Arizona	Partial	Yes	Restricted	Yes	Yes	No
Arkansas	Significant	Yes	Restricted/Agency Specific	Yes	Yes	No
California	Partial	No	Expansive	Yes	Yes	Yes
Colorado	Significant	Yes	Restricted	Yes	Yes	Yes but limited
Connecticut	Partial	No	Expansive	No	Yes	No
Delaware	Partial	Yes	Expansive	No	Yes	No
Florida	Significant	Yes	Restricted	Yes	Yes	Yes
Georgia	Significant	Yes	Restricted	Yes	Yes	No, but Georgia reduced large number of job classifications by widening the range.
Hawaii	Centralized	No	Expansive	No	Not Clear	No
Idaho	Partial	Yes	Agency Specific	Yes	Yes	No
Illinois	Partial	No	Expansive	Yes	Yes	Yes but limited
Indiana	Recentralizing	Yes	Restricted	Yes	Yes	Yes
Iowa	Significant	Yes	Expansive	No	Yes	No
Kansas	Significant	Yes	Expansive/Agency Specific	Yes	Yes	Yes

State	Decentralization	At-will	Range of Grievable Issues	Declined Job Security	Pay-for-performance	Broadbanding
Kentucky	Centralized	Yes	Expansive	No	No	No
Louisiana	Partial	No	Restricted	Yes	Yes	No
Maine	Recentralizing	No	Expansive	Yes	Yes	No
Maryland	Partial	No	Expansive	No	Not Clear	No
Massachusetts	Partial	Yes	Expansive	Yes	Not Clear	No
Michigan	Partial	No	Expansive	Yes	Yes	No
Minnesota	Partial	No	Expansive	Yes	Yes	Yes but limited
Mississippi	Partial	Yes	Restricted	Yes	Yes	No
Missouri	Significant	Yes	Agency Specific	Yes	Yes	Yes
Montana	Partial	No	Restricted	No	No	Yes
Nebraska	Centralized	Yes	Restricted	Yes	Yes	No
Nevada	Partial	No	Expansive	No	Yes	No
New Hampshire	Partial	No	Expansive	No	Not Clear	No
New Jersey	Partial	Yes	Expansive	Yes	Yes	Yes
New Mexico	Centralized	No	Expansive	No	No	No
New York	Partial	No	Expansive	No	Yes	No
North Carolina	Significant	Yes	Restricted	Yes	Yes	Yes
North Dakota*	Significant	Yes+	Restricted	No	No	No++
Ohio	Partial	Yes	Restricted	No	No	No
Oklahoma	Significant	Yes	Restricted	Yes	Yes	Yes
Oregon	Partial	Yes	Expansive	Yes	Yes	No
Pennsylvania	Significant	No	Expansive	No	Not Clear	No
Rhode Island	Centralized	Yes	Expansive but Not Utilized	Yes	Not Clear	No
South Carolina	Significant	Yes	Restricted	Yes	Yes	Yes
South Dakota**	Centralized	No	Expansive	No	Not Clear	No
Tennessee	Centralized	No	Restricted	No	Yes	No
Texas	Complete	Yes	Not Applicable	Yes	Yes	No
Utah	Partial	Yes	Expansive	No	Yes	No
Vermont	Significant	Yes	Restricted	Yes	Yes	No
Virginia	Significant	No	Restricted	Yes	Yes	Yes
Washington	Significant	Yes	Restricted	Yes	Yes	No
West Virginia	Partial	Yes	Restricted	Yes	Yes	No
Wisconsin	Partial	No	Expansive	Yes	Not Clear	Yes
Wyoming	Partial	Yes	Restricted	No	Yes	Yes

Notes: Information for these criteria is adopted from Hays and Sowa's 2007 study; each state's personnel regulations or policies; Whalen and Guy's 2008 study.

* and **: North Dakota and South Dakota are states that have experienced minimal reforms.

+ : Hays and Sowa (2007) stated that the North Dakota state government did not have at-will employment. However, North Dakota has non-classified employees according to the North Dakota Office of Human Resource Management Services (2009).

++: However, the North Dakota Office of Human Resource Management Services (2009) states that 4,315 employees are broadbanded under ND university system among 11,065 classified employees.

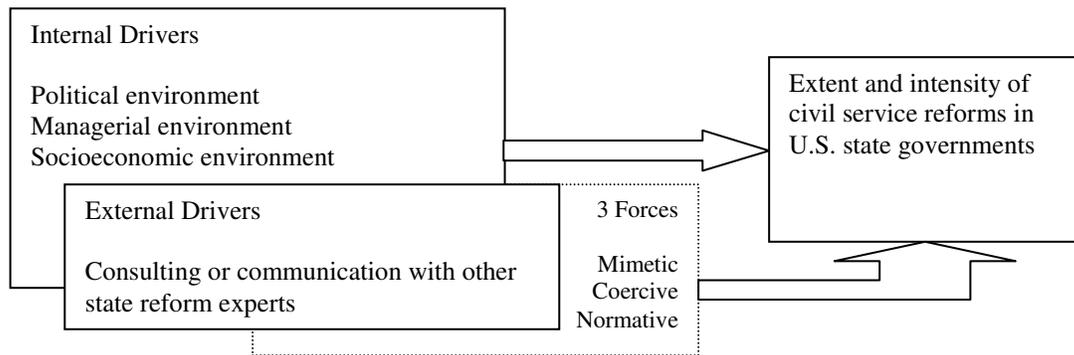


Figure 1. Forces of Civil Service Reforms in U.S. State Governments

States which have critical aspects of the civil service reform agenda are geographically neighboring. This phenomenon may show that Berry and Berry’s (1999) regional diffusion model, which assumes that “states are influenced primarily by those states that are geographically proximate” (Berry and Berry 1999, p. 175), is applicable to HR management reforms and policies. Roger (1995) and Frederickson, Johnson, and Wood (2004) found that reforms spread in diffusion with a certain pattern. Additionally, Ingraham (1993a) conducted a study about the diffusion of pay-for-performance from the private to public sectors, based on a public policy diffusion model. Since there are pressures (e.g., mimetic forces, coercive forces, and normative forces) to emulate more effective management practices in organizations (DiMaggio and Powell 1983; Ashworth, Boyne, and Delbridge 2009), reforms may be diffused actively. However, while studies have examined the causes and impacts of civil service reforms, most previous studies have attempted to find drivers of states’ civil service reforms from internal factors such as impacts of unions, governors’ support, and states’ fiscal conditions. However, this research implies that external factors, such as communication with other states’ human resources professionals and learning of other states’ reform experiences, also can be a key driver

of HR management reforms. Therefore, the present study assumes that there are two macro drivers, internal drivers and external drivers, which influence the extent and intensity of states' adoption of elements of the civil service reform agenda (See Figure 1). By studying HR professionals' assessment of such drivers, this study will help us to understand whether HR professionals perceive such factors as effectively influencing civil service reform.

Comparisons of HR practices among states with significant aspects of the reform agenda in place should contribute to developing more accurate strategic HR plans and policies by providing both scholars and practitioners with opportunities to diagnose issues and problems of the current civil service systems. For examining issues and problems of civil service systems and civil service reforms, the literature review on civil service reforms in U.S. state governments will be reviewed in chapter 2. Also, current civil service reform agenda, focusing on classification and broadbanding, compensation, collective bargaining and public unionism, merit pay system and performance appraisal, range of grievable issues, and at-will employment, will be discussed in the next chapter. In chapter 4, HR professionals' assessment in terms of elements of states' civil service systems based on a survey that was conducted between February 26, 2010 and May 7, 2010 will be examined. Factors that influence HR professionals' satisfaction with their civil service systems will be studied in chapter 5.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

History of Civil Service Reform in the U.S.

Riccucci and Naff (2008) have divided the history of civil service reform as the first century civil service reform (1883 to 1978) and civil service reform in the post Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 (1979 to 2000). Before the first civil service reform, the Pendleton Act of 1883, the U.S. civil service followed a trend of democratization as government by gentlemen (from 1789 to 1829) gave way to government by the common man (from 1829 to 1883) (Van Riper 1958; Ingraham 1995a; Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough 2007). This progression saw the basis of civil selection shift from fitness of character to a patronage or spoils system. However, Mosher (1982) and Ingraham (1995a) describe that patronage system proved decreasingly effective as a guarantor of popular direction and control of administration (pp. 22-23).

According to Ingraham (1995a: 48), partisan politics, given the opportunity, caused high levels of graft and corrupted the civil service as parties allocated positions for partisan electoral advantage (Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough 2007). The assassination of President Garfield by “a disappointed office seeker” in 1881 as well as fear within the incumbent Republican party of a shift in power to the Democrats became critical evidence of such concerns (Van Riper 1958).

To overcome such disadvantages of the spoils system, legislation establishing the foundation for a rudimentary merit system was passed by Congress in 1883 (Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough 2007; Riccucci and Naff 2008). With an emphasis on administrative efficiency, the Pendleton Act implemented the merit principle in the United States civil service, which dictates

that appointments, promotions, and other personnel actions should be made exclusively on the basis of relative ability and job performance (Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough 2007). This system was founded on British precedents; that is, a system of civil service recruitment and organization based on open and competitive examinations, relative security of tenure, and political neutrality (Van Riper 1958: 100; Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough 2007: 27).

According to Mosher (1982) and Ingraham (1995a), during the Pendleton Act era, political neutrality of civil service was emphasized with regard to the separation of policy and partisan politics from administration. For instance, Woodrow Wilson (1887) in particular argued that partisan politics and administration must necessarily be distinguished to advance government efficiency and that strong administrative discretion also be emphasized. The Civil Service Commission (CSC) governed administration of the service as a collegial, semi-independent, non-political, and nontechnical body, and it adopted a 'rule of three' system that selects candidates from the top of an eligible list (Woodward 2000).

Efforts have continued to improve government efficiency through scientific management and the merit principle, which means that "public employees [are] appointed through competitive entrance examinations, prohibited from engaging in partisan politics, and compensated on the basis of 'equal-pay-for-equal-work'" (Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough 2007: 28). Before the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978, entities including the Taft Commission in 1912, the Brownlow Committee of the 1930s, and the Hoover Commissions of 1947 and 1949 (Brudney, Hebert, and Wright 1999) had proposed businesslike government based on goals of efficiency and effectiveness. Key issues leading up to the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978 encompassed position classification and the accompanying concept of rank and pay in the job rather than the incumbent, proliferation of specializations accompanied by the development of the career ideal,

and emphasis of management objectivity, impersonality, and neutrality (Mosher 1982).

The Civil Service Reform Act (CSRA) of 1978 that was founded by the Reorganization Plan No. 2 of 1978 (Newland 1992; Campbell 1978) presented a major set of reforms as solutions to problems⁴ in the organizational structure for personnel management. According to Ingraham (1995a), Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough (2007), and Riccucci and Naff (2008), major features of CSRA of 1978 were abolition of the civil service commission; establishment of the Office of Personnel Management (OPM) and the Merit Systems Protection Board (MSPB); efforts to eliminate numerous unnecessary rules and regulations; simplified and streamlined personnel procedures; creation of the Federal Labor Relations Authority (FLRA) by the Title VII of the CSRA; establishment of the Senior Executive Services (SES)⁵ based on goals of providing procedural flexibility, appropriate incentives (e.g., adoption of pay-for-performance system), and well planned career development systems for executives (Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough 2007: 40); protection of whistle blowers; and implementation of China Lake as a research and development authority (e.g., broadbanding).

Following the CSRA of 1978, the Grace Commission in 1984 and the Volker Commission in 1989 led civil service reforms that attempted to elevate competency and trustworthiness of public service into the U.S. government under the leadership of President Reagan and President Bush. According to Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough (2007), the Volker Commission's report recommended creating "a culture of performance" in government and set guidelines for renewed reform efforts across organizational and personnel-related functions. The Clinton administration built on these recommendations through a reinventing government

⁴ Problems include conflicting roles of the Civil Service Commission, lack of appropriate staff organizations for the President, ineffective protection from political pressure or other abuses of the merit system, lack of systematic resolution for labor practices, and centralized personnel management functions (Campbell 1978).

⁵ In terms of SES in state governments, according to Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough (2007), currently about 20 U.S. states operate SES.

movement in which government attempts to adopt both private sector's management techniques and business values (deLeon and Denhardt 2000) based on the National Performance Review (NPR) in 1993 that was inspired by Osborne and Gaebler's research in 1992.⁶ The reinventing government exercise that focuses on misdiagnosed problems and consequences of government management has caused concerns related to: a denial of citizenship by emphasizing customer-oriented management too much; and a mismatch between market-based management goals and public service ideals (Moe 1994; deLeon and Denhardt 2000; Thompson 2006). However, government still has attempted to cut red tape, empower employees, enhance efficiency, and emphasize customer driven influence based on total quality management (TQM) with the main goal of creating a government that works better and costs less (Osborne and Gaebler 1992; Goodsell 2004).

The National Commission on the State and Local Public Service (Winter Commission), which was established in 1991 and reflected the Clinton administration's reinventing government provisions by strengthening executive leadership and increasing flexibility of civil service standards, published a report that became an initiative of state civil service reforms in 1993. Five key recommendations, which the Winter Commission's report provided for the development of high-performance government, are shown in Table 3.⁷

With regard to the report, features of civil service reform in states might differ somewhat from federal reforms, but the goals and tools seem to be similar to those of the reinventing government. According to Hays, Byrd, and Wilkins (2006: 176), for example, South Carolina's

⁶ According to Kettl (1995: 29), the seven principles of the reinventing government that were presented by Vice-President Gore were: developing a clear vision, creating a team environment, empowering employees, putting customers first, communicating with employees, cutting red tape, and creating clear accountability.

⁷ In their assessment of states' personnel reforms fifteen years after the Winter Commission, Nigro and Kellough (2008) evaluated that many U.S. state governments have adopted ideas from the Winter Commission's 1993 report, but most of them have not considered trust, partnership, and leadership strategy in public service value basis (Nigro and Kellough 2008: 550).

reform (e.g., the State Government Accountability Act of 1993) is likely to be a “poster child” of the reinventing government movement. Other states, such as Florida, Oregon, Texas, and Massachusetts, have also implemented reinventing tools (e.g., privatization, elaborating system of measuring program outcomes) to improve government efficiency (Brudney, Hebert, and Wright 1999). Among states that were influenced by the Winter Commission report in 1993 and reinventing government movement in 1990s, Georgia became the grandfather state that has influenced the diffusion of civil service reforms in U.S. state governments (West 2002).

Table 3. Five Key Recommendations of Winter Commission Report in 1993

Key Recommendations	Action Plans
Removing the barriers to stronger executive leadership	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Strengthen executive authority ● Temper the fragmentation of government ● Keep the executive agenda intact
Removing the barriers to lean, responsive government	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Flatten the bureaucracy ● Deregulate government ● End civil service paralysis ● Accelerate the procurement process ● Eliminate spend-it-or-lose-it budget systems
Removing the barriers to a high-performance workforce	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Create a learning government ● Rebuild government’s human capital ● Create a new skills package ● Create financial incentives for learning ● Encourage a new type of public manager ● Encourage a new style of labor-management communication
Removing the barriers to citizen involvement	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Open the books on government ● Make campaign spending more visible ● Make lobbying more visible ● Limit the political fundraising ● Season and the use of carry-over funds ● Encourage citizen problem-solving ● Create citizen liaison offices ● Create a national service corps
Reducing fiscal uncertainty	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ● Prompt the federal government to lead, follow, or get out of the way on health care

According to Battaglio and Condrey (2006), civil service reform in Georgia was led by Governor Zell Miller, and Georgia Act 816 became the new foundation of Georgia's civil service in 1996 (Chi 2005; Walters 2002). Representing ideological, political, and technical changes, Georgia's civil service reform initiated more competitive pay systems in the entry-level and mid-level positions; reduction of pay grades; establishment of individual employee performance plans (e.g., performance PLUS); at-will employment in which employees have no property rights, especially employees who are dismissed; increased responsibility and responsiveness to executive leaders; streamlined classification and compensation systems; and streamlined grievance and appeal systems (Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough 2007).

By pursuing a state of Georgia-style civil service reform, Jeb Bush, Florida governor, led Florida's civil service reform (West 2002; Battaglio and Condrey 2006).⁸ Regarding this reform, Bowman (2002: 90) argued that "civil service reform is the result of politics." The major civil service reform in Florida was implemented based on the Service First System, which was established in 2001, with support from private sector organizations, including Florida Council of 100 and Florida Tax Watch (West 2002). Through Service First, job security of employees has been removed, and at-will employment (for supervisors only) has been instituted as a main tool of the reform. In addition, employees in Florida lost some due process rights, and the Public Employee Relations Commission (PERC) does not consider appeals from employees with respect to position transfer from classified positions to unclassified positions and layoffs. Florida adopted pay-for-performance systems to improve employee productivity and effectiveness, and the state also implemented broadbanding to simplify classification and compensation systems

⁸ Although "Florida used similar rhetoric and arguments in supporting Georgia-type reforms (West 2002: 86)," environments that drove civil service reforms and civil service reform structures in Georgia and Florida were different. For instance, presence of strong public unions and support from the private sector in Florida were different from Georgia's situation. Also, Georgia's reform covered all new hires from top to bottom, but Florida's reform coverage was limited to fewer employees (West 2002: 86).

(Condrey 2005; Battaglio and Condrey 2006; Bowman and West 2007; Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough 2007). Florida has attempted to deregulate and delegate personnel authority to line agencies to increase flexibility and efficiency of personnel functions (Battaglio and Condrey 2006; Condrey and Battaglio 2007). For instance, line managers have significant discretion in terms of employment, employee promotions, employee benefits, rewards for employee performance, and sanctions in Florida (Battaglio and Condrey 2006; Condrey and Battaglio 2007).

According to Cogburn (2000 and 2006a), through a decentralized personnel system, Texas also has radically reformed to improve efficiency and effectiveness of service delivery and employee work performance. Hays and Sowa (2006) stated that Texas delegated its personnel authority to agencies, and the central personnel office now supports employee training and personnel system sustainability (Nigro and Kellough 2000). Based on collective bargaining agreements, each agency sets rules and guidelines for classification and compensation (Texas State Classification Office 2009). Texas has deregulated personnel functions and employed broadbanding, pay-for-performance systems, and at-will employment. Other state governments, such as South Carolina, Arizona, California, Wisconsin, New York, and Utah, have also enacted civil service reforms (e.g., decentralization) to different degrees based on their historical, political, cultural, and socioeconomic environments.

Studies of Civil Service Reforms in the U.S.

Civil Service Reform Assessments in U.S. State Governments

With regard to the nationwide reinventing government movement of the 1990s and publication of the Winter Commission's report in 1993 (Nigro and Kellough 2008), many

scholars (Brudney, Hebert, and Wright 1999; Cogburn 2000; Hou, Ingraham, Beretschneider, and Selden 2000; Selden, Ingraham, and Jacobson 2001; Brudney and Wright 2002; Kellough and Selden 2003) have been interested in the extent and the intensity of the U.S. state governments' civil service reforms and the impacts of such reforms. Kellough and Nigro (2006) published the book "Civil Service Reform in the States: Personnel Policy and Politics at the Subnational Level" that introduced scholars' and practitioners' current studies about key civil service reform practices in the states. By analyzing various civil service reform practices in different states, Kellough and Nigro (Eds.) (2006) drew lessons for the future prospects of civil service reform. Additionally, *Review of Public Personnel Administration* published collections of scholarly articles, which focused on civil service reforms in the U.S., in three separate issues on June 2002, June 2006, and September 2008. In a 2002 publication, studies on Georgia and Florida's radical reforms were introduced. A 2006 publication focused on comprehensive reform practices in the U.S., and a 2008 publication focused on CSRA of 1978 assessment.

By employing empirical survey data, some scholars (e.g., Kellough and Selden 2003; Hays and Sowa 2006; Kearney 2006; Whalen and Guy 2008) have focused their studies on all 50 states, and other scholars (e.g., Barzelay 1992; Walters 2002; Bowman, Gertz, Gertz, and Williams 2003; Condrey 2005; Hays, Byrd, and Wilkins 2006; Cayer and Kime 2006; Naff 2006; Fox and Lavigna 2006; Riccucci 2006; Nigro and Kellough 2008) have conducted case studies about selected states, such as Minnesota, Georgia, Florida, Texas, Arizona, South Carolina, California, Wisconsin, and New York. Although various studies have been conducted to assess one or more selected states' civil service reforms, less research has focused on assessment of all state governments due to limitations of information accessibility and constraints of other resources (e.g., time and costs). Rainey (1998) argued that challenges related to assessment of

personnel reforms are associated with some factors, such as incentives to assess reforms carefully, various views of personnel experts about personnel reforms, and multifaceted characteristics of personnel reforms (Lavigna 2002; Walters 2002). Studies that have conducted comprehensive examinations or assessments of all fifty states' civil service systems and civil service reform-related issues include follow below.

A study by Brudney, Hebert, and Wright (1999) attempted to examine reinventing government efforts in state reform in the 1990s by employing American State Administrators Project (ASAP) survey data collected from more than 1200 agency heads from across the U.S. From late 1994 to early 1995, a postal survey was distributed to heads or directors of 93 types of agencies in the 50 states to measure the scope, content, and implementation of state reforms by using 11 items (questions about training program, quality improvement programs, benchmarks for measuring program outcomes or results, strategic planning, measuring client or customer satisfaction, simplifying personnel rules, increasing managerial discretion, privatization of major programs, reduction of number of levels in the agency hierarchy, decentralization of decision making, and greater discretion in procurement of goods and supplies), which were devised from the previous studies (e.g., Osborne and Gaebler 1992).

According to Brudney, Hebert, and Wright (1999), the survey results showed that reform implementation was likely to be high in strategic planning and training programs, and Florida, Utah, Connecticut, Minnesota, Oregon, and Massachusetts were highly ranked in terms of state reinvention efforts. In addition, the study found that agency heads who perceived a reinvention movement in their states might think that their agencies had considered or implemented reforms. To explain reinvention, Brudney, Hebert, and Wright (1999) focused on five categories of explanatory variables, including state reform effort, agency type, agency characteristics,

influences of the environment on the agency, and agency directors' background and attitudes. They found that state reform efforts (e.g., state reinvention and state structural reform), agency type (staff), agency characteristics (e.g., size, governor's appointment of agency head, and priority change), interest group influence, and agency director background and attitudes (e.g., organizational leadership goals, customer service goals, conservatism-liberalism, and agency director influence) are associated with reform implementation.

Although Calista (2002) criticized Brudney, Hebert, and Wright's study in terms of research methodology, Brudney, Hebert, and Wright updated previous findings in their 2002 study by employing ASAP 1998 data. Their 2002 study has showed that implementation of state reform had increased since 1994, and state reforms seemed to be not a "ripple" but a "tide" (Brudney and Wright 2002; Thompson 2002). Brudney, Hebert, and Wright's 1999 and 2002 studies did not specifically assess states' personnel reforms, but their studies played important roles in the development of scholarly and empirical research in the field of civil service reform.

In 2001, Cogburn conducted a study to examine which factors (including state party control, state legislative professionalism, gubernatorial strength, administrative professionalism, unionization, and general financial condition) influence deregulation, one of the key elements of reinventing reforms in the U.S., on state personnel systems using various measures (e.g., a scale of state government personnel deregulation) and survey data collected from the 50 states' top personnel officials between 1997 and early 1998. According to the results of statistic data analyses, unionism was negatively related to state deregulation. State party control also was negatively associated with deregulation of the states. States with greater degrees of Republican Party control over state government tended to have higher personnel deregulation scores (236). However, administrative professionalism had a significant and positive relationship with

personnel deregulation in states. States with a more professional workforce, defined as those states with higher ratios of public- to private-sector salaries, tended to have higher levels of personnel deregulation (237). In addition, the author has found that states' general financial conditions (tax capacity variable) had no direct impact on personnel deregulation.

Using data from the Government Performance Project (GPP) survey of state central personnel offices in 1998, Hou, Ingraham, Bretschneider, and Selden (2000) attempted to identify driving forces of human resources management decentralization, and such drivers included: service demand, organizational context, state political environment, and region influenced decentralization of human resource management.⁹ According to the results of the study, HR decentralization was influenced by political environment (divided government and unionization of state employees) negatively and significantly. With regard to this, the authors argued that human resource decentralization needs to be centrally supervised to cope with the eroding merit system.

In another study that used GPP 1998 data, Selden, Ingraham, and Jacobson (2001) examined emerging trends and innovations in state personnel systems, especially in terms of personnel authority, workforce planning, selection, classification, and performance management. The results showed that many states tended to delegate authority for personnel functions to agencies and managers, shift their human resource missions to being more proactive and collaborative with agencies, and adopt performance management systems that integrate organizational and individual goals. Additionally, the authors found that a number of states have revamped their classifications systems by streamlining the process, reducing the number of titles, or adopting broadbanding systems. Similarly, several states have adopted performance

⁹ HR decentralization was measured by an index derived from seven items, including classification, recruitment, testing, hiring, performance appraisal, discipline and grievance procedures (Hou, Ingraham, Bretschneider, and Selden 2000).

management systems that link agency and individual goals and subsequently reward high performance (606). Regarding this, the article suggested that state civil service reforms should consider both vertical fit (alignment of state human resource management with strategic planning and management of state government) and horizontal fit (extent to which the human resource practices align). Selden, Ingraham, and Jacobson (2001) also emphasized the importance of the roles of the central personnel office and state personnel department.

Kellough and Selden (2003) developed a personnel reform index to determine the extent to which states have implemented personnel reforms. By utilizing data collected from the National Association of State Personnel Executives (NASPE 2000) and the GPP (1998), six personnel reform indexes were developed: an index of the decentralization of authority for personnel functions; the extent to which personnel-related tasks are contracted out; the use of a relatively low number of job classes (job titles); the implementation of a system of broad pay bands (broad-banding); the use of labor-management partnerships; and the extent of workforce strategic planning within each state. According to the study results, Michigan, Virginia, and South Carolina were ranked highly in the public personnel reform scores, and Connecticut, West Virginia, and North Dakota received low scores. Connecticut posed a unique case because its low ranking for civil service reform deviated from the result of Brudney, Hebert, and Wright's 1999 study. To examine the explanatory factors of public personnel reform in the states, Kellough and Selden (2003) utilized the environmental context variable (e.g., legislative professionalism, state employee union density, and state unemployment level) and the organizational context variable (personnel department autonomy). The authors found that environmental context, especially legislative professionalism and state employee union density, was an important determinant of state personnel reform.

Employing a patterned interview template, Hays and Sowa (2006 and 2007) conducted a telephone survey of state offices of human resource management (OHRs) from all 50 states during a 15-week period from mid-January through late May 2005. The interviews focused on recent changes in the states' personnel systems that involved reinvention and accountability measures (e.g., removing workers from the classified service or changing the nature or definition of their positions). This study also used OHR annual reports, workforce profiles, and other sources of data. According to the results, "under the banners of decentralization, accountability, and flexibility, the due process rights of many civil servants are eroding, and at-will employment is affecting greater segments of the public labor force" (Hays and Sowa 2006: 106). Second, this study found the majority of states are moving employees from classified to unclassified service and at-will employees (Hays and Sowa 2006: 108). Third, in terms of job security and due process rights, some civil service reform cases have incurred criticism because of the restrictions on due process rights as similar to the Georgia's case. Finally, this study also showed that activist governors can be influenced by strong public sector employee unions.

Assessments of State's Civil Service Reform Based on Reform Elements

Since the Pendleton Act of 1883, questions about the merit principle have persisted, and many scholars (e.g., Savas and Ginsburg 1973; Ingraham 2006) have tried to assess whether the promises of a merit principle succeeded to create efficient public service systems through three core features, qualification, competence, and political neutrality. According to Savas and Ginsburg (1973) and Ingraham (2006), the merit system has been malfunctioning, and, therefore, "[a] true merit system must be constructed anew, one that provides the opportunity for any qualified citizen to gain access non-politically, to be recognized and rewarded for satisfactory

performance, and even to be replaced for unsatisfactory service” (Savas and Ginsburg 1973: 79).¹⁰ Scholars, such as Ingraham and Rosenbloom (1989), Kettl, Ingraham, Sanders, and Horner (1996), and Hay and Kearney (2001), have also argued that developing new human resource systems are necessary, based on comprehensive understanding the limits of reforms (Rohr 1992).¹¹ With regard to such demands of new human resources systems, the key elements of civil service reforms have been developed in U.S. state governments.¹² Among the reform elements, the present study focuses on four key reform elements in state governments, decentralized and deregulated personnel systems, pay-for-performance, at-will employment, and broad-banding.¹³ Previous research on civil service reform elements is explained below.

Decentralized and Deregulated Personnel Policy. According to Witesman and Wise (2009) and Andrews, Boyne, Law, and Walker (2009), government structure design, centralization or decentralization, has significantly influenced effectiveness of civil service reform practices and public service performance. More specifically, Witesman and Wise (2009) found that types of training programs for civil servants (e.g., training programs about anticorruption, policy skills, and technical skills) can be differently implemented by a government’s structure. According to the authors, highly centralized government seemed to provide employees with more training programs about anticorruption and policy skills than

¹⁰ Klingner and Nalbandian (1998: 5) provided three emerging antigovernment values that have affected the shape of recent personnel management: personal accountability, limited and decentralized government, and community responsibility for social services.

¹¹ According to Rohr (1992), the limits of reform include constitutional limits, political limits, and historical limits.

¹² According to Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough (2007), there are seven key reform elements: the decentralization or deregulation of personnel systems, at-will employment, pay-for-performance, broadbanding, lowering labor costs through contracting-out or privatization, simplified job classification and pay systems, and streamlined grievance procedures.

¹³ In terms of other reform elements, such as simplified job classification and pay systems, streamlined reduction-in-force, grievance, and appeals can be comprehensively discussed with regard to personnel decentralization and deregulation or broadbanding. In the case of privatization or contracting-out, some states have outsourced their personnel function, especially employee training and development programs or employee compensation or benefits programs (Siegel 2000). Many potential pitfalls (e.g., monitoring issue) caused by outsourcing (Wal 2009) have resulted in significant in-sourcing efforts (Ban and Gossett Forthcoming); therefore, outsourcing a personnel system will not be significantly dealt with in this dissertation.

decentralized government. In their 2009 study, Andrews, Boyne, Law, and Walker found that organizations which depend on “a high degree of hierarchical authority and low staff involvement in decision making, in particular” (73) seemed to perform better than the others. Regarding such a result, the authors argued that the degree of authority hierarchy and the level of employee participation in decision making are “significant determinants of performance only when they are matched with the ‘right’ organizational strategy” (74). That is, strategic organizational structure design, which is based on accurate examination of various factors (e.g., organizational culture) is necessary, and there is no “only one best way” to improve public service performance. However, most reformers have believed that decentralized personnel policy should help performance improvement in the public sector.

Reform proponents have argued that managerial flexibility can improve managerial efficiency in the public sector. However, Rainey and Kellough (2000: 133) argued that “greater decentralization of personnel policy” for greater flexibility may not directly and positively influence better agency operation. Furthermore, others have cautioned that preference to efficient and flexible government through the greater decentralization can result in less fair government (Frederickson 1996b; Rainey and Kellough 2000), and such concerns have moved to debates on reform design issues, such as central control vs. individual accountability (Ingraham 1992). Despite requests about careful examination of government structure design and about in-depth understanding of decentralization processes (Tessema, Soeters, and Ngoma 2009), reformers have argued that rigid rules and regulations governed by the central authority can hinder government efficiency and productivity, and they emphasized the needs of managerial empowerment that focuses on managerial flexibility and discretion (Ingraham and Rosenbloom 1989; Rainey and Kellough 2000) through the decentralization and deregulation. According to

Moynihan (2006), human resource decentralization in state governments reflects “a shift in control of personnel functions from state-level human resource offices to agency-level central offices” (82). With this regard, each agency can choose or tailor its own human resource management systems (Hou, Ingraham, Bretschneider, and Selden 2000).

Research on the deregulation¹⁴ of personnel systems in state governments has been conducted by various scholars (e.g., Coggburn 2000 and 2001; and Lynn 2000), and these studies yielded empirical evidence for other research in the field (e.g., Nigro and Kellough 2008). In his 2000 study, Coggburn conducted an empirical study “the effect of deregulation on state government personnel administration” (24), and impacts of economy and efficiency¹⁵ on personnel deregulation in state governments were examined through statistical data analyses by utilizing a cross-sectional data set. Additionally, Coggburn (2000) studied a relationship between personnel deregulation and the states’ discretion utilization that was measured by the percentage of a state’s part-time employees (24). In this study, the author found that no direct or significant relationship existed between a state’s personnel deregulation and the efficiency or effectiveness of state personnel practices. However, the study found that a highly deregulated personnel system could be related to the number of part-time employees in state governments. Although this study could not find any statistical support regarding economic explanations about personnel deregulation, it showed that political variables (e.g., Democratic control of state legislatures) have influenced state governments’ personnel deregulation (Coggburn 2000: 35). This finding was consistent with the results (e.g., a negative impact of a divided government¹⁶ on human resources management decentralization) from Hou, Ingraham, Bretschneider, and Selden’s 2000

¹⁴ DiIulio (1994: 4) defined that “deregulating the public service means changing personnel and procurement procedures in ways that enlarge the discretion of government employees.”

¹⁵ According to Coggburn (2000: 24), economy was measured by per capita wages, and efficiency was measured by the percentage of state expenditure that was allocated to state salaries and wages.

¹⁶ A divided government can be understood as “political party confrontation between the governor and the majority in the state legislature” (Hou, Bretschneider, and Selden 2000: 9).

study. By extending his study about personnel deregulation in state governments, Coggburn attempted to find explanatory variables that might influence state government personnel deregulation¹⁷ in his 2001 study. Through the utilization of survey data that the author collected from the 50 states' top personnel officials between 1997 and early 1998, Coggburn (2001) found that unionism and state political party control may negatively and significantly impact personnel deregulation in U.S. state governments. This impact was consistent with findings from Hou, Ingraham, Bretschneider, and Selden (2000). According to Coggburn (2001), administrative professionalism was significantly and positively associated with personnel deregulation in states. However, states' financial conditions (e.g., tax capacity) apparently did not directly influence personnel deregulation. In his case study on Texas state government's human resources management decentralization and deregulation by conducting a survey to HR directors' in state agencies in 2002, Coggburn (2006b) found that HR directors enjoyed their autonomy, and inequity and political abuse were not critical issues for personnel decentralization and deregulation in the Texas state government. Through the empirical case study, Coggburn (2006b) emphasized the importance of considering government structural context and utilizing both formal and informal networks while the state decentralized personnel policies.

By employing survey and in-depth interview data that were collected from six public personnel agencies in the New England states, Maine, Massachusetts, Vermont, New Hampshire, Rhode Island, and Connecticut, Lynn (2000) conducted a study to find a relationship between personnel deregulation and workforce performance improvement. The author also attempted to find an answer for a question whether state governments' human resource practices met any one

¹⁷ Based on the survey responses, forty-five states out of fifty states, Coggburn measured individual states' personnel deregulation scores. For instance, Colorado received 6; Florida received 3; Kansas received 8; Missouri received 9; and South Carolina received 13. No personnel deregulation score was provided for Georgia (Coggburn 2001).

of four criteria¹⁸ that were provided in the Winter Commission report in 1993. According to the author, employee training was increasingly decentralized in most of the six states, and agency authorities that include executive administrators, line managers, and human resource professionals have directed comprehensive employee training policies (Lynn 2000). Additionally, Lynn (2000) argued that most states, such as New Hampshire, have provided many broadband-based training programs to increase the flexibility of states' human resources management, but whether implementing such training programs met criteria by the Winter Commission's unclear.

Pay-for-performance (Merit Pay). Since the CSRA of 1978, employees were paid based on their abilities to work efficiently in Senior Executive Services (SES), which is a personnel system based on a rank-in-person approach¹⁹ (Daley 1995; Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough 2007). In a similar vein, a pay-for-performance system for midlevel managers (GS and GM13-15) was also created by the CSRA of 1978 to break the pattern of automatic pay raises for midlevel employees. Employees who are covered by a pay-for-performance plan may not receive step pay increases or full comparability increases of pay (Ingraham 1995a). Based on performance appraisals and ratings, the merit bonuses would be determined, and employees who are evaluated with unsatisfactory and marginal ratings would not receive any merit bonus increases (Ingraham 1995a; Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough 2007).

In terms of effectiveness of pay-for-performance, many scholars have questioned whether pay-for-performance can help employees improve their performance through motivation to work efficiently and receive higher pay. Kellough and Lu (1993) presented evidence that pay-for-performance has not generally improved employee job satisfaction, reduced turnover, and they

¹⁸ Four criteria include rebuilding government's human capital; enhancing labor/management communication; creating financial incentives for learning; and creating a new skills package for employee in state governments (Lynn 2000: 55).

¹⁹ In this approach, major factors for determining employee pay are characteristic of the individual employee rather than the tasks associated with the job or position.

explained that little empirical evidence exists to show whether productivity has been enhanced. Ingrahm (1993a) argued that many cases have described the failure of pay-for-performance in the private sector, and she raised questions about adequacy of pay-for-performance in the public sector. However, although many research findings have shown that pay-for-performance has various pitfalls that are related to problems with performance appraisal, funding, managerial discretion, and pay and motivation linkage,²⁰ many public organizations still prefer to adopt or implement pay-for-performance system (Pearce and Perry 1983; Gabris and Mitchell 1985; Perry 1992; Kellough and Lu 1993; Ingraham 1995a; Gabris and Ihrke 2000; Rainey and Kellough 2000; Montoya and Graham 2007; Perry, Engbers, and Jun 2009; Oh and Lewis 2009; Pynes 2009).²¹ Similarly, Bowman (2010) referred such phenomena as “the success of failure” in pay-for-performance practices and the paradox of pay-for-performance (Kellough and Lu 1993).

Many scholars (e.g., Pearce and Perry 1983) have attempted to evaluate effectiveness of pay-for-performance and have discovered that pay-for-performance might not be helpful for performance and productivity improvement in the public sector. For instance, by utilizing longitudinal data obtained between 1980 and 1981, Pearce and Perry (1983) examined performance appraisals for the pay-for-performance, and they found that many federal managers seemed not to regard pay-for-performance as a good institutional tool for motivating employees to increase productivity. Rusaw (2009) also pointed out that pay-for-performance may not increase public employee commitment by ignoring the utilization of other managerial tools, such

²⁰ Pay-for-performance is based on the expectancy theory (Kellough and Lu 1993; Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough 2007). This theory assumes that people make decisions among alternative plans of behavior based on their perceptions or expectations of the degree to which given behaviors will lead to desired outcomes (Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough 2007). Because expectancies about the outcomes are high, proponents of pay-for-performance believe that employees will be motivated. According to Oh and Lewis (2009), employees who are given intrinsic motivators are likely to be more skeptical of the effectiveness of performance appraisal systems.

²¹ Regarding the persistence of pay-for-performance, Kellough and Lu (1993) provide us with about six possible reasons for the persistence of pay-for-performance, such as symbolic politics, business stereotype, managerial orthodoxy, political control, sunk costs, and perceived implementation failure.

as broad-based and professional competencies. With regard to studies of pay-for-performance, Perry, Engbers, and Jun (2009) conducted a meta-analysis²² that focused on 57 pay-for-performance-related studies during the period between 1993 and 2008, and they found that these previous studies have consistently addressed the limited effectiveness of pay-for-performance.

Despite the unresolved issues related to pay-for-performance, many state and local governments (e.g., Georgia) have launched pay-for-performance systems during the past 20 years. However, they also encountered numerous difficulties while state and local governments have operated pay-for-performance systems (Kellough and Selden 1997). Little evidence suggests that these systems have yielded any desirable outcomes for improving employee performance, and implementation problems are legendary, ranging from technically inadequate employee performance appraisals to grossly insufficient funding by legislative bodies (Kellough and Lu 1993; Milkovich and Wigdor 1991). There are also indications that unanticipated negative consequences, such as widespread worker alienation and destructive competition for high performance ratings, are likely to result from systems that rely on traditional individual-based performance evaluations (Berman 1997; Bowman 1994; Fox and Shirkey 1997).

In Ingraham's (1993b) study, the author conducted a survey to explain the adoption of pay-for-performance in state governments, and 22 respondents among the personnel directors of the 23 state governments, which the U.S. General Accounting Office (GAO)'s report listed as pay-for-performance operating states,²³ returned surveys in 1991. According to Ingraham (1993a), although most personnel directors evaluated pay-for-performance systems to be somewhat helpful for the improvement of communication between employees and managers,

²² They employed a "footnote chasing" method while they selected studies in books, scholarly journal articles, think tank reports, and federal reports.

²³ These states include Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, California, Connecticut, Florida, Idaho, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kentucky, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Nebraska, New York, Oregon, South Carolina, South Dakota, Utah, and Wisconsin.

there were problems with the implementation of pay-for-performance. More specifically, some of these states, which the GAO reported as pay-for-performance operating states, did not implement systems, nor were they consistently funding to operate pay-for-performance programs (Ingraham 1993b).

Kellough and Selden (1997) examined how personnel officials in U.S. state governments assess pay-for-performance by conducting a survey to 350 personnel managers in state agencies through the random sampling method utilization in 1994. Based on responses from all fifty states' personnel managers, the authors found that about 30 different states had a pay-for-performance system. Regarding the question of whether pay-for-performance is effective tool to motivate employees and improve productivity, over fifty percent (56.5 percent for strongly agree, agree, and slightly agree) of respondents agreed to the effectiveness of pay-for-performance. Political appointees among those respondents were likely to evaluate pay-for-performance system more positively. Work experiences in public personnel management, private sector experience, and pay-for-performance coverage seemed to be negatively associated with personnel managers' perceptions of effectiveness of pay-for-performance. Additionally, the authors found that personnel managers perceived pay-for-performance positively in terms of clarification of performance standards and measures (54.2 percent agreed), clarification of individual roles and responsibilities (66.1 percent agreed), and clarification of the relationship between monetary rewards and performance (55.9 percent agreed). However, many respondents assessed that pay-for-performance had negative outcomes mostly in terms of: increased demands on supervisors' time (67.8 percent agreed) and intensive documentation and paper work (64.4 percent agreed). Also, most personnel managers perceived adequate funding (74.6 percent agreed) and pay-for-performance budget (70.2 percent) as problems that were encountered while

implementing a pay-for-performance system. In terms of the reasons why states continue to use of pay-for-performance, managers' perceptions that pay-for-performance makes employees responsible for performing high quality work (76.2 percent), and we have invested huge amount of money in the system (72.8 percent) were the main contributors to the utilization of pay-for-performance.

Kellough and Nigro (2002) assessed Georgia employee perceptions of pay-for-performance in Georgia state government since GeorgiaGain was implemented in the mid-1990s. Through a survey that was randomly conducted to 2,542 nonsupervisory personnel and 452 supervisory personnel (65.06 percent response rate) based on the Georgia Merit System (GMS) data files in 2000, the authors attempted to discover the impact of pay-for-performance (GeorgiaGain) on job satisfaction, trust and confidence in the state human resources management systems, and perceived effectiveness of GeorgiaGain. According to the findings of this study, most respondents seemed to be satisfied with their jobs (over 90 percent agreed from overall employees),²⁴ but they were likely to be less satisfied with their pay (82.5 percent agreed from overall employees). Consistent with Kellough and Selden's 1997 study, major numbers of survey respondents seemed to be concerned about funding issues in which states may not have enough money to reward good performers with high pay increases. Less competitive pay, comparing to the private sector's, also became an issue that state employees perceived as a problem of GeorgiaGain (87.8 percent agreed from overall employees). Sanders (2004) questioned whether Georgia's pay-for-performance is GeorgiaGain or GeorgiaLoss. In general, however, Kellough and Nigro (2002) found that younger, newer, and unclassified state employees were likely to perceive GeorgiaGain more positively (Nigro and Kellough 2006).

²⁴ In comparison with findings from the 1993's survey, which pertained some similar survey questions in Kellough and Nigro's 2000 survey, employee's perceived job satisfaction had decreased by 3.5 percent (94.0 percent in 1993 to 90.5 percent in 2000).

At-Will Employment. Under the doctrine of at-will employment (or, unclassified service) “both an employer and an employee may terminate the relationship at-will, for good cause or no cause”²⁵ (Markowitz 1995: 305). This approach has been adopted in many public organizations. In the case of state governments, Hays and Sowa (2006) found that more than half of U.S. state governments (28 states) have operated at-will employment.^{26, 27} Furthermore, some states, especially radical reform states (e.g., Georgia and Florida), have intensively utilized at-will employment with a goal to improve productivity and efficiency by simplifying employee hiring and firing processes.²⁸

In the case of Georgia which adopted at-will employment in the state government through the Georgia Act 816 in 1996, most state government employees (about 83 percent) became at-will employees by 2008 (Condrey and West Forthcoming). Nigro and Kellough (2008) estimated that numbers of at-will employees in the Georgia state government will increase further. Regarding such phenomena, scholars, such as Wilson (2006), Green, Forbis, Golden, Nelson, and Robinson (2006), and Gertz (2007), have raised questions about negative side effects of at-will employment that are directly associated with the possible abuse of public values (equity) and ethics, and many scholars (e.g., Bowman and West 2006; Kellough and Nigro 2006; Cogburn 2006a; Condrey and Battaglio 2007) have attempted to find motivating factors for and results of at-will employment adoption in state governments by conducting empirical studies that

²⁵ According to Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough (2007: 308), at-will employees (unclassified employees) “have no property interest in their positions and serve at the pleasure of their employers.”

²⁶ Among these at-will policy operation states, 25 states have also experienced some degree of personnel decentralization (Hays and Sowa 2006; Condrey and Battaglio 2007).

²⁷ Condrey and Battaglio (2007) found that unions, among various factors, seemed to significantly influence adoption of at-will employment in state governments.

²⁸ However, according to Muhl (2001) and Gertz (2007), two exceptions to at-will employment that include statutory exceptions and judicial exceptions, and, more specifically, statutory exceptions include antiretaliation statutes (e.g., whistle-blower protection) and antidiscrimination statutes (e.g., Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964); and judicial exceptions include public policy exception, implied contract exception, and implied covenant of good faith and fair dealing exception. In terms of judicial exceptions, Florida and Georgia do not have any kind of exceptions to at-will employment (Muhl 2001).

focus on Georgia, Florida, and Texas, which have experienced radical civil service reforms (Battaglio and Condrey 2006; Coggburn, Battaglio, Bowman, Condrey, Goodman, and West 2010; Condrey and West Forthcoming).

Prior to Kellough and Nigro's Georgia civil service reform survey in 2000, most studies that focused on at-will employment in the Georgia state government examined Georgia's civil service reform laws, or compared the traditional merit system and new personnel systems in the state qualitatively. Many scholars (e.g., Gossett 2002; Kuykendall and Facer 2002) argued that careful examination and adjustment of at-will employment were needed for successful personnel reform in Georgia. To examine the results of at-will employment, Gossett (2003) utilized a case study that focused on one Georgia department, Department of Juvenile Justice, by conducting a survey to 3,521 agency employees who were both full and part-time employees (about 33 percent of response rate) in 2000. Through the response comparisons between classified and unclassified employees, the author attempted to find answers for the question of whether at-will employment influenced employees' perceptions on organizational loyalty, job mobility, employee organization, and performance responsiveness. Although Gossett (2003) could not find any statistically significant difference between classified and unclassified employees' perceptions, except perception on performance responsiveness, the author contributed to the development of at-will employment studies through his empirical case study.

Kellough and Nigro (2006) studied the impact of dramatic civil service reform on state employees' attitudes based on the analyses of their 2000 survey data. By examining the difference of employee perception on Georgia's civil service reform, the authors found that both classified and unclassified employees seemed to assess that Georgia's reform was working unsuccessfully, and the positive impacts (e.g., successful and effective personnel process

development and employee motivation enhancement) of the reform that reformers had expected were doubtful. However, according to Kellough and Nigro (2006), in spite of the common agreement among employees on the ineffectiveness of Georgia reform, unclassified employees seemed to perceive the reform less negatively than classified employees.

In their 2007 study, Condrey and Battaglio attempted to find an answer for the question of whether radical civil service reforms may bring back spoils into state governments. Through the three lessons²⁹ from the prior radical reform experiences, the authors examined Georgia's civil service reform by employing data that was collected by a mail survey to 534 human resources professionals in the Georgia state government (51.3 percent of response rate) in 2006. Among the study results, one interesting finding was that HR professionals who had work experience in the private sector were likely to believe in the possibility of increasing unfair employment practices through at-will employment. Also, the results showed that HR professionals seemed to be aware that misuse of the HR system could discourage good government and fair employment practices. The authors found that the importance of the trust management while public sector implemented at-will employment.

For a thorough examination about the importance of trust management, Battaglio and Condrey (2009) conducted an empirical study by utilizing the same data set that they employed in their 2007 study. To study the impact of trust on at-will employment among HR professionals in the Georgia state government, the authors utilized an ordered logistic regression analysis. According to the findings, job security, whistle-blowing protection, procedural justice, spoils, age, and agency size were significantly related to HR professionals' perceptions of at-will employment. The results of the study also showed that HR professionals were likely to think

²⁹ These lessons were associated with the strength of public employee unions, neomanagerialistic perspectives on reforms, and employee attraction to the state government.

that the impact of spoils was related to fairness of human resources management, trust in management, and trust in organization. Regarding these findings, Battaglio and Condrey (2009) argued that trust management in workplaces that utilized at-will employment is very important for effective human resources management.

In terms of Florida's at-will employment practices, some scholars conducted empirical studies by utilizing survey data (e.g., Bowman, Gertz, Gertz, and Williams 2003; and Bowman and West 2006). Bowman, Gertz, Gertz, and Williams (2003) conducted a randomized telephone survey to 457 employees who worked in Selected Exempt Status (SES), which is at-will employment, in the Florida state government in 2002, based on the contact information list, which was provided by the state Department of Management Service. Through the data analyses, they attempted to examine how Florida's employees assessed the impact of Service First,³⁰ and Bowman, Gertz, Gertz, and Williams (2003) found that many employees (61 percent of respondents) were likely to see Service First as a tool for downsizing government. However, most of employees (over 70 percent of respondents) positively perceived their work environment under Service First, although employees (77 percent of respondents) might consider job security as a major attraction of civil service employment.

Bowman and West (2006) conducted a semi-structured telephone interview with employees, who were assigned to SES in three Florida departments, including the Departments of Transportation, Environmental Protection, and Children and Families, between October 2004 and March 2005. While this study focused on employees' attitudes on 11 reform dimensions that were reform goals, recruitment, service provision, responsiveness, productivity, morale and loyalty, pay, nonpartisan service, employment appeal, cost or asset, and business model, the

³⁰ According to Bowman, Gertz, Gertz, and Williams (2003), Service First abolished job tenure for 16,300 career employees.

authors found that most employees perceived that Service First was not successful. Additionally, the study found that many employees in three Florida departments were likely to think that they were dealt with as a cost rather than as an asset in their agencies.

In his study that assessed impacts of implementing at-will employment practices in the Texas state government, Coggburn (2006a and 2007) administered a mail survey to 122 HR directors in Texas state agencies in 2005 (with a 63 percent response rate). Regarding three major areas of research interest in this study: at-will employment doctrine, the use of at-will employment in agencies, and the perceived effectiveness of at-will employment, HR directors seemed to perceive the positive impact of at-will employment on employee responsiveness. However, such a finding was different from a study result regarding HR directors' perceptions about the effects of at-will employment on other employee behaviors, such as risk taking, whistle-blowing, decision making, sensitivity to issues of fairness, and performance in agencies. With regard to such findings, Coggburn (2006a and 2007) argued that governments should have a more comprehensive view that could consider not only efficiency and productivity but also other values, such as fairness and equity, when they adopt at-will employment.

Table 4. Selected Empirical Studies on At-Will Employment in Radical Reform States: Georgia, Florida, and Texas

Study	State	Data	Dependant Variables	Independent Variables	Findings
Gossett (2003)	Georgia (Department of Juvenile Justice)	Survey to 3,521 employees in 2000 (about 33% response rate)	Employee perception	Organizational loyalty; job mobility; employee organization; and performance responsiveness	No significant perception difference between classified and unclassified employee
Bowman, Gertz, & Williams (2003)	Florida	A randomized telephone survey to 457 employees in SES in 2002 (82 % response rate)	Employee perception	Service First implementation; work environment under Service First; and Future reform	Service First might be a tool for government downsizing; job security was an important attraction, but work environment under Service First was fairly satisfactory

Study	State	Data	Dependant Variables	Independent Variables	Findings
Kellough & Nigro (2006)	Georgia	A randomized mail survey to 2,542 employees in 2000 (68.02 % response rate)	Employee perception	Reform attributes	Both classified and unclassified employees agreed to ineffectiveness of Georgia's reform, but unclassified employees seemed to be less negative
Bowman & West (2006)	Florida (Department of Transportation; Environmental Protection; and Children and Families)	A semi-structured telephone interview with staff members who were assigned to SES in three Florida departments between October 2004 and March 2005	Employee perception	11 reform dimensions: reform goals, recruitment, service provision, responsiveness, productivity, morale and loyalty, pay, nonpartisan service, employment appeal, cost or asset, and business model	Most employees perceived that Service First was not successful; Many employees in three Florida departments were likely to think that they were dealt with as a cost rather than as an asset in their agencies
Cogburn (2006a & 2007)	Texas	A mail survey to 122 HR directors in Texas state agencies in 2005 (63 % response rate)	HR professionals attitudes	At-will employment doctrine; the use of at-will employment in agencies; and the perceived effectiveness of at-will employment	HR directors seemed to perceive about the positive impact of at-will employment on employee responsiveness; however, such a finding was different from a study result regarding HR directors' perceptions about the effects of at-will employment on other employee behaviors, such as risk taking, whistle-blowing, decision making, sensitivity to issues of fairness, and performance in agencies.
Condrey & Battaglio (2007)	Georgia	A randomized mail survey to 534 HR professionals in 2006 (51.3 % response rate)	HR professionals attitudes toward at-will employment	Age and years of service; prior private sector experience; size of agency; gender; education; political views; race; misuse of the HR system; unwarranted reductions in force; and trust management	Positive relationship between private sector work experience and perceived possibility of unfair employment practices; positive impacts of trust management on attitudes towards at-will employment
Battaglio & Condrey (2009)	Georgia	A randomized mail survey to 534 HR professionals in 2006 (51.3 % response rate)	Managerial trust	Job security; whistle-blowing protection; procedural justice; spoils; education; gender; age; length of service; percent at-will; and agency size	Job security, procedural justice, spoils, and agency size were significantly related perceived managerial trust; and among them, spoils practices were likely to significantly influence trust

Note: These studies were conducted by scholars who are experts on civil service reform in Georgia, Florida, and Texas, and they have also examined nation-wide civil service reform practices.

Broadbanding. Whalen and Guy (2008) and Naff (2003) define broadbanding as a reform that replaces narrow job classifications with large bands. Also known as paybanding, it collapses salary grades into wider pay bands, allowing more discretion for managers and simplifying the hiring and promotion process (Hays 2004; Riccucci and Naff 2008; Pynes 2009). According to Riccucci and Naff (2008), state governments, additionally the federal government, attempt to achieve more-flexible recruitment, more-timely hiring, more flexibility in pay and promotions, and more flexibility in reassignment and downsizing through civil service reforms including broadbanding job titles and pay. Regarding advantages of increased flexibility through broadbanding, Hays (1996) argues that employees benefit from greater freedom of movement within the organization (e.g., job enlargement and job enrichment), and such benefits also improve employee motivation and performance. For instance, Florida introduced a paybanding system that has some advantages in terms of administrative cost saving, managerial flexibility increase, improving tension between line managers and classifiers, and performance speed increase (Bowman, West, and Gertz 2003).³¹

Paybanding may have multiple benefits for both employers and employees (Human Resources Management Panel 2003). Because it simplifies complex, outdated job classifications, it allows managers to promote workers from one job to another without having to go through the formal job reclassification process. Paybanding promotes increased job flexibility by putting less emphasis on titles and position hierarchy; paybanding facilitates reorganization and job mobility; eliminates status distinctions among team members who are in different pay grades; and creates a performance-focused organization in which pay is based on performance rather than on longevity or rank (Whalen and Guy 2008: 350)

³¹ States that have implemented or have been planning to adopt broadbanding systems in the state governments are listed in Table 2.

Broadbanded pay grade structures make it much easier for managers to design and connect positions around work processes. They also facilitate recruitment on the basis of occupations and career planning, make moving people from job to job in the organization much less complicated, and support efforts to administer pay in ways intended to meaningfully reward performance and recognize differences in skills and abilities (Marchington and Wilkinson 2002). Simplified and delegated classification procedures dramatically reduce the time needed to complete classification actions, and reduce conflicts between personnel specialists and managers. Broadbanding has often been regarded as a useful way of expanding the authority of line managers (Human Resources Management Panel 2003).

However, some scholars have doubted the effectiveness of broadbanding. Costs to develop and manage new personnel management system, broadbanding, can hinder flexibility in the public personnel management. According to Armstrong and Brown (2001), for instance, broadbanding could lead to increased payroll costs unless very careful control is exercised over the operation of the system. In addition, the authors argued that broadbanding system may lead to difficulties in ensuring that equal-pay-for-work-of-equal-value imperatives are dealt with when analytical job evaluation is not applied extensively. Also, Armstrong and Brown (2001) argued that broadbanding could increase employee expectations of much greater pay progression opportunities than that in a controlled structure, and gaps between employee expectations and actual pay progression could create employees' complaints about broadbanding.

Flexible management through broadbanding system can cause resistance from employees and employee unions. For example, employees, who are in higher grades, may feel that their jobs have been devalued by being placed in the same band as employees who were previously in

a lower grade (Armstrong and Brown 2001; Rainey and Kellough 2000).³² Additionally, Armstrong and Brown (2001) and Riccucci and Naff (2008) argued that broadbanding and other efforts to increase flexibility by increasing managerial discretion may lead to concerns that such efforts may mean a return to the bad old days of management favoritism, subjective judgments, and inequalities because of the increased freedom for line managers to make their own pay decisions or other personnel management-related decisions.

Based on previous studies, the present research will examine the critical aspects of the civil service reform agenda in the selected states of Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Kansas, Missouri, and South Carolina, which have planned significant elements of the reform agenda. Through thorough examination, this study will assess the effectiveness of civil service systems in the selected states and, also, examine variations of human resources management practices among states. In chapter 3, the status of the civil service reform agenda in six selected states will be reviewed.

³² For instance, team leaders and their staff could be in the same band.

CHAPTER 3

**STATUS OF THE CIVIL SERVICE REFORM AGENDA IN SELECTED STATES:
COLORADO, FLORIDA, GEORGIA, KANSAS, MISSOURI,
AND SOUTH CAROLINA**

Preliminary descriptions of selected states' civil service environments and civil service reform agenda follow below. Elements of state civil service reform that the present study focuses on are classification and broadbanding, compensation, collective bargaining and public unionism, pay-for-performance (merit pay) and performance appraisal, range of grievable issues, and at-will employment.

Colorado

According to the Colorado Department of Personnel and Administration (2008), the Colorado state government has 33,155 employees in the state personnel system, and 7,167 employees who are in the non-state personnel system³³ in 2008. In the Colorado state government workforce which is composed of the state personnel system employees,³⁴ the average age of employees is 45.9 (Colorado Department of Personnel and Administration 2008). Regarding ethnicity, the Colorado state government had 24.3 percent of minority employees in 2008. In terms of gender, 49.1 percent of state employees are female, and 50.9 percent of state

³³ According to Colorado Department of Personnel and Administration (2008), non-state personnel system employees only include judicial and legislative employees.

³⁴ State personnel system employees include employees who are in general government agencies and higher education systems (Colorado Department of Personnel and Administration 2008).

employees are male (Colorado Department of Personnel and Administration 2008). The total turnover rate was 11.1 percent in 2008, and 38.7 percent of employees are eligible to retire within the next 5 years (Colorado Department of Personnel and Administration 2008). The average salary for state personnel system employees is 49,932 dollars (Colorado Department of Personnel and Administration 2008).

The Government Performance Project (The PEW Center on the State 2009) gave a C grade to Colorado's human resources management practices, and Colorado seems to have a weakness in employee training and development among the five categories of the assessment criteria³⁵ that were defined by the Government Performance Project. According to the Council of State Governments (1991-2006), the Colorado state government has experienced significant civil service reforms in 1998, 2000, and 2003, and, in Hays and Sowa's 2007 study, and Whalen and Guy's 2008 study, the Colorado state government has decentralized human resource management functions, adopted at-will employment with declined job security, implemented pay-for-performance and limited broadbanding.

According to Chi (2005: 82), a comprehensive civil service reform proposal to innovate current civil service systems was submitted by the Colorado Governor's Commission on Civil Service Reform in 2003. The commission recommended that the Colorado state government needs to extend personnel directors' discretion, eliminate the rule of three system, extend probationary periods and the requirement that all job applicants be state residents through civil service reforms (Chi 2005). The latest human resource practices, with regard to the elements of the reform agenda, in Colorado's state government are presented below.

Classification and Broadbanding. In terms of classification reform agenda, the Colorado

³⁵ Strategic workforce planning, hiring, retaining employees, training and development, and managing employee performance are five evaluation criteria (The PEW Center on the State 2009)

Governor's Commission on Civil Service Reform did not address the position classification issues in the final report of the civil service reform recommendation in 2003 (Chi 2005).

However, based on the Colorado state government's reform efforts, the state government reduced the number of job classifications from 1,348 in FY 1992 to 527 in FY 2005 (The Council of State Governments 1991-2006; HayGroup 2007). According to Whalen and Guy (2008), Colorado currently has considered broadbanding for the entire system. As the first step, the government implemented a broadbanding pilot program for the job of community parole officer to examine impact of the broadbanding system before extending broadbanding to the entire system (Whalen and Guy 2008).

Compensation. Colorado's statutes state that the Colorado government provides employees with total compensation (competitive or comparable to the market) in order to recruit, retain, and motivate a qualified workforce (HayGroup 2007). The major components of FY08-09 total compensation included pay (official compensation plan), group benefit plans, retirement, performance pay, work-life, premium pay, and paid time-off.³⁶ The Colorado Department of Personnel and Administration has developed a strategy that establishes the vision and direction for achieving competitive total compensation, and employees can estimate their total compensation through the My Total Compensation tool.³⁷ Colorado Statutes created the Total Compensation Advisory Council, and conducted annual compensation survey.³⁸ Through the annual compensation survey analyses (e.g., State Classified Employees Compensation and Benefits Survey³⁹), adjustments of employee salary (pay structure and performance pay) and

³⁶ <http://www.colorado.gov/dpa/dhr/comp/pay.htm>

³⁷ Employees can easily evaluate their total compensation via online:
<http://www.colorado.gov/cs/Satellite?c=Page&cid=1213025230141&pagename=DPA-DHR%2FDHRLayout>

³⁸ <http://www.colorado.gov/dpa/dhr/comp/pay.htm>

³⁹ <http://www.colorado.gov/cs/Satellite?blobcol=urldata&blobheader=application%2Fpdf&blobkey=id&blobtable=MungoBlobs&blobwhere=1251598065800&ssbinary=true>

group benefits have been implemented.⁴⁰

Collective Bargaining and Public Unionism. Kearney (2006) did not address Colorado public employees' collective bargaining rights when he surveyed state employee collective bargaining status.⁴¹ However, Bedford (2008) stated that Colorado has established partnership agreements with public employee unions in the state, and the four largest public unions in Colorado, including the Service Employees International Union (SEIU); American Federation of State, County, and Municipal Employees (AFSCME); and American Federation of Teachers (AFT), agreed to the creation of an association known as Colorado Workers for Innovation and New Solutions (WINS) that would enhance cooperation among public unions. According to Hirsch and Macpherson (2009), 22.0 percent of employees are members of public unions, and 26.4 percent of employees are covered by public union agreements.

Pay-for-Performance and Performance Appraisal. According to the HayGroup's study on state compensation in 2007, Colorado uses eight occupationally based pay plans to administer employee compensation. Employees are eligible to receive a wage increase based on their performance (HayGroup 2007). More specifically, in accordance with the provisions of statute C.R.S. 24-50-104 (1)(c) and (c.5) and Personnel Board Rules in effect as of October 1, 2007,⁴² departments and higher education institutions develop and implement the components of their individual Performance Management Program including achievement pay, and dispute resolution, consistent with the system-wide requirements.⁴³ The Colorado Department of Personnel and Administration provides employees and managers with guidelines for performance appraisal (3 levels of performance rating) to adhere to State personnel rule 6-4(G) that requires competencies

⁴⁰ <http://www.colorado.gov/dpa/dhr/comp/pay.htm>

⁴¹ According to Kearney (2006: 79), 16.4 percent of state government employees belonged to labor unions in 2001.

⁴² <http://www.colorado.gov/dpa/dhr/oversight/docs/perfreq11-2008.pdf>

⁴³ <http://www.colorado.gov/dpa/dhr/oversight/perfpay.htm>

such as communication, interpersonal skills, customer service, accountability, and job knowledge.^{44,45}

Range of Grievable Issues. Colorado Personnel Board Rule 8-5⁴⁶ states that “a permanent employee may grieve matters that are not subject to appeal or review by the Board or Director.” Each department is allowed flexibility to establish an internal grievance process to address and resolve problems, provided the process complies with the time frames and basic procedures in Board Rule 8-8.⁴⁷

At-will Employment. Colorado Personnel Board Rule 4-31⁴⁸ defines Colorado state government’s at-will employment doctrines. According to the Colorado Department of Labor and Employment (2010), “the legal doctrine of ‘employment-at-will’ provides that in the absence of a contract to the contrary, neither an employer nor an employee is required to give notice or advance notice of termination or resignation. Additionally, neither an employer nor an employee is required to give a reason for the separation from employment.” All temporary positions shall be in the Temporary Aide class. Temporary employees are employed at will and do not have the rights and benefits provided to permanent employees, except those mandated by law and pay grade minimum.”⁴⁹ In addition, since December 31, 1998, a temporary position cannot have any credit when an employee accepts a permanent position in the same class without a break in service.^{50,51}

⁴⁴ <http://www.colorado.gov/dpa/dhr/oversight/docs/perflevdef12-2007.pdf>

⁴⁵ <http://www.colorado.gov/dpa/dhr/oversight/docs/corecompetencies.pdf>

⁴⁶ <http://www.colorado.gov/cs/Satellite/DPA-SPB/SPB/1213608768055>

⁴⁷ <http://www.colorado.gov/dpa/dhr/workforce/docs/hrannualsurvey2006.pdf>

⁴⁸ <http://www.colorado.gov/cs/Satellite?blobcol=urldata&blobheader=application/pdf&blobkey=id&blobtable=MungoBlobs&blobwhere=1239161198022&ssbinary=true>

⁴⁹ <http://www.colorado.gov/dpa/spb/dohttp://www.colorado.gov/cs/Satellite/CDLE-LaborLaws/CDLE/1249391300453cs/rulesnew.pdf>

⁵⁰ <http://www.colorado.gov/dpa/spb/docs/rulesnew.pdf>

⁵¹ Colorado Department of Personnel and Administration did not report numbers of at-will employees in the state government.

Florida

According to the Florida Department of Management Services (2009), the Florida state government has 105,174 employees in the state personnel system (85,460 employees in the career service system, 19,115 employees in the selected exempt service, and 599 employees in the senior management service).⁵² The average age of the Florida state government employees is 47.06 (Florida Department of Management Services 2009). Regarding ethnicity, the Florida state government had 30.17 percent of minority employees in 2009. In terms of gender, 52.12 percent of state employees are female, and 47.88 percent of state employees are male (Florida Department of Management Services 2009). Although the overall proportion of female employees is fairly high number, female employees represent only 39.1 percent of senior management. According to the Florida Department of Management Services (2009), the percentage of separations to number of career service employees is 12.8, and the average salary for state personnel system employees was 38,517 dollars in 2009.⁵³

The Government Performance Project (The PEW Center on the State 2009) gave a C-grade to Florida's human resources management practices, and Florida seems to have weaknesses in strategic workforce planning and employee retention. According to the Council of State Governments (1991-2006), the Florida state government has experienced significant civil service reforms in 1993, 1996, 1998, 2000, 2003, and 2005, and, in Hays and Sowa's 2007 study and Whalen and Guy's 2008 study, Florida state government has decentralized human resource management functions, adopted at-will employment with declined job security, implemented

⁵² "Rule 60L-29.002(5), Florida Administrative Code, defines the State Personnel System as the employment system comprised of positions within the Career Service, Selected Exempt Service, or Senior Management Service, and within all agencies except those in the State University System, the Florida Lottery, the Legislature, the Justice Administration System or the State Courts System." (Florida Department of Management Services 2009)

⁵³ Average salary is 34,653 dollars for the career service employees, 54,019 dollars for the selected exempt employees, and 109,011 dollars for the senior management service employees (Florida Department of Management Services 2009).

pay-for-performance, and limited broadbanding. More specific descriptions regarding the current Florida state government's human resource practices follow below.

Classification and Broadbanding. The Career Service, Selected Exempt Service and Senior Management Service operate under broadband classification and compensation systems (Florida Department of Management Services 2008). Under the broadband classification system, positions are organized by broad job categories called job families. Positions are further divided into occupational groups and occupations (Florida Department of Management Services 2008). Sections 110.406(1) and 110.606(1) of the Florida statutes require the Department of Management Services to compile data regarding the administration of the Senior Management and Selected Exempt Services (Florida Department of Management Services 2008).

Broadbanding is a classification system that replaced the old state classification system by collapsing numerous classes with similar duties into broad occupational categories. Along with the broad categories, broad pay ranges were also created within this system. In essence, the Broadband system is a method of grouping similar duties and pay while providing a high degree of flexibility to agencies in order to meet the needs and demands of the state workforce (Florida Department of Management Services 2009). According to Whalen and Guy (2008), Florida implemented broadbanding in 2001 based on the design of the pay structure from the private sector (e.g., Suntrust Banks, Inc.), and section 110.2035, Florida Statutes, provides a limit to the number of occupational groups in Florida's classification system to no more than 50, a maximum of six classification levels for each occupation within an occupational group; thus, Florida statutes essentially established a limit of 300 job classification levels for the State Personnel System, including Career Service, Selected Exempt Service and Senior Management Service pay plans.⁵⁴

⁵⁴http://dms.myflorida.com/human_resource_support/human_resource_management/for_state_hr_practitioners/reports

The law also required that the accompanying pay plan provide broad-based salary ranges for each occupational group. The 3,343 classes under the old classification system were consolidated into 237 occupations under the broadband system. More specifically, the Florida state government operates 23 job families, 38 occupational groups, 237 occupations, and 146 broadband levels (Florida Department of Management Services 2009).^{55, 56}

Compensation. The Florida state government defines the total compensation system as the total salary and benefit package which was provided to recruit and retain a high performance workforce for the state personnel system. The elements of the total compensation package included basic salary, health insurance, retirement, social security, medical care and leave benefits in 2009.⁵⁷ According to the Florida Department of Management Services (2009), the Florida state government has 25 pay bands, and each pay band ranges between a minimum and maximum salary. For instance, the annual minimum and maximum salary for a pay band 001, which were composed of 4,664 positions, were 16,751.28 and 43,532.58 dollars each in 2009. The annual minimum and maximum salary for a pay band 025, which were composed of 23 positions, were 68,135.86 and 283,310.56 dollars each in 2009 (Florida Department of Management Services 2009).

Collective Bargaining and Public Unionism. As of June 30, 2009, there were seven labor organizations⁵⁸ representing 13 collective bargaining units in the Florida state government (Florida Department of Management Services 2009). According to Hirsch and Macpherson

⁵⁵http://dms.myflorida.com/human_resource_support/human_resource_management/for_state_hr_practitioners/broadband_classification_and_compensation_program

⁵⁶http://dms.myflorida.com/human_resource_support/human_resource_management/for_state_hr_practitioners/reports

⁵⁷http://dms.myflorida.com/human_resource_support/human_resource_management/for_state_hr_practitioners/reports

⁵⁸ According to Florida Department of Management Services (2009), seven labor organizations include American Federation of State, County and Municipal Employees, Florida Nurses Association, International Union of Police Associations, Florida State Fire Service Association, Federation of Physicians and Dentists, and State Employees Attorney Guild.

(2009), 28 percent of employees are members of public unions, and 33.9 percent of employees are covered by public union agreements. More specifically, 92,778 employees were represented by a union on their main job in 2009 (Florida Department of Management Services 2009).

Pay-for-Performance and Performance Appraisal. The Florida state government operates a merit pay system. For the performance appraisal, the Performance Evaluation System has been implemented, and it helped employees to receive feedback concerning performance of assigned duties and responsibilities.⁵⁹ The performance evaluation system informs employees of their strengths and areas of needed improvement in job performance. It also identifies current and future training needs, and provides documentation for awarding discretionary merit increases and lump sum bonuses in accordance with the Section 110.1245(2) of the Florida Statutes.⁶⁰ Each agency has discretion to develop disciplinary actions with regard to Chapter 60L-36, Florida Administrative Code (Code 65L-35.001).⁶¹ The Florida Administrative Code 60L-35.003 provides foundations of performance evaluation guidelines.⁶²

Range of Grievable Issues. Florida Statute Section 447.401 requires one provision in all public employee labor contracts. The provision states that a negotiated grievance procedure must be in place for the interpretation or application of the collective bargaining agreement.⁶³ The provision further requires that the final step of such a process be binding arbitration by an impartial and neutral arbitrator. However, this section does not mandate which subjects must be

⁵⁹http://dms.myflorida.com/agency_administration/administrative_policies_and_procedures_code_of_personal_responsibility/human_resources_hr

⁶⁰http://dms.myflorida.com/human_resource_support/human_resource_management/for_state_hr_practitioners/personnel_rules_and_statutes

⁶¹http://dms.myflorida.com/human_resource_support/human_resource_management/for_state_hr_practitioners/personnel_rules_and_statutes

⁶²http://dms.myflorida.com/human_resource_support/human_resource_management/for_state_hr_practitioners/personnel_rules_and_statutes

⁶³<http://caselaw.lp.findlaw.com/scripts/getcase.pl?court=fl&vol=97-05027&invol=1>

included within a collective bargaining agreement.⁶⁴

At-will Employment. According to Condrey and West (Forthcoming), the radical civil service reform in the Florida state government swept 16,000 state employment system employees (all supervisors) into at-will employment. Regarding such reform movement, especially which focuses on at-will employment, Bowman and West (2007) found no significant results in terms of reform efficiency and effectiveness. In their research in 2007, Bowman and West conducted patterned telephone interviews with employees who changed their positions from the career services to the Selected Exempt Services (SES) in the three Florida departments, including the Department of Transportation, Environment Protection, and Children and Families. The authors have attempted to evaluate the success of reform goals in terms of eleven different dimensions, such as productivity, loyalty, responsiveness, and efficiency; however, most respondents were doubtful about whether Florida's reform was actually effective. According to Condrey and West (Forthcoming), many HR professionals in the Florida state government seem to regard at-will employment as a tool to meet agency budget shortfalls rather than a tool to improve human resource management efficiency and productivity.

Georgia

According to the Georgia Merit System of Personnel Administration (2008), the Georgia state government has 82,001 employees, and, among state government employees, 16,246 are classified employees⁶⁵ and 65,755 are unclassified (at-will) employees⁶⁶ in 2007. In the Georgia

⁶⁴ "While the Legislature has mandated that each public employer and bargaining agent must negotiate a grievance procedure, it has not in section 447.701 specified which issues must be included in the procedure" (FindLaw 2009).

⁶⁵ According to rules and regulations of the Georgia state personnel board (Georgia State Personnel Board 2008), "Classified employee means an employee who was in the classified services as of June 30, 1996, and who has remained in a classified position without a break in service since that date."

⁶⁶ Unclassified employees are those who work in unclassified service that means "employment-at-will and includes all employees except those in the classified service" (Georgia State Personnel Board 2008).

state government workforce, the average age of employees is 44 (Georgia Merit System of Personnel Administration 2008). Regarding ethnicity, the Georgia state government had 49.8 percent of minority employees in 2007. In terms of gender, 63 percent of state employees are female, and 37 percent of state employees are male (Georgia Merit System of Personnel Administration 2008). The total turnover rate of the Georgia state government was 18 percent in 2007 (Georgia Merit System of Personnel Administration 2008).

The Government Performance Project (The PEW Center on the State 2009) gave an A-grade to Georgia's human resources management practices, and Georgia received good grades on three elements, including strategic workforce planning, hiring, employee training and development, and management of employee performance. Hays and Sowa (2007) found that the Georgia state government has experienced a significant level of human resource management decentralization, adoption of at-will employment, declined job security, and pay-for-performance. Although the Georgia state government has not adopted the broadbanding system, it has reduced numbers of pay grades, and, now, the Georgia state government has about 23 pay grades (Whalen and Guy 2008).

Regarding Georgia's radical civil service reform practices (Battaglio and Condrey 2007), some research results have raised questions about the effectiveness of Georgia's civil service reform. According to Kellough and Nigro (2002), Georgia's civil service reform might not effectively motivate employees to improve their performance and productivity (Nigro and Kellough 2000 and 2006). In addition, Gossett (2003) assumed that reforms can be negatively perceived by state employees in his study that utilized data collected by the Department of Juvenile Justice. The most significant concerns from scholars and practitioners about civil service reforms in Georgia have been associated with the implementation of the at-will

employment and adoption of pay-for-performance systems. According to Gossett (2002), Kuykendall and Facer (2002), and Kellough (1999), Georgia's radical civil service reform practices may conflict with traditional civil service systems (e.g., job security that was protected by the merit system), and overemphasis on the efficiency and effectiveness may harm other important values, such as equity and accountability. Lasseter (2000) assessed Georgia's reform agenda in his practitioner's perspective, and he argued that a reasonable balance between discretion and accountability was required for the sustainable personnel system development in the Georgia state government. A more specific reform description follows below.

Classification and Broadbanding. In terms of job classifications, the redesign of jobs was to update and streamline the state's classification structure and to reduce the number of duplicate and redundant jobs. More than 3400 jobs were consolidated into approximately 650 new jobs in 2007 (Georgia Merit System of Personnel Administration 2008). The new job system is comprised of job descriptions specifically designed to enhance employee performance, training, employee development and advancement (Georgia State Personnel Administration 2008).

Compensation. Enhancing flexible benefit choices and rates is one of several strategic initiatives undertaken by the Georgia State Personnel Administration to address critical recruitment and retention challenges in state government. The state is taking the necessary steps to create a total rewards package that appeals to varying sets of values, attitudes and compensation expectations (Georgia State Personnel Administration 2009). The State of Georgia offers four types of incentive compensation programs, including a hiring program, a training and education program, a goal-based program, and a performance-based program. The performance-based program, PerformancePlus, pays state employees on a 23 grade statewide salary plan in a

pay range from target to maximum salaries. Through structure adjustments, state salaries are steadily gaining on the private sector market.⁶⁷

Collective Bargaining and Public Unionism. Georgia state government employees do not have collective bargaining rights or strong public employee unions (Kearney 2006). Georgia is a right-to-work state,^{68,69} and public employee are prohibited from collective bargaining (Condrey and West Forthcoming). According to Hirsch and Macpherson (2009), 8.7 percent of employees are members of public unions, and 11.5 percent of employees are covered by public union agreements. Georgia Code O.C.G.A. § 45-19-2 clarifies that “No public employee shall promote, encourage, or participate in any strike; provided, however, that no right to collective bargaining currently recognized by law is abridged by this article [O.C.G.A. § 45-19-2].”⁷⁰

Pay-for-Performance and Performance Appraisal. Georgia implemented GeorgiaGain in 1996, and this caused Georgia state employees pay to be determined based on employee job performance. Through PerformancePlus (the succession to GeorgiaGain), the Georgia state government provided employees with bonuses for work performance (Walters 2002). While debating on positive or negative influences of merit pay (e.g., Kellough and Nigro 2002; Gossett 2002), the total rewards system in Georgia has developed as “a tool for estimating the dollar value of direct and indirect payments that the State of Georgia,”⁷¹ and this system manages compensation (e.g., base pay and bonus/incentives/performance pay) and other employees

⁶⁷ <http://www.spa.ga.gov/naspe/images/testing.htm>

⁶⁸ “A right-to-work law secures the right of employees to decide for themselves whether or not to join or finically support a union. However, employees who work in the railway or airline industries are not protected by a right-to-work law, and employees who work on a federal enclave may not be” (National Right to Work Legal Defense Foundation, INC. 2010).

⁶⁹ According to the National Right to Work Legal Defense Foundation, INC. (2010), there are 22 right-to-work states in the U.S. Those states include Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, Florida, Georgia, Idaho, Iowa, Kansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Nebraska, Nevada, North Carolina, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Virginia, and Wyoming.

⁷⁰ <http://www.lexis-nexis.com/hottopics/gacode/default.asp>

⁷¹ <http://www.spa.ga.gov/rewardsIndex.asp>

benefits. According to the Georgia State Personnel Board (2008), merit pay and performance appraisal are based on the provisions of O.C.G.A. § 45-20-3, 3.1, 4 and Rule 17.300 of the State Personnel Board. Employees who receive a summary rating of “Met Expectations” can receive three percent increase in base salary (Georgia State Personnel Board 2008). Additionally, the Georgia State Personnel Administration has introduced an enhanced employee Performance Management Process (PMP), and PMP helps managers rate employees’ performance more accurately.⁷²

Range of Grievable Issues. A grievance hearing provides a forum for an employee (grievant) and supervisor (respondent), or their representatives, to fully explain their positions in a grievance. A certified grievance hearing officer conducts the hearing and prepares a written report with recommendations to assist the agency in rendering a final decision.⁷³ Both classified and unclassified employees are covered by grievance procedures.⁷⁴ Employees’ grievance issues are covered by Georgia Code O.C.G.A. § 9-11-11.1⁷⁵ as well as by Georgia State Personnel Board Rule 478-1-.21 of the Employee Grievance Procedure.⁷⁶

At-will Employment. According to Condrey and West (Forthcoming), about 83 percent of Georgia state employees are considered as “unclassified” or “at-will” in 2006. Nigro and Kellough (2008) presented that almost 85 percent of the employees in Georgia state government held at-will appointments by 2008 (S53). The Georgia Secretary of State (2010) defines at-will employment: “in the absence of a written contract of employment for a defined duration, an employer can terminate an employee for good cause, bad cause or no cause at all, so long as it is

⁷² http://www.spa.ga.gov/pdfs/Winter_Spring2008.pdf

⁷³ http://www.spa.ga.gov/employees/grievance_hearing.asp

⁷⁴ http://www.spa.ga.gov/pdfs/compensation/cb.grievance_policy.pdf

⁷⁵ <http://www.lexis-nexis.com/hottopics/gacode/default.asp>

⁷⁶ http://www.spa.ga.gov/employees/rules/rules_index.asp

not an illegal cause.”⁷⁷ Additionally, at-will employees do not have a property interest or tenure rights after one-year probationary period, and such employment doctrine was effective since 1996 (Battaglio and Condrey 2007). Regarding Georgia at-will employment practice, recent studies (e.g., Battaglio and Condrey 2009; Condrey and West Forthcoming) showed that human resources professionals seemed to suspect promised outcomes of at-will employment (e.g., increased managerial flexibility and improved employee performance or work productivity). More specifically, many scholars have uncovered evidence of at-will employment’s negative impact on employee perceptions of fairness and organizational trust (e.g., Battaglio and Condrey 2009; Condrey and West Forthcoming).

Kansas

Kansas ranked at 29th out of 50 states with regard to the number of state employees per 10,000 in state population in 2008 (Kansas Division of Personnel Services 2009). More specifically, Kansas has 21,328 classified employees with an average age of 46 and 15,888 unclassified employees with an average age of 47 in 2008 (Kansas Division of Personnel Services 2009), and these numbers seem to show that the Kansas state government’s workforce is rather large. However, according to the Government Performance Project (The PEW Center on the State 2009), Kansas is likely to perform poorly (i.e., a grade of C+) in terms of human resources management practices, including strategic workforce planning, hiring, retaining employees, training and development, and management of employee performance. According to the Council of State Governments (1991-2006), Kansas has experienced significant civil service reforms in 2005, and Hays and Sowa (2006 and 2007) also found that Kansas has recently made changes in terms of human resource management decentralization, adoption of at-will

⁷⁷ http://sos.georgia.gov/FirstStop/georgia_employers.htm

employment, expansive or agency specific range of grievable issues, declined job security, pay-for-performance, and broadbanding in various ranges.

Chi (2005) argued that Kansas is one of the states that should expect a severe worker shortage in the next ten years because of the growing rate of employee retirement. According to the Kansas Division of Personnel Services (2009), employee turnover due to retirement have increased 10.5 percent in 2008 in comparison to 1998. Chi (2005) estimated that the Kansas state government could lose at least 30 percent of its employees in the near future (91), and he argued that developing innovative and strategic HR practices is necessary to cope with the possible workforce shortage or human capital crisis. As an instance of such efforts, Lavigna (2002) showed that Kansas has implemented innovative bonuses or compensation systems (e.g., employee contracting program for IS staff⁷⁸) that has been successful in reducing overall turnover rate. Additionally, with respect to human resource management flexibility improvement, Kansas reduced the numbers of its job classifications from 1,142 in 1992 to 561 in 2005; however, the number of total employees increased from 211,614 in 1992 to 240,548 in 2005 (The Council of State Governments 1991-2006; The U.S. Census Bureau 2008). The Kansas state government's HR practices, including classification and compensation, collective bargaining, pay-for-performance (merit pay) and performance appraisal, grievance issues, broadbanding, and at-will employment, follow below.

Classification and Broadbanding. According to Kansas statutes, K.S.A 75-2938,⁷⁹ the director of personnel services can assign classified service positions to classes based on the duties and responsibilities of positions. The director can specify titles for each class for use in certifying the names of persons for appointment under this act. In addition, the director can

⁷⁸ The Kansas state government has provided IS staff with 15 percent salary increases and additional training when employees who have critical IS skills contract with the Kansas state government during three years (Lavigna 2002).

⁷⁹ http://kansasstatutes.lesterama.org/Chapter_75/Article_29/75-2938.html

specify a description of the duties and responsibilities with suitable qualifications required for satisfactory performance in each class. Regarding classification, the Kansas state government has tried to simplify the system. As an effort, the Division of Personnel Services (DPS) has developed and started implementation of a three year, six-phase project to simplify the classification system with the goals of consolidating classes when possible; ensuring the minimum qualifications that can attract qualified applicants; updating class specifications to reflect current work performed; and identifying the use of technology (Kansas Division of Personnel Services 2001). To meet such goals, Kansas schedules implementation of broadbanding in 2010 (Whalen and Guy 2008).

Compensation. Based on a consultation with the director of the budget and the secretary of administration, the director of personnel services can prepare a pay plan which may contain a schedule of salary and wage ranges and steps.⁸⁰ The classes and pay plans for the classified service as approved by the governor can be used by the director of the budget in the preparation of the budget (K.S.A 75-2938).⁸¹ In addition, the Kansas Administrative Regulation covers classification and compensation issues.^{82,83}

Collective Bargaining and Public Unionism. About 50 percent of Kansas state employees are included in one of 62 collective bargaining units in 2007. These 62 units are represented by the nine unions such as KAPE, AFSCME, CGES, KSTA, FOP, NAGE, GCIU, IAFF, and Teamsters (Kansas Division of Personnel Services 2007). In terms of public unionism that can be measured by the density of unionization, 16.6 percent of employees are members of unions, and 22.9 percent of employees are covered by public union agreements (Hirsch and

⁸⁰ <http://www.kslegislature.org/legsrv-statutes/getStatuteInfo.do>

⁸¹ <http://www.kslegislature.org/legsrv-statutes/getStatuteInfo.do>

⁸² <http://da.ks.gov/ps/subject/payplan.htm>

⁸³ More specifically, K.A.R.1-2-42; K.A.R.1-2-42a; K.A.R.1-5-21; K.A.R.1-5-24; K.A.R.1-5-28; and K.A.R.1-9-1 cover classification and compensation issues.

Macpherson 2009).

Pay-for-Performance and Performance Appraisal. In the past, the Kansas Division of Personnel Services has prescribed a centralized statewide performance review form to be used by all agencies in evaluating employees.⁸⁴ However, acting on a new direction of decentralizing statewide human resource functions, the Director will no longer prescribe a mandated form. Effective from June 22, 2003, the Director of Personnel Services will no longer prescribe a centralized statewide performance review form.⁸⁵ Agencies can continue to use the current form or develop their own forms that fit their individual agency's needs. However, the timeframes for performance reviews and the requirements to use a three-level rating system and enter ratings into Statewide Human Resource and Payroll System (SHARP) remain unchanged (Bulletin No. 03-04 regarding K.A.R. 1-7-10).⁸⁶ Regarding performance appraisal, a resource guide for managers (Kansas Division of Personnel Services 2008) provides managers with guidelines for overall performance management processes, such as guidelines to avoid rating inflation because performance appraisal is directly or indirectly related to merit pay. Regarding merit pay, Palmer (2007) argued that flexibility to treat individuals and occupations with regard to specific situations in terms of a position or job grouping is required for successful merit pay system implementation.

Range of Grievable Issues. Kansas Personnel regulation Article 12 covers grievance procedures.⁸⁷ As Hays and Sowa (2007) found, each appointing authority can establish in writing a grievance procedure for its own employees in the Kansas state government. An employee's accessibility to a grievance procedure cannot preclude the employee's use of

⁸⁴ <http://da.ks.gov/ps/documents/bulletins/0304.htm>

⁸⁵ <http://da.ks.gov/ps/documents/bulletins/0304.htm>

⁸⁶ <http://da.ks.gov/ps/documents/bulletins/0304.htm>

⁸⁷ <http://www.da.ks.gov/ps/documents/regs/>

appropriate appeal procedures that are covered by the civil service act or these regulations.⁸⁸

At-will Employment. Since 1998, the number of unclassified employees (at-will employees) in Kansas state government has increased 22.6 percent, while the number of classified employees has decreased 15.9 percent (Kansas Division of Personnel Services 2009). Kansas state statute, K.S.A. 75-2935, as amended, or other sections of the statutes (K.A.R. 1-2-97) covers unclassified employment.⁸⁹ Employees can be discharged anytime for any reason except for illegal reasons (e.g., an employer's exercise of this power may be restricted by collective bargaining rights or other agreements or by specific statutes, including those prohibiting discrimination on the basis of race, sex, or other factors).⁹⁰

Missouri

According to the Missouri Division of Personnel (2009), the Missouri state government has 41,121 employees, and, among state government employees, 37,297 are classified employees⁹¹ and 3,606 are unclassified employees in 2009. In the Missouri state government workforce, the average age of employees is 49 (Missouri Division of Personnel 2009). Regarding ethnicity, 1.9 percent of employees are Hispanic, Asian Pacific Islander and Native American decent, 11.6 percent of employees are African Americans, and 86.3 percent of employees are White (Missouri Division of Personnel 2009). In terms of gender, 56 percent of state employees are female, and 44 percent of state employees are male (Missouri Division of Personnel 2009). The total turnover rate of the state employees is 13.0 percent (7.3 percent of

⁸⁸ This regulation has been effective on and after June 5, 2005, and it was authorized by K.S.A. 2004 Supp. 75-3747. For more information, see <http://www.da.ks.gov/ps/documents/regs/art-12.htm>

⁸⁹ <http://www.da.ks.gov/ps/documents/aap/glossary.pdf>

⁹⁰ <http://www.da.ks.gov/ps/documents/aap/glossary.pdf>

⁹¹ Missouri Division of Personnel (2009: 18) defines classified employees as “those whose duties, responsibilities, qualifications and job titles are prepared, adopted, maintained and administered by the Division of Personnel under the authority of the Personnel Advisory Board for Uniform Classification and Pay (UCP) System agencies.”

voluntary turnover rate, 2.1 percent of dismissals, and 2.5 percent of retirement). According to the Missouri Division of Personnel (2009), 23.2 percent of employees will be eligible for retirement within five years.

The Government Performance Project (The PEW Center on the State 2009) gave a B-grade to Missouri's human resources management practices. Among the elements of human resources management practices, including strategic workforce planning, hiring, employee retention, training and development, and performance in employee management, Missouri was evaluated as it had strengths on employee training and development and managing employee performance. According to the Missouri Division of Personnel (2009), in 2009 133 training programs were operated, and 1,859 supervisors and managers attended such training programs. Also, Missouri's PERforM system helped raters (supervisors) and reviewers (second-level supervisors) to easily complete the appraisal process on-line (Missouri Division of Personnel 2009). Utilizing the Electronic Application System (EASe) helped to create speedy and efficient hiring processes by improving access and cutting costs of applications (Missouri Division of Personnel 2009). Such efforts regarding modernization of the human resources management systems in the state of Missouri have been implemented through reform efforts. Missouri has experienced various forms of civil service reforms, including decentralization, at-will employment, agency specific range of grievable issues, reduced job security, pay-for-performance, and broadbanding (Hays and Sowa 2006 and 2007), and more specific reform characteristics follow below.

Classification and Broadbanding. Missouri Personnel Code Title 1 CSR 20-2.010, 1CSR 20-2.015, and 1 CSR 20-2.020 define rules of classification and compensation (Secretary of Missouri State 2004). According to 1 CSR 20-2.010 regarding the classification plan, the

Personnel Division and the Personnel Advisory Board have the authority and responsibility for preparation, adoption, maintenance and revision of a classification plan for all positions in the classified and covered services (Secretary of Missouri State 2004). This rule provides the framework within which this authority is exercised. In addition, 1 CSR 20-2.015, Broad Classification Bands for Managers, states that the board is establishing this rule to provide for the broadbanding of manager positions within agencies covered by the uniform classification and pay provisions of the State Personnel Law. This rule provides for the formation and administration of a system of broadbanding applicable to manager positions within affected state agencies (Secretary of Missouri State 2004). The Division of Personnel and the Personnel Advisory Board may exercise authority and responsibility for preparation, adoption, maintenance and revision of that part of the classification and pay plan which includes provisions for grouping of management positions with similar levels of responsibility or expertise into broad classification bands in the classified and covered services. This rule provides the framework within which this authority may be exercised (Secretary of Missouri State 2004). According to HayGroup (2007), the Missouri state government had 1,025 job classes in 2007.

Compensation. In terms of pay plans, 1 CSR 20-2.020 defines pay plans in Missouri (Secretary of Missouri State 2004). Missouri utilizes two pay plans to compensate employees (Secretary of Missouri State 2004; HayGroup 2007). Specifically, the managers are on a pay plan with three open pay bands, and individual agencies have discretion to administer compensation within the pay bands (HayGroup 2007). A pay plan has 40 pay grades, and each pay grade includes 17 to 21 pay steps (HayGroup 2007).

Collective Bargaining and Public Unionism. According to Kearney (2006), Missouri is the most recent state to grant collective bargaining rights to public employees through executive

order in 2001. Approximately 23,969 Missouri state employees (43.7 percent of the state government workforce) are represented by labor unions in 2009 (Missouri Division of Personnel 2009). These employees are represented by one of 11 different bargaining units in which they share a community of interest with the other employees within their bargaining units (State of Missouri 2009). According to the statistics that were collected by Hirsch and Macpherson (2009), 23.3 percent of employees are members of public unions, and 28.0 percent of employees are covered by public union agreement. In addition, Missouri Revised Statutes Chapter 36, State Personnel Law (Merit System) Section 36.510,⁹² clarifies employees' rights to strike. According to this provision,⁹³ "any person who is employed in a position subject to merit system regulations and who engaged in a strike or labor stoppage shall be subject to the penalties provided by law."

Pay-for-Performance and Performance Appraisal. The Missouri state government operates the PERforM system (Missouri Division of Personnel 2009). Through this system, raters (supervisors) and reviewers (second-level supervisors) can evaluate and rate employees' overall performance on-line (Missouri Division of Personnel 2009), and ratings are utilized as factors in the determination of various personnel decisions, such as identifying developmental needs, succession planning, order of layoff, and pay increases based on performance. If the pay plan recommended by the personnel advisory board includes pay increases tied to performance and is adopted through appropriate processes, employees' ratings can be used to determine eligibility for specific salary advancements (Missouri Division of Personnel 2008a).

Range of Grievable Issues. According to Missouri's revised statutes Chapter 36, State Personnel Law (Merit System) Section 36.380, an appointing authority can dismiss "for cause any employee in his division, occupying a position subject when he considers that such action is

⁹² <http://www.moga.mo.gov/statutes/C000-099/0360000510.HTM>

⁹³ <http://www.moga.mo.gov/statutes/C000-099/0360000510.HTM>

required in the interests of efficient administration and that the good of the service will be served thereby.”⁹⁴ Missouri Personnel Code 1 CSR 20-4.020 defines grievance procedures (Secretary of Missouri State 2009). The settlement of differences within the classified service between management and employees is provided through the establishment of an orderly grievance procedure in each division of service subject to the State Personnel Law (Secretary of Missouri State 2009).

At-will Employment. The Missouri state government had proximately 8.8 percent of at-will employees in 2009 (Missouri Division of Personnel 2009). At-will employment doctrine in the Missouri state government can be found in Chapter 290 RSMo and Regulations (Rules) under 8CSR 30, 4.010-050 (Missouri Department of Labor and Industrial Relations 2009). According to the Missouri Department of Labor and Industrial Relations (2009), at-will employment in the Missouri state government is defined as "both the employee and employer can end the employment relationship at any time and for any reason, as long as it is not discrimination under the Civil Rights Act." However, as a safeguard for employees to be protected from wrongful or illegal discharges, SB 1046 states that employment-at-will doctrine will not be effective when wrongful discharges occur because of employees' whistle blowing and employers' illegal actions (Missouri Division of Personnel 2008b).

South Carolina

According to the South Carolina Office of Human Resources (2009a), the South Carolina state government has 62,878 employees, and, among state government employees, 51,812 are classified employees and 11,066 are unclassified employees on the date of September 30, 2009. In the South Carolina state government workforce, the average age of employees is 45 (South

⁹⁴ <http://www.moga.mo.gov/statutes/C000-099/0360000380.HTM>

Carolina Office of Human Resources 2009a). Regarding ethnicity, the majority (59.40 percent) of employees is White, 38.67 percent of employees are African American, 0.77 percent of employees are Hispanic, 0.70 percent of employees are Asian, and 0.44 percent of employees are from other ethnicities (South Carolina Office of Human Resources 2009a). In terms of gender, 58.99 percent of state employees are female, and 41.01 percent of state employees are male (South Carolina Office of Human Resources 2009a). The average pay rate for classified employees is 36,931 dollars (South Carolina Office of Human Resources 2009a).⁹⁵

The Government Performance Project (The PEW Center on the State 2009) gave an A-grade to South Carolina's human resources management practices, and South Carolina received good grades in three areas, including strategic workforce planning, employee retention, and management of employee performance. The South Carolina government has attempted to streamline and decentralize human resources management functions (Hays and Sowa 2007), and the state government has provided employees and managers with clear guidelines as well as information that regards matters relating to personnel management in the state.⁹⁶ In addition, the state of South Carolina government has a well-developed workforce planning and assessment,⁹⁷ and it also has developed a strategic human resources matrix that is based on accurately analyzed current state government workforce data.⁹⁸

The South Carolina state government has also implemented innovative recruitment systems such as E-recruitment⁹⁹ and NEOGOV information systems.¹⁰⁰ Through the NEOGOV system, career seekers could apply for positions on-line, and the system automatically screens minimum qualifications for applications (South Carolina Office of Human Resources 2009d).

⁹⁵ Pay rate for unclassified employees is \$69,785.

⁹⁶ <http://www.ohr.sc.gov/OHR/OHR-hottopics.phtm>

⁹⁷ <http://www.ohr.sc.gov/OHR/employer/OHR-wfplan-overview.phtm>

⁹⁸ <http://www.ohr.sc.gov/OHR/hrmetrics/hr-metrics.htm>

⁹⁹ <http://www.ohr.sc.gov/OHR/OHR-jobs-portal-index.phtm>

¹⁰⁰ <http://www.ohr.sc.gov/OHR/OHR-employer.phtm>

Such modernized human resources systems seem to be the result of the South Carolina's efforts in the areas of civil service reform and innovations (The Council of State Governments 1991-2006). According to Hays and Sowa (2007), the South Carolina state government has experienced decentralized human resources reforms (Hays, Byrd, and Wilkins 2006), adoption of at-will employment, diminishing job security, pay-for-performance, and broadbanding. In Kellogg and Selden's 2003 study, South Carolina was a state that was highly ranked in the public personnel reform scores.

Classification and Broadbanding. Through the broadbanding, which was implemented in 1996, the South Carolina state government attempts to reduce the numbers of job classes and to broaden ranges of compensation. According to Lavigna (2002), through the reduced job classifications and wider pay bands, the South Carolina state government could develop flexible and efficient human resource management systems. More specifically, the South Carolina state government reduced job classification from 2,500 to 500 (Chi 2005)¹⁰¹ and the number of pay ranges from 50 to 10 (Lavigna 2002; Whalen and Guy 2008).¹⁰² According to Whalen and Guy (2008), South Carolina agency managers seemed to believe that broadbanding for job classifications and compensation would benefit performance improvement.

Compensation. In terms of compensation, the South Carolina state government tries to maximize the flexibility in the state's pay system. The South Carolina state government provides employees who acquire new skills or who perform well with bonuses and pay raises (Lavigna 2002), and the state provides employees with clear guidelines about types of pay (South Carolina Office of Human Resources 2003) and employee bonuses.¹⁰³ According to the South Carolina

¹⁰¹ Whalen and Guy (2008) surveyed that South Carolina government has a goal to limit the number of job classifications to 800.

¹⁰² <http://www.ohr.sc.gov/OHR/employer/OHR-paybands.phtm>

¹⁰³ <http://www.ohr.sc.gov/OHR/employer/OHR-bonus-guide.phtm>

state government's Maximizing the Flexibility of the State's Compensation System in 2009, pay band systems have helped the state government improve employee recruitment, employee retention, and employee development (South Carolina Office of Human Resources 2009b).

Collective Bargaining and Public Unionism. Collective bargaining influences employee benefits, job standards, classification and compensation, and performance and job evaluation in the South Carolina state government although the government prohibits the recognition of public employee unions (Kearney 2006). According to the statistics collected by Hirsch and Macpherson (2009), 10.9 percent of employees are members of public unions, and 16.7 percent of employees are covered by public union agreements.

Pay-for-Performance and Performance Appraisal. According to the South Carolina State Regulation Section 19-705 (South Carolina Office of Human Resources 2009e), pay increases (e.g., legislative, general, and merit increases) can be provided to employees in accordance with the provisions of the Annual Appropriation Act (South Carolina Office of Human Resources 2009e). In pay bands, salary increases includes performance increases,¹⁰⁴ additional skills or knowledge increases, additional job duties or responsibilities increases, transfer increases, and retention increases (South Carolina Office of Human Resources 2009e). In addition, such increases are based on promotional increases, reclassification increases, and reallocation increases (South Carolina Office of Human Resources 2009e and 2009g). More specifically, the 1993 Act provided agencies discretions to develop their own procedures and evaluation standards to increase and decrease merit pay for employees, and the Employee Performance Management System (EPMS) operated as an effective tool for managers to evaluate employees (Hays, Byrd, and Wilkins 2006).

¹⁰⁴ Every employee is subject to increase his or her merit based on employee performance (Hays, Byrd, and Wilkins 2006).

Range of Grievable Issues. According to Hays, Byrd, and Wilkins (2006), the State Employee Grievance Procedure Act in 1996 produces formal and informal grievance systems. In terms of formalized grievance systems, reviews by a State Employee Grievance Committee and reviews by a mediator-arbitrator can be considered. Before the formalized grievance procedure, each agency encourages mediation of disputes (Hays, Byrd, and Wilkins 2006). South Carolina HR regulation 19-718.04 affected grievance issues (South Carolina Office of Human Resources 2009e and 2009f).¹⁰⁵

At-will Employment. According to South Carolina Office of Human Resources (2009a), there were about 17.6 percent of at-will employees in the state government as of September 30, 2009. South Carolina HR regulation 19-706 provides employees with guidelines for establishing unclassified positions and unclassified employee pay plan.¹⁰⁶ South Carolina Employment-At-Will (South Carolina Office of Human Resources 2009c) states that the employers can terminate the employment, or the employee can leave the employment at any time for any reason, but employees can be protected with regard to employee's civil rights based on age, race, sex, religion, national origin, color, disability, or pregnancy. In addition, employees can be protected by the South Carolina Occupational Safety and Health Act (OSHA).¹⁰⁷

¹⁰⁵ Grievances shall include terminations, suspensions, involuntary reassignments, and demotions. Reclassifications are considered a grievance only if an agency, or an appeal if the State Human Resources Director, determines that there is a material issue of fact that the action is a punitive reclassification. However, reclassifications, reassignments, and transfers within the same salary range are not adverse employment actions which may be considered grievances or appeals. Promotions are not adverse employment actions which may be considered grievances or appeals except in instances where the agency, or in the case of appeals, the State Human Resources Director, determines that there is a material issue of fact as to whether an agency has considered a qualified covered employee for a position for which the employee formally applied or would have applied if the employee had known of the promotion opportunity. When an agency promotes an employee one organizational level above the promoted employee's former level, that action is not a grievance or appeal for any other qualified covered employee. Salary decreases based on performance are adverse employment actions that may be considered grievances or appeals. A reduction in force is an adverse employment action considered as a grievance only if the agency, or as an appeal if the State Human Resources Director, determines that there is a material issue of fact that the agency inconsistently or improperly applied its reduction in force policy or plan (S.C. Code Ann. 8-17-330).

¹⁰⁶ <http://ohrweb.ohr.state.sc.us/OHR/regs01/706.htm>

¹⁰⁷ <http://ohrweb.ohr.state.sc.us/OHR/regs01/706.htm>

In chapter 4, assessment of state HR systems and civil service reform elements in six selected states will be examined based on research questions. By employing civil service reform assessment survey data that were collected for this study, overview of HR professionals' attitudes towards the current HR and CSR practices will also be analyzed.

Table 5. Summary of Status of the Civil Service Reform Agenda in Selected States

		Colorado (2008)	Florida (2009)	Georgia (2008)	Kansas (2009)	Missouri (2009)	S. Carolina (2009)
Demographic Characteristics of State Workforce	Number of Employees in the Personnel System	33,155	105,174	82,001 (16,246-classified; 65,755-unclassified)	21,328 classified; 15,888 unclassified employees	37,297 classified; 3,606 unclassified employees	51,812 classified; 11,066 unclassified employees
	Average Age	45.9	47.06	44	46.5	49	45
	Gender (%)	49.1 -Female 50.9 -Male	52.12-Female 47.88-Male	63-Female 37-Male	N/A	56-Female 44-Male	58.99-Female 41.01-Male
	Ethnicity (%)	24.3-Minority 75.7-Majority	30.17-Minority 69.83-Majority	49.8-Minority 50.2-Majority	N/A	13.7-Minority 86.3-Majority	40.6-Minority 59.4-Majority
	Turnover rate (%)	11.1	12.8	18	N/A	N/A	N/A
Government Performance Project Grade in 2009 (Personnel Only)		C	C-	A-	C+	B-	A-
Civil Service Reform Elements	Classification & Broadbanding	Reducing the number of job classifications from 1,348 in FY 1992 to 527 in FY 2005; Implementing Broadbanding	Operating the broadband classification system; 23 job families, 38 occupational groups, 237 occupations, and 146 broadband levels	About 650 job classifications	HR directors have great discretion in terms of modifying classification; Implementation of Broadbanding	1,025 job classes in 2007; the Personnel Division and Personnel Advisory Board have the authority for classification; Broad classification bands for managers	500 job classes; Implementing broadbanding system for classification and compensation
	Compensation	Total compensation system	Total compensation system (25 pay bands)	PerformancePlus	Highly depending on budget issues	A pay plan has 40 pay grades with 17 to 21 pay steps	Flexible compensation system
	Collective Bargaining & Public Unionism	Creating WINS; 22.0 % of union membership	13 collective bargaining units; 28 % of union membership	No strong public unions or effective collective bargaining	About 50 % employees are included in one of 62 collective bargaining units; 16.6% of union membership	Collective bargaining rights granted to public employees in 2001; 23.3% of union membership	10.9% of union membership
	Merit Pay System & Performance Appraisal	Providing merit pay based on employees performance that is evaluated based on performance appraisal	Based on the Section 110.1245 (2) of the Florida Statutes and the Florida Administrative Code 60L-35.003, Florida operates merit pay system and performance appraisal	PerformancePlus; Performance Management Process (PMP)	Statewide Human Resource and Payroll System (SHARP); Decentralized performance appraisal systems	PERforM system	Merit pay provisions based on state Regulation Section 19-705; Employee Performance Management System (EPMS)
	Range of Grievable Issues	Each department can establish an internal grievance process	Collective bargaining agreements include range of grievable issues	Georgia Code O.C.G.A. § 9-11-11.1 provides grievance provision	Personnel Regulation Article 12 covers grievance issues	State Personnel Law Section 36.380 & Personnel Code 1 CSR 20-4.020 are related to grievance issues	HR regulation 19-718.04 provides guidelines for grievance issues
	At-will Employment	Personnel Board Rule 4-31 provides At-will employment rules	About 16,000 employees were swept into at-will employment	About 83 percent of state employees are at-will employees	15,888 unclassified employees	Chapter 290 RSMo and Regulations under 8CSR 30, 4.010-050 cover it	HR regulation 19-706 provides guidelines for at-will employment

CHAPTER 4

ASSESSMENT OF STATE HR SYSTEMS AND ELEMENTS OF THE REFORM AGENDA

Civil service systems or public personnel systems (e.g., merit systems) are key to governance and good government since they hire, motivate, discipline, and reward the government employees who are the most immediate and visible link between the institutions of government and the citizens they serve (Ingraham 1995a). Issues regarding the creation of good government and successful civil service reform have been shared among states, but forms of civil service reform have varied across states in terms of politics, management systems, and socioeconomic conditions (Thompson 2003).

The major goals of this study include identifying variation among selected states' civil service systems as well as the states' latest HR practices (Lavigna 2002). These goals require examining key elements of state civil service reforms, effectiveness of civil service systems, and determinants of civil service system effectiveness with regard to reform environments.

Therefore, more specific research questions that this chapter will examine are:

- How do state civil service systems differ?
- What are key elements of each state's civil service reform?
- How do HR professionals evaluate their states' use of elements of the civil service reform agenda with regard to effectiveness?
- What key factors influence HR professionals' satisfaction with their states' civil service reform elements?

Successful civil service reform seems to be possible when problems of states' civil services are clearly articulated. For strategic and successful civil service reform practices in state governments, characteristics of the civil service, as well as advantages and disadvantages of the civil service systems in each state, should be clearly understood by finding answers for the research questions raised by the present study. In addition, states' current civil service functions need to be examined based on state HR professionals' self-evaluation, and civil service systems should be reformed or innovated according to such analyses. Wildavsky (1972) argued that developing self-evaluating organizations may help to figure out internal problems and to adjust to changing environments (Boyne, Gould-Williams, Law, and Walker 2004). Based on Amitai Etzioni's "Mixed-Scanning" model, which is "the most compatible with a progressive and innovative view point" (Etzioni 1986: 11) and which applies double-lenses, including wide and zoom lenses (Etzioni 1967 and 1986), this study will conduct a comprehensive examination and assessment of state governments' civil service systems and the use of elements of the civil service reform agenda by employing a wide lens, and, based on findings, will then apply a zoom lens by examining factors that influence HR professionals' attitudes towards civil service reform elements in chapter 5 (See Figure 2).

In this chapter, how state HR professionals assess the effectiveness of their states' human resources management and the elements of civil service reform agenda (e.g., at-will employment, pay-for-performance, and broadbanding) will be examined by utilizing the data surveyed from HR professionals in six selected state governments.

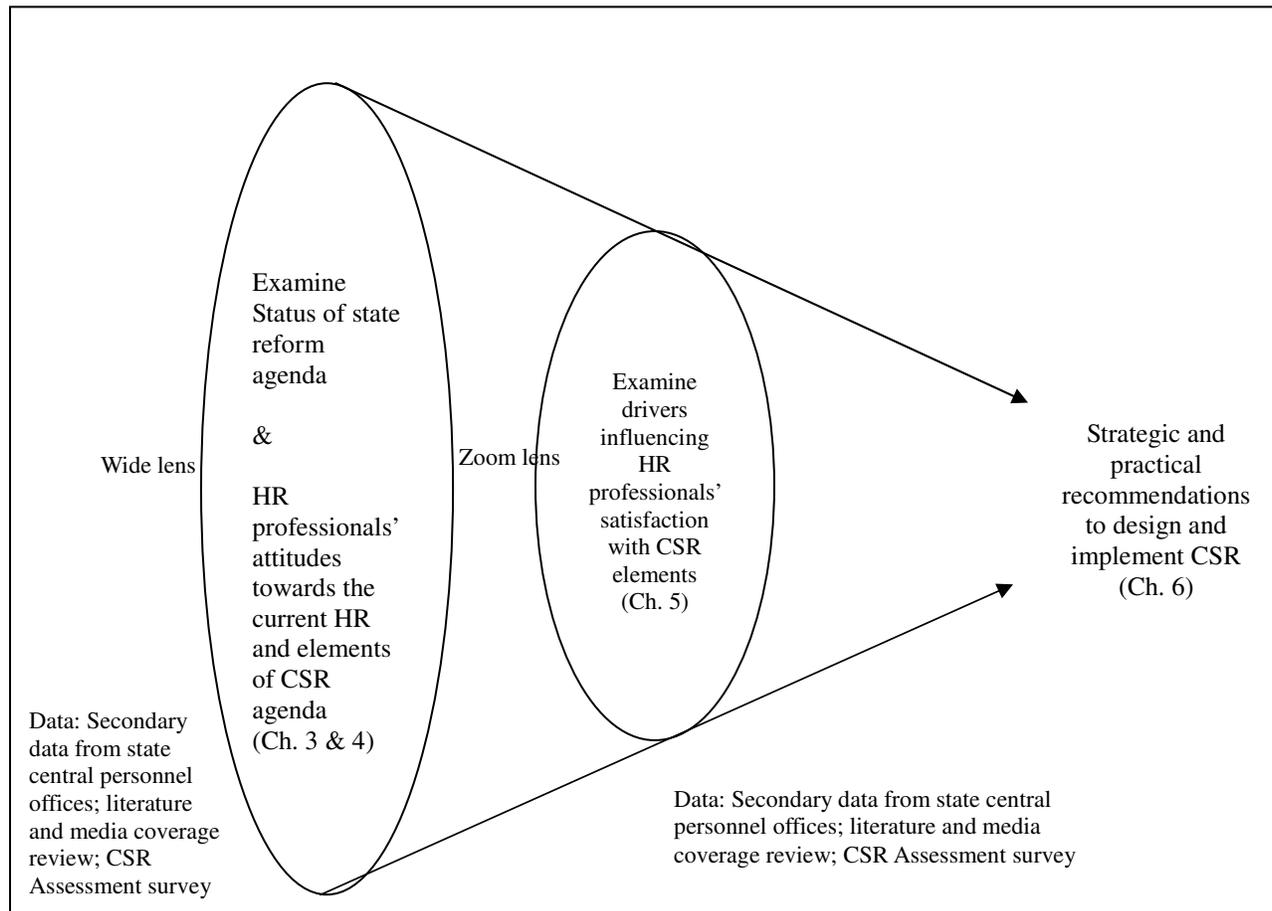


Figure 2. Research Framework

Sample and Data Collection Procedures

Two hundred eighty HR professionals, such as human resources directors, managers or supervisors, in six selected states were asked to participate in the civil service reform assessment survey. These HR professionals' contact information, including name, title, postal address, and email address (optional), was provided by these states' central personnel offices. From October 2009 to December 2009, the author requested that six selected U.S. state central personnel offices provide contact information of HR professionals, especially an HR director or an HR manager working in those U.S. state governments' agencies and departments. Colorado's central

personnel office provided twenty-five HR professionals' contact information to us on November 19, 2009; Florida's central personnel office provided thirty HR professionals' contact information to us on November 19, 2009; Georgia's executive agencies provided us with thirty-five HR professionals' contact information on various dates; Missouri's central personnel office provided us with twenty-two HR professionals' contact information on December 4, 2009; the Kansas central personnel office provided us with ninety-five HR professionals' contact information on November 19, 2009; South Carolina's central personnel office provided us with seventy-three HR professionals' contact information.

After the institutional review board (IRB) granted approval for the research on February 24, 2010, a web survey and a postal survey were sent to HR professionals on February 26, 2010 and March 1, 2010, respectively. A mixed approach of both a web survey and a postal survey was chosen because of the convenience of survey administration and the variety of HR professionals' contact information. More specifically, a web survey link that was created at SurveyMonkey with eighty-seven questions, which were designed based on previous civil service reform-related literature and Dillman's tailored survey design method (Dillman 2007), was sent to two hundred sixty-eight HR professionals in six states: Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Kansas, Missouri, and South Carolina. For HR professionals who were not available to respond to a web survey, a total of twelve postal survey questionnaires were sent. When the survey questionnaires were sent to HR professionals, the importance of this study, the confidentiality policy of the survey, and the personal privacy protection policy were clearly explained in the survey cover letter (See Appendix 1 for the web survey cover letter and Appendix 2 for the postal survey cover letter and survey questionnaire).

Three reminder emails were sent to the sample for the web survey on March 5, 2010,

March 15, 2010, and March 22, 2010. Reminder phone calls were made to the survey sample between March 18 and 19, 2010. First follow-up mailings were sent to postal survey nonrespondents on March 20, 2010. Also, thank you notes were sent to survey respondents. Second follow-up mailings with survey questionnaire replacements were sent to nonrespondents on April 5, 2010.

Of the total of two hundred eighty individuals included in the sample, one hundred five (37.5 %) usable questionnaires were returned.¹⁰⁸ Survey respondents¹⁰⁹ consisted of 61.5% female and 38.5% male HR professionals, and the average age was 54.06 years. Among respondents, 48% were HR directors or officers, and 40% were HR managers or supervisors. 6% of respondents were HR specialists, and 6% worked in other HR-related positions. Interestingly, most respondents did not have private sector work experience in an HR position similar to the one they hold now (80.2%), and only 19.8% responded that they have had such private sector work experience. Survey respondents' average public sector work duration was 19.9 years, and average work duration in an HR field was 18.59 years. Regarding the composition of survey respondents' race, 78.79% were White, and 21.21% were non-White, including 2.02% American Indian or Alaska Native, 13.13% Black or African American, 5.05% Hispanic or Latino, and 1.01% Native Hawaiian or other Pacific Islander. Most respondents (60%) represented their political ideology as Moderate, and 28.88% represented themselves as Conservative; 5.56% represented themselves as Very Conservative and Liberal, respectively. Most respondents had four-year college degrees (44.34%) or Master's degrees (43.30%), and 3.09% had attained a high school diploma, while 5.15% of respondents had two-year college degrees, and 4.12% of

¹⁰⁸ The web survey had a 38.06 % response rate (103 out of 268), and the postal survey had a 25% response rate (3 out of 12) during the period when the survey was conducted, from February 26, 2010 to May 7, 2010.

¹⁰⁹ The demographic characteristics of the survey sample are not known, and questions about the representativeness of the survey participants' responses for the sample can be raised. However, the analyses of the survey responses can help students, scholars, and practitioners understand how some HR professionals assess or are satisfied with their states' civil service systems and civil service reform practices.

respondents had law degrees. More specific demographic characteristics of survey respondents from each state are summarized in Table 6.

Table 6. Demographic Characteristics of Survey Respondents

	Colorado (25)*	Florida (30)	Georgia (35)	Kansas (95)	Missouri (22)	S. Carolina (73)
Numbers of Responses	13 (52 %) ⁺	14 (46.7 %)	21 (60 %)	25 (25.3 %)	7 (31.8 %)	25 (34.2 %)
Sex (%)	Male: 46.2 Female: 53.8	Male: 42.86 Female: 57.14	Male: 38.1 Female: 61.9	Male: 25 Female: 75	Male: 14.3 Female: 85.7	Male: 52 Female: 48
Average age	49.5	53.2	56.8	52.7	51.1	56.8
Race (%)	African American: 16.7 Hispanic: 25 White: 58.3	African American: 15.4 Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander: 7.7 White: 76.9	American Indian or Alaska Native: 10 African American: 25 White: 65	Hispanic: 8.3 White: 91.7	White: 100	African American: 16.7 White: 83.3
Political ideology (%)	Very conservative: 8.3 Conservative: 25 Moderate: 58.3 Liberal: 8.3	Conservative: 30 Moderate: 70	Very conservative: 10.5 Conservative: 31.6 Moderate: 52.6 Liberal: 5.3	Very conservative: 5 Conservative: 40 Moderate: 50 Liberal: 5	Conservative: 50 Moderate: 50	Very conservative: 4.3 Conservative: 13 Moderate: 73.9 Liberal: 8.7
Current position (%)	HR director/officer: 69.2 HR Manager/supervisor: 23.1 Other: 7.7	HR director/officer: 41.7 HR Manager/supervisor: 58.3	HR director/officer: 57.1 HR Manager/supervisor: 42.9	HR director/officer: 43.5 HR Manager/supervisor: 30.4 HR specialist: 17.4 Other: 8.7	HR director/officer: 28.6 HR Manager/supervisor: 42.8 HR specialist: 28.6	HR director/officer: 41.7 HR Manager/supervisor: 45.8 HR specialist: 12.5
Private HR experiences (%)	Yes: 30.8 No: 69.2	Yes: 21.4 No: 78.6	Yes: 15 No: 85	Yes: 30.4 No: 69.6	Yes: 0 No: 100	Yes: 12.5 No: 87.5
Average years worked in the public sector	18.53	22.5	19.4	20	20	20.04
Average years worked in HR field	18	19.52	21.55	19.3	20	18.5
Education attainment (%)	4 yrs college: 50 MA degree: 50	HS: 7.7 2 yrs college: 7.7 4 yrs college: 46.1 MA degree: 23.1 Law degree: 15.4	4 yrs college: 40 MA degree: 60	HS: 4.5 2 yrs college: 18.2 4 yrs college: 41 MA degree: 31.8 Law degree: 4.5	HS: 14.3 4 yrs college: 57.1 MA degree: 28.6	4 yrs college: 43.5 MA degree: 52.2 Law degree: 4.3

Note: * Numbers in parenthesis indicate total sample size in each state.

⁺ Numbers in parenthesis indicate response rate.

Colorado had 5,777 unclassified employees as of April 2010. According to HR professionals in the Colorado state government, at the time of this survey, there were 550 job classes (job titles) and 7 occupation groups. There were about 10 pay grades. Turnover rate was

8.9%. The Personnel Board was a central personnel agency, and, more specifically, centralized authority was divided between the State Personnel Director and the Board. Civil Service Reform (CSR) in Colorado occurred between 1989 and 1998 after pre-study of other states' CSR and consultation with other states' HR professionals. Statute became the legal basis of CSR, and the major purpose of CSR was personnel-related decision decentralization and increasing managerial accountability and responsibility. CSR in Colorado had various subjects, and elected or appointed officials, managers, legal counsel, and employee advocacy groups became the key actors in CSR. In terms of grievable issues, reclassification, promotions, and terms of employment were included.

In the case of the Florida state government, Florida had 19,174 Selected Exempt Service employees and Senior Management Service employees. There were 257 job classes with 1 to 6 varying levels within each occupation. There were about 25 pay grades. Turnover rate was 6.86%. Florida had Senior Management Service (SMS), which can be understood as senior executive services (SES), and there were 599 employees in SMS. According to Florida state HR professionals, Florida had a future plan to increase numbers of at-will employees. The Division of Human Resource Management in the Florida Department of Management Services was the central personnel agency, and Florida had CSR between 1999 and 2008 after pre-study of other state's CSR (e.g., CSR in Georgia) and consulting with other states' HR professionals. The legal basis of Florida CSR was statute, and the major purpose of CSR became the elimination or reduction of personnel systems, rules and regulations, increased managerial discretion in disciplining and removing employees, and increasing managerial accountability and responsibility. Under the various subjects of CSR, elected or appointed officials, legal counsel, and HRM or personnel professionals designed and implemented CSR in the Florida state

government. Transfer and terms of employment were grievable issues.

Georgia had 64,609 at-will employees as of April 2010. According to HR professionals in the Georgia state government, there were 750 job classes (job titles). There were about 22 pay grades. Turnover rate was 12.82%. The Personnel Commission, Personnel Board, and State Personnel Administration agency were central personnel agencies. Georgia had a future plan to increase numbers of at-will employees. CSR in Georgia occurred between 1989 and 1998 after pre-study of other states' CSR and consultation with other states' HR professionals. Statute became the legal basis of CSR, and the major purpose of CSR was various. CSR in Georgia had various subjects, and elected or appointed officials, budget directors, risk managers, legal counsel, and HRM or personnel professionals became key actors, while Georgia state government designed and implemented CSR. In terms of grievable issues, allegations of harassment, erroneous interpretation of policies, etc., were included.

Kansas had 15,888 at-will employees as of April 2010. According to HR professionals in the Kansas state government, there were 521 job classes (job titles). There were 31 pay grades. Turnover rate was 12.61%. The Personnel Board and the Division of Personnel Services were central personnel agencies. CSR in Kansas occurred between 1999 and 2008 after pre-study of other states' CSR and consultation with other states' HR professionals. Executive Order became the legal basis of CSR, and CSR focused on the elimination or reduction of personnel systems, rules, and regulations. CSR in Kansas had various subjects, and elected or appointed officials and managers became key actors, while Kansas state government designed and implemented CSR. Performance appraisal and terminations were grievable issues.

Missouri had 42,944 at-will employees as of April 2010. The Missouri state government had about 1,000 job classes (job titles). There were about 45 pay grades and 3 pay bands.

Turnover rate was 12.2%. The Personnel Board and the Division of Personnel were central personnel agencies. CSR in Missouri occurred between 1989 and 1998. Missouri Statute became the legal basis of CSR, and CSR focused on decentralization of personnel-related decisions. CSR in Kansas had various subjects, and HRM or personnel professionals and the Division of Personnel in the Office of Administration became key actors of Missouri state government's CSR. Terms of employment were an important grievable issue.

South Carolina had 10,893 at-will employees as of April 2010. The South Carolina state government had 125 job classes (job titles) and 10 pay grades. Turnover rate was 11.5%. South Carolina had a future plan to increase numbers of at-will employees. The State Office of Human Resources was a central personnel agency. CSR in South Carolina occurred between 1989 and 1998 after pre-study of other states' CSR and consultation with other states' HR professionals. Statute became the legal basis of CSR, and the major purpose of CSR included decentralization of personnel-related decisions and the elimination or reduction of personnel systems, rule, and regulations. CSR had various subjects, and elected or appointed officials and HRM or personnel professionals became key actors of CSR in South Carolina. Reassignment, compensation, transfers, terminations, and suspension were grievable issues.

Table 7. Elements of the Reform Agenda Overview

	Colorado	Florida	Georgia	Kansas	Missouri	S. Carolina
At-will employee proportion	5,777 (19.4%)	19,174 (18.23%) in the Selected Exempt Service (SES) and Senior Management Service (SMS) in the State Personnel System	64,609 (84.7%)	15,888 (42.7%)	42,944 (22.2%)	10,983 (17.7%)
Job class (job title) number	550 and 7 occupation groups	257 with 1 to 6 varying levels within each occupation	750	521	About 1000	125
Turnover rate	8.9%	6.86%	12.82%	12.61%	12.2%	11.5%
SES	Yes	Yes	No	No	No	No
SES number	N/A	599 Employees (SMS)				
Future At-will plan	N/A	Yes	Yes	No	No	Yes
Central personnel agency	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Central personnel agency type	Personnel Board; Centralized authority is split between the State Personnel Director and the Board	Florida Department of Management Services – Division of Human Resource Management	Personnel Commission; Personnel Board; State Personnel Administration	Personnel Board; The Division of Personnel Services	Personnel Board; Division of Personnel	State Office of Human Resources
CSR period	Between 1989 and 1998	Between 1999 and 2008	Between 1989 and 1998	Between 1999 and 2008	Between 1989 and 1998	Between 1989 and 1998
Pre-study other states' CSR	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Communication w. other states before CSR	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	Yes
Legal basis of CSR	Statute	Statute	Statute	Executive Order	Statute	Statute
Major Purpose of CSR	Decentralization of personnel-related decisions; increasing managerial accountability and responsibility	Eliminating or reducing personnel systems rules and regulations; increased managerial discretion in disciplining and removing employees; increasing managerial accountability and responsibility	Various	Eliminating or reducing personnel systems rules and regulations	Decentralization of personnel-related decisions	Decentralization of personnel-related decisions; eliminating or reducing personnel systems rules and regulations
Key actor of CSR	Elected/appointed officials; managers; legal counsel; employee advocacy groups	Elected/appointed officials; legal counsel; HRM/personnel professionals	Various, except managers	Elected/appointed officials; managers	HRM/personnel professionals; Office of Administration-Division of Personnel	Elected/appointed officials; HRM/personnel professionals
Subject of CSR	Various	Various	Various	Various	Various	Various
Grievable issues	Reclassification; promotions; terms of employment	Transfer; Terms of employment	Allegations of harassment; erroneous interpretation of policies, etc.	Performance appraisal; terminations	Terms of employment	Reassignment; compensation; transfers; termination; suspension
Number of pay grades	About 10	About 25	About 22	31	About 45 & 3 bands	10

Note: All information is based on survey Part I.

Measures

The survey items in Parts II and III asked HR professionals whether their state governments operate civil service systems that include on-line hiring processes, strategic workforce planning, employee suggestion programs, employee development programs, performance appraisal system, workforce diversity programs, and regular audit systems, and how HR professionals assess each civil service system and civil service reform elements, including overall civil service reform, at-will employment, pay-for-performance, and broadbanding, in terms of efficiency, effectiveness, flexibility, fairness, helpfulness, etc. To analyze HR professionals' satisfaction with civil service systems and civil service reform elements,¹¹⁰ the present study has used percent agreeing (both agree and strongly agree in the survey answer choices) with each survey item about HR professionals' assessment of civil service systems and civil service reform elements.¹¹¹ This method was employed in Nigro and Kellough's 2006 study and Kellough and Nigro's 2006 study. Findings about HR professionals' assessment of civil service systems and civil service reform elements follow below.

Findings

Assessment of Civil Service Systems in Six Selected States

Based on the information about which civil service systems (e.g., on-line hiring programs, strategic workforce planning, employee suggestion programs, and workforce diversity programs) have been adopted or implemented in six selected states, HR professionals' attitudes toward such civil service systems were surveyed. Also, HR professionals were asked how they evaluate for

¹¹⁰ This study has analyzed satisfaction of six selected states' HR professionals who participated in the civil service reform assessment survey, and this may not represent all HR professionals' attitudes towards civil service systems or civil service reform practices in those states.

¹¹¹ Responses to survey items were coded as: 1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Neutral; 4=Agree; and 5=Strongly agree.

adequate resources and opportunities for career development and treatment of employees (i.e., whether state employees are appreciated as valuable assets by senior agency management). According to HR professionals' responses, Colorado, Kansas, and Missouri have not implemented comprehensive strategic workforce planning. Only the Colorado state government did not have formal employee suggestion programs. Most HR professionals evaluated positively the efficiency of on-line hiring processes, helpfulness of employee development programs, fair performance evaluation, and fairness of audit systems.

This study showed some interesting findings regarding state comparison based on percentage agreeing with survey items for states' civil service systems in Part II (see Table 8). The first interesting finding from the survey results was HR professionals' low satisfaction with strategic workforce planning. Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina are the only states to have implemented strategic workforce planning, and HR professionals in those states found the implementation ineffective. Additionally, overall satisfaction with effective implementation of the planning among HR professionals in three states was very low. Twenty-five percent of HR professionals in those states who participated in the survey agreed or strongly agreed with this survey item.

A second finding is that HR professionals in Missouri and South Carolina who responded to the survey seemed unsatisfied with employee suggestion programs. None of those HR professionals in Missouri agreed that employee suggestion programs help employees to increase their commitment in the work place, and only 15.8 percent of HR professionals in South Carolina who responded to the survey agreed to it. Employee suggestion programs can be understood as an important tool for communication between employees and management. Also, through employee suggestion programs, management can increase employee participation in

personnel processes or other decision-making processes. In this regard, employee suggestion programs in Missouri and South Carolina may not function well as an employee-management communication tool or as an employee participation tool. Compared to other states, Florida's HR professionals who responded to the survey expressed positive attitudes about the effectiveness of employee suggestion programs.

HR professionals' satisfaction with workforce diversity programs was low in most states surveyed. In Missouri, HR professionals who responded to the survey seemed to disagree that workforce diversity programs help their agencies innovate.¹¹² Additionally, HR professionals in Colorado (28.6 % agreed or strongly agreed), Florida (25 % agreed or strongly agreed), and Georgia (25 % agreed or strongly agreed) who responded to the survey were also less satisfied with workforce diversity programs in their states than HR professionals in Kansas (45.8 % agreed or strongly agreed) and South Carolina (55 % agreed or strongly agreed).

HR professionals in the Missouri state government who participated in the survey were less satisfied with employee career development resources and opportunities allocation (survey question 14 in Part II)¹¹³ than other states' HR professionals were. Interestingly, Georgia's HR professionals who responded to the survey showed positive attitudes toward personnel resource allocation (71.4 % agreed or strongly agreed), and HR professionals in Kansas and Florida (70.8 % and 63.6 % agreed or strongly agreed, respectively) also presented higher satisfaction with employee career development resources and opportunities allocation compared to other states, especially Missouri and South Carolina.

¹¹² Only 16.7 percent of HR professionals in Missouri responded that they agreed to the effectiveness of diversity programs.

¹¹³ Proximately 28 percent of HR professionals who responded to the survey agreed to the effectiveness of employee career development resources and opportunities allocation.

**Table 8. Comparison of Civil Service Systems Assessment
(percent agreeing with the survey item)**

	CO	FL	GA	KS	MO	SC	All States
Efficiency of on-line hiring process (N=97; mean=3.46; SD=1.146)	63.6	57.1	71.4	68.2	33.3	39.1	57.7
Effective implementation of the strategic workforce planning (N=61; mean=3.15; SD=.909)	.	28.6	21.1	.	.	33.3	25
Effectiveness of employee suggestion programs (N=83; mean=3.06; SD=.967)	.	63.6	40	36.4	0	15.8	32.9
Helpfulness of employee development programs (N=97; mean=3.86; SD=.721)	80	90.9	81	80	57.1	56.5	74.22
Fair performance evaluation through performance appraisal guidelines (N=100; mean=3.51; SD=.979)	72.7	61.5	61.9	72	71.4	52.2	64.9
Innovativeness of workforce diversity programs (N=81; mean=3.11; SD=.880)	28.6	25	25	45.8	16.7	55	38.27
Fairness of audit systems (N=75; mean=3.52; SD=.685)	63.6	70	50	58.3	33.3	60	57.34
Adequate resources and opportunities for career development (N=97; mean=2.77; SD=1.065)	58.3	63.6	71.4	70.8	28.6	40.9	58.76
Management leadership on employee value (assets) (N=98; mean=3.23; SD=1.013)	75	58.3	61.9	60	28.6	38.1	55.1

Note: Responses to survey items were coded: 1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly disagree. The table reports the "percentage agreeing" with survey items that is the sum of the percentage who "Strongly agree" and "Agree" (Kellough and Nigro 2006).

Finally, HR professionals in Missouri (28.6 % agreed or strongly agreed) and South Carolina (38.1 % agreed or strongly agreed) who participated in the survey assessed their states' appreciation of state employees less positively than HR professionals in Colorado, Georgia, and Kansas (question 15 in Part II). HR professionals who showed less satisfaction with effectiveness of employee suggestion programs and adequate employee career development resources and opportunities allocation also assessed that their states (e.g., Missouri and South Carolina) were not likely to deal with employees as assets. Table 8 presents HR professionals' assessment of civil service systems in six states.

Assessment of Elements of the Reform Agenda in Six Selected States

Assessment of the Civil Service Reform Agenda in General

Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Kansas, Missouri, and South Carolina have implemented significant elements of the reform agenda, but HR professionals who responded to the survey in these six states were not likely to assess their states' civil service reform agenda positively. There were some interesting findings regarding state comparison based on percentage agreeing with survey items for the assessment of civil service reform agenda in general in Part III (see Table 9). HR professionals in Florida and Georgia (53.8 % and 57.9 %, respectively) who participated in the survey agreed that civil service reform agenda to have increased the flexibility of civil service procedures and rules, compared to the assessment by HR professionals in Colorado and Kansas (16.7 % and 22.7 % agreed or strongly agreed, respectively). In terms of increased professionalism through the civil service reform agenda in each state, HR professionals in most states were likely to have less positive attitudes. However, HR professionals in the Georgia state government who responded to the survey assessed very positively that civil service reform agenda in Georgia has increased the opportunity for supervisors and managers to exercise their discretion (83.3 % agreed or strongly agreed). Probably, such a result shows that intensive adoption and extensive implementation of at-will employment and pay-for-performance have extended discretion of supervisors and managers, and Georgia may need to develop a tool to monitor supervisors' or managers' discretion to protect employees from wrongful misuse of such discretion.

Georgia's HR professionals who responded to the survey presented positive attitudes toward the increased efficiency and performance of state agencies through civil service reform practices (68.4 % agreed or strongly agreed). However, HR professionals in other states,

especially those in Kansas, were less satisfied with civil service reform in terms of efficiency and performance of state agencies. Since Kansas has too many small government agencies, performance of each state agency may not be efficiently managed.¹¹⁴ In terms of responsiveness, HR professionals in Georgia who responded to the survey also showed more positive attitudes than HR professionals in other states did. Although HR professionals in Colorado state government did not agree with increased responsiveness to the goals and priorities through the civil service reform practices, 52.6 percent of Georgia HR professionals agreed that the civil service reform law in Georgia, Act 816, caused state employees to be more responsive to the goals and priorities of agency administrators.

HR professionals in Colorado and Florida who responded to the survey assessed that consultation or communications with other states' officers in civil service reform experienced states helped to develop civil service reform strategies in their states. In the case of Florida, the state government studied Georgia-style civil service reform before Florida enacted Service First in 2001, and scholars in Georgia (i.e., J. Edward Kellough and Lloyd G. Nigro) were invited by the Florida state government to present Georgia's civil service reform case.¹¹⁵ In this regard, HR professionals in Colorado and Florida who responded to the survey expressed more satisfaction with consulting or communication with other states than did HR professionals in other states. In terms of job security, HR professionals in Florida (84.6 %) and Georgia (78.9 %) who responded to the survey agreed that CSR has changed the conventional wisdom concerning the job security of civil servants. Such findings seem to reflect radical reforms in Georgia and Florida, especially reforms eliminating or reducing civil servants' job security through intensive implementation of

¹¹⁴ During the email or telephone communication with some HR professionals in Kansas state government, a few HR professionals complained that they did not have enough information about civil service reform in Kansas because Kansas has too many small agencies.

¹¹⁵ Civil service reform expert J. Edward Kellough also consulted with officials from the Colorado state government.

at-will employment. Regarding clear communication with state employees about civil service reform, HR professionals in Missouri did not agree that the provisions and purposes of the civil service reform law in Missouri have been clearly communicated to state employees. However, HR professionals in Florida and Georgia (50 % and 63.2%, respectively) who responded to the survey agreed that civil service reform laws in their states have been clearly communicated to state employees.

**Table 9. Comparison of Overall CSR Agenda Assessment
(percent agreeing with the survey item)**

	CO	FL	GA	KS	MO	SC	All States
Increased flexibility (N=81; mean=3.21; SD=.753)	16.7	53.8	57.9	22.7	40	31.3	38.27
Increased professionalism (N=80; mean=3.13; SD=.752)	16.7	33.3	42.1	18.2	20	43.8	31.25
Increased discretionary authority of supervisors and managers (N=80; mean=3.2; SD=.736)	16.7	38.5	83.3	13.6	40	18.8	36.25
Increased the efficiency and performance of state agencies (N=81; mean=3.12; SD=.714)	16.7	38.5	68.4	9.1	20	18.8	30.86
More responsiveness to the goals and priorities (N=79; mean=3.13; SD=.806)	0	33.3	52.6	33.3	40	25	34.18
Helpfulness of consultation or communications with other states (N=73; mean=3.16; SD=.707)	50	44.4	17.6	33.3	40	13.3	28.77
Changed the conventional wisdom concerning the job security (N=80; mean=3.31; SD=.805)	0	84.6	78.9	9.5	40	31.3	43.75
Clear communication with employees for CSR (N=81; mean=3.11; SD=.851)	16.7	50	63.2	21.7	0	18.8	33.33
Satisfaction with CSR (N=83; mean=3.01; SD=.890)	16.7	46.2	57.9	17.4	20	31.3	33.73
Improved agency goal attainment through CSR (N=79; mean=3.03; SD=.832)	16.7	46.2	42.1	20	20	25	30.38

Note: Responses to survey items were coded: 1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly disagree. The table reports the “percentage agreeing” with survey items that is the sum of the percentage who “Strongly agree” and “Agree” (Kellough and Nigro 2006).

HR professionals in Florida and Georgia who responded to the survey were more satisfied with civil service reform than were HR professionals in other states. HR professionals in Florida and Georgia (46.2 % and 42.1% agreed or strongly agreed, respectively) assessed that civil service reform practices in their states has contributed to accomplishing agencies' missions and goals, although less HR professionals in Colorado, Kansas, Missouri, and South Carolina agreed that elements of the civil service reform agenda had contributed to accomplishing agencies' missions and goals. These results may show that HR professionals in Florida and Georgia, which have experienced radical reforms (Battaglio and Condrey 2006 and 2007), have started to accept changes in civil service systems. It means that institutional changes through civil service reform laws may also change HR professionals' attitudes while they are in the process of adjustment to such institutional changes. In the next section, HR professionals' assessment of key elements of civil service reform agenda is examined.

Assessment of At-Will Employment

In terms of at-will employment (survey items in Section B, Part III), HR professionals who participated in the survey in most states seemed to agree that at-will employment in their states helps ensure employees are responsive to the goals and priorities of agency administrators. Compared to other states, especially South Carolina (8.7% agreed or strongly agreed), HR professionals in Colorado (50 % agreed or strongly agreed), Georgia (63.2 % agreed or strongly agreed), and Missouri (66.7% agreed or strongly agreed) who responded to the survey assessed that at-will employment in their states makes HR function more efficient. HR professionals in Colorado (60 %), Florida (50 %), and Missouri (50 %) who responded to the survey agreed more than other states' HR professionals that at-will employment in their state provides essential

managerial flexibility over the HR functions, and a large portion of HR professionals who responded to the survey in each state except Georgia (36.8 % agreed or strongly agreed) seemed to perceive that at-will employment in their states makes employees feel more insecure about their jobs.

HR professionals in Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Kansas, and South Carolina who responded to the survey agreed less than HR professionals in Missouri that a negative impact of at-will employment is that it discourages employees in their states from taking risks that could lead to program or policy innovation. However, most HR professionals in each state who responded to the survey did not agree that at-will employment discourages state employees from reporting agency wrongdoing (or “blowing the whistle”). Additionally, many HR professionals who responded to the survey did not agree that at-will employment discourage their states’ employees from freely voicing objections to management directives. However, half of the HR professionals in the Colorado state government who responded to the survey agreed with this. None of the HR professionals in Colorado and Missouri agreed that at-will employment in their states could – by not requiring a rationale or justification for terminating employees – negatively affect managers’ decision-making in other non-HR decisions, but 20 percent of HR professionals in Florida who responded to the survey agreed that at-will employment could have such a negative impact.

Although HR professionals in Missouri (66.7%) who responded to the survey agreed that at-will employment in their states could – by not requiring a rationale or justification for terminating employees – make public employees less sensitive to issues of procedural fairness, HR professionals in Colorado, Kansas, and South Carolina who responded to the survey did not agree or agreed less that their states have decreased sensitivity of procedural fairness due to at-

will employment. Probably, HR professionals in other states, especially Missouri, have experienced side-effects of at-will employment and are concerned about the dark side of such a personnel management tool that was adopted from the private sector for the increase of efficiency and productivity. Some HR professionals who responded to the survey agreed that the Whistle Blower Protection law, or other provisions, is efficient enough to protect at-will employees although due process for those employees is removed. In Colorado, 50 percent of HR professionals in the state government who responded to the survey agreed that the Whistle Blower Protection law is efficient enough to protect employees. However, closer examination of this issue seems to be needed because previous studies (e.g., Cogburn 2006) raised concerns that employees can be discouraged to blow the whistle on wrongful practices when they do not have job security.

Interestingly, respectively, 66.7 and 47.8 percent HR professionals in the Missouri and South Carolina state governments who responded to the survey assessed that at-will employment makes state government jobs less attractive to current and future employees than would be the case if there were more job security. Regarding the survey question about a spoils system (i.e., at-will employment in my state is sometimes used to fire competent employees so other people with friends or connections to government can be hired), most HR professionals in state governments who responded to the survey did not agree to the presence of a spoils system in their state governments. HR professionals responded in the negative to the question that the present study adopted from Battaglio and Condrey's 2006 survey asking whether HR professionals know of a case where a competent employee was fired at-will so that another person with friends or connections to government could be hired. However, 25 percent of HR professionals in the Georgia state government who responded to the survey answered that they

know such a case, and such a result is 5.9 percent higher than that of Battaglio and Condrey's 2009 findings (19.10 % agreed or strongly agreed at the time the authors conducted a survey in 2006). Intensified implementation of at-will employment in Georgia seems to make HR professionals more concerned about unexpected use of at-will employment, such as a spoils system.

On the question of whether HR professionals assess that employees are more productive when they are employed at-will, not many HR professionals showed positive attitudes. In the case of Georgia, which had about 84.72 percent of at-will employees in the state government as of April 2010, only 15.8 percent of HR professionals who responded to the survey agreed that at-will employees are more productive than other employees. Such a result may indicate that state governments need to reexamine or reassess at-will employment before they extend adoption or implementation of it because job insecurity caused by at-will employment may not be made up for with competitive compensation. Such issues can be associated with employee-management or employee-organization trust issues. HR professionals in Florida and Georgia, which are radical reform states, agreed less that employees trust management when it comes to HR decisions (8.3 % and 16.7 % agreed or strongly agreed, respectively). Also, 16.7 and 31.6 percent of HR professionals in Florida and Georgia who responded to the survey agreed that employees feel that they can trust the organization to treat them fairly. However, in the case of Georgia, the survey result of the trust in management from the present study was little bit different from Battaglio and Condrey's 2006 survey results. According to Battaglio and Condrey (2009), 32.11 percent of HR professionals in the Georgia state government agreed that employees trust management. However, the survey result from the present study found that 16.7 percent of HR professionals in Georgia who responded to the survey agreed with it (15.41

percent difference). Although such a result has occurred by sample size difference, a future study may need to consider that at-will employment can negatively impact employee-management trust.

For the question asking whether classified state employees really do not have any more job security in state agencies than unclassified employees, half of HR professionals in Colorado and Missouri who responded to the survey agreed with it. However, HR professionals in Florida (16.7 %) and South Carolina (13 %) who responded to the survey agreed less with it. Most HR professionals who responded to the survey did not agree that unclassified state employees tend to work harder than classified employees. None of the HR professionals in Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina who responded to the survey agreed that unclassified employees may work harder than classified employees. Although state governments have adopted or implemented at-will employment for productivity and efficiency reasons, HR professionals seemed not to assess at-will employees as more productive than classified employees.

**Table 10. Comparison of At-Will Employment Assessment
(percent agreeing with the survey item)**

	CO	FL	GA	KS	MO	SC	All States
Increased Responsiveness (N=86; mean=3.39; SD=.801)	50	30.8	52.6	84.2	33.3	47.8	53.49
Improved Efficiency (N=88; mean=3.15; SD=.851)	50	30.8	63.2	42.9	66.7	8.7	38.63
Increased Flexibility (N=86; mean=3.12; SD=.926)	60	50	47.4	38.1	50	17.4	38.37
Job insecurity (N=86; mean=3.2; SD=.892)	50	41.7	36.8	42.9	50	45.5	43.02
Discouraged risk-taking (N=86; mean=2.77; SD=.890)	16.7	15.4	21.1	26.3	50	21.7	23.26
Discouraged whistle-blowing (N=85; mean=2.59; SD=.835)	0	15.4	26.3	15.8	16.7	9.1	15.3
Discouraged objections from employees (N=85; mean=2.62; SD=.845)	50	23.1	10.5	11.1	0	13	15.29
Negative impact on manager's non-HR decision-making (N=80; mean=2.53; SD=.763)	0	20	11.1	5.3	0	13.6	48.75
Less sensitive procedural fairness (N=82; mean=2.7; SD=.912)	0	30	26.3	5.3	66.7	17.4	20.73
Protection of Whistle Blower Protection laws (N=85; mean=3.11; SD=.740)	50	25	36.8	31.6	33.3	26.1	31.76
Less job attraction (N=82; mean=2.96; SD=.962)	16.7	25	16.7	29.4	66.7	47.8	32.93
Dismissal of competent employees (spoil) (N=85; mean=2.46; SD=.995)	33.3	8.3	10.5	10.5	16.7	13	12.94
Productivity of at-will employees (N=86; mean=2.77; SD=.877)	16.7	23.1	15.8	26.3	33.3	13	19.77
Competitive compensation (N=87; mean=2.40; SD=.982)	0	23.1	5.3	25	33.3	8.7	14.94
Employees' managerial trust (N=85; mean=2.99; SD=.838)	50	8.3	16.7	31.6	33.3	29.2	25.88
Employees' organizational trust (N=87; mean=3.08; SD=.852)	50	16.7	31.6	50	33.3	29.2	34.48
Cases of dismissal of competent employees (spoil) (N=86; mean=2.19; SD=.901)	16.7	25	0	5	0	13	9.3
Less job security of classified employees (N=87; mean=2.79; SD=1.036)	50	16.7	36.8	28.6	50	13	27.59
Hard work of at-will employees (N=88; mean=2.07; SD=.868)	16.7	0	0	9.5	16.7	0	4.55

Note: Responses to survey items were coded: 1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly disagree. The table reports the "percentage agreeing" with survey items that is the sum of the percentage who "Strongly agree" and "Agree" (Kellough and Nigro 2006).

Assessment of Pay-for-Performance

Most survey items for pay-for-performance assessment in Section C, Part III were adopted from Kellough and Nigro's 2000 survey. The present survey results found that HR professionals in Georgia (16.7 %), Kansas (11.8 %), and Missouri (0 %) who responded to the survey agreed little or not at all with the survey item asking that implementing pay-for-performance (merit pay) makes employees in their states more productive than not implementing pay-for-performance. However, many HR professionals who responded to the survey agreed that job description provides clear standards and expectations for employee performance evaluation. Interestingly, 45.5 percent of HR professionals in the Florida state government who responded to the survey agreed that office politics has more to do with performance rating than actual performance on the job, although HR professionals in other states, especially those in Missouri and South Carolina, were in less agreement with it. In their 2002 study, Kellough and Nigro found that 75.2 percent of employees, both nonsupervisory and supervisory, agreed that office politics are more influential in performance ratings than employees' performance, but the present study has found that only 15.8 percent of HR professionals who responded to the survey seemed to agree on the impact of office politics on performance rating (see Table 11).

Most HR professionals who responded to the survey in most states, including Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Missouri, and South Carolina disagreed that performance ratings of better than "met expectations" are "rotated" among employees who deserve meaningful pay raises. In the case of Florida, none of HR professionals who responded to the survey agreed or strongly agreed with it. Although Kellough and Nigro's 2002 study found that 34.7 percent of employees in the Georgia state government agreed on the rotation of performance ratings, the result of the present study has shown that 15.8 percent of HR professionals agreed with it. Additionally, HR

professionals who responded to the survey in most states, except those in Missouri, were not likely to assess that management has imposed “quotas” or limits on the number of performance ratings above “met expectations.” In the case of HR professionals in Missouri who responded to the survey, 66.7 percent of them seemed to believe that there are quotas or limits on the number of performance ratings, even though they may think that performance appraisals are conducted fairly.

Fewer HR professionals in Georgia (21.1 %), Kansas (25 %), and Missouri (16.7 %) who responded to the survey agreed that the pay-for-performance system is a good way to motivate state employees, compared to those in Florida and South Carolina (45.5 % and 50 % agreed or strongly agreed, respectively). Many HR professionals in each state who responded to the survey agreed that there has been too much stress on money as an incentive and not enough on other sources of motivation. HR professionals in Florida (45.5 %), Georgia (47.4 %), and Missouri (50 %) who responded to the survey agreed that pay raises in their work units often are not really related to performance. Such an empirical finding is in a similar vein with concerns that have been raised by scholars or practitioners in their previous studies (e.g., Kellough and Nigro 2002), and it may indicate the need to develop more applicable or more reasonable links between motivators (e.g., internal and external motivators) and employee performance.

Proximately 45.5 percent of HR professionals in the Florida state government who responded to the survey assessed favoritism as a problem for the pay-for-performance program in their state agencies, and this is a higher percentage of agreement than in other states. However, 72.7 percent of Florida HR professionals who responded to the survey agreed that performance appraisals are very helpful in determining employee training and development needs. Many HR professionals in other states also agreed on the helpfulness of performance appraisal in their

states. For instance, 46.2, 47.4, 43.8, and 40.9 percent of HR professionals who responded to the survey in Colorado, Georgia, Kansas, and South Carolina, respectively, assessed their states' performance appraisals as somewhat helpful for employee training and development needs.

**Table 11. Comparison of Pay-for-Performance Assessment
(percent agreeing with the survey item)**

	CO	FL	GA	KS	MO	SC	All States
Increased Productivity (N=85; mean=2.95; SD=.937)	38.5	50	16.7	11.8	0	52.4	30.59
Provided clear standards and expectations (N=86; mean=3.56; SD=.820)	69.2	63.6	57.9	81.3	66.7	66.7	67.44
Influence of office politics (N=85; mean=2.68; SD=.929)	23.1	45.5	15.8	31.3	0	10	21.18
Rotation of performance ratings (N=86; mean=2.29; SD=.981)	7.7	0	15.8	25	16.7	4.8	11.63
Quota on the performance ratings (N=86; mean=2.41; SD=.999)	23.1	0	21.1	0	66.7	0	12.8
Fairness of performance appraisal (N=88; mean=3.5; SD=.983)	61.5	54.5	57.9	70.6	66.7	50	59.09
Motivating employees (N=86; mean=2.98; SD=1.006)	33.3	45.5	21.1	25	16.7	50	33.73
Too much monetary emphasis (N=86; mean=3.19; SD=.952)	46.2	45.5	31.6	56.3	66.7	28.6	41.86
Missing link between pay and performance (N=86; mean=3.02; SD=1.040)	15.4	45.5	47.4	31.3	50	28.6	34.88
Influence of favoritism (N=87; mean=2.82; SD=.909)	23.1	45.5	26.3	12.5	33.3	22.7	25.29
Helpfulness of performance appraisal (N=87; mean=3.310; SD=.840)	46.2	72.7	47.4	43.8	33.3	40.9	47.13

Note: Responses to survey items were coded: 1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly disagree. The table reports the "percentage agreeing" with survey items that is the sum of the percentage who "Strongly agree" and "Agree" (Kellough and Nigro 2006).

Assessment of Broadbanding

HR professionals in Missouri and South Carolina who participated in the survey assessed broadbanding from a more positive perspective than those in other states (see Table 12). About

71.4 and 60.9 percent of HR professionals who responded to the survey in Missouri and South Carolina, respectively, assessed broadbanding as making their states' HR function more efficient. Also, HR professionals who responded to the survey in these two states (85.7 % in Missouri and 69.6 % in South Carolina) assessed broadbanding more positively as helping their states' HR systems to be more flexible than did other states' HR professionals. Overall, more HR professionals who responded to the survey seemed to agree that broadbanding increased flexibility (45.35 %) and improved efficiency (41.86 %).

Table 12. Comparison of Broadbanding Assessment (percent agreeing with the survey item)

	CO	FL	GA	KS	MO*	SC	All States
Improved efficiency (N=86; mean=3.15; SD=.927)	22.2	23.1	26.3	46.7	71.4	60.9	41.86
Increased flexibility (N=86; mean=3.23; SD=.903)	33.3	38.5	21.1	33.3	85.7	69.6	45.35

Notes: Responses to survey items were coded: 1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly disagree. The table reports the "percentage agreeing" with survey items that is the sum of the percentage who "Strongly agree" and "Agree" (Kellough and Nigro 2006).

* In the case of Missouri, the small numbers of survey participants (7 out of 22) might influence the percentage of agreement with the survey item.

Through the examination of HR professionals' assessment of civil service systems and civil service reform agenda in six selected states, the present study has found that many HR professionals who participated in the survey were not satisfied with their states' civil service systems and civil service reform agenda. For instance, overall assessment of civil service systems and civil service reform agenda by HR professionals in the Colorado, Kansas, Missouri and South Carolina state governments who responded to the survey are less positive than other states (except assessment of broadbanding). Compared to them, HR professionals in Florida and Georgia that experienced radical civil service reform practices seemed to more positively assess effectiveness or efficiency of their states' civil service system elements and civil service reform agenda. In chapter 5, factors that influence HR professionals' satisfaction with civil service reform elements will be examined.

CHAPTER 5

**EXAMINING FACTORS INFLUENCING HR PROFESSIONALS’
SATISFACTION WITH CIVIL SERVICE REFORM ELEMENTS**

Most previous research about civil service reform practices has attempted to find factors that have influenced the extent and intensity of civil service reform (e.g., Coggburn 2001; Kellough and Selden 2003). According to civil service reform studies, civil service reform has been driven by the conditions of political environment, managerial environment, and socioeconomic environment. For instance, Coggburn (2001) found that unionism and state party control was negatively related to personnel deregulation, and administrative professionalism was positively associated with such personnel deregulation. Kellough and Selden (2003) also found that legislative professionalism and state employee union density were key factors that drove civil service reform in U.S. state governments.

By conducting surveys, scholars and practitioners have studied which factors have had impact on employee perceptions of civil service reform practices. Kellough and Nigro (2006) discovered that classified and unclassified employees had different perspectives on Georgia’s civil service reform, and, more specifically, the authors had found in their 2002 study that younger, newer, and unclassified state employees had more positive attitudes towards Georgia’s reform (i.e., GeorgiaGain plan). Battaglio and Condrey (2009) attempted to find relationships between public management reform and perceived organizational and managerial trust by utilizing 2006 survey data that they collected from HR professionals in the Georgia state government. According to the authors, job security, whistle-blowing, procedural justice, spoils,

HR professionals' age, and agency size were positively related to managerial or organizational trust. In their 2010 study, Cogburn, Battaglio, Bowman, Condrey, Goodman, and West found that HR professionals' demographic characteristics, including tenure, educational background, and private sector experience, were associated with HR professionals' commitment to at-will employment.

Although there were some studies to find factors influencing HR professionals' perceptions of civil service reform elements, especially at-will employment, no study has systematically examined HR professionals' satisfaction with civil service reform elements. In light of this, the present study has attempted to find factors that impact HR professionals' satisfaction with civil service reform elements (i.e., at-will employment, pay-for-performance, and broadbanding). By utilizing the 2010 Civil Service Reform Assessment survey data, this research has examined relationships between selected factors, which were chosen based on findings from previous civil service reform-related studies, and HR professionals' satisfaction with or assessment of civil service reform elements.

Satisfaction with Civil Service Reform Elements

Most satisfaction studies in the public personnel field have focused on job satisfaction. According to Selden (2009: 65), job satisfaction is defined as "a positive emotional state resulting from assessing one's job experiences." Job satisfaction is associated with organizational commitment and employee turnover (Ragins and Cotton 1999; Seibert 1999), and Selden (2009: 65) and Mowday, Porter, and Steers (1982) stated that employees can be dissatisfied if their expectations about working relationship in terms of motivation¹¹⁶ (e.g., pay,

¹¹⁶ According to Amabile (1993), work motivation may influence the way employees feel about their work and their willingness to work. Additionally, O'Driscoll and Randall (1999) argued that employee satisfaction with work

benefits, career development, etc.) are not actually met.

According to Smith and Miner (1983), organizational factors that include organizational diversification, formalization, and flexibility can be a determinant of employee job satisfaction. In this regard, Rainey and Bozeman (2000) found that factors associated with organizational rules and regulations, such as lack of autonomy due to rigid rules, can be related to job dissatisfaction among public employees. Regarding relationships between employee motivation and job satisfaction, for instance, Savery (1987) found that motivators (e.g., pay, job security, and promotion prospects, etc.) were positively associated with job satisfaction. More specifically, through the results of an empirical study examining employee perceptions of job satisfaction at the headquarters of a major local government employer in Western Australia, Savery (1987) found that intrinsic motivators (i.e., self-development opportunities) increased the presence of a high level of job satisfaction.

As Kellough and Nigro (2006) found that employees' demographic characteristics, including classified or unclassified status, tenure, race, gender, age, education level, and work position (e.g., supervisor), had an impact on employee perceptions of post-reform personnel practices, some scholars have attempted to find which factors are associated with employees' or HR professionals' attitudes towards key elements of civil service reform agenda. For instance, Battaglio and Condrey (2009) found that some factors, which included perceptions of HR practices (e.g., perceptions of job security and whistle-blowing protection laws, etc.), HR professionals' demographic characteristics such as gender, age, education, and tenure, and some organizational factors (i.e., percent at-will employees and agency size), were closely related to HR professionals' attitudes towards fairness and managerial and organizational trust. In this

rewards, including intrinsic and extrinsic work rewards, can be closely associated with the extent to which employees commit affectively and are involved in their jobs.

regard, by conducting an empirical study that focuses on six selected states, this chapter explores factors influencing HR professionals' overall satisfaction with civil service reform, as well as their satisfaction with each key element of the reform. Focusing on six states, this empirical study explores the impact of HR professionals' demographic characteristics, their attitudes towards HR practices, and state difference.

Factors Influencing HR Professionals' Satisfaction with Civil Service Reform Elements

HR Professionals' Attitudes towards State HR Practices

State Employees as Valuable Assets

According to Selden (2009), the importance of people for successful government has been emphasized through the term "human capital." Buss (2009: xii) argued that public employees "possess values essential to the workplace," and careful management of human capital is required (Lawler and Worley 2006). In this regard, Selden (2009) pointed out that recognition and management of employees as valuable assets are keys for human capital management. Bowen (2000) also argued that appreciating employees as assets by recognizing and rewarding employees well is critical for the creation of an efficient workforce. O'Driscoll and Randall (1999) found that perceived organizational support is positively related to employee job involvement and organizational commitment. Additionally, Bilmes and Gould (2009) found that many government agencies provide employees with more flexibility and discretion to improve employee morale and overall performance. O'Reilly and Pfeffer (2000) argued that organizations need to unlock the hidden value in all employees to achieve productivity and efficiency.

Due to the “changing psychological contract” (Selden 2009: 63),¹¹⁷ job commitment¹¹⁸ by employees can be hardly expected, although employee commitment to the job or organizational mission and goal is an important factor closely associated with organizational productivity. Moreover, adoption of at-will employment has eliminated job security, which is the critical tool of the traditional psychological contract. Younger public employees especially may not plan to build their life-long careers in public organizations, and they are able to leave the public sector based on their personal fulfillment and needs (Selden 2009: 63-64). According to Selden (2009), Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, and Sowa (1986), and Griffeth and Hom (1995), the prior factor for turnover decision-making by employees is whether employees perceive that the organization values employees as assets. That is, if employees perceive more support from the organization, they will be more satisfied with the organization, and, then, employee commitment to the organization will increase.

Hypothesis 1: An HR professional who perceives that his or her senior agency management appreciates employees as valuable assets will be more satisfied with civil service reform elements in his or her state.

Adequate Allocation of Resources and Opportunities for Career Development for State

Employees

For many organizations, both in the private and public sectors, providing employees with better systems related to resources and opportunities for career development is essential to retaining talented employees (Bowen 2000). According to Wiersma (1992), employees can be

¹¹⁷ According to Selden (2009), “shared belief and perceptions and informal obligations between employer and employee that develop through day-to-day interaction” become bases of the psychological contract.

¹¹⁸ Thames and Webster (2009: 68) define commitment as “the act of binding yourself (intellectually or emotionally) to a course of action, or the trait of sincere and steadfast fixity of purpose.” Thames and Webster (2009) also argued that openness, intention, trust, agreement, action, and fulfillment are key elements for getting strong employee commitment in the workplace.

intrinsically motivated when their work environments increase feelings of competence and self-actualization (Maslow 1943), and opportunities for employee career development as an intrinsic motivator can increase employee job satisfaction. Selden (2009) stated that the most recognizable reason for operating employee training and development programs is the improvement of “employees’ current knowledge, skills, and abilities” (85). According to the author (2009: 85), most states spent approximately 1.3 percent or more of their payrolls on employee training and career development programs each year; the Georgia state government spent more than 5 percent of its payrolls on career development. Mills (2003) argued that employee education and training can provide employees with the strategic direction for career development, as well as ways to cooperate with organizations. Buss (2009) argued that improving employee capacity through training, education, and personal career development opportunities is essential to building capacity in the workforce. The author (2009), therefore, argued that such employee career development must be continuous.

However, despite the importance of such programs, some studies have pointed out ineffective or non-existent employee career development programs (e.g., Buss 2009; Bilmes and Gould 2009). According to the results of preliminary descriptive data analyses of the 2010 Civil Service Reform Assessment survey, HR professionals in some states, especially Missouri and South Carolina, who responded to the survey, were dissatisfied with availability of adequate resources and opportunities for state employees’ career development. In this regard, HR professionals’ perceptions of such employee career development status can influence HR professionals’ satisfaction with civil service reform since employee career development is associated with building organizational capacity as well.

Hypothesis 2: An HR professional who perceives that his or her state provides employees with

adequate resources and opportunities for career development will be more satisfied with civil service reform elements in his or her state.

Perceived Helpfulness of Consultation with Other States' Officers for Developing Civil Service Reform Strategies

According to Boudreau and Ramstad (2003), although HR practices are different across divisions or geographic locations, efforts to emulate other organizations' practices have continued for a long time. According to Ammons (2005), for instance, performance benchmarks among state or local governments can be easily found in a various places. Thames and Webster (2009) argued that benchmarking by learning about the success in other organizations can have an innovative impact on building organizational capacity in a changing environment. Ammons (2005) also argued that benchmarks can be a reliable diagnostic gauge before a state establishes or adopts systems, policies, or even standards. Although some common mistakes of benchmarking can be made due to misalignment between benchmarked HR programs and actual practices in different organizational environments (Boudreau and Ramstad 2007), uses of benchmarking in the public sector have continued (Ammons 2005; Selden 2009).

Civil service reform practices have also been benchmarked among states, as discussed in chapter 1. Diffusion of key reform elements (i.e., at-will employment, pay-for-performance, and broadbanding) seems to be based on latent pressures to benchmark more effective or efficient management practices (Ashworth, Boyne, and Delbridge 2007). According to the results of preliminary descriptive data analyses of the 2010 Civil Service Reform Assessment survey, HR professionals in Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Kansas, and South Carolina who responded to the survey reported that their states have communicated or consulted with officers in other states that

have had civil service reform experiences, and some of them agreed that such consultation or communication was helpful in developing civil service reform strategies in their own states.

Hypothesis 3: An HR professional who perceives that consultation or communication with other states' officers in civil service reform-experienced states helped to develop civil service reform strategies in his or her state will be more satisfied with civil service reform elements.

Demographic Characteristics of HR Professionals

Age

According to Buss (2009), the development or encouragement of growth and leadership among younger employees is one of the most important requirements for human capital management. Since Generation Y workers value their own wants and needs more highly when they find jobs than do Generation X workers, who value job security, civil service systems have changed in order to recruit or retain younger workers (Bowen 2000).¹¹⁹ Developing better systems of employee benefits, etc., has been emphasized in the HR field to satisfy both younger and older employees and to improve engagement of both generations (Bowen 2000; Kaye, Scheef, and Thielfoldt 2003; Selden 2009).

In terms of age impact on employee perception of civil service reform, previous studies (e.g., Kellough and Nigro 2006) have found that younger employees have had more positive attitudes towards changes or reforms than older employees. According to Battaglio and Condrey (2009), age may influence employees' perception of managerial or organizational trust because, for instance, older employees who generally have more work experience may have seen how

¹¹⁹ According to Strauss and Howe (1992), Generation X is the generation born after the baby boom ended, from 1961 to 1981. Generation Y is also called the Millennial Generation, and this generation usually represents an increase in births between the 1980s and 90s. Generation Y is generally marked by an increased use and familiarity with new technologies, such as communications, media, and digital technologies.

power can be abused in the workplace and would have less positive attitudes towards at-will employment systems. In this regard, younger employees seem to have more positive attitudes towards civil service reform elements.

Hypothesis 4: A younger HR professional will be more satisfied with civil service reform elements in his or her state.

Political Ideology

Some previous research has noted that the characteristics of governors are major variables in deregulating state administrative reform (Berman 1994; Cogburn 2001). While the fact that governors initiate civil service reforms demonstrates political responsibility and accountability to citizens, businesslike reforms simultaneously increase managerial power and authority within agencies. Recently, dramatic civil service reforms in Georgia, Texas, and Florida have embodied both Wilson's dichotomy between politics and administration (Wilson 1887) and Waldo's theory of democratic administration (Waldo 1952). The reforms share several characteristics. These civil service reforms were driven by political powers, especially governors, who insisted on political responsiveness to citizens based on principles such as effective delivery of public services and greater performance (Thompson 2003).

Political ideology in the policy decision-making process is a critical variable because politicians and political parties tend to base partisan affiliation on values (Ripley and Franklin 1991). Administrative reform is strongly influenced by political explanation variables (Kellough and Lu 1993; Cogburn 2000). For example, since Democrats are more likely than Republicans to be employee-friendly (West and Durant 2000), civil service reform oriented toward privatization is more likely to occur in states with a Republican governor and a state legislature

dominated by Republicans (e.g., Coggburn 2000; 2001).

Hypothesis 5: A more conservative HR professional will be more satisfied with civil service reform elements in his or her state.

Private Sector Work Experience

As state political leaders focus on setting goals and objectives under market-oriented public personnel reforms (Kellough 1999), state agency managers and HR professionals are empowered with sufficient authority and flexibility to attain such goals and objectives (Ban and Gossett Forthcoming). Because top-level political leaders cannot implement specific plans, decentralization grants state agency managers discretion and authority to carry out plans as political leaders envision. As human resource policy is decentralized and deregulated, agency-level managerial discretion and flexibility based on professionalism have increased in accordance with civil service reform (Kellough and Nigro 2006; Condrey 2005).

Under the banner of reinventing government, many public sector agencies have intensively adopted and implemented private sector management tools, such as at-will employment and pay-for-performance (Kellough and Nigro 2006; Condrey and Battaglio 2007). However, as the preliminary analyses of the 2010 Civil Service Reform Assessment Survey have uncovered, most HR professionals (81.7 %) who responded to the survey did not have private sector work experience;¹²⁰ whether employees or even HR professionals have fully understood mechanisms of HRM tools that public sector organizations have attempted to borrow from the private sector is questionable. In their 2010 study, for instance, Coggburn, Battaglio, Bowman, Condrey, Goodman, and West found that HR professionals' previous private sector work

¹²⁰ The survey item was measured as a dichotomy variable (Previous private sector work experience=1; otherwise=0).

experience was associated with commitment to at-will employment. The authors found that HR professionals who have previously worked in private sector HR jobs did not have positive perceptions of the results of at-will employment. Such a finding is not that different from a finding by Ingraham in 1993a and 1993b. Ingraham (1993a and 1993b) also found that employees who had previous work experience in the private sector were not positive about the effectiveness of pay-for-performance implementation in the public sector.

Hypothesis 6: An HR professional who has previous HR work experience in the private sector will be less satisfied with civil service reform elements in his or her state.

Methods

The Civil Service Reform Assessment survey data of 2010 were employed for the analyses, and more specific explanation about sample and data procedures can be found in chapter 4. By utilizing an ordered logistic regression (OLR) method (Long 1997; Wooldridge 2005; Long and Freese 2006; Battaglio and Condrey 2009) due to the variable characteristics (e.g., categorical variables that were measured as 1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Neutral; 4=Agree; and 5=Strongly agree), the present study has explored what factors influence HR professionals' satisfaction with civil service reform elements. The present study has employed the statistical data analysis techniques that Battaglio and Condrey (2009) utilized, and the present study has conducted Spearman correlations to diagnose multicollinearity and the accuracy of model specification (See Table 13 and Table 14).¹²¹

¹²¹ According to Battaglio and Condrey (2009), Spearman correlations can be used for categorical variables when a linear relationship between variables is not assumed. The Spearman correlation results can be interpreted like Pearson correlations. As Battaglio and Condrey (2009) and Long and Freese (2006: 199) recommended, the present study employed approximate likelihood ratio tests and the Brant test to check whether the proportional odds assumption that "the independent variables utilized in the ordered logistic regression have the same effect on the likelihood of each outcome in the dependent variables" (Battaglio and Condrey 2009: 700) held. All data analyses were conducted by the statistic package of Stata/SE 10.0 version.

Variables

Dependent Variables

In terms of an overall assessment of civil service reform elements, four survey items have been utilized: civil service reform in my state has increased the discretionary authority of supervisors and managers (question 3 in Section A, Part III); civil service reform in my state has increased the efficiency and performance of state agencies (question 4 in Section A, Part III); civil service reform in my state has changed the conventional wisdom concerning job security of civil servants (question 7 in Section A, Part III); and the provisions and purpose of the civil service reform law in my state have been clearly communicated to state employees like me (question 8 in Section A, Part III).¹²²

HR professionals' satisfaction with the key elements of the civil service reform agenda was measured by utilizing nine survey items, including five survey items for assessment of at-will employment, two survey items for assessment of pay-for-performance, and two survey items for assessment of broadbanding. More specific survey items are: at-will employment in my state makes the HR function more efficient (question 2 in Section B, Part III); at-will employment in my state provides essential managerial flexibility over the HR function (question 3 in Section B, Part III); at-will employment in my state could – by not requiring a rationale or justification for terminating employees – make public employees less sensitive to issues of procedural fairness (reverse coded, question 9 in Section B, Part III); the lack of job security is made up for with competitive compensation (salary and benefits) (question 14 in Section B, Part III); I know of a case where a competent employee was fired at-will so that another person with friends or connections to government could be hired (question 17 in Section B, Part III); I believe that

¹²² HR professionals' attitudes towards were largely different among states regarding these survey items that measured the effectiveness of civil service reform.

management has imposed “quotas” or limits on the number of performance ratings above “met expectations” (question 5 in Section C, Part III); the pay-for-performance system is a good way to motivate state employees (question 7 in Section C, Part III); broadbanding makes my state’s HR function more efficient (question 1 in Section D, Part III); and broadbanding helps my state’s HR system to be more flexible (question 2 in Section D, Part III).

Independent Variables

Perception of Management Leadership on Employees Valuable (Assets). HR professionals’ attitudes towards HRM practices dealing with employees were measured by a 5-point Likert scale. Survey item 15 in Part II asked whether state employees are appreciated as valuable assets by senior agency management, and responses were coded: 1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Neutral; 4=Agree; and 5=Strongly agree.

Perception of Resource or Opportunity Allocation to Employees. HR professionals’ attitudes towards adequate allocation to state employees of resources and opportunities for career development were also measured by 5-point Likert scale. Survey item 14 in Part II asked whether adequate resources and opportunities for career development are available to state employees, and responses were coded: 1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Neutral; 4=Agree; and 5=Strongly agree.

Perception of Civil Service Reform Consultation with Other States’ Officers. HR professionals’ attitudes towards the helpfulness of consultation or communications with other states’ officers for civil service reform were measured by a 5-point Likert scale. Survey item 6 in Section A, Part III asked whether consultation or communications with other states’ officers in civil service reform-experienced states helped to develop civil service reform strategies in the

respondent's state, and responses were coded: 1=Strongly disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Neutral; 4=Agree; and 5=Strongly agree.

Age. HR professionals' ages were asked in question 2, Part IV, and ages were measured by a 6-point Likert scale. Responses were coded: 1=24 years old or less; 2=25-34; 3=35-44; 4=45-54; 5=55-64; and 6=65 years old or over.

Political Ideology. HR professionals' political ideology was asked in question 4, Part IV, and this was measured by a 5-point Likert scale. Responses were coded: 1=Very Conservative; 2=Conservative; 3=Moderate; 4=Liberal; 5=Very Liberal.

Previous HR Work Experience in the Private Sector. In question 5, Part IV, HR professionals were asked whether they had worked in the private sector in an HR position similar to the one they currently hold. This variable was coded as a dummy variable (0=No and 1=Yes).

State Control Variables

According to Cogburn, Battaglio, Bowman, Condrey, Goodman, and West (2010: 200), states' experiences with CSR differ because of their various political, cultural and socioeconomic environments. The authors argued that HR professionals in different states may have different attitudes towards civil service reform elements because of such environmental variations. The present study included states as control variables, and each state was coded as a dummy variable (e.g., Colorado=1; Otherwise=0). In the statistical models, Colorado, Florida, Georgia, Missouri, and South Carolina were included, and Kansas¹²³ was the reference category in data analyses.

¹²³ Kansas has experienced the most expansive civil service reform elements of the six states surveyed (See Table 2 in Chapter 1).

Table 13. Spearman Correlations for Overall Civil Service Reform Elements Assessment

Variable Name	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15
1. Increased discretion	1														
2. Increased efficiency	.5482**	1													
3. Changed job security	.3791**	.4029**	1												
4. Clear communication with employees	.3595**	.4241**	.5129**	1											
5. Perception of management leadership on employee values (assets)	.0170	.2533*	-.0967	.1374	1										
6. Perception of resource or opportunity allocation to employees	-.0069	.1701	.0724	.3050*	.4676**	1									
7. Perception of CSR consultation with other states' officers	.1838	.2725*	.0438	.1610	-.0002	.1856	1								
8. Age	-.0407	.1091	.1931	.2326	-.0998	-.1786	-.0049	1							
9. Political ideology	-.0306	-.0524	.0260	-.0547	.0237	.0316	-.0808	.2924*	1						
10. Previous private sector HR work experience	.0405	-.0232	-.1467	-.0151	-.0440	.0645	-.0321	-.0388	.1106	1					
11. CO	-.1200	.0138	-.2477	.0168	.1677	.2112**	.0981	-.1501*	-.0295	.1135	1				
12. FL	.0270	.0275	.3514**	.1713	.0101	.0406	.1712	-.0776	-.0295	-.1635	-.1091	1			
13. GA	.5023**	.5194**	.4056**	.3320**	.1158	.0352	-.1244	.1997	-.0712	-.0138	-.1969	-.1969	1		
14. MO	-.0807	-.1289	-.0927	-.2443	-.0437	-.2504	-.0697	-.1461	-.0641	-.1479	-.0987	-.0987	-.1782	1	
15. SC	-.1963	-.2603*	.0013	-.0730	-.3217*	-.2823*	-.2138	.2559*	.3043*	-.1412	-.1635	-.1635	-.2951*	-.1479	1

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Table 14. Spearman Correlations for Assessment of Civil Service Reform Elements

Variable Name	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18	19	20
1. Improved efficiency (AWE)	1																			
2. Increased flexibility (AWE)	.60**	1																		
3. Procedural fairness (AWE)	.12	-.01	1																	
4. Competitive compensation (AWE)	-.27	-.18	.07	1																
5. Spoils (AWE)	-.33*	-.22	-.09	.17	1															
6. Quotas for performance rating (PFP)	.03	-.05	-.15	-.06	.14*	1														
7. Motivating employees (PFP)	-.13	.07	.24	.23	.33*	-.27	1													
8. Improved efficiency (BBD)	-.01	-.11	.21	.02	.16	.05	.12	1												
9. Increased flexibility (BBD)	-.09	-.08	.11	.03	.12	.17	-.03	.82**	1											
10. Perception of management leadership on employee values (assets)	.43**	.32*	.20	.03	-.32*	-.19	.19	.03	.09	1										
11. Perception of resource or opportunity allocation to employees	.25	.27	.24	.14	.02	-.02	.26	.19	.15	.56**	1									
12. Perception of CSR consultation with other states' officers	.03	-.03	.12	-.16	-.03	-.05	.12	.20	.14	.03	.19	1								
13. Age	-.09	-.23	.21	-.36**	.06	-.19	.14	.01	-.03	-.02	-.14	-.06	1							
14. Political ideology	-.28*	.08	.01	-.08	-.11	-.11	.02	-.01	.04	.08	.06	-.05	.30*	1						
15. Previous private sector HR work experience	.07	.12	.32*	.01	-.24	-.03	0	-.10	-.12	-.07	.01	.04	.14	.09	1					
16. CO	.13	.05	.16	-.01	-.05	.39**	-.02	.02	.13	.23	.31*	.09	-.20	-.04	.11	1				
17. FL	-.04	.18	-.20	.13	.23	-.14	.40**	-.27	-.19	.02	.02	.20	-.10	-.06	-.16	-.09	1			
18. GA	.30*	.09	-.05	-.43**	-.38**	-.24	-.12	-.20	-.29*	.07	.04	-.11	.26	-.05	.06	-.16	-.24	1		
19. MO	.19	.01	-.26	-.06	-.06	.23	-.19	.10	.18	-.11	-.21	.04	-.30*	-.15	-.13	-.07	-.11	-.19	1	
20. SC	-.70**	-.49**	.10	.19	.37**	.05	.06	.20	.29*	-.35*	-.34*	-.22	.31*	.31*	-.12	-.14	-.21	-.37**	-.16	1

* $p < .05$; ** $p < .01$

Results

HR Professionals' Satisfaction with Civil Service Reform Elements in General

Table 15. Satisfaction with Civil Service Reform Elements in General

IVs \ DVs	Perceived Increase of Discretionary Authority	Perceived Increase of Efficiency	Perceived Change of Conventional Wisdom about Job Security	Perceived Clarity of Communication with Employees regarding CSR provisions and Purposes
Perception of management leadership on employee value (Assets)	-.049	.607*	-.572	.129
Perception of resource or opportunity allocation to employees	-.290	-.001	.709**	.811**
Perception of CSR consultation with other states' officers	1.298***	1.478***	.486	.902**
Age	-.729	-.053	.343	.734*
Political ideology	.607	.310	-.048	-.985*
Previous HR work experience in the private sector	.561	.264	.046	.737
CO	-.204	1.119	.058	1.054
FL	.873	1.283	4.871***	2.613**
GA	3.863***	4.304***	3.689***	2.716***
MO	.382	1.038	1.467	.440
SC	.378	.941	1.935**	2.199**
N	61	61	61	61
X^2 ^a	29.39***	36.56***	37.76***	32.01***
Pseudo R ²	.22	.282	.262	.207

Note: * $p < .1$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

a: The likelihood ratio chi-square (X^2) of each model ($p < .01$) showed that four models for civil service reform elements assessment in general are statistically significant.

Perceived Increase of Discretionary Authority

HR professionals' perceptions of helpfulness of CSR consultation were closely associated with HR professionals' satisfaction with increased discretionary authority. A one-unit increase in HR professionals' attitudes towards CSR consultation with other states' officers (i.e., going from 1 to 5¹²⁴) is likely to lead to a 1.298 increase in the log odds of the level of HR professionals' agreement with CSR effectiveness in terms of increased discretionary authority of supervisors

¹²⁴ 1=Strongly disagree, 2=Disagree, 3=Neutral, 4=Agree, and 5=Strongly agree.

and managers, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .01$). HR professionals in Georgia are more likely to perceive increased discretionary authority of supervisors and managers, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .01$).

Perceived Increase of Efficiency

HR professionals' perceptions of management leadership on employee value and helpfulness of CSR consultation were key factors that may influence HR professionals' satisfaction with the perceived effectiveness of CSR elements in terms of increased efficiency. A one-unit increase in HR professionals' perceptions of employee treatment as valuable assets in their states and a one unit increase in HR professionals' attitudes towards CSR consultation with other states' officers are likely to lead to .607 and 1.478 increases, respectively, in the log odds of the level of HR professionals' agreement with CSR effectiveness in terms of efficiency, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .1$; $p < .01$, respectively). HR professionals in Georgia who responded to the survey are more likely to perceive increased efficiency through CSR, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .01$).

Perceived Change of Conventional Wisdom about Job Security

HR professionals' perceptions of resource or opportunity allocation to employees were associated with HR professionals' attitudes towards whether CSR changed the conventional wisdom concerning the job security of civil servants. More specifically, a one-unit increase in HR professionals' perception of the adequate allocation of resources or opportunities for career development to state employees is likely to lead to a .709 increase in the log odds of the level of HR professionals' agreement that CSR has changed the conventional wisdom concerning the job

security of civil servants, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .05$). HR professionals in Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina who responded to the survey are more likely to perceive changed wisdom about job security of civil servants through CSR, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant (respectively significant at $p < .01$; $p < .01$; and $p < .05$).

Perceived Clarity of Communication with Employees regarding CSR Provisions and Purposes

HR professionals' satisfaction with clear communication with state employees about provisions and purposes of the CSR law is likely to be associated with HR professionals' perceptions of adequate allocation of resources or opportunities for career development to state employees, their perceptions of the helpfulness of CSR consultation with other states' officers, their age, and their political ideology. The results showed that a one-unit increase in HR professionals' perception of the adequate allocation of resources or opportunities for career development to state employees is likely to lead to a .811 increase in the log odds of the level of HR professionals' satisfaction with clear communication with state employees in terms of provisions and purposes of the CSR law, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .05$). A one-unit increase in HR professionals' attitudes towards CSR consultation with other states' officers is likely to lead to a .902 increase in the log odds of the level of HR professionals' satisfaction with clear communication with state employees about provisions and purposes of the CSR law, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .05$). Additionally, a one-unit increase in HR professionals' age is likely to lead to a .734 increase in the log odds of the level of HR professionals' satisfaction with clear communication with state employees in terms of provisions and purposes of the CSR law, given all of the other variables in

the model are held constant ($p < .1$). Such a result is in contrast to the hypothesis that a younger HR professional will be more likely to be satisfied with civil service reform. More politically liberal HR professionals seemed more dissatisfied with communication with state employees about the provisions and purposes of the CSR law, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .1$). This finding is consistent with hypothesis 5 that a more conservative HR professional will be more satisfied with CSR elements. HR professionals in Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina who responded to the survey are likely to be more satisfied with communication with state employees about provisions and purposes of the CSR law, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant (respectively significant at $p < .05$; $p < .01$; and $p < .05$).

HR Professionals' Satisfaction with At-Will Employment

Perceived Increase of Efficiency

HR professionals' satisfaction with the perceived efficiency of at-will employment seemed to be related to HR professionals' perceptions of management leadership on employee value, helpfulness of CSR consultation and HR professionals' ages. A one-unit increase in HR professionals' perceptions of employees as valuable assets in their states is likely to lead to a 1.155 increase in the log odds of the level of HR professionals' satisfaction with increased efficiency through at-will employment, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .05$). However, a one-unit increase in HR professionals' attitudes towards CSR consultation with other states' officers is likely to lead to a 1.099 decrease in the log odds of the level of HR professionals' satisfaction with increased efficiency through at-will employment, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .1$). Interestingly, a one-unit

increase in HR professionals' age is likely to lead to a 1.590 increase in the log odds of the level of HR professionals' satisfaction with increased efficiency through at-will employment, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .05$), and such a result is not consistent with hypothesis 4. HR professionals who responded to the survey in South Carolina are likely to be more dissatisfied with efficiency through at-will employment, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .01$).

Table 16. Satisfaction with At-will Employment

IVs \ DVs	Perceived Increase of Efficiency	Perceived Increase of Managerial Flexibility	Perceived Sensitivity to Issues of Procedural Fairness	Perceived Competitiveness of Compensation	Perceived Spoils
Perception of management leadership on employee value (Assets)	1.155**	.209	.751**	.099	-1.353***
Perception of resource or opportunity allocation to employees	-.414	.353	.362	.691*	1.386***
Perception of CSR consultation with other states' officers	-1.099*	-1.125**	.716	-.428	-.351
Age	1.590**	-.645	.219	-1.645***	.694
Political ideology	-.390	.832*	-.828*	-.522	-.948*
Previous HR work experience in the private sector	.046	.044	2.434***	1.358*	-1.488
CO	.416	-1.318	.245	-2.727*	-.510
FL	-1.391	.410	-.806	.439	2.174**
GA	-.611	-.484	-.113	-1.960**	-1.737*
MO	2.451	-1.172	-.916	-1.444	.081
SC	-6.764***	-3.465***	2.279**	1.463	1.546
N	55	55	54	54	54
X ^{2a}	51.79***	27.92***	23.35**	30.13***	39.11***
Pseudo R ²	.448	.204	.177	.205	.298

Note: * $p < .1$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

a: The likelihood ratio chi-square (X^2) of each model ($p < .05$ or $p < .01$) showed that five models for assessment of at-will employment are statistically significant.

Perceived Increase of Managerial Flexibility

In the case of HR professionals' satisfaction with increased managerial flexibility through at-will employment, HR professionals' perceptions of helpfulness of CSR consultation and HR professionals' political ideology were key factors influencing perceived increase of managerial flexibility. More specifically, a one-unit increase in HR professionals' attitudes towards CSR consultation with other states' officers is likely to lead to a 1.125 decrease in the log odds of the level of HR professionals' satisfaction with increased managerial flexibility through at-will employment, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .05$). More politically liberal HR professionals seemed more satisfied with managerial flexibility through at-will employment, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .1$). HR professionals in South Carolina who responded to the survey are likely to be more dissatisfied with managerial flexibility through at-will employment, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .01$).

Perceived Sensitivity to Issues of Procedural Fairness

Regarding HR professionals' satisfaction with the sensitivity of procedural fairness during at-will employment implementation, HR professionals' perceptions of management leadership on employee value, their political ideology, and HR professionals' previous HR work experience in the private sector were key factors that influenced HR professionals' assessments of procedural fairness. A one-unit increase in HR professionals' perceptions of employees as valuable assets in their states is likely to lead to a .751 increase in the log odds of the level of HR professionals' satisfaction with the sensitivity of procedural fairness during at-will employment implementation, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .05$). More

politically liberal HR professionals seemed more dissatisfied with the sensitivity of procedural fairness during at-will employment implementation, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .1$). However, a one-unit increase in HR professionals' previous HR work experience in the private sector is likely to lead to a 2.434 increase in the log odds of the level of HR professionals' satisfaction with the sensitivity of procedural fairness during at-will employment implementation, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .01$). HR professionals in South Carolina who responded to the survey are likely to be more satisfied with increased sensitivity of procedural fairness through at-will employment, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .05$).

Perceived Competitiveness of Compensation

HR professionals' attitudes towards adequate allocation of resources or opportunities for career development to state employees, HR professionals' ages, and their previous HR work experience in the private sector were likely to be associated with perceived competitiveness of compensation to make up for the lack of job security. A one-unit increase in HR professionals' perception of the adequate allocation of resources or opportunities for career development to state employees is likely to lead to a .691 increase in the log odds of the level of HR professionals' satisfaction with competitive compensation making up for loss of job security, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .1$). A one-unit increase in HR professionals' age is likely to lead to a 1.645 decrease in the log odds of the level of HR professionals' satisfaction with competitive compensation making up for loss of job security, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .01$). HR professionals who responded that they have had previous HR work experience in the private sector are more likely

to be satisfied with competitive compensation making up for loss of job security, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .1$). HR professionals in Colorado and Georgia who responded to the survey are more likely to be dissatisfied with competitive compensation making up for loss of job security, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant (respectively significant at $p < .1$; $p < .05$).

Perceived Spoils

HR professionals' perceptions of management leadership on employee value, their perceptions of adequate allocation of resources or opportunities for career development to state employees, and HR professionals' political ideology were key factors that may be associated with HR professionals' perceptions of spoils. More specifically, a one-unit increase in HR professionals' perceptions of employee treatment as valuable assets in their states is likely to lead to a 1.353 decrease in the log odds of the level of HR professionals' agreement with increased spoils through at-will employment, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .01$). A one-unit increase in HR professionals' perception of the adequate allocation of resources or opportunities for career development to state employees is likely to lead to a 1.386 increase in the log odds of the level of HR professionals' agreement with the increased spoils through at-will employment, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .01$). More politically liberal HR professionals seemed to disagree that spoils increased through at-will employment, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .1$). Florida respondents were most likely to agree that spoils increased under at-will employment; Georgia respondents were most likely to disagree, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant (respectively significant at $p < .05$; $p < .1$).

HR Professionals' Satisfaction with Pay-for-Performance

Table 17. Satisfaction with Pay-for-Performance

IVs	DVs	Perceived Quotas on Performance Rating	Perceived effectiveness for motivating Employees
Perception of management leadership on employee value (Assets)		-.286	.612*
Perception of resource or opportunity allocation to employees		.309	.543
Perception of CSR consultation with other states' officers		-.679*	.700
Age		.262	-.130
Political ideology		-.824	-.465
Previous HR work experience in the private sector		-.181	.903
CO		1.782*	.179
FL		-.325	5.048***
GA		-.722	1.691**
MO		2.684**	.911
SC		.282	3.590***
N		56	56
X ^{2a}		18.02*	29.37***
Pseudo R ²		.118	.196

Note: * $p < .1$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

a: The likelihood ratio chi-square (X^2) of each model ($p < .1$ or $p < .01$) showed that two models for assessment of pay-for-performance are statistically significant.

Perceived Quotas on Performance Rating

In terms of the first model that examined the HR professionals' satisfaction with performance rating that was measured with the survey item "I believe that management has imposed 'quotas' or limits on the number of performance ratings above 'met expectations'," HR professionals' perceptions of helpfulness of CSR consultation with other states' officers were likely to be associated with perceived quotas on performance ratings. A one-unit increase in HR professionals' attitudes towards CSR consultation with other states' officers is likely to lead to a .679 decrease in the log odds of the level of HR professionals' agreement with the survey item, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .1$). However, HR professionals in Colorado and Missouri are more likely to agree with the survey item that they believe that management has imposed 'quotas' or limits on the number of performance ratings above 'met

expectations' in their states' pay-for-performance implementation, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant (respectively significant at $p < .1$; $p < .05$). This may show that HR professionals in Colorado and Missouri had negative perceptions of rating systems in pay-for-performance.

Perceived effectiveness for motivating Employees

In terms of HR professionals' satisfaction with pay-for-performance as a tool for motivating state employees, HR professionals who positively perceived that their states' employees were dealt with as valuable assets by senior agency management are more likely to consider pay-for-performance a good tool for motivating employees ($p < .1$). HR professionals in Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina who responded to the survey are more likely to perceive pay-for-performance as a good way to motivate state employees, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant (respectively significant at $p < .01$; $p < .05$; and $p < .01$).

HR Professionals' Satisfaction with Broadbanding

Perceived Improvement of Efficiency

HR professionals' perceptions of helpfulness of CSR consultation and their previous HR work experience in the private sector were closely associated with HR professionals' satisfaction with broadbanding with regard to improved efficiency. A one-unit increase in HR professionals' attitudes towards CSR consultation with other states' officers is likely to lead to a 1.103 increase in the log odds of the level of HR professionals' satisfaction with the increased efficiency through the implementation of broadbanding, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .05$). However, HR professionals who responded that they have had previous

HR work experience in the private sector are less likely to be satisfied with the efficiency of broadbanding, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .1$). HR professionals who responded to the survey in Florida and Georgia are more likely to be dissatisfied with the efficiency of broadbanding, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant (respectively significant at $p < .01$; $p < .05$).

Table 18. Satisfaction with Broadbanding

IVs	DVs	Perceived Improvement of Efficiency	Perceived Increase of Flexibility
Perception of management leadership on employee value (Assets)		.052	.440
Perception of resource or opportunity allocation to employees		.406	.281
Perception of CSR consultation with other states' officers		1.103**	.847**
Age		.807	.396
Political ideology		-.056	.116
Previous HR work experience in the private sector		-1.474*	-.786
CO		-1.444	-.173
FL		-3.830***	-2.034*
GA		-2.158**	-1.176
MO		.809	2.048
SC		-.264	1.591
N		54	54
X^2 ^a		26.43***	22.87**
Pseudo R ²		.193	.159

Note: * $p < .1$; ** $p < .05$; *** $p < .01$

a: According to the likelihood ratio chi-square (X^2) of each model, two models for assessment of broadbanding are statistically significant at $p < .01$ and $p < .05$, respectively.

Perceived Increase of Flexibility

Regarding HR professionals' satisfaction with increased flexibility due to broadbanding, HR professionals' perceptions of helpfulness of CSR consultation may be associated with HR professionals' satisfaction with broadbanding in terms of increased flexibility. A one-unit increase in HR professionals' attitudes towards CSR consultation with other states' officers is likely to lead to a .847 increase in the log odds of the level of HR professionals' satisfaction with

the increased flexibility due to broadbanding, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .05$). HR professionals in Florida who responded to the survey are more likely to disagree that broadbanding has helped their state's HR system to be more flexible, given all of the other variables in the model are held constant ($p < .1$).

Findings

In this chapter, factors that impact HR professionals' satisfaction with effectiveness of civil service reform elements were examined by utilizing ordered logistic regression data analyses. According to the results, HR professionals who perceived that their states' employees are dealt with as valuable assets and their states' employees are provided with adequately allocated resources and opportunities for career development are more likely to be satisfied with civil service reform elements in general (Hypotheses 1 and 2 were supported). Also, HR professionals who responded that consultation or communication with other states' officers was helpful in developing civil service reform strategies in their own states were more likely to be satisfied with civil service reform elements in general.

Interestingly, HR professionals' positive attitudes towards consultation or communication with other states' officers in developing civil service reform strategies in their own states were negatively associated with their satisfaction with the effectiveness of at-will employment and pay-for-performance implementation, except the effectiveness of broadbanding (Hypothesis 3 was partially supported). Such a finding probably shows a mismatch between HR professionals' expectations during consultation and the actual impact upon implementation of at-will employment and pay-for-performance. Thus, benchmarking other states' latest HR practices needs incremental and very careful examination through pilot tests, etc., before a state adopts

other states' HR practices.

Although the present study hypothesized that a younger HR professional would be more satisfied with civil service reform elements than would an older HR professional, this hypothesis was only partially supported. In contrast to Hypothesis 4, older HR professionals were more likely to be satisfied with increased efficiency through at-will employment. Such a result may be caused by demographic characteristics of the survey respondents (e.g., 48 percent of respondents were HR directors or officers in selected states' agencies). More careful study needs to be conducted to find a relationship between age and perceived effectiveness of at-will employment because such a study will provide opportunities to develop practical recommendations by understanding employees' different needs according to their ages.

HR professionals' previous work experience in the private sector seemed to be helpful for HR professionals to have positive attitudes towards at-will employment. However, HR professionals' previous work experience in the private sector was likely to negatively influence HR professionals' satisfaction with broadbanding in terms of efficiency and flexibility. In this regard, Hypothesis 6 was partially supported. Overall, HR professionals who responded to the survey that they were more liberal were not likely to be satisfied with most parts of civil service reform elements (Hypothesis 5 was partially supported).

HR professionals in Florida and Georgia who responded to the survey were more satisfied with civil service reform elements in general, compared to other states' HR professionals, and such findings were consistent with findings in chapter 4. Although Florida's and Georgia's HR professionals who responded to the survey items regarding pay-for-performance assessment were likely to be satisfied with pay-for-performance, they were not likely to find broadbanding effective.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

With the aim of creating efficient government, two main civil service reform acts, the Pendleton Act of 1883 and the Civil Service Reform Act of 1978, have changed civil service systems in the U.S. (Ricucci and Naff 2008). Scholars and practitioners have led paradigm changes in the public administration field under different names,¹²⁵ such as New Public Administration (NPA) and New Public Management (NPM): Reinventing Government (Frederickson 1996b), and government has pushed ahead with civil service reform in various ways despite questions about whether such reform can really achieve goals for “good government” (March, Olson, and Olsen 1983: 283; Nalbandian 1999: 192). In terms of debates about the effectiveness of civil service reforms, for instance, issues surrounded by an unanswered question of whether government can be improved through public service deregulation or decentralization (DiIulio 1994) are still debated among scholars and practitioners, and no one may easily find the best answer to the question. A response from one HR professional in the Georgia state government indicated that deregulation or decentralization is not the only good way to improve government productivity and efficiency. Georgia was decentralized in 1996 and is now moving to centralization in some areas, according to this person. With this regard, Witesman and Wise (2009) argued that institutional democratization should be achieved first, rather than structural decentralization, for effective and sustainable civil service reform practices. Although many previous studies have endeavored to find causes and consequences of personnel

¹²⁵ Regarding this, Kaboolian stated that such changes are like “new wine in old bottles” (Kaboolian 1998: 189).

deregulation in states, more diversified research needs to be conducted for more accurate diagnosis about the cause and impact of personnel deregulation in the public sector and for more adequate public personnel policy design. Such efforts should be made in other studies about civil service reform elements, although many studies (e.g., Cogburn 2000; Hou, Ingraham, Beretschneider, and Selden 2000; Kellough and Selden 2003) have already attempted to diagnose cause and impact of civil service reform practices.

The present study, which has utilized a 2010 Civil Service Reform Assessment survey, annual reports or other internal memos and reports regarding HRM and elements of the civil service reform agenda from six selected states' central personnel offices, and findings from previous studies, has comprehensively examined variations of civil service systems and civil service reform elements among six states that have implemented significant elements of civil service reform agenda. Findings about the implementation of civil service systems and civil service reform elements in selected states were interesting. In spite of many scholars' and practitioners' emphasis on the importance of developing and implementing strategic workforce planning (e.g., Selden 2009; Condrey Forthcoming), HR professionals in Colorado, Kansas, and Missouri who participated in the survey responded that their states did not actually have or implement strategic workforce planning. HR professionals in Florida, Georgia, and South Carolina responded that their states have implemented strategic workforce planning, but their satisfaction with the effectiveness of it was very low.

In the case of Colorado, Colorado HR professionals responded that Colorado had not implemented employee suggestion programs at the time of survey administration. Although other states seemed to have formalized employee suggestion programs, HR professionals, especially those in Missouri and South Carolina, were dissatisfied with employee suggestion

programs. According to an HR professional who participated in the survey, improving employee participation in decision-making processes is very important for designing and implementing successful civil service reform elements, and such a statement is consistent with scholars' and practitioners' emphasis on the importance of consensus building (Brook and King 2007; 2008) through authentic dialogue and employee participation (Innes and Booher 2003). Ingraham (1995b) argued that Total Quality Management (TQM) is a good tool for improving communication and improving employee participation and commitment.

State governments' workforces have been continuously diversified, and the importance of increasing workforce diversity has been emphasized with respect to its positive impact, such as innovation and infusion of new knowledge and ideas into organizations (Pitts 2005; 2006). According to the Georgia Merit System of Personnel Administration (2008), for instance, Georgia state government had 49.8 % non-white employees and 63 % female employees in 2008. Although innovative programs are needed for accommodating workforce diversity and the changing preferences of the new labor force (Borins 1995: 270), whether states actually provide employees with effective workforce diversity programs is questionable. Most HR professionals, especially HR professionals in Colorado, Florida, Georgia, and Missouri who responded to the survey, were less likely to agree that workforce diversity programs help their agencies innovate.

Many HR professionals who participated in the survey had positive perceptions of adequate allocation of resources and opportunities for career development to employees in their states. Also, many HR professionals agreed that their states' senior management appreciates employees as valuable assets. However, an HR professional in the Colorado state government who responded to the survey pointed out a problem of resource allocation in his or her state government.

Funding for departments and their employees is not a priority with the current legislators. The current mentality appears to be cut budgets and get re-elected. While budget management is important, legislators are not adept at understanding what is needed to fund and manage state government. At the same time, the functionality and efficiency is significantly affected by actions taken by the legislature.

Probably because of reasons like that stated by the Colorado HR professional above, most HR professionals in Missouri who responded to the survey were dissatisfied with resource allocation and employee appreciation, and such dissatisfaction with the implementation of civil service systems seemed to influence HR professionals' assessment of civil service reform elements.

Sense and Sensibility of Civil Service Reform?

Due to ideological, political, and technological reasons (Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough 2007), elements of the reform agenda have been adopted and implemented by U.S. state governments, and the present study selected six states that have implemented significant elements of the civil service reform agenda based on previous research findings (e.g., Hays and Sowa's 2006 and 2007 studies). Although civil service reform has been designed with the ultimate goals of increasing efficiency and productivity by adopting a market-based public service delivery model in all levels of government (Peters 1995), reform has also caused side effects when it has been implemented. Regarding this, concerns of public sector employees who are directly influenced by such reform have been examined by some scholars and practitioners

(e.g., Kellough and Nigro 2006; Battaglio and Condrey 2009) since employees' satisfaction with civil service reform elements may be associated with their commitment to public organizations that are suffering from human capital crisis (Chi 2005).

According to Pfeffer (1998), to create productive and innovative organizations and to foster productive employees, the mindset or perspective of employees needs to be changed. In this regard, the present study has examined HR professionals' satisfaction with civil service reform elements in general and with key elements of civil service reform, including at-will employment, pay-for-performance, and broadbanding. Previously, it was debatable whether personnel offices were friend or foe of management (Ban 1995), but, recently, HR professionals have played an important role as partners or consultants of management in HR and non-HR related decision-making processes (Dagnon 2003; Ban and Gossett Forthcoming). By understanding HR professionals' satisfaction with civil service reform elements and factors that influence HR professionals' attitudes towards specific elements of civil service reform, scholars and practitioners can make recommendations for better civil service reform design or implementation that can lead to HR professionals' or employees' commitment to such practices (Cogburn, Battaglio, Bowman, Condrey, Goodman, and West 2010).

According to the results of the 2010 Civil Service Reform Assessment survey data analyses, most states' HR professionals were not likely to be satisfied with civil service reform elements in general. However, HR professionals in Florida and Georgia who responded to the survey were more likely to be satisfied with civil service reform elements, compared to four other states: Colorado, Kansas, Missouri, and South Carolina. In the case of Georgia, HR professionals who responded to the survey presented strong agreement with the effectiveness of reform elements, especially in terms of increased discretionary authority of supervisors and

managers. HR professionals in Colorado and Kansas presented lower satisfaction with civil service reform elements in general, compared to other states' HR professionals. According to an HR professional who participated in the survey in Kansas, Kansas has had no significant reform in the last 20 years, although there is reform currently underway anticipated to occur in 2011. HR professionals' anxiety about the future reform might lead their attitudes towards civil service reform elements in a negative direction. Such anxiety was also presented by an HR professional in the Florida state government who responded to the survey.

The future direction of civil service reform depends on the agency head. The future is very dependent on the vision at the time. I don't think the reason for the change was communicated very well, and historical data [about civil service (reforms)] is limited. Therefore, the path is questionable.

HR professionals in Colorado, Kansas, Missouri, and South Carolina seemed not to think that employees were provided with clear communication about civil service reform provisions and purposes. No HR professionals in Missouri agreed that Missouri has clearly communicated to state employees regarding civil service reform provisions and purposes. Such responses were drawn from only seven HR professionals in Missouri, and there could be a problem of generalizability. However, clear communication needs to be considered when Missouri plans civil service reform since it was apparently a factor that Missouri HR professionals were not satisfied with. To draw cooperative actions from employees regarding policies or plans in organizations, organizations need to appropriately utilize formality and informality (Barnard 1938 and 1968). For facilitating cooperation between employees and management, formal or

informal communication between those two parties is necessary.

According to Lindquist and Condrey (2006), underlying assumptions of at-will employment are: procedures impede discipline and termination of unsatisfactory employees; at-will employment will enable managers to remove poor performers more easily; under at-will employment, managers will act equitably toward employees; and at-will employment will encourage better employee performance. However, most HR professionals who responded to the survey were not likely to agree with such underlying assumptions about at-will employment. Moreover, most HR professionals in all six states disagreed that at-will employees are more productive. Under the assumption based on “Theory X” (Thayer 1978; Hays and Kearney 2001; Cogburn 2006a and 2007),¹²⁶ at-will employment has been expected to improve employee productivity. However, none of HR professionals in Florida and Georgia, two states that intensively and extensively adopted and implemented at-will employment, who responded to the survey, agreed that at-will employees work harder than classified employees. Regarding other values that were supposed to be achieved through the implementation of at-will employment, such as increased efficiency, flexibility, and competitive compensation to make up for the loss of job security, not many HR professionals who participated in the survey agreed that at-will employment is helpful to achieving those values. However, different from existing concerns about returning to a spoils system through at-will employment (e.g., Knott 2001; Condrey and Battaglio 2007), the present study found that most HR professionals who responded to the survey in six states disagree with the concerns about spoils through at-will employment.

In response to public demands for productive and efficient government (Nigro, Nigro,

¹²⁶ Rainey (2003) defined “Theory X” based on Douglas McGregor’s 1960 study. According to Rainey (2003: 39), “Theory X held that employees were basically lazy, passive, resistant to change and responsibility, and indifferent to organizational needs. Hence, management must take complete responsibility for directing and controlling the organization. Managers must closely direct, control, and motivate employees.”

and Kellough 2007), pay-for-performance has been widely adopted and implemented in all levels of government. Based on the expectancy theory that employees expect appropriate rewards from organizations according to their performance, pay-for-performance was expected to have a positive impact on governments (Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough 2007), such as improving efficiency and productivity, despite side effects (e.g., dysfunctional competition among employees). While many scholars and practitioners (e.g., Kellough and Lu 1993) have warned of the negative impact of pay-for-performance, various levels of government have adopted and implemented pay-for-performance for various reasons (See chapter 2 in the present study or Kellough and Lu's 2003 study for more specific discussion regarding the persistence of pay-for-performance). The present study found that many HR professionals who responded to the survey seemed to assess performance appraisal systems in their states as fair and helpful. Many of them also did not agree that office politics or favoritism influence employee performance appraisal. However, not many HR professionals agreed that pay-for-performance has increased productivity in their states or that pay-for-performance is a good way to motivate employees. Additionally, many HR professionals who responded to the survey agreed that there has been too much stress on money as an incentive and not enough on other sources of motivation with regard to pay-for-performance. Such findings seem to reflect concerns about the mislink between employees' expectations of what they want from organizations and the actual rewards from organizations for employee performance, which previous studies already pointed out (e.g., Nigro, Nigro, and Kellough 2007).

In terms of broadbanding, many HR professionals who responded to the survey agreed that broadbanding has increased efficiency and managerial flexibility in their states. Although HR professionals' satisfaction with broadbanding in Colorado, Florida, and Georgia was pretty

low, HR professionals in Missouri and South Carolina showed strong agreement with the effectiveness of broadbanding. To find factors that may influence such satisfaction difference among HR professionals in different states, the present study conducted statistical data analyses.

Recommendations for Strategic Civil Service Reform Design and Implementation

Some previous studies, including Kellough and Nigro's 2006 study, Battaglio and Condrey's 2009 study, and Coggburn, Battaglio, Bowman, Condrey, Goodman, and West's 2010 study, found that employees or HR professionals' demographic characteristics, such as age, gender, race, tenure, and level of education, might influence perceptions of civil service reform elements (e.g., at-will employment and pay-for-performance). Along with findings from such previous studies, the present study has also found that HR professionals' demographic characteristics were likely to be associated with their attitudes towards civil service reform elements in general and towards specific civil service reform elements. HR professionals' ages, political ideology, and previous HR work experience in the private sector were likely to be more closely related to their satisfaction with at-will employment than with other civil service reform elements, such as pay-for-performance and broadbanding, or with civil service reform in general. Different from previous expectation, HR professionals' ages were inconsistently associated with HR professionals' attitudes towards the effectiveness of at-will employment. Older HR professionals were likely to be more satisfied with the efficiency of at-will employment than were younger HR professionals, and younger HR professionals were less satisfied with the competitiveness of compensation for making up for the loss of job security. Such a finding may show that monetary rewards rather than job security are still important motivators to younger employees, and at-will employment should be implemented along with the development of

supplementary rewards systems to motivate employees.

Although some scholars argued that public sector employees are likely to have different motivation systems from their private sector counterparts (Perry and Wise 1990; Perry 1997), the present study found that monetary rewards can still be important for at-will employees¹²⁷ since they lost one extrinsic motivator (e.g., job security) that public organizations have provided. Under the recent tough economic condition nationwide, developing employee benefits or other motivators (e.g., flexibility policies, such as alternative work schedules) that can increase (at-will) employees' motivation is required (Lawler and Worley 2006). Also, comprehensive and careful change of organizational culture through considering political, managerial, and ethical perspectives altogether is needed (Ban 1995).¹²⁸ According to an HR professional in the South Carolina state government, for instance, South Carolina has a plan to increase numbers of at-will employees as other states (e.g., Florida and Georgia) do. In this regard, developing new and effective employee rewards systems and changing organizational culture seem to be necessary.

The present study also found that HR professionals' attitudes towards civil service systems and the effectiveness of consultation or communication with other states' officers for their own states' civil service reform strategy development were likely to influence HR professionals' satisfaction with civil service reform elements. Overall, HR professionals who perceived that their states appreciate state employees as valuable assets and who perceived that employees were provided with adequate resources and opportunities for career development were more likely to be satisfied with civil service reform elements. From such findings, the present study could confirm the importance of human capital management, as other scholars (e.g.,

¹²⁷ Barnard (1938 and 1968) stated the importance of utilizing economic incentives for better organizational functioning.

¹²⁸ According to Ban (1995), there are four competing values model of organizational culture, and those include the clan culture, the hierarchy culture, the market culture, and the adhocracy culture. In a dramatically changing work environment, the adhocracy culture that is "an open culture, focusing on external relations and flexibility" (Ban 1995: 25) seems to be required.

Pfeffer 1998; Lawler and Worley 2006; Selden 2009) have emphasized. According to Huselid, Becker, and Beatty (2005) and Selden (2009), the workforce scorecard is an effective tool to manage human capital and an easy tool for building databases for future HRM.^{129,130}

Through the implementation of the civil service reform agenda, professionalism has been emphasized, and some studies have attempted to conduct comparative analyses in the U.S. or internationally (Farazmand 1997; Khator 1997). Lessons learned from previous studies or experiences usually become guidelines for people or organizations to make decisions regarding policy adoption or other activities (Rose 1993). Additionally, such a learning process could help government make up for a lack of professionalism on certain issues or problems. In this regard, consultation with internal or external experts or even, sometimes, with citizens (Pierre 1998)¹³¹ is a good way to learn lessons before politicians or management make decisions. The diffusion of policy innovation occurs in a similar vein.

The present study found that consultation or communication with other states' officers for developing civil service reform strategies is important, and HR professionals' satisfaction with such consultation was also likely to be connected to satisfaction with the effectiveness of civil service reform elements. More specifically, HR professionals' satisfaction with consultation with other states' officers for developing civil service reform was likely to be positively associated with their satisfaction with civil service reform elements in general and their satisfaction with a certain civil service reform element, i.e. broadbanding. However, HR professionals who participated in the survey were dissatisfied with the effectiveness of at-will employment and pay-

¹²⁹ An HR professional in the Florida state government, who responded to the survey, pointed out that the problem of civil service reform is caused by the lack of historical data about civil service systems and civil service reform.

¹³⁰ Additionally, Phillips, Stone, and Phillips (2001: x) argued that "measuring the return on investment (ROI)" is a promising tool for building data about the contribution of certain "human resources programs and processes."

¹³¹ An HR professional in the Colorado state government who responded to the survey stated that employee advocacy groups were key actors in Colorado's civil service reform. This shows that participation of various stakeholders in policy-making processes (e.g., civil service reform) has been extended.

for-performance, although they were satisfied with consultation or communication with other states' officers while their states designed civil service reform strategies. Such findings show that benchmarking or policy diffusion should be based on thorough examination of whether a policy, program, or practice can be adaptable in their own states' environments (i.e., political, managerial, cultural, and socioeconomic environments). Without the policy or practice modification considering such different environment characteristics, goals or purposes of civil service reform can hardly buy civil servants' or citizens' support. The adoption or implementation of at-will employment and pay-for-performance without modification seemed to influence HR professionals' dissatisfaction with the effectiveness of those systems. Since at-will employment and pay-for-performance are management tools from the private sector, sector difference or possible impacts that such difference can cause should be carefully examined. Additionally, as Kim's 2010 study presented, at-will employment and pay-for-performance need to be adopted or implemented along with appropriate rules or regulation changes as well as organizational culture changes (e.g., adhocracy culture in Ban's 1995 study). In addition, adopting more strategic public service delivery systems, rather than focusing on result or performance oriented management methods, is needed, as many scholars have pointed out (e.g., Condrey Forthcoming).

While the value of reform, innovation or reinvention has been emphasized all over the world (Frederickson 1997), the pain from changes has raised concerns about the effectiveness of reform or innovation (Ingraham and Jones 1997). According to Abrahamson (2004), "change without pain" is possible when organizations pursue incremental change (i.e., redeveloping, reusing, or recombining policy processes). Additionally, Wilson (1966) argued that organization change needs to be understood from the underlying assumptions of innovation that includes

political relations, organizational culture, and other socioeconomic impact (Drucker 1999). Such recommendations may imply that the fundamentals are the most important things in civil service reform, and incremental reform rather than radical reform can reduce possible pain that might be caused by radical changes.

Study Limitations and Guidelines for Future Study

Since the survey sample focused on HR professionals, especially HR directors, HR managers or supervisors, who have in-depth knowledge about states' civil service systems and civil service reform, the sample size itself was not big. In the case of Missouri, the central personnel office provided contact information for 22 HR professionals, but only 7 of them responded to the survey. As a result, caution must be exercised in interpreting results from Missouri. Additionally, however, since all data analyses were based on relatively small numbers of observations, all results must be considered in that context. But, survey respondents were HR professionals, and their responses and the information that they provided are important and interesting.¹³² To improve generalizability and representativeness, future work should increase the sample size and extend the survey to employees, managers, or supervisors who are not working in the HR field. Through a comparative study that examines different perspectives among HR professionals and non-HR professionals on civil service systems and civil service reform, scholars or practitioners can comprehensively examine the impact of civil service reform on governments' efforts to innovate civil service systems.

Although the present study conducted a comprehensive examination about civil service systems and civil service reform elements, the study did not deal with much about HR

¹³² This work focuses on the attitudes of HR professionals because of their depth of knowledge with regard to civil service reform in state governments (Coggburn 2001).

outsourcing or contracting out, nor about labor-management relationship. According to Kettl (1993) and Pynes (2009), HR outsourcing is a key civil service reform element. One of the HR professionals in South Carolina who participated in the survey stated that there are “problems of outsourcing without provisions that such employees be given rights or benefits.” Despite its importance, the present study did not discuss this issue too much because currently in-sourcing efforts are increasing in all levels of government (Ban and Gossett Forthcoming). Additionally, the present study did not discuss much about the labor-management issue (e.g., grievance). Concerns about employee rights or labor-management issue have increased along with the elimination of due process in the Federal government and in some state governments. In a similar vein of the previous findings (e.g., Battaglio and Condrey 2009), the present study also found that many HR professionals who responded to the survey seemed to believe that whistleblower protection laws can effectively keep employees safe from side effects that may be caused by the elimination of due process (e.g., discouraged whistle-blowing behaviors). Since each agency in a state government can have its own grievance procedures, and states have different procedures with regard to collective bargaining terms, the present study did not conduct statistic analyses about this issue. Future study needs to examine employee rights and labor-management relations based on in-depth analyses of rules or regulations that are related to such an issue.

Added to the data building issue, the issue of measuring civil service systems and civil service reform is one of the essential topics that future study should examine. Many scholars and practitioners (e.g., Kettl 1993) have pointed out problems of measurement in terms of employee performance and other factors. That is, to improve study validity, scholars or practitioners need to develop better measurement tools. Students, scholars, or practitioners in the civil service

reform field should develop more accurate measurement tools based on full understanding of the mechanisms of such measurement tools. Wollmann (2003) suggested some evaluation tools for public sector reform. For instance, according to the author, normal evaluation, meta-evaluation, internal and external evaluation, as well as ex-ante and ex-post evaluation can be utilized for civil service reform studies.

Despite some limitations of the study, the present study contributes to developing strategic and adaptable civil service reform design through the comprehensive examinations of overall civil service systems and civil service reform elements in six states that have implemented significant elements of the civil service reform agenda. By exploring HR professionals' attitudes towards civil service systems and civil service reform elements, the present study found what factors influence HR professionals' satisfaction with or agreement with the effectiveness of civil service reform elements. The study findings have emphasized the importance of human capital management and learning process management. In this bad economic climate, findings and recommendations that the present study provides can contribute to planning or designing human resources management policy innovation.

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APPENDICES

A. COVER LETTER FOR WEB SURVEY

Dear Sir/Madam:

My name is Jungin Kim. I am a doctoral student in the Department of Public Administration and Policy at the University of Georgia and am currently working on my dissertation research, under the direction of Professor J. Edward Kellough. As an expert on your state's civil service systems, I invite you to participate in my research study entitled *Assessing Human Resources Management Reform Practices: Human Resources Policy Innovation*. Your contact information was provided to us by your state's central personnel office.

The purpose of this research is to assess civil service reform in U.S. state governments. We believe that successful civil service reform will be possible when people know exactly what the states' civil service problems are. Your participation will involve completing an online survey which should take about twenty minutes of your time. Your participation is voluntary, and you may choose not to participate or to stop at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Although we appreciate if you can respond to all questions, you are free to skip any questions.

There are no direct benefits to you if you decide to participate but I hope that this research will contribute to developing theoretical and practical implications for effective civil service systems and successful civil service reforms. There are no known risks or discomforts associated with this research. Every effort will be made to keep any information that can potentially identify you confidential; however, as with any online transaction, there is a limit to the confidentiality that can be guaranteed during the actual internet communication procedure. Any information you provide will not be used for any purposes other than this study. The results of the research study may be published, but your name will not be used.

You can access the Civil Service Reform Assessment Survey directly on the web by clicking on http://www.surveymonkey.com/s/CSR_Assessment.

This URL is a secure server, and your personal information, including email address or IP address, will be strictly secured.

I am very grateful to you for your consideration and for your willingness to take the time needed to participate in this important survey. If you have questions about this study, please contact me at jungink@uga.edu or Dr. Kellough at kellough@uga.edu. You also can reach us via phone: 706-254-5173 or 706-542-0488. Questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant should be directed to The Chairperson, University of Georgia Institutional Review Board, 612 Boyd GSRC, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; telephone (706) 542-3199; email address irb@uga.edu.

By proceeding with the survey, you are agreeing to participate in the above described research project. Thank you very much for your participation!

Sincerely,

Jungin Kim

B. CIVIL SERVICE REFORM ASSESSMENT SURVEY

Civil Service Reform Assessment Survey

March
2010

Dear Sir/Madam:

My name is Jungin Kim. I am a doctoral student in the Department of Public Administration and Policy at the University of Georgia and am currently working on my dissertation research, under the direction of Professor J. Edward Kellough. As an expert on your state's civil service systems, I invite you to participate in my research study entitled *Assessing Human Resources Management Reform Practices: Human Resources Policy Innovation*. Your contact information was provided to us by your state's central personnel office.

The purpose of this research is to assess civil service reform in U.S. state governments. We believe that successful civil service reform will be possible when people know exactly what the states' civil service problems are. Your participation will involve completing the attached survey which should take about fifteen to twenty minutes of your time. Your participation is voluntary, and you may choose not to participate or to stop at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. Although we appreciate if you can respond to all questions, you are free to skip any questions.

There are no direct benefits to you if you decide to participate but I hope that this research will contribute to developing theoretical and practical implications for effective civil service systems and successful civil service reforms. There are no known risks or discomforts associated with this research. However, any information that can potentially identify you will be kept strictly confidential and will not be used for any purposes other than this study. The results of the research study may be published, but your name will not be used.

To ensure confidentiality, please do not write your name or any personal identifying information (for example, your return address) on the envelope or on the survey questionnaire.

We have labeled the self-addressed stamped envelope and survey with a numerical code so we can track who has responded to our request. Your name will be deleted from the master file that links the codes with names once we receive your survey.

I am very grateful to you for your consideration and for your willingness to take the time needed to participate in this important survey. If you have questions about this study, please contact us at jungink@uga.edu or Dr. Kellough at kellough@uga.edu. You also can reach us via phone: 706-254-5173 or 706-542-0488. Questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant should be directed to The Chairperson, University of Georgia Institutional Review Board, 612 Boyd GSRC, Athens, Georgia 30602-7411; telephone (706) 542-3199; email address irb@uga.edu.

By completing and returning this questionnaire in the envelope provided, you are agreeing to participate in the above described research project. Thank you, and please keep this letter for your records.

Sincerely,

Jungin Kim
Civil Service Reform Research Project

PART I.

Questions in this section are about workforce demographics and general information about civil service reform in your state. Please respond to the following questions.

1. Approximately how many employees (please do not count teachers or university faculty members) work in state government positions in your state? _____
2. Approximately how many employees are classified employees in your state (Please do not count at-will employees)? _____
3. Approximately how many employees are unclassified or “at-will” employees* in your state?

4. Approximately how many job classes exist in your state? _____
5. Approximately what is your state’s employee turnover rate? _____
6. Has a Senior Executive Service (SES) been created in your state?
 Yes No
7. If you answered *Yes* for question 6, approximately how many employees are in the SES? _____
8. Does your state plan to expand its at-will workforce in the future?
 Yes No
9. Does your state have a central personnel agency?
 Yes No
10. If you answered *Yes* for question 9, what kind of a central agency does your state have (please check all that apply)?
 Personnel Commission
 Personnel Board
 Other (please specify): _____
11. Approximately when did your state’s civil service reform happen?
 Between 1989 and 1998
 Between 1999 and 2008
12. My state has conducted surveys or studies of other states’ civil service.
 Yes No

* By “at-will” employment, we mean employment with your state that may be legally terminated by the employing agency with or without cause. Please do not include probationary employees in your total.

13. My state has communicated or consulted with other states that had civil service reform experiences.
 Yes No
14. What is the legal basis for civil service reform in your state?
 Constitutional Amendment
 Statute
 Regulation
 Executive Order
15. If your state has engaged in civil service reform in the past twenty years, what do you believe was the main purpose of that reform? (please check all that apply)
 Decentralization of personnel related decisions
 Eliminating or reducing personnel systems rules and regulations
 Increasing managerial discretion in disciplining and removing employees
 Increasing managerial accountability and responsibility
 Other _____
16. If your state has engaged in civil service reform in the past twenty years, who has played the most important role in planning/designing that reform? (please check all that apply)
 Elected/appointed officials
 Budget directors
 Risk managers (e.g., actuarial manager)
 Managers
 Legal counsel
 HRM/personnel professionals
 Other (please describe any other key actors in civil service reform in your state):

17. Which personnel practices (if any) have been targeted for or subject to reform in your state?
 Employee recruitment
 Examinations/testing for selection
 Training and career development
 Compensation (pay and benefits)
 Classification
 Personnel appraisal
 Discipline/adverse actions
 Employee protections
 Other (please specify): _____
18. What issues are grievable under your state grievance law? (please check all that apply)
 Reassignments
 Reclassification
 Compensation
 Performance Appraisal

- Transfers
 Promotions
 Terms of Employment
 Other (please describe any other issues are grievable under your state grievance law):
-

PART II.

Questions in this section are about your assessment of the civil service system in your state. Please respond to the following questions.

1. Does your state provide job applicants with systematic on-line hiring processes (e.g., on-line application submission)?
 Yes No
2. If you answered *Yes* for question 1, do you agree that systematic on-line hiring processes improve efficiency of human resources management function in your agency?
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
3. Has the central personnel agency provided state agencies with strategic workforce planning?
 Yes No
4. If you answered *Yes* for question 3, do you agree that your state's strategic workforce planning has been implemented well?
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
5. Does your state provide employees with employee suggestion programs?
 Yes No
6. If you answered *Yes* for question 5, do you agree that employee suggestion programs help employees to increase their commitment in the work place?
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
7. Do you agree that employee development programs help employees' career and work skill development?
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
8. Does your state provide managers and employees with performance appraisal guidelines?
 Yes No
9. If you answered *Yes* for question 8, do you agree that performance appraisal guidelines help managers and employees conduct transparent and fair performance evaluation?
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
10. Does your state provide employees with workforce diversity programs?
 Yes No

11. If you answered *Yes* for question 10, do you agree that workforce diversity programs help your agency innovate?
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
12. Does your state have agencies that regularly audit in the department level?
 Yes No
13. If you answered *Yes* for question 12, do you agree that auditing or monitoring systems help to improve fairness of HR practices?
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
14. Adequate resources and opportunities for career development are available to state employees.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
15. State employees are appreciated as valuable assets by senior agency management.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree

PART III.

Questions in this section are designed to evaluate perceived effectiveness of civil service practices in your state. Please indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with the following statements.

Section A: Assessment of Civil Service Reform In General

1. Civil service reform in my state has increased the flexibility of civil service procedures and rules.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
2. Civil service reform in my state has increased professionalism in our civil service system.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
3. Civil service reform in my state has increased the discretionary authority of supervisors and managers.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
4. Civil service reform in my state has increased the efficiency and performance of state agencies.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
5. The civil service reform law causes state employees to be more responsive to the goals and priorities of agency administrators.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
6. Consultation or communications with other states' officers in civil service reform experienced states helped to develop civil service reform strategies in my state.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
7. Civil service reform in my state has changed the conventional wisdom concerning the job security of civil servants.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree

8. The provisions and purposes of the civil service reform law in my state have been clearly communicated to state employees like me.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
9. Overall, I am satisfied with civil service reform in my state.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
10. Overall, civil service reform in my state has contributed to accomplishing the agency mission and goal.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
11. In your judgment, what does the future hold for your state's career civil service? Please specify likely directions of change.

Section B: Assessment of At-Will Employment

Please respond to the following statements only if your state has at-will employees other than political appointees.

1. At-will employment in my state helps ensure employees are responsive to the goals and priorities of agency administrators.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
2. At-will employment in my state makes the HR function more efficient.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
3. At-will employment in my state provides essential managerial flexibility over the HR function.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
4. At-will employment in my state makes employees feel more insecure about their jobs.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
5. At-will employment in my state discourages employees from taking risks that could lead to program or policy innovation.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
6. At-will employment in my state discourages employees from reporting agency wrongdoing (or "blowing the whistle").
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
7. At-will employment in my state discourages employees from freely voicing objections to management directives.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree

8. At-will employment in my state could – by not requiring a rationale or justification for terminating employees- negatively affect managers’ decision-making in other non-HR decisions.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
9. At-will employment in my state could –by not requiring a rationale or justification for terminating employees – make public employees less sensitive to issues of procedural fairness.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
10. My state’s Whistle Blower Protection law or other provisions is efficient enough to protect at-will employees although due process for those employees is removed.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
11. At-will employment in my state makes state government jobs less attractive to current and future employees than would be the case if there was more job security.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
12. At-will employment in my state is sometimes used to fire competent employees so other people with friends or connections to government can be hired.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
13. Employees are more productive when they are employed at-will.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
14. The lack of job security is made up for with competitive compensation (salary and benefits).
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
15. Employees trust management when it comes to HR decisions.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
16. Employees feel that they can trust the organization to treat them fairly.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
17. I know of a case where a competent employee was fired at-will so that another person with friends or connections to government could be hired.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
18. Classified state employees really don’t have any more job security in my agency than unclassified employees.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
19. Unclassified state employees tend to work harder than classified employees.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree

Section C: Assessment of Pay-for-Performance System

Please respond to the following statements if your state has implemented a pay-for-performance system.

1. Implementing pay-for-performance (merit pay) makes employees in my state more productive than not implementing pay-for-performance.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
2. My job description provides the information needed to establish clear standards and expectations used to evaluate my performance.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
3. Office politics has more to do with performance rating than actual performance on the job.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
4. Performance ratings of better than “met expectations” are “rotated” among employees who deserve meaningful pay raises.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
5. I believe that management has imposed “quotas” or limits on the number of performance ratings above “met expectations.”
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
6. Performance appraisals in my work unit are conducted fairly.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
7. The pay-for-performance system is a good way to motivate state employees.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
8. There has been too much stress on money as an incentive and not enough on other sources of motivation.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
9. Pay raises in my work unit often are not really related to performance.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
10. Favoritism is a problem for the pay-for-performance program in my agency.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
11. Performance appraisals are very helpful in determining my training and development needs.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree

Section D: Assessment of Broadbanding

Please respond to these statements or questions if your state has implemented a broadbanding system to reduce the number of pay grades.

1. Broadbanding makes my state's HR function more efficient.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
2. Broadbanding helps my state's HR system to be more flexible.
 Strongly disagree Disagree Neutral Agree Strongly agree
3. How many pay grades are present in your state's compensation system? _____

PART IV.

Questions in this section are about respondent information. Please remember, all of the information you provide will remain strictly confidential. None of this information will be linked directly to you.

1. What is your gender?
 Male Female
2. What is your age range? (Please check one)
 24 or less 25-34
 35-44 45-54
 55-64 65 or over
3. What is your race/ethnicity? (Please check one)
 American Indian or Alaska Native Asian
 Black or African American Hispanic or Latino
 Native Hawaiian or Other Pacific Islander White
 Some Other Race
4. In general, which of the following best describes your political views? (Please check one)
 Very Conservative Conservative
 Moderate Liberal
 Very Liberal
5. Please indicate your current position in your agency.
 HR Director / HR Officer HR Manager / Supervisor
 HR Specialist HR Technician
 HR Consultant Other
6. Have you worked in the private sector in an HR position similar to the one you hold now? (Please check one)
 Yes No

7. How many years have you worked in the public sector? (Please check one)
- Less than 5 years 5 to 10 years
 11 to 15 years 16 to 20 years
 21 to 25 years 26 years or more
8. How many years have you worked in the field of HR? (Please check one)
- Less than 5 years 5 to 10 years
 11 to 15 years 16 to 20 years
 21 to 25 years 26 years or more
9. What is your highest level of academic attainment? (Please check one)
- High school diploma 2 year college degree
 4 years college degree Master's degree
 Law degree Ph.D. or equivalent

**Thank you so much for completing the civil service reform assessment survey.
Your opinions are important!**