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DEVELOPMENT OF EXECUTIVE SUCCESS

by

THEODORE E. ELSASSER

September 1976

Thesis Advisor: S. M. Dean
Co-Advisor: C. B. Derr

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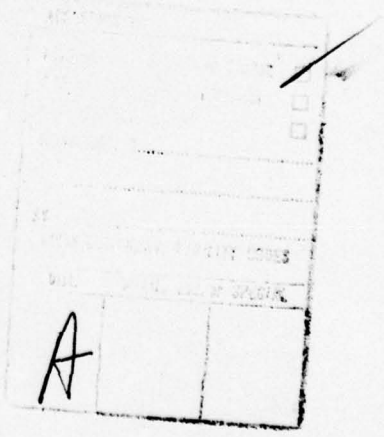
#20 Continuation of Abstract

the hierarchy and attain executive success for himself.

This effort is an attempt to answer three fundamental questions. First, what does an executive do and what function does he perform? Second, what qualities represent the difference between a successful executive and a mediocre one? Finally, how can an individual use this knowledge to achieve personal executive success?

Executive development methods used in both public and private sectors are analyzed. A method for formulating a personal executive career strategy is presented.



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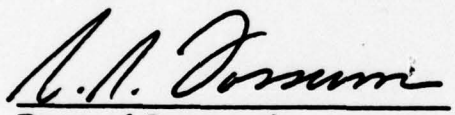

Dean of Research

DEVELOPMENT OF

EXECUTIVE SUCCESS

by

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requirements for the degree of

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ABSTRACT

Executive development and success are analyzed from two different vantage points. Executive effectiveness is considered first from the traditional view of management which is charged with the responsibility of ensuring the future of the organization by filling key positions with competent executives. Executive effectiveness then is reconsidered through the eyes of an individual who wants to rise through the hierarchy and attain executive success for himself.

This effort is an attempt to answer three fundamental questions. First, what does an executive do and what function does he perform? Second, what qualities represent the difference between a successful executive and a mediocre one? Finally, how can an individual use this knowledge to achieve personal executive success?

Executive development methods used in both public and private sectors are analyzed. A method for formulating a personal executive career strategy is presented.

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I. INTRODUCTION

> Look inside a great corporation: There are hundreds, maybe thousands, of youngish men, who are managers or future managers. Most of them, no doubt, will be reasonably successful but probably only a handful have it in them to be creative leaders; and yet they are the ones on whom the future growth or decay of the corporation will one day depend. It is therefore of the utmost importance to be able to sort out the few potential winners from the greater mass of intelligent, able, and efficient young men. It is also a great deal harder than it sounds (Jay, 1967, p. 168).

This passage points out one of management's most important and difficult tasks: ensuring the future of the organization by obtaining an ample supply of talented, creative leaders. The importance of having effective managers can not be overemphasized in today's highly competitive environment:

> ...the difference between the best and worst of companies is largely attributable to differences in the quality of management (Lindberg, 1973, p. 23).

There are two parallel concerns related to the issue of organizational leadership. One is the continuing effort on the part of management to come up with competent executives who will be capable of leading the organization through tomorrow's challenges. The other is the struggle against long odds, on the part of any individual in the hierarchy, to become one of these chosen few.

If possible the early identification of employees within an organization who have high executive potential would have certain desirable benefits. It would give management more time to expose the candidate to a broad range of

realistic situations giving the candidate valuable managerial experience. At the same time, management would have the opportunity to affirm or reject their original judgement of his executive mettle. It would allow management time to develop a strategy to use the candidate effectively before he is promoted to a senior executive position. Such a strategy would keep the candidate contented during his period of development and help to protect management's investment in him. It would help prevent the departure of a potential star for greener pastures simply because he was not aware that his organization had "big things in mind for him."

On the other side of the ledger, there are many experts who feel that it is impossible to identify potential successful executives (Drucker, 1974, p. 423 and Odiorne, 1973, p. 131). In addition to the futility of trying to find the man with potential, Drucker notes the harm that can result from designating a crown prince. First, the men who are not selected "will, understandably feel slighted. They may end up becoming less effective, less productive, less willing to do new things than they were before" (1974, p. 423).

Second, there is the harm to the crown prince, himself. The candidate finds himself in an awkward position vis-a-vis his peers. He is no longer one of them, and he has not yet moved to the next level in management. The peer relation is strained; they may even subconsciously work to "bring him

down" and thereby prove that management had been wrong in their selection (Drucker, 1974, p. 424).

It would be foolish to try to keep the selection of an heir apparent a secret. It can't be done. The non-selected employees and other co-workers will perceive the selection no matter how carefully concealed. And even if management were able to hide its decision, it would have to forego the opportunity of developing the candidate's executive potential to maintain the secret.

In spite of these drawbacks many organizations do attempt to tap certain individuals within their organizations for special consideration. One of the most common methods is to try to establish a profile of the classical successful executive and then match candidates with this profile. Usually these profiles are based on a list of distinguishing qualities or characteristics, called traits, which are deemed to be most important to the success of an executive. Some of these lists contain only a few characteristics while others embrace virtually every attribute ever defined. The number of these lists found in the literature attests to the popularity of this technique.[1]

Other attempts to identify potential are centered on the analysis of personalities. Personality profiles of executive prospects are "measured" and then compared to a norm. These

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[1]Appendix A contains over thirty such lists.

tests are negative in nature - designed to screen out and preclude the promotion of an unacceptable person. They have not proven to be accurate indicators and fortunately have fallen into disfavor.[2]

One way or another organizations must obtain qualified, capable executives to lead the organization through tomorrow's challenges. Most organizations try to develop their own executives from within the organization. Some organizations expend substantial resources and effort on executive development. Others rely on a man's ability to acquire the required skills entirely through on-the-job experience.

In either case, the selection and development of executives represents a large investment and a major commitment by the organization to the men in whose hands they place their future. For this reason, the understanding of the process by which executives are selected and developed, and the circumstances under which they theoretically may be successful is important to those who must make these selections. This understanding can also be of great value to those who hope to survive in the system and climb the executive ladder.

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[2]Whyte (1956) presents a rather candid and interesting account of the use of personality tests. For those aspiring executives who may be forced to take one, Whyte even includes an appendix on How to Cheat on Personality Tests.

II. SCOPE AND NATURE OF RESEARCH

OBJECTIVES

The primary objectives of this study are as follows:

1. To contribute to the understanding of the executive development process.

2. To gain a personal appreciation of the scope and nature of the executive function and the skills required to perform those functions effectively.

3. To examine those characteristics which have been seen in the literature as contributing to the success of an executive.

4. To explore the most common methods of executive development and their perceived value to the man and his organization.

5. To formulate a personal executive career development strategy based on these findings.

RATIONALE OF APPROACH

Those academicians who are more accustomed to the rigors of the hard sciences may not be completely comfortable with the descriptive and exploratory approach of this research. There are several reasons why the chosen approach is appropriate for this effort.

First, success is a very nebulous quality and the definition of success varies from person to person. Gladin

compiled the results of a survey of 1500 managers who were asked to define success. The responses closest to a consensus included a phrase of "being satisfied" (Naval War College, 1974). But one man's satisfaction is another man's frustration. Accordingly, a universal definition favored by the scientific approach is virtually impossible.

If success is a difficult quality to define, it is an impossible one to measure. No completely satisfactory and measurable surrogate has yet been found, eroding confidence in any attempt of a "hard" analysis of the factors which make a person successful.[3]

Second, identification of those traits or characteristics which will produce executive success has been the subject of many management research projects. Yet, there is no evidence to indicate that management is getting any closer to defining the unique qualities of the ideal executive. If anything, the gap is getting larger as the nature of the complex business world becomes more dynamic and complex. It is getting more difficult all the time to isolate executive characteristics and study them independently. This difficulty stems from the following reasons:

1. Situations change. What is appropriate in one industry under certain environmental constraints may

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[3]Salary frequently is used as a measure of executive success but it has very serious limitations. Surely, the President of the United States can't be considered to be only one-third as successful as the President of General Motors (Brown and Motamedi, 1976)! To avoid the problems associated with personal and social values, the term "success" is used to denote only the effectiveness of an executive.

not work in other situations.

2. Times change. What was effective only ten years ago may be totally ineffective today even if other conditions remained essentially unchanged.
3. Personal values vary. Factors which motivate some people have no effect on others. Managerial behavior which works well for some executives is incompatible with the personality of others.
4. Cause and effect relationships get confused. Does an executive appear to be authoritative and possess leadership qualities because of his position, or was he able to rise to that position because he first had those traits?
5. Characteristics of a whole man can't be isolated. A man is a combination of many things and not a series of discrete characteristics. If an executive is successful, was it because he had (1) a particular characteristic, (2) a sufficient overall quantity of a number of characteristics or (3) a proper mixture of characteristics which blended together to produce a synergistic effect?

Third, people are very complex creatures. And since management requires getting things done through people, the management function becomes inextricably interwoven with the many facets of human personalities. Analysts attempting to construct a model of an executive are faced with Hobson's choice. Far from being routine, each day in the life of an

executive is unique. Therefore, to be accurate, a model of the executive, if possible to construct, would be of such complexity that its usefulness would be very limited.

In the construction of a model of an executive and his environment, accuracy and usefulness appear to be mutually exclusive. Accuracy is normally sacrificed to facilitate the development of a workable model: workable, that is, from the standpoint that definitive conclusions may be obtained. In these cases, factors of time and situation are usually held constant (ignored?) to enable the analysts to concentrate on the attributes of the man himself.

This research attempts to recognize these other factors at the acknowledged sacrifice of incontrovertible conclusions. Toward this end, effort will concentrate on obtaining guidelines which will be generally useful, if not universally valid, in the world of a very complex continuum of executive functions and roles.

Just as obeying the Ten Commandments does not automatically make one a Christian, neither will conforming to the mold of the ideal executive guarantee success. There are just too many exceptions to accept such a precept. For each quality generally accepted as a prerequisite for executive success, one can readily think of a successful executive who was deficient - perhaps even void - in that trait. Conversly, there are also many executives who appear to have had all of the desired characteristics yet performed dismally.

Some people might attempt to construct a rationale to explain any known outcome. This new rationale would then have to be incorporated into the definitive model. However, one of the problems in using a model to deal with any topic involving human nature is that there will be many cases lying outside the bounds of the basic model. With each succeeding modification, models can become more and more complex and probably less helpful.

Finally, this research is written not so much for the expert on managerial theory, but rather for the working executive who may have had only a fleeting introduction to the body of knowledge contained in the literature. Many executives are not managers by design. They often receive their formal education in another discipline such as engineering or in a narrow segment of business such as accounting or economics. As they rise through the ranks they become more of a generalist and less of a specialist, even though many executives still perceive themselves in light of their original discipline. Much of what they know about management is acquired by experience and their actions frequently are governed by intuition.

This situation leads to the assumption that many executives received their formal education in a major field other than business. For these men, and especially for the young executives who have not yet had the benefit of many years of managerial experience, the results of this research may serve as a valuable primer on the nature of the executive's world.

Two independent studies conducted almost a decade apart support this assumption regarding the formal training of public sector managers. In their investigation of management in the federal service, Corson and Paul (1966) obtained data from 424 respondants to a questionnaire sent to a random sample of the 5000 top career civilians of the federal service. These key people were divided into three essentially equal categories. The first group consisted of Program Managers who serve as bureau chiefs, office heads and division directors. The second class included Supporting Staff Managers who provide essential administrative and personal support. The final category was that of Professionals such as lawyers, economists or directors of scientific laboratories.

The second study was conducted by Leshko and Vosseteig (1975) to investigate possible differences in the attitudes and perceptions between executives of large corporations and those in the federal government. Questionnaires were returned from 110 corporate executives and 66 top career civilians of the Navy Department.

Both of these studies produced data on the major field of study of responding executives. Both sets of data were reorganized into broad educational fields of hard sciences (engineering, physics, chemistry), soft sciences (economics, law, psychology) and business (management, administration, marketing and accounting). The results of this analysis are summarized on figure 1.

SOURCE: CARSON AND PAUL (1966)

	MAJOR FIELD OF STUDY - PERCENT		
	HARD SCIENCES	SOFT SCIENCES	BUSINESS
PROGRAM MANAGERS	33.6	49.6	16.8
STAFF MANAGERS	26.8	45.4	27.8
PROFESSIONALS	54.8	39.5	5.7
PROG. MGR. & PROF.	44.4	44.4	11.2
ALL COMBINED	39.0	44.7	16.2

SOURCE: LESHKO AND VOSSETEIG (1975)

	MAJOR FIELD OF STUDY - PERCENT		
	HARD SCIENCES	SOFT SCIENCES	BUSINESS
GOVERNMENT	64.6	18.5	16.9
CORPORATIONS	39.2	28.4	32.4
COMBINED	49.1	24.6	26.3

FIGURE 1. MAJOR FIELD OF EDUCATION OF EXECUTIVES

The break down of the Carson-Paul data by major education field is presented for each of the three major personnel groupings. Of the total population only 16.2% received their education in business while 39% were educated in the hard sciences. When the staff managers were excluded from the totals the ratio shifted approximately five percentage points further toward the hard sciences. The results were presented both with and without the staff managers since their status as executives may be open to question.

The Leshko-Vosseteig data also tend to validate the assumption, especially for the Federal Government executives. These data indicate that approximately two-thirds of the government executives received their major formal training in the hard sciences; less than one person in six were trained in any of the business fields.

This conclusion is remarkably consistent with the work conducted by Corson and Paul. Their data, collected almost ten years earlier than the Leshko-Vosseteig data, indicate an almost identical percentage (16.2% vice 16.9%) of government executives with business as their major area of education.

This research, which embodies a summary of a significant portion of the existing literature on management, may be of use to those executives without formal management education.

METHODOLOGY

Despite the caveats against trying to identify executive potential through certain key traits, the search for the right combination of traits which will produce the ideal executive continues. This research represents an attempt to step back and take a fresh look at the position and activities of the executive in the light of results of previous work. This effort was accomplished through four tasks.

The executive position described in the literature was analyzed to gain an insight into just what the executive does, how he operates and what is important to him. The roles, functions, techniques, and styles of the executive were explored.

Existing lists of characteristics of the successful executive were compiled from a literature search. The elements of each list were grouped and combined as much as possible to yield a condensed list of primary causes - rather than effects - of executive success. Next, the condensed lists were compared for similar descriptors, combinations and patterns. No attempt was made to generate an exhaustive list from the remaining elements. Rather, a workable list consisting of those characteristics which appeared to be consistent with executive success was gleaned. This final list served only as a guide and not as a precise radar heading followed blindly in the dark.

Classic approaches to management development described in the literature were studied from the standpoint of their value to the organization. Management's objectives and emphasis, and the effectiveness of different technique were considered. The manner in which management development is integrated into the actual operations of the organization was also examined.

Management development was reconsidered, but this time from the point of view of the employee. A personal executive career development strategy was formulated for an aspiring young executive to illustrate how the conclusions of this research might be applied.

Most of the concepts and ideas presented are based on information gleaned from the literature. This information served as a foundation upon which some conclusions regarding the characteristics and nature of the executive's job and possible relationships to executive success were synthesized.

TERMINOLOGY

The following key terms are defined in the context with which they shall be used herein to preclude any confusion due to their many connotations.

Executive - an administrator who, by virtue of his position in an organization, is required to make decisions within

the normal course of his work which directly involve other people and have major impact on the direction and performance of the organization. The key phrases of the definition are "decisions...have major impact" and "involve other people." In this regard project managers (who make decisions which don't impact other people) and shop foremen (who involve other people but don't make major decisions) are not considered executives.

Manager - an executive. There are minor distinctions between an executive and a manager which won't be observed here. The difference is mostly semantic with "executive" connoting a slightly higher stratum in the hierarchy (Stryker, 1960, p. 121). All executives are managers, but not all managers, viz., those who manage things rather than people, are considered to be executives. However, the scope of this research will not include that special class. Hence, the terms may be used interchangeably.

Success - executive effectiveness. Success is a relative term; this research is interested in the relative success of executives. Success embodies an executive's capability of performing well in his existing job and also his ability to advance himself. Dr. Eugene Jennings described success in its most basic terms: success is moving up; failure is being passed over (Naval War College, Gladin, 1974).

Man - an adult human being. The term is used in its broadest generic sense to include both male and female members.

III. THE EXECUTIVE'S JOB

In this chapter, the job and responsibilities of the executive are considered from several different aspects starting with a discussion of various concepts of the executive and an analysis of the many different things that he does.

CONCEPTS OF THE EXECUTIVE

Suppose that a number of people were asked what they did for a living. Also assume that a second group of people were then asked to describe the daily routines of the first group. No doubt someone tabulating the answers to these questions would be able to generate a kind of a scale or rating system for the jobs of the first group based on the ease and clarity with which the second group can picture the functions of these jobs.

At one end would be jobs that most people can depict quite accurately and without difficulty. Job titles such as mailmen, truck drivers, or farmers present a rather vivid understanding of what these people do. Similarly, the classical professions (doctor, lawyer, teacher, clergy) connote a reasonable understanding of their functions. People outside these vocations may not fully appreciate the magnitude nor scope of these vocations, but nonetheless they still have a reasonable feel for the role of the "professions."

However, if someone were to state that he was a businessman, the picture formed in the minds of the second group is not as clear. Perhaps he is an owner or manager of a small store: a certain picture forms. But what if he works for a large company? The concept of what he does would become somewhat hazy: he might spend his working hours adding numbers in a book, or he might spend his time scurrying about talking to people and shouting orders.

Finally we get to the extreme end of the scale: the executive. One can imagine the puzzlement of the second group. In trying to picture what an executive does, the members of the second group scratch their heads and look around at each other waiting for a picture to form. Finally each member is able to depict what he conceives an executive to be. The descriptions are probably as varied as the size of the second group.

Part of the difficulty lies in the fact that the average person has difficulty relating to the executive since he rarely comes in personal contact with one. Conversely, everyone is able to observe the role that truck drivers and teachers play in our society.

However, that is only part of the situation. The descriptions of the executive in the above illustration would be just as varied if the second group had been composed entirely of executives themselves. Each executive would have enough difficulty describing exactly what he does let

alone trying to articulate a definitive statement of the functions and duties of a general executive.

This situation was exemplified by the results of one survey in which one hundred executives were asked to delineate what they perceived to be the executive functions. The results were extraordinary for their variety in both magnitude and depth. While some of the executives were able to reply with a one-line sentence, others required several pages to describe up to twenty different functions. Altogether the one hundred executives listed 115 different executive functions (Stryker, 1960, p. 121).

The difficulty that an executive has in defining exactly what he does was noted by Shartle (1961, p. 82). Interviews with executives uncovered this difficulty quickly. Initially, an executive will usually fall back on the output of his organization in an attempt to define his role: "Our division manufactures widgets" or "Our division tests widgets."

As a second attempt, if still pushed to describe what he, himself, does, the executive may reach for his position description. It will delineate duties and responsibilities and assign him to a place in the hierarchy. Unfortunately, the formal position description is helpful only in a gross sense. It does not take into account the actual factors which influence or limit the specific role which he actually plays in the organization (McGregor, 1967, p. 46). It is

for this reason that position descriptions typically are written, approved, and filed away until the next reorganization.

The executive's difficulty in describing what he does, suggests that there is a significant difference between what he thinks he does, and what he actually does. This difficulty has been recognized by Mintzberg (1973, p. 7) and other managerial analysts. It led to the "diary method" of defining specific executive functions.

The discrepancy has also led to another conclusion. The executive function may be viewed through any number of windows. Each view gives a different picture. By looking through each of these windows, one may get a completely different picture of what the executive does based on:

- What the public thinks the executive does.
- What his subordinates think he does.
- What the executive thinks he does.
- What he actually does.

As previously illustrated, the public has a rather vague concept of what the executive does. One popular notion is that of a hard-as-nails relentlessly driving dynamo shouting orders, making snap decisions and taking three telephone calls simultaneously while dictating to his secretary. This scenario may make good script in Hollywood but fortunately for the executive and perhaps more so for the people around him:

> No picture could be more false. The facts are that the effective manager...is more reflective than commanding, spends more on the discovery of problems than the solving of them, and makes fewer decisions than his subordinates. The effective manager is a much more quiet man than Hollywood ever depicted him to be (Lindberg, 1973, p. 32).

The Hollywood concept notwithstanding, it is the rare executive, indeed, who is able to "walk all over" subordinates, continually make decisions off the top of his head without more than a cursory thought and still be able to survive in today's business world. No executive is able to be an expert and ultimate authority on all things.

This discussion is needless except for one point: executives and would-be executives also watch movies. They too sometimes accept the Hollywood portrayal as a norm. Their preconceived notion of an executive as a ruthless, power-hungry, double-dealer has no doubt caused more than a few young executives to start their careers off on the wrong foot.

The next category - what his subordinates think he does - is also based on misunderstanding. To the man who is involved in day to day production problems, an executive sitting in a big, clean office thinking about next year's activities is not making any "real" contributions. This situation is part of the reason that sixty to ninety percent of subordinates do not regard their bosses as assets to their organizations (Austin, 1966).

As far as his subordinates are concerned, the executive is in a "can't win" situation. It is ironic that when the

executive has done a good job of organizing his group and everything is running smoothly, the executive has relatively low visibility. In fact, things may appear to be running so well, that the subordinates feel that the executive isn't needed. As Reddin somewhat facetiously suggested:

> A manager's true worth to his company may sometimes be measured by the amount of time he could remain dead in his office without anyone noticing it (1970, pp. 3-4).

But if "a lean, well-run organization is comparatively dull" (Smith, 1973, p. 9), a poorly-run operation is excitingly chaotic. People are scurrying all over, first to make changes, then to change the changes, and perhaps next to reconstruct the original situation. In this situation the executive appears to be everywhere at once, shouting orders and taking personal control of everything in the finest Hollywood tradition. The executive has high visibility to his subordinates, but his men also recognize him as a bottleneck and a detriment to the organization.

As already noted, many executives themselves are not fully aware of what they are actually doing or what they ought to be doing. Drucker pointed out one reason for this confusion:

> Every manager does things that are not managing. He may spend most of his time on them....All these things pertain to a particular function. All are necessary, and all have to be done well.
>
> But they are apart from that work which every manager does whatever his function or activity, whatever his rank and position, work which is common to all managers and peculiar to them (1954, p. 343).

When a problem crops up, the executive can't stop to think whether the problem is in the realm of official executive tasks or not. He has to see that the problem is solved either by himself or by someone else. A draft of a report comes across his desk. He is not a technical rewrite specialist, but he will make necessary changes, sometimes major reorganizations. He is not a messenger, but on occasion he will hand-carry a report to another department to expedite its release. He is not a technician, but many times he will dig into many details of the analysis of a new process, design or product. Clearly, the executive does many things which one would not consider to be in the executive domain according to a narrow definition of his tasks.

In a broader sense the executive gets things done by "working with and through other people" (Sayles, 1964, p. 35). His raison d'etre is to "multiply performance of his people by making whatever strengths and aspirations they have work for the organization" (Smith, 1973, p. 178). Conceptually, these are satisfying statements. Substantively, though, they don't help clear up the confusion between what an executive does and what he thinks he does. Nor, as previously noted, may much help be obtained from an executive's position description; it usually bears very little resemblance to what he actually does (Sayles, 1973, p. 42).

The point is, most executives are very hard put to describe in succinct terms what they do, because they do so many different things with no discernible pattern. Perhaps,

the executive could best describe his function by simply saying "I get things done."

The executive may be one of the most misunderstood of all professionals. The literature suggests that the public doesn't appreciate what he does; his subordinates don't recognize good executive performance. Further, the executive, himself, doesn't understand exactly what it is that he should be doing. Frequently, he is not even fully aware of what he has actually done during the course of a day.

> If you ask a manager what he does, he will most likely tell you that he plans, organizes, coordinates, and controls. Then watch what he does. Don't be surprised if you can't relate what you see to these four words (Mintzberg, 1975).

Where, then, can one go for help? How can anyone pin down exactly what an executive does? The first step is to establish what he does factually;[4] the next step is to conceptualize these activities. The analyst is then able to take a broad view of the executive function and gain an insight into the nature of the beast.

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[4]This approach is not new or unique. There are numerous accounts of studies of the daily activities of executives followed by attempts to categorize the activities into one of a score of definitive functions. Unfortunately, the real meaning of what these functions encompass may still not be clear to many readers. Nevertheless, it is a good place to start. A brief overview of some of this work and a delineation of the categories shall be presented to develop a common foundation upon which a discussion of the qualities of the successful executive may be based. It should also be helpful for the young manager who recently has been thrust into an executive position with only vague ideas of what he is to do in his new job. Finally, it may provide some refuge to the seasoned executive who still has difficulty in helping his children answer the time-in-memorial question "What does your daddy do?".

EXECUTIVE FUNCTIONS

Frederick W. Taylor, who is frequently referred to as the father of scientific management, provided the basis for breaking a job down into its elements so that the elements could be analyzed and improved. Henri Fayol used this technique to analyze management itself as early as 1916. He "divided the management function into five parts: (1) planning, (2) organization, (3) command, (4) coordination, and (5) control" (Albers, 1961, p. 35).

These words represented the classical description of management until the 1930's when Luther Gulick coined the buzz-word POSDCORB to define the managerial process (Mintzberg, 1973, p. 9). POSDCORB is an acronym standing for planning, organizing, staffing, directing, coordinating, reporting and budgeting. POSDCORB is still popular today despite some criticism. The criticism has been based on the difficulty in relating such terms as coordinating and planning to the every day activities of the executive.

It is easy enough to tell a group of students that management consists of such activities as planning, coordinating and directing. However, the student will still have difficulty grasping exactly what it is the executive is planning and why he is doing it; how is he coordinating and who is he directing?

The student of golf has semantic difficulty in conceptualizing exactly what the instructor means when he implores

the student to hit "through the ball." In the same manner the student of management has difficulty advancing beyond the generalities of convenient acronyms such as POSDCORB whose elements are in danger of becoming cliche's rather than precise definitive functions.

Nevertheless, these participles represent a good starting point. Various authorities have modified, simplified, or expanded this list to describe the function of an executive from their own perspective. Each should be considered a valid approach. The slight differences are reflections of the most appropriate actions for specific situations and organizations.

The functions of the executive may be described at length by an exhaustive list of activities or may be generalized briefly in broader terms. Few people may ever be completely confident that any list is complete; furthermore, as the list grows it may tend to obfuscate rather than clarify the executive function. Therefore, a brief generalization may be preferred to conceptualize the job of an executive.

As a move toward a more succinct description, consider the functions of the executive according to Barnard (1938, pp. 226-231), Drucker (1954, pp. 343-344) and Stryker (1960, pp. 118-119) listed in figure 2.

BARNARD

1. Develop and Maintain Communication
2. Secure Personal Services
3. Define Objectives

DRUCKER

1. Set Objectives
2. Organize
3. Motivate and Communicate
4. Measure Job Performance
5. Develop People

STRYKER

1. Set Objectives
2. Make Decisions
3. Coordinate Functions
4. Train Subordinates
5. Delegate Responsibility

FIGURE 2. EXECUTIVE FUNCTIONS

The similarity of the elements of the lists is quite apparent. Setting Objectives and Staffing are common to all three groups. One could get very close to the heart of the executive job by combining these lists. Based on such an amalgamation one can conclude that the primary function of the executive is to establish the objectives of his organization and to ensure that these objectives are accomplished through his subordinates.

This statement accurately describes the beginning and ending of the executive's function. However, it tends to overlook the action in the middle. One could almost envision an executive making an assignment at 9 AM, adjourning to the country club until 4 PM at which time he would review the

results of his subordinate's efforts. Newcomer recognizes the two endpoints, but also emphasizes the transition from objectives to results:

> The job of the executive in the big business organization is, first to formulate long-range policies and to make important decisions and accept responsibility for them....And second, his job is to keep the organization running smoothly from day to day (1955, p. 20).

Newcomer alludes to the importance of the interpersonal activities which are necessary to bridge the gap between the setting of objectives to the reviewing of results. If these intermediate activities either were not needed or could be accomplished easily, the executive would not be needed. He could be replaced by a bookkeeper who would simply log job assignments and their completion.

The executive, however, is faced with an array of diverse forces and interests. It is his job to get things done through other people by synchronizing these forces into a congruent organizational effort. Accordingly, his job "is mostly talking with people" (Newcomer, 1955, p. 134). Establishing and maintaining lines of communications, motivating employees, and coordinating the efforts of all his subordinates occupy most of the executive's day. As it turns out, these interpersonal activities represent the executive's major contribution and therefore, must be incorporated into the descriptive statement of the executive function.

There is another noteworthy element of the executive function that does not appear in POSDCORB. Several authors

state that the executive must also be an educator. He is responsible for ensuring that there is a steady stream of talent in the organization capable of meeting all objectives. He is responsible for training and developing his personnel not only so that they can satisfy today's tasks but also so that they will be ready for tomorrow's challenges.

Houston cites this activity as one of the key elements of management. His straight-forward rationale is that since management is getting work done through the efforts of others, the executive obviously must ensure that these other people have the capability of performing this work. Accordingly, the executive must "contribute to the learning and growth of those in (his)organization for whose work (he is) responsible" (1964, p. 90).

Levinson places even greater emphasis on teaching:

> The fundamental function of the executive is to teach his subordinates to solve the organization's problems more effectively (1968).

The above views of the executive function may be summarized by including the following elements:

1. Set objectives.
2. Establish the organizational structure, including lines of communication, and the tasks required to meet the objectives.
3. Obtain and train personnel.
4. Delegate and coordinate all tasks.
5. Ensure that objectives are met efficiently by obtaining quantitative feedback to measure both the direction and progress of the tasks.

Of course, this summary is not exhaustive. These elements could be modified or other elements could be added. It does, however, represent a reasonable account of the major activities of what an executive does. To crystallize the view of management theorists, one may think of the executive's function as providing leadership and serving as a focal point of all activity within his organization.

THE EXECUTIVE AS A MULTI-FACETED INDIVIDUAL

The functions of the executive represent just one perspective by which the executive's job may be viewed. It describes the activities which the executive must perform to realize the organization's overall objectives. Livingston and Waite (1960, p. 10) suggest that there are other approaches which also ought to be studied to get a proper understanding of the man, the job and the environment.

These other aspects relate to executive roles, executive techniques and to the man, himself. If the functions of the executive are the general activities which the executive must perform to meet the organization's objectives, the executive roles may be viewed as the specific activities which are performed to fulfill the functions. Techniques may be thought of in terms of the particular methods that the manager chooses to employ as a means to handle his many roles. The functions are the means to the ends (organizational objectives). The roles represent the many hats that the executive must wear in pursuing the means. Technique is the manner in

which the hat is worn. Finally, the man, himself, must be considered. The literature suggests that there are the many forces which bear on his personal attributes and idiosynchrasies, which will determine the emphasis he will place on each hat and will determine the manner in which he wears each hat. The resultant of these forces is the manager's style.

The relationship among these aspects of the executive's job is illustrated in figure 3.

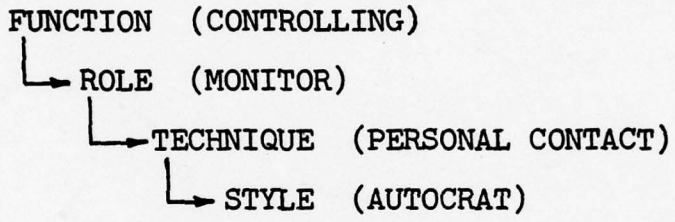

FIGURE 3. ASPECTS OF THE EXECUTIVE JOB

Obviously, the semantic differences between any of these aspects may be slight. Nevertheless, the different vantage from each aspect is helpful - perhaps necessary - in trying to understand exactly what it is the executive does, how he does it, and why.

THE ROLES OF THE EXECUTIVE

Mintzberg (1973, p. 92-93) lists ten roles of the executive. He classifies these as interpersonal roles (figurehead, leader, liaison), informational roles (monitor, disseminator, spokesman) and decisional roles (entrepreneur, disturbance

handler, resource allocator and negotiator). Mintzberg notes that several of these roles appear to be unrelated to the accomplishment of the organization's objectives. Such roles as spokesman and figurehead indicate that the executive has a number of ex officio duties which do not contribute directly to the organization. Nevertheless, these tasks must be performed for long-range benefits and therefore should not be neglected.

Most of the roles are self-explanatory and their inclusion is not surprising. The role of negotiator, however, deserves further comment. Even beyond the obvious tasks of netotiating with outside organizations such as suppliers or contractors or inside departments such as shop unions, negotiation is still a major part of the executive's daily job. Contrary to popular belief, the executive's position does not give him sufficient authority over all contacts such that he is able to enforce his will to resolve the situation.

The literature elaborates on several types and degrees of authority. There are two basic classes of authority that an executive might have. The first, of course, is the formal authority due to his position in the hierarchy. Formal authority is the "potentiality to influence based on a position" (Bennis, 1958, p. 144). Thus, the executive's position gives him the potential to direct subordinates to perform certain specific tasks. All the executive's position really does is give him the authority to issue orders.

(Formal authority can also give the executive the right to withhold rewards or to punish if orders are not carried out, but that still doesn't get the job done.) Issuing orders is one thing; having them implemented is quite another. Davis draws this distinction very clearly:

> The most important and difficult part of exercising authority is not so much in issuing commands as it is in seeing to it that they are carried out (1962, p. 113).

The second type of authority is informal in nature and stems from the acceptance or the willingness of followers to support and comply with directives (Barnard, 1960, p. 455). Notice that with informal authority, it doesn't make any difference whether or not the directions are issued as orders or are passed on as requests. Nor does it make much difference whether the followers are directly subordinate to the executive.

Several accounts in the literature hint that informal authority is the more powerful tool; it is also more difficult and takes longer to acquire. However, it should not be viewed as a replacement for formal authority. Rather, it is a complement to formal authority. If formal authority is the means by which orders may be issued, then informal authority is the means by which they are implemented. Both are needed.

This discussion points out that the executive's position by itself, does not enable him to get things done. According to Sayles, he soon realizes that his authority is not all powerful over his subordinates. If the executive is not

in total control over his own people, he also finds that he is almost powerless when dealing with those outside his line of formal authority. Moreover, he finds that he is increasingly dependent on "the actions of many people over whom he has not the slightest control" (Sayles, 1964, p. 42). Consequently, the excutive must spend a great deal of time persuading others to accept his ideas. He is truly a salesman of ideas.

This selling requires negotiation. To convince others to accept his ideas, the executive must "always be on the alert to convert divergent interests into channels of common desires" (Nierenberg, 1973, p. 22). The executive finds that he is continua negotiating within his organization to aid in the implementation of his directives and outside his immediate organization to gain the acceptance of his ideas.

TECHNIQUES OF THE EXECUTIVE

Techniques may be thought of as the particular methods that the manager uses in his roles to enable him to fulfill his functions. It is the line of activity that the executive elects to adopt in doing his job. It is not what he does, but how he does it.

As an example, consider the function of control in which the executive assumes the role of monitor. The

technique he chooses to perform this task may be by written report, oral report or by on-site inspection. The particular technique will depend upon the nature of the job to be monitored (highly specialized or routine), the degree of control required (impact on the organization's objectives), the type of worker involved (independent or one needing constant direction) and finally the personal idiosynchrasies of the executive.

The choice of techniques depends primarily on how he feels he is best able to get a job done. Successful executives are able to change techniques to those which are most appropriate for each job situation.

Executive techniques are associated with executive styles. This last category leads to the study of the man himself.

EXECUTIVE STYLES

So far, managerial tasks have been considered in discreet segments with static requirements. However, upon analyzing the executive, himself, one finds that he is not as easy to study as his work. Yet the man and his job cannot be separated. First of all, he is an individual, and like everyone else he has his own unique set of values and aspirations. Next, he is not a superman or a super-cool, unemotional, dehumanized machine that sits behind closed doors along mahogany row and spews out management directives

and decisions. He is a mortal human being subject to many divergent and conflicting forces.

> The role of the manager can be visualized as a dynamic interplay between environmental forces and pressures operating from within the manager, his values, personality, and aspirations. Role conflict is inescapable for there is really no way that a manager can harmonize perfectly the competing pressures emanating from within and without (McGregor, 1967, p. 55).

The executive's style is the product of all of these forces. Either consciously or unconsciously a managerial style will emerge. "There is no such thing as the right way for a manager to operate or behave" (Levitt, 1974, p. 121). Rather the executive's style will be what is right for him; one with which he can live.

Tannenbaum and Schmidt (1973) present management style as a continuum ranging from a boss-centered leadership (Autocratic) to a subordinate-centered leadership (Democratic). They recognize the existence not only of the forces on the executive but also the forces on the subordinates. These forces may change with the situation. The appropriate style for an executive may very well shift with these changes.

As one might expect, personal management style is not as volatile in the military as in the civilian sector. Among army generals, style will vary according to specific position and mission requirements. However, there is little variation in personal style between generals under essentially the same circumstances (Army War College, Kriete, 1975).

Changing situations, changing forces and changing styles all tend to complicate the analysis of the executive. Techniques which had been successful at one time with certain individuals may not work well under a slightly different set of circumstances.

The executive must recognize these forces of change and learn to modify his style with the times. This need was espoused over 450 years ago by Niccole Machiavelli. Although he is (perhaps incorrectly) associated with seeking power by unscrupulous cunning, his advice is nonetheless apropos:

> But he errs least and will be most favored by fortune who suits his proceedings to the times...
>
> For any man accustomed to a certain mode of proceeding will never change it,...and consequently when times and circumstances change, so that his ways are no longer in harmony with them, he must of necessity succumb (1950, pp. 440, 442).

CHARACTERISTICS OF THE EXECUTIVE'S JOB

No matter what role he is playing or function he is performing, all of the executive's activities appear to share certain common characteristics. According to Mintzberg, executive tasks are all short, fragmented, quick-paced and often interrupted. The executive devotes much of his energy to communication, with the greatest emphasis on face-to-face communications. There is a great variety of tasks performed each day with no discernable pattern (Mintzberg, 1973). Obviously, the successful executive must become adept at changing hats.

Strauss and Sayles arrive at essentially the same conclusion regarding the brevity and variety of activities. However, they state that although the executive's job is unpredictable, he is somehow able to maintain control over his daily schedule (1972, p. 62). One can visualize a constant struggle between demands on the executive's time and the executive's desire to maintain control over his activities.

THE PRIMARY MISSION OF THE EXECUTIVE

The executive's many daily activities have been explored to gain an insight into how he operates. These activities can be grouped according to similar functions to show that the executive essentially does two things: he provides leadership to his organization and he serves as the focal point for all action. All of the functions that the executive performs and the roles which he plays may be classified easily as subsets under these two primary purposes.

Mintzberg's analysis of managerial roles lends support to this conclusion (1973). He divides the executive's ten basic roles into three groups: interpersonal, informational, and decisional activities. The interpersonal roles of figurehead and leader obviously fit into the leadership function. The figurehead role represents formal leadership duties.

All of the decisional and informational roles as well as the remaining interpersonal role (liaison), help to

establish the executive as the "nerve center of his organization" (Mintzberg, 1975, p. 55). The executive establishes outside contacts (liaison) to bring information into his unit. He then screens the information (monitor) and passes some of it to others (disseminator). In the same manner, he handles activities concerning material resources and people problems. He receives an input (new information or request for direction), acts upon it (decides) and passes on the output (disseminates information, allocates resources or issues new directives).

An organization may be shown to be analogous to the dynamic system model represented in figure 4. In this model the executive is the processor and also the controller. As processor he gives the organization a sense of direction and cohesiveness. His task is primarily to focus his group on the objectives of the overall organization and "to multiply the performance of his people by making whatever strengths and aspirations they have work for the organization" (Smith, 1973, p. 178). As controller he measures the output of the organization, compares it to the objectives and takes corrective action as necessary.

The executive is the focal point of all activity in his group. He funnels all information into the organization and controls its dissementation. In this manner he draws the power and strength of the information to himself. The executive acts as a bridge between the inputs and outputs of

the organization. As processor he ensures that the right things are done; as controller he ensures that those things are done right.

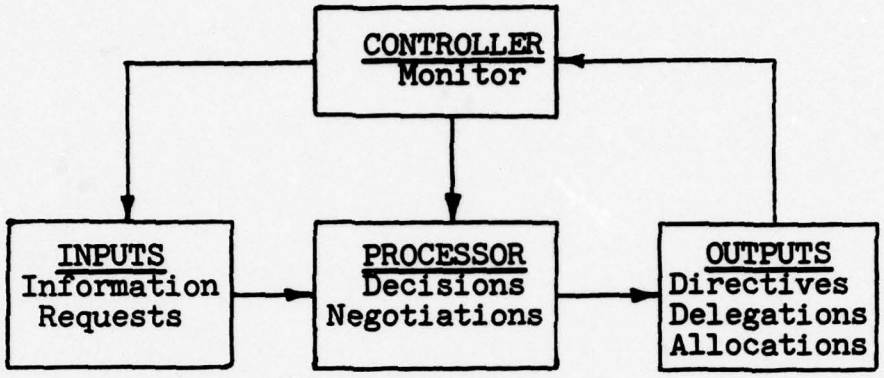

FIGURE 4. THE EXECUTIVE AS A DYNAMIC SYSTEM MODEL

The model is not quite complete. It is not difficult to visualize how the cycle operates, once it has been started. But how does it receive its impetus? How does it receive its "power" to function? The executive receives his formal aughority from the status of his position. Formal aughority gives the executive great potential power; however, it is his leadership which determines how much of it he will realize (Mintzberg, 1975, p. 55). Leadership quality is the force that makes the cycle work. It enables the leader to implement his decisions and to gain acceptance of his directives. It is the link between the processor and the outputs on the model. When leadership is ineffective, this link is weak and the cycle may grind to a halt.

THE EXECUTIVE'S RESOURCES

According to the literature, the executive finds that he has two resources at his disposal which he can use to fulfill his primary mission. Those resources are human resources and his own time. From the definition of management, human resources must be considered as the most important resource since management doesn't begin until work has been delegated (Schleh, 1961, p. 7). The degree to which managers are able to utilize their manpower effectively frequently is the difference between the manager who is "on top of things" and the one who is always a step or two behind.

Delegation is the obvious answer since any job that the executive doesn't delegate must be done by the executive, himself. Conversely, any job which may be delegated will increase the executive's discretionary time. This spare time is vital to the executive since it gives him the opportunity to think about the broad objectives of the organization rather than the day-to-day problems. Without this uncommitted time, the executive becomes a de facto co-worker rather than a manager. Lindberg recognized the value and necessity of having free time.

> Top executives must have enough uncommitted time that seed ideas can arise and be formulated (1973, p. 105).

Time is a scarce and perishable resource. An effective executive jealously guards his time and tries to prevent it from being usurped by others. However, he quickly realizes that he doesn't have as much control over his time as he

would like. He finds that his time belongs to everyone else; his superiors, subordinates, peers and outsiders (Drucker, 1966, p. 10).

Oncken and Wass divide managerial time into three categories: boss-imposed time, system-imposed time and self-imposed time (1974, p. 75). They point out that the executive has control only over a portion of his self-imposed time. Moreover, many executives tend to lose control of their discretionary time without realizing how. They delegate various job assignments but wind up reassuming control when problems arise. Consequently, the executive finds himself trying to solve all of his subordinates' problems. In essence, the boss-subordinate relationship is reversed and the manager winds up working for his men.

The ease with which role reversal can occur illustrates the delicate nature of delegation. As stated earlier, an executive has only two real resources: his own time and human resources. These resources are directly - but inversly - related to each other by delegation. The executive can only maintain effective control over his organization by delegating assignments and the authority to complete them. In this manner he can regain his discretionary time with which he can start thinking about long-range problems once again.

The literature cites several desirable benefits that effective delegation will provide in addition to giving time back to the executive. First, effective delegation gives

the subordinates room to grow and develop. By allowing (and insisting that) his subordinates accept responsibility the executive will be providing his people with the best possible training opportunity: on the job, real problem solving (Smith, 1973, p. 110). By permitting his men to make normal errors (Schleh, 1961, p. 48), he will be contributing to their growth. This growth will result in a more effective employee and will in turn reflect well on the executive (Van Dersal, 1974).

Second, by giving his men more authority and influence, the executive will actually be increasing his own influence. As his men grow in capability and influence, so will the relative influence of the executive. He is still their boss; his sphere of influence will be increased with the total capability of his organization. Maslow described this synergistic effect:

> The more influence and power you give to someone else in the team situation, the more you have yourself. ...a general (who) has given high power, will find to his amazement that he has far more power and influence than he had before passing out power (1965, pp. 93-94).

SUMMARY OF THE EXECUTIVE'S JOB

Based on an analysis of the literature one realizes that there is no simple definition of the executive and his job. The executive does many different things in many different ways. Each job he does is unique in some aspect. In attempting to synthesize the executive's primary mission,

one may conclude that the executive provides leadership and acts as a focal point for all activity within his organization. To accomplish these tasks, he has only a certain amount of manpower and his own time. The successful executive is the one who uses these resources effectively to meet his organization's objectives.

IV. TRAITS OF THE SUCCESSFUL EXECUTIVE

A definitive profile of the qualities of which a successful executive is made would provide management with four major benefits. The first two relate to fulfilling current staffing needs with the best possible candidates. In the first case it would provide management with an invaluable specification sheet when they are recruiting for outside talent. Second, it would give them the same kind of data when they are trying to fill a vacancy by promotion from within. Of course management must be on the guard against compiling an exhaustive list of these qualities. Such a list would tend to be counterproductive as they would search in vain for a single man who could qualify in all categories. As Thorner noted, "It would be unwise to assume that any individual can be adequate for any and all environmental demands" (1964, p. 233). No doubt management would be better advised to use only the few key factors which are significant to the specific position in question.

The last two benefits involve future staffing requirements. The first of these is the most commonly cited benefit. The successful executive profile would enable management to identify the "rising star," "crown prince," "comer," or whatever else one may wish to call him. Early identification would give management the best chance of realizing the potential of the men who will be entrusted with the organization's future.

The final benefit lies in the use of the successful-man profile as a basis for continuing management development programs for current executives. Unlike long-range development programs this application has the advantage of dealing with known quantities and any improvements will result in immediate pay-offs. Ironically, this fruitful area has seldom been pursued. Management development programs traditionally have been based on available institutionalized courses rather than the specific needs and desires of each individual executive.

PAST ATTEMPTS TO CHARACTERIZE THE SUCCESSFUL EXECUTIVE

> The search for characteristics that spell success in men in leadership or executive roles is not a recent phenomenon. Socrates advanced temperance, courage, justice and wisdom....Homer's writings reflected justice, judgement, wisdom, craft and valor as the qualities of leadership (Smythe and McMullan, 1975, p. 35).

Attempts to define the qualities of successful executives are probably as old as civilization. One may suppose by the absence of any claim to the contrary, that the compilation of a completely satisfactory list of such attributes still eludes the experts of management.

In spite of the lact of any noteworthy success to date in generating a list of necessary-but-sufficient qualities for executive success, the practice persists. The literature is replete with lists of these traits.[5]

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[5]Appendix A contains over thirty such lists which were

As the combined lists get bigger and bigger it appears that the Heir Apparent must be a rare individual indeed, combining the highest qualities of Superman, saint, and a Boy Scout. Packard, who interviewed many experts in the field of executive development, perceived an uneasiness:

> Chris Argyris became suspicious of many of the usual prescriptions for executive success. He found when he asked presidents to confide their secrets of success he would get back the Boy Scout laws plus virtues of hard work (Packard, 1962, p. 149).

Nevertheless, Argyris, who was able to draw upon over a decade of first-hand analysis of top managers, contributed his own observation:

> Most chief executives have three characteristics in common - they are articulate, competitive, and persuasive (1973, p. 56).

As already noted in Chapter II, the qualities of executive success are very difficult to isolate and define. One problem is that a set of qualities which apparently led to success under one set of organizational and environmental conditions may not work under different circumstances (Albers, 1961, p. 529).

Another point which frequently is overlooked is the differing perspective of individuals involved in an organization. Dalton (1959, p. 150) queried a large number of employees on their opinions of the qualities necessary for success in their organizations. Not surprisingly, those men

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easily compiled by perusing the works of various authors on executive ability and management development. No doubt this quantity could have been doubled with little extra library effort.

who had achieved a certain amount of success, responded to the question "What are the things that enable men to rise?" by claiming traits as integrity, loyalty, honesty and ability.

Those men who were passed over for promotions, however, cited such things as politics and personal favor. Their comments led Dalton to conclude that "movement up any organizational ladder is subject to many influences outside individual and official control" (1959, p. 191).

So politics, which is still another factor, rears its "ugly head." Dalton is obviously alluding (correctly) to politics as "influences" and implying (incorrectly) that they are "outside individual control." There are many managers who still perceive politics as an illegitimate activity that has no proper place in any organization. Typically, politics has been disparaged in many circles (McClelland, 1974). But right or not, politics does exist; politics simply can't be swept under the rug and summarily dismissed.

This research deals with executive success and cannot ignore the role that politics may play in achieving that success. Unfortunately, politics has an unpleasant connotation, traditionally being associated with duplicity and other infamous Machiavellian tactics. This kind of thinking could be the reason that political skill has been excluded from most of the lists of traits of successful executives. It could also be a reason why none of the lists is completely satisfactory.

This naive attitude has led Business Management to refer to politics as the most "hush-hush subject in business" (Hegarty, 1964, p. iii). The point is, politics is a fact of life which an executive ignores at his peril. Many of these "outside influences" are not really outside the control of the executive after all - at least not for the successful executive.

Put as simply as possible, politics is concerned with power and executives need power to accomplish their duties through other people (Schoonmaker, 1971, pp. 99-100). It follows that an executive can't survive without recognizing the political forces in his environment. Put even stronger, the executive can't be successful without using these forces to his own advantage.

> Of course, in itself the ability to use political techniques does not make a successful executive. But, an executive who does not have political know-how is as handicapped as one who does not show up at the office at all. He is on the way to being a dead duck. (Hegarty, 1964, iv).

THE FOLLY OF THE CONCEPT OF THE IDEAL EXECUTIVE

Even as the number of lists contributing to the definition of the ideal executive proliferates, a second school of thought keeps saying "there is no such thing as the Executive Personality" (Black, 1957, p. 28). The more the ideal man is sought, the more elusive he seems to be. Try to match known executives to any of the proffered lists. It is not difficult to think of a successful executive who does not

have one of the desired qualities. Conversely, it is just as easy to think of an executive who has all of the right tools, but is nevertheless ineffective.

As a management consultant to many large companies, Peter Drucker has had a first hand opportunity to observe all types of executives from the most successful to those who were ineffective. If there were any discernible pattern he couldn't spot it.

> I soon learned that there is no "effective personality." The effective executives...differ widely in their temperaments,...abilities,...personalities,...knowledge, interests - in fact in almost everything that distinguishes human beings (1966, p. 22).

Odiorne also disagrees with the notion that the traits of success may be uniquely specified. He asserts that success is not the result of any single quality or any group of qualities. Success is the result of a "combination of leader, followers and situation" (1973, p. 132).

Odiorne raises the obvious point that leaders require followers. Followers are people; people have different personalities, desires and motives. How, then, can the qualities necessary for successful leadership be discussed without due consideration to those who are led? How much of the success is due to good leadership and how much due to good followership? Odiorne accounts for the dichotomy by suggesting that success is based on "a combination of good genes and good luck" (1973, p. 129). The good genes represent what man can do for himself while good luck is what others must do for him.

The student of management would do well to examine the subordinates along with the executive when attempting to ascertain the key to success. The executive is more dependent on the performance of his subordinates than he would like to admit.

Douglas McGregor, who has studied both executives and Presidents alike, and Warren G. Bennis, President of the University of Cincinnati, provide appropriate final commentaries which summarize the difficulties in trying to establish the profile of the successful executive:

> The search for the unique common characteristics of the successful leader has proved fruitless (McGregor, 1967, p. 146).

Bennis' conclusion is even more emphatic:

> All the accumulated research in personal psychology suggests there is not one single trait or characteristic that would have any value in predicting leadership potentialities. None - not even intelligence (1975).

TRAITS WHICH TEND TO HELP

The concept that a list of characteristics could uniquely define an ideal executive or could guarantee success for anyone able to assimilate them is no more realistic than the fountain of youth. Packard seems to vacillate between accepting and rejecting the concept of such lists. He recognizes the inadequacies but then contributes his own list of "abilities that seem to count" (1962, p. 155).

The key to Packard's thinking is the phrase "that seem to count." There is no guarantee for success nor is there

any implication that the list is complete. In other words Packard's list represents a move toward identifying certain areas which tend to be consistent with executive success. The traits won't help everyone, but neither should they do any harm.

As a point of fact, most managerial authors who suggest lists of desirable traits do so on this basis. Each expert, however, presents his thoughts on executive success from his own experience and personal interests. In many cases the author will stress the one major point which he feels above all else represents the key to success. The rest of the items are presented to produce a proper balance.

Based on this premise, the literature was reviewed with each author being asked hyperbolically "what is the single factor which most nearly represents the difference between the good executive and the mediocre one?" Their "answers" embraced quite an interesting variety of abstractions such as feel, charisma and finesse. One response - the ability to get things done (Uris, 1957, p. 217) - was almost tautalogical, illustrating the difficulty in trying to pinpoint this factor. Fortunately, their answers did include a number of substantive qualities. The most appropriate of these are listed below.

1. Decisions - "the success of any manager depends on how good his decisions turn out to be" (Alexander, 1974, p. 83).

2. Leadership - "one quality above all others (the executive) must have is leadership" (Black, 1957, p. 3).

3. Salesmanship - "The manager cannot expect that his single statement of 'fact' or belief will be taken at face value...the manager must...sell" (Sayles, 1964, p. 134).

4. Interpersonal Relations - "87% of a businessman's success depended on his leadership and skill in handling human relations" (Air Command and Staff College Report, 1969).

5. Integrity - "For management, what will be decisive above all, in the future even more than in the past, is neither education nor skill; it is integrity of character" (Drucker, 1954, p. 378).

6. Maturity - "An executive must be able to maintain emotional stability under pressure" (Champion and James, 1975, p. 57).

7. Staffing - "The most valuable ability of all is the ability to select the men of ability" (Getty, 1971, p. 110).

8. Personal energy - "The ability to maintain a high level of thrust is quite possibly the number one secret of executive success" (Packard, 1962, p. 155).

9. Knowledge - "For in the final analysis, the fundamental imperative for any human being...may be summed up in a single word: know!" (Rodman, 1972, p. 32).

10. Perspective - "Every successful executive I know has a sense of where he is going and how he is going to get there" (Levinson, 1964, p. 129).

11. Power - "A concern for power is essential to good management" (McClelland and Burnham, 1976, p. 104).

12. Performance - "Doing the little things better than the other fellow is the secret of success" (Davis, 1962, p. viii).

13. Assumptions - The difference between success and failure is often due to "an assumption you are not aware you are making" (Jay, 1971, p. 31).

Clearly, this exercise has resulted in the generation of another so-called list of desirable traits. No attempt will be made to argue the merits of these characteristics at this time. After all, there is no evidence that this new list -

or for that matter any other list produced by any method - represents an exhaustive description of all traits necessary for executive success. All of the traits outlined are a reflection of those points which have been emphasized in the literature.

Several factors preclude a firm conclusion of the optimum list or mix of executive characteristics based on a scientifically rigorous analysis. First, the literature search which led to the compilation of the lists presented in Appendix A was extensive, but certainly not exhaustive. Further literature research undoubtedly would yield more lists. Analysis of these lists perhaps could uncover one or more attributes not previously cited.

Second, the descriptors contained on any of the lists represent the factors which seemed to be important to that particular author. It is not easy to ascertain the basis on which the author made his observations or drew his conclusions. Some qualities even within the same list appear to be contradictory. As an example, Gormbley espouses both "Make the Most of What They Get" and "Not Content to Sit Still" (Packard, 1962, p. 148). There are a number of interpretations of these two phrases. Considered in context with each other, they can be presented consistently: a successful executive is one who uses his assets and resources effectively, and is ambitious to the extent that he is constantly seeking new goals to achieve. However, if

viewed independently these same two phrases might connote that an executive should be both "satisfied" and "unsatisfied."

A third factor which makes this type of analysis difficult is the confusion of cause and effect relations. Consider mobility. A number of authors have observed and noted the relationship between the success enjoyed by a particular executive and his tendency to move from job-to-job and also to change geographic areas more frequently than his less successful counterpart. This tendency may be more correctly viewed as a result of his getting more promotions and therefore having to move. The less successful executive receives fewer promotions and consequently moves less often. Accordingly, the act of being mobile may be one indicator of an executive having obtained success, but it is not necessarily useful in predicting success. Of course, one must be very careful to distinguish between the willingness to move and the actual history of moving. An executive's willingness to move or change jobs may be an indicator to predict success whereas the relative frequency of moves may be an indication of the success which has been achieved, viz., the executive was promoted and then had to relocate.

Further care must be taken in the latter case. A relatively frequent history of job changes and moves may indicate not executive success but failure. The analyst must be able to establish the reason for job change: was he promoted, was he fired or did he quit because he had

stagnated? To further complicate the analysis, one must also recognize and account for the possibility of non job-related factors such as geographic preference, health, or simply a desire to locate near one's family.

The fourth factor complicating the analysis involves qualities which are generally considered desirable vice those characteristics which are mandatory under certain specific circumstances. "Risk-seeker" is occasionally cited as an attribute of a successful executive. Granted, there are specific cases in which a risk-seeker is appropriate for a necessary course of action. In a narrow sense, risk-seeking can be desirable. However, in the broadest context, a man who continually seeks situations involving great risks will only be generally attractive to circuses and promoters of dare devil stunts. One ought to be suspect of an executive who has a great affinity for risky ventures. Such a person could quickly lead his company into bankruptcy.

On the other hand the executive who always chooses the safest path may not be the best manager either. The successful executive must recognize risk and take it into consideration when planning a course of action. But being risk-seeking or risk-adverse won't in itself result in good management. The executive must be willing to take a calculated risk in certain situations. He must have the courage to take risk when appropriate and to accept the responsibility of the consequences should the outcome of the course of action be unfavorable. Courage, then, can be considered

as a desirable attribute. Risk-seeking by itself is not inherently valuable. Only when tempered by accountability does it become a positive quality.

The final factor stems from a failure to recognize or distinguish between the primary and secondary apsects of a desirable trait. An excellent example of this situation is in the general area of communication. This category is the one which in one form or other is perhaps more frequently cited than any other. One can reasonably state that communications are important to all executives. But why are they important? Do communications per se accomplish anything? Are they the means to an end or an end in themselves?

If communications were the desired end product, it would be quite reasonable to recruit tomorrow's executives from a ladies sewing circle or some other social group. Communication is important, but only to the extend that it enables the executive to accomplish the right objectives through his people. Good communications help to produce effective leadership; effective leadership is a mark of a successful executive. Accordingly, leadership is considered as a primary quality while communication, albeit crucial to many executives, ought to be viewed as a secondary trait.

Some experts break communication down into its components. One favorite word used in describing a successful executive is to say that he is articulate. Undoubtedly, the ability to express oneself fluently and to speak in a forceful but convincing manner has helped more than a few men to garner

Appendix A contains over thirty lists of various traits or characteristics which alledgedly are related to the success of an executive. These lists are not particularly useful in their present form. As previously noted, there is no claim that the combined listing is exhaustive (although an individual striving to assimilate every quality would probably become exhausted). The "data" had to be reduced and analyzed for significance before being presented in a useful format.

No attempt was made to perform a rigorous statistical analysis of the frequency of the occurrence of identical or similar elements. However, a qualitative analysis of the lists did reveal a recurring pattern of certain specific traits. Among these were (1) leadership (2) communication (3) get along well with people (4) make good decisions (5) emotionally stable and (6) know what is going on. The first four of these qualities were anticipated, but the last two were somewhat surprising.

Emotionally stable obviously refers to the capability of being able to perform well under pressure. Know-what-is-going-on alludes to political acumen. Both of these qualities are desirable characteristics in an executive. The surprise to their frequent mention, stems from the fact that these attributes - especially that of politics - often are ignored or denied in an attempt to portray an altruistic rendition of organizations.

the support they needed to help them along the road toward executive success. Note that the word help is used here twice. The successful executive uses articulate speech to help get his ideas across. Thus, articulate oral expression is an aid to good communication. Communication in turn, helps to develop good leadership which as noted above, tends to produce effective executives.

In summary, one characteristic of an effective executive is good leadership (primary quality). One aspect of good leadership is good communication (secondary quality). Finally, a tool which the executive may use to help establish and maintain effective communications is articulateness (tertiary quality).

The fact that articulateness is useful in many other executive functions should not cloud this point. Just as a mechanic will use a tool in many different tasks, the executive will use his capability of articulate speech as a tool in many different functions.

DEVELOPMENT OF A CONSENSUS OF DESIRABLE TRAITS FROM THE LITERATURE

The literature was studied in an attempt to perceive the qualities or characteristics which can lead to executive success. A list of the key points espoused by each author was compiled and compared to the rest of the literature in an attempt to develop a consensus.

Another surprise was the relatively minor emphasis given to ambition. Ambition was cited in a number of lists, but generally it was not given the status as say leadership. Nowhere in the literature was the Horatio Alger concept presented as it might be in a treatise on athletics: the man who wants to win the most will win. Perhaps this concept does not make good "copy" in management literature, or perhaps most authors assumed that everyone on the managerial ladder was ambitious.

The results of one relevant study indicate that such an assumption would not be valid. In this study, 384 male middle managers submitted answers to a questionnaire which was designed in part to measure an individual's promotional aspirations (Brown, 1976). The results of this study indicate that only 12% of these middle managers were "upwardly career oriented" i.e. ambitious. If one could accept the presumption that middle managers had already achieved a certain amount of success by virtue of their position, then it would follow that ambition is not a good indicator of executive success. However, the presumption is at best weak and must be considered with great caution.[6]

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[6]The inductive reasoning leading to this conclusion is based in part on an assumption of constant success which is not valid (Getty, 1971, pp. 199-205). It is not known where these men were in the relative stages of their respective careers, viz., How did the recently promoted men differ from their counterparts who have settled into a final career position before retirement? It would be very interesting to retest these men in approximately five years to see how the ambitious 12% fared in comparison to the group as a whole.

Even if the finding were true that most people are not ambitious, it cannot be used to downplay the role of ambition in executive success.

During an interview with Mr. Barry J. Shillito, president of Teledyne Ryan, the question of the role of ambition in executive success was raised. Mr. Shillito, who has been eminently successful in both private and public sector positions, avowed without reservation that ambition was one of the key ingredients in executive success. After restricting the discussion to the majority of people who occupy the middle of a normal population distribution, he stated, "There is not much difference between the capabilities of most men." He then elaborated on his philosophy by explaining that in most instances hard work can more than make up for a lack of ability. Instead of working eight hours a day, work twelve. Think how much ahead the twelve-hour man will be compared to the eight-hour or even ten-hour man with slightly more ability. There really is not much difference between the men who make it to the top and the masses who fall along the way. Often this difference represents nothing more than extra effort and hard work.

Mr. Shillito ended his comments on executive success by commenting that you really have to enjoy what you are doing. If someone is going to work twelve hours a day, it had better be at something he really likes. In fact, enjoyment may be the real motivating factor behind ambition and hard work. The man who works these long hours does so primarily because

he wants to. If this extra effort ultimately enhances his career opportunities so much the better, but first he enjoys what he is doing now.

The final general observation of the lists of traits is that a number of the experts seemed to be struggling to include a quality which they could not define. Uris called it charisma (1970, pp. 105-106); Dun's Review referred to it as feel (1964); Flory (1971) described it as a capability to "blend all action with finesse." Whatever "it" is, there are a number of successful executives who just seem to have "it". No one can put a finger on "it"; yet "it" exists and is important.

> The experienced executive knows that above and beyond the procedural and rational aspects of leadership, there's something else. Intangible though it may be it can make major differences in results (Uris, 1970, p. 105).

THE PRIMARY TRAITS OF THE SUCCESSFUL EXECUTIVE

A comprehensive listing of the major trait elements was generated from a combination of all lists contained in Appendix A. The comprehensive listing then was reduced to a workable size. First, duplicate qualities were eliminated and obvious similarities were grouped under a common heading. For example, morality, integrity and honesty were incorporated into character. Next, those qualities considered most important for executive success were selected based on an empirical analysis of the literature and personal observations. Finally, these remaining elements were organized

according to the order, viz., primary, secondary, etc., of their respective impact on the effectiveness of the executive.

The results of this restructuring are presented in Appendix B. Of the combined listing of all the elements embraced in the study, four were retained as primary qualities of the successful executive. The remaining qualities were entered as secondary or tertiary elements of the primary qualities as considered appropriate.[7]

The four key qualities which are considered to exhibit a primary relationship to the effectiveness of the executive are leadership, outward vision, judgement and maturity. A model was constructed for each of these major factors to show the interrelationship between the major factor and its secondary and tertiary characteristics. The secondary factors may be considered as partial definitions or the basic constituents of the primary factor. The tertiary factors can then be thought of as descriptors of each definiens. In several cases, fourth order relationships could also be used as an elaboration of the descriptors.

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[7]The relationship of the qualities presented in Appendix B represents just one useful arrangement. Patently, there are many ways of presenting the same elements, each way having a certain justification. While some people may want to add more qualities, others may argue that certain elements ought to be deleted. Nevertheless, here is an arrangement which most nearly represents the executive world as I see it. The primary elements are those attributes which are perceived to be the most important and of greatest significance. Similarly, the secondary and tertiary factors occupy what are felt to be their proper place in the hierarchy of desirable executive qualities.

However, they are not included in the models. The four models are presented in Appendix B.

Before studying the details of any one of these models, look at the linkages among them. First of all, note the existence of a circularity in describing the various qualities. Many traits are described in terms of each other. One prime quality, leadership, is also a tertiary factor for outward vision and judgement. Judgement, in turn, is also a factor for outward vision. This interdependency illustrates one of the reasons that traits are difficult to catalog.

- Is a man a successful executive because he is able to make good decisions?
- Or is he able to make good decisions because he has good leadership ability?
- Perhaps his perceived leadership stems from his skill in dealing with other people.
- Or perhaps it comes from his ability to communicate effectively.
- Or is that considered salesmanship?

Obviously, there is no way to draw the line where one quality ends and another begins. Many of these are a part of one another.

The next thing to notice is that many of the qualities appear in more than one model and in several places in one model. The ubiquitous qualities of good communication and interpersonal skills are interwoven either directly or indirectly throughout every model.

Once the interactions among the models are understood, the elements of each model can be examined. The highlights of some of the key features of each model are discussed below to clarify their meanings and relationships.

1. Leadership

As noted in Chapter III, leadership is one of the two main missions of the executive. One of the most comprehensive definitions of leadership is provided by Tannenbaum, Weschler and Massarik. It is the "interpersonal influence, exercised in situation and directed, through the communication process, toward the attainment of a specified goal or goals" (1961, p. 24). This definition establishes the need for interpersonal skills and good communications. It also incorporates motivation and administration: directing the result of one's influence toward the attainment of specified goals.

The definitions emcompass three of the secondary characteristics in the model. Communication and motivation are mentioned directly. Salesmanship is the vehicle by which the leader is able to exert his "interpersonal influence." Packard obviously agrees with this statement:

> In essence leadership appears to be the art of getting others to want to do something you are convinced should be done (1962, p. 170).

a. Communication

As synthesized from the literature the second major purpose of the executive is to act as a focal point for all of the organization's activity. This function involves receiving, processing and transmitting information. By processing the information the manager is able to assume control, which according to Follett, is "the essence of leadership" (1960, pp. 301-302). However, it is by receiving and transmitting this information that the leader is able to translate his control into action toward meeting the organization's objectives. The vehicle by which information is received and transmitted is called communication.

Written and oral expression are "two skills a modern manager must command so as to be fully effective" (Boettinger, 1975, p. 58). His outputs must be formulated, transmitted, received and understood. He must translate his ideas into words or they will remain nebulous. Language crystallizes his ideas (St. Aubyn, 1962, p. 43). Both oral and written expression of ideas must, of course, be clear. However, the voice not only gives words it also gives impressions. How something is said may be just as important as what is said in having a message received and understood (Dalton and Dalton, 1975, p. 4). The tone and strength in the voice itself, may be decisive in having the message accepted (Hegarty, 1973, p. 181).

The executive must also receive information. To be an effective executive one must be a good listener. The

executive must be a willing listener, willing to sit down and really listen to people and try to understand not only their ideas but also their perspectives as well.

The interdependency of the factors which make up good communications is evident. Good communications is very much dependent on good personal relations. Good listening cannot be divorced from concern for people, interpersonal skills and the strongly developed moral quality known as character. Without trust there is no credibility; without credibility communication breaks down. Hayes laid it squarely on the line:

> The keystone of good communication is personal integrity....If a manager is not believed subordinates do not care what he says (1964, p. 74).

Reeves was just as emphatic in recognizing the importance of integrity and the harm that can occur in its absence:

> The greatest aid or the biggest and most impenetrable barrier, to true communication is the presence or absence of complete trust and confidence among those involved (1971, p. 132).

Many of the qualities which relate to personal relations could be shown as fourth order factors on the model under "listens." A strong case can also be made to connect them to virtually every executive function.

b. Responsibility

Responsibility is the only area which isn't covered by Tannenbaum, Weschler, and Massarik's basic definition of leadership. An yet it is responsibility which ties together so much of what it takes to be an effective executive. The

leader of the group is the one who is ultimately responsible for the entire operation of the group. He is responsible for all actions even though he may not be directly involved. Nevertheless, the successful executive must have the courage to take reasonable risks and the character to accept the responsibility of the outcome. A man cannot be a leader unless he can bear up well under heavy responsibility ("People in Authority", 1975, p. 2).

Ambition may be viewed as a corollary to responsibility. In many cases power and responsibility are linked closely. Men who are motivated to increase their power or sphere of influence in an organization frequently are able to do so by "assuming" more responsibility. Conversely, those who are not ambitious, those who are quite content with their present position may be pleased to be able to pass off the headaches and blame associated with responsibility.

c. Salesmanship

"A manager is always selling....promoting his views ....Let it be noted that he would not rise in the organization if he failed to perfect the art of selling" (Smith, 1973, p. 156). The successful executive obviously must be adroit in persuading other people to accept his ideas and then to act on them. These "other people" include his peers, subordinates, superiors and outsiders. Notice that his formal position gives him leverage only over one of these

groups. Even then he must rely on his persuasiveness and human skill "to build cooperative effort within the team" (Katz, 1974, p. 91).

Clearly, the executive needs power to get his ideas accepted and to get things done.

> It is power, the ability to control and influence others, that provides the basis for the direction of organizations and for the attainment of social goals. (Faleznik and Kets de Vries, 1975, p. 3).

There are several sources of power. The first, already mentioned, is by virtue of formal position in the hierarchy (Albers, 1961, p. 466). Other sources, which may or may not stem from formal authority, are control over resources (McMurry, 1974, p. 11), control over information (Martin and Sims, 1974, p. 179), or possession of specialized and vital knowledge or capability. By their very nature, these other sources of power are fleeting.

A stronger source of power comes from the executive's own personality, sometimes referred to as charisma. In a broader context, Jay states that the leader of any group derives his basis for leadership by being the evolved leader (1971, pp. 77-78). Simply put, the leader is the leader because he is accepted as such. Without the support of the followers, the leader is powerless.

The successful executive must be skillful in building his following from other people as well as from his own subordinates. Frequently, he builds this needed support by negotiating and bargaining - in a word: politics. Once the executive has obtained power he is able to lead. As Zaleznik

and Kets de Vries noted "Leadership is the exercise of power" (1975, p. 3).

The last category under the salesman function of leadership is knowledge. Any good salesman must know what he is selling. The executive must also be knowledgeable of why it is important and how it fits into the overall objectives and environment of the organization.

> At the very least, successful executives possess three types of knowledge: knowledge of goals, knowledge of methods, knowledge of realities (Lindberg, 1973, p. 34).

As a salesman, the executive needs the intellectual and analytical capacity to understand and apply this knowledge. He could also be helped by a good memory to retain and recall facts quickly.

d. Motivation

An executive must be able to motivate both himself and his people. If he can't get the most out of his team, the organization's potential cannot be fully realized. Bittle emphasized this relationship:

> For all the intellect and technique a manager can muster, his success turns on a subtle, elusive quality - the degree to which he can stimulate people to make the most of their own inherent capabilities (1972, p. 3).

The leader is dependent on the followers. His capability in motivating his followers can very easily determine his success. Hence, human skills are foremost. Again, the character and integrity of the manager are most important

for "there is nothing that so crushes your people's moral as unkept promises" (Smith, 1973, pp. 31-32).

The category of teaching is noteworthy. Teaching implies not only showing the man how to do a job but also helping the employee to understand why the job is important, and how it contributes to meeting the objectives of the organization. Both Myres (1970) and Roche and MacKinnon (1970) mention the motivational impact of giving meaning to the employee's work. Drucker, however, brought together most eloquently the executive's duties to teach, to give the employee meaningful work and to motivate:

> Leadership is the lifting of a man's vision to higher sights, the raising of a man's performance to a higher standard, the building of a man's personality beyond its normal limitations (1954, pp. 159-160).

2. Outward Vision

One of the responsibilities of the executive is to prepare his organization for and guide it through the challenges of tomorrow. The successful executive must be part visionary and part dreamer. He must be able to see where to take his group. This capability is outward vision. As shown in model 2, outward vision has four secondary traits:

a. Ability to See Whole Picture

If there is one difference between the attitudes of the manager and the non-manager, it is their perspective of the relationship between their respective jobs and the organizational entity. The non-manager may focus all of his

energies entirely on his own specialty. The manager, on the other hand, has to look at the big picture - to consider how his organization fits into, survives and perhaps grows in its environment. Follet refers to this management fundamental as the ability to grasp a total situation. The manager must be able to see the relation between all the different factors in a situation (1960, pp. 299-300).

In other words, the manager must be able to recognize all the "tiny pebbles" of a "mosaic." However, he can't dwell on the pebbles. He must bring them into focus to reveal a complete picture. From this perspective the executive is able to work toward controlling the total situation. Success lies in the manager's ability to see the whole picture, plan what has to be done and make sure it is accomplished (Rodman, 1972).

b. Identifies With Purpose of Business

The manager may be seen as the vital link between the organization and its purpose. He constantly has to think in terms of the organization's objectives, making sure that they are doing the right things before deciding how to do the things right. Only after the objectives are firmly in mind may the manager employ "the effective development and imaginative and creative use of all the resources of the organization toward the achievement of objectives" (Houston, 1964, p. 89).

c. Futuristic

The executive works for the future of the organization. He needs to generate a road map which defines the organization's present position, its future goals and objectives, and a plan to reach them. One cause of organizational failure is the inability to prepare for the future. When pressed by the problems at hand, managers frequently put aside or abandon long-range planning, "letting shifting circumstances make many of the decisions they should be making" (Wingo, 1967, p. 111).

Levinson (1974, p. 62) describes three abilities which executives need in today's rapidly changing environment. Coincidentally, all three entail the executive's charter to prepare for the future. The first of these involves the ability to conceptualize a strategic plan and to use this plan as a map in the manner just mentioned. The second ability is a strong sense of where the executive, himself, is going. A strongly defined sense of direction on the part of the manager will give the organization stability and an added degree of security to all its members.

The third ability is "to develop a range of talent in his subordinates." Hence, the futuristic executive is a teacher. Teaching involves technical skills of course, but it is much more than that. The executive must also be able to pass his aspirations on to his subordinates. Boettinger ties together the teaching aspects of leadership and outward vision very neatly:

> To manage is to lead, and to lead others requires that one enlist the emotions of others to share a vision as their own (1975, p. 64).

d. Enjoys Large Projects

The last category in the outward vision model is perhaps more of a reflection of the executive's attitude than a quality. Nevertheless it is an attribute that would be hard to remove from the prospects for success. The executive enjoys large projects.

The very word "enjoys" connotes something about the executive. He doesn't take on the headaches and problems of large projects because he must or because they represent opportunities for reward. He does it because he wants to; he does it because he enjoys not only being involved with large projects but being responsible for them. The successful executive has a drive, a need for power and enjoys being able to help shape the destiny of his organization. Enjoyment is the catalyzing agent for ambition and drive. It is what makes ambition work.

The second key word "large" connotes complexity and the integration of many different activities and disciplines. "Large" can also connote importance. Both connotations fit the description of the successful executive: he is a generalist who is primarily interested in activities which are broad in scope and of major significance to the organization.

To succeed on projects of this type, the executive must first be an effective administrator. He must be a good

planner, organizer, director and delegator. And as with so many executive functions, human skills are vital in managing big projects since they involve many people. Accordingly, the executive must be a good leader (Q.E.D. Model 1!).

Parkinson also related the outward vision of the executive to leadership. Almost poetically, he wrote that leadership "is the art of so indicating a distant goal as to make all else seem trivial" (1962, p. 228).

3. Judgement

Decision-making is generally accepted to be one of the key facets of management. It is one of the highly visible differences between the successful and unsuccessful executive. Obviously, the successful executive is one who consistently makes good decisions. His track record may be based on nothing more than how often he is right.

"A decision is a choice made by a decision-maker about what should or should not be done in a given situation" (Steiner, 1969, p. 321). There is no argument with this definition except, perhaps, that it is too clinical. It doesn't tell the whole story. Some people could infer from it that decision-making is a simplistic process of selecting the best from several alternatives. Some decisions actually may be reasonably uncomplicated as this notion suggests. However, decisions in the higher level of the hierarchy - the key decisions on which the executive's reputation is hinged - are not.

Drucker emphasizes the dichotomy by referring to tactical and strategic decisions. Tactical decisions are routine, unimportant decisions which may be satisfied by standard problem solving techniques. Strategic decisions involve problems which affect long range plans or other organizational objectives. In general, they have a major impact.

This research is concerned primarily with the latter type although it recognizes the role of the former. The ability to make good decisions, given the proper facts, is one category on the model. Unfortunately, a fact of life for executives is that they may have to make decisions without complete information. (Lindberg, 1973, p. 34).

A lack of complete information notwithstanding, the executive still must come up with the right answer. This capability is called judgement. Executive judgement is represented on the model by three distinct steps.

a. Decisiveness

Perhaps the first part of judgement is knowing if and when to make a decision. Making a decision that doesn't have to be made is at best a waste of executive energy. Of those decisions that need to be made, timing can be critical. Since even timely decisions may be made on incomplete information, a premature decision will be based on even less information.

> Not to decide questions that are not pertinent at the time is uncommon good sense (Bernard, 1938, p. 194).

And decisions which are too late are just that, too late.

The first actual step in the judgemental process is the willingness to make a decision. This step takes courage and self confidence. Successful executives must be "willing to make decisions under circumstances that would put others into a quandry" (Albers, 1961, p. 533). Not only must the executive be willing to make tough decisions, he must be willing to accept the responsibility for their results and be able to live with those results without it tearing him up inside.

b. Ability to Make Good Decisions

The next step in the process is to make good analytical decisions. The executive needs the ability to define the problem, draw out the key information ("The Changing American Executive", 1964, p. 39), and to produce an analytical solution. The procedure is generally a straight forward attempt to find the right answer or at least a satisfactory one.

c. Implementation

According to the literature, managers ought to be more interested in making effective decisions than in making what appears to be the best decision. No decision, no matter how analytically correct it may be, has any intrinsic value. To be of value the decision must be put into action. Management is interested in performance, not academic exercises.

The best decision in the world is only useful if it can be implemented.

Sometimes the biggest job the executive has is gaining the acceptance of his decisions. For this task, the executive must put on his leadership hat with the salesman logo. Black views the skill in persuading others to accept his decision once it has been made as one of the key factors that constitute success in leadership (1957, p. 84).

Implementation of decisions is an excellent example of the circularity of the models used to describe executive qualities. By definition it is part of judgement. But the selling of the idea, the act of persuading others to accept the decision, clearly belongs under leadership as well. The student of management who tries to isolate one quality from another without considering their interdependent relationships will never understand the nature of the executive's job.

4. Maturity

The last model presented in Appendix B is maturity. Maturity may not always be considered a factor of success. However, immaturity is certainly a significant cause of failure. When a promotion comes down to a selection between two men who appear to be about equal in most areas, top management will look toward maturity in making the selection. Who is the man who can stay cool under pressure? (Smith, 1973, p. 66). This type of comment frequently is used in

discussing the consistent success of certain athletes. It is no less pertinent to executives.

Maturity has four elements:

a. Emotionally Stable

The stable executive is a man that management can depend on. The executive quickly learns to expect the unexpected. The successful executive is the man who can "take the most unexpected things completely in stride without losing his head or getting rattled" (Van Fleet, 1973, p. 86).

The executive lives in a world where he must make important decisions almost every day. Even the men with the best judgement are bound to make mistakes. The mature executive does not let this obvious fact deter him from making his next decision. He knows that more often than not he will be right (or he would not be in his position) and if he is wrong he can still profit from his mistakes (Davis, 1962, p. 57).

Analysis of Chris Argyris' description of the successful executive suggests that he places great emphasis on maturity. According to Argyris, the successful executive must be able to accept both victories and defeats. When he is right, he is not boastful or smug. When he is wrong or suffers a setback, he is not shattered. He analyzes the situation, learns from it, but doesn't dwell on it. He quickly starts thinking of the next goal (Packard, 1962, p. 150).

b. Politically Astute

The executive does not have to be an office politician to be successful or to be considered mature. He must, however, recognize and be able to work with the power structures within his sphere of activity. The successful executive is one who knows what's going on and is usually where the action is (Marvin, 1968).

Another aspect of being politically astute is having a sense of timing. Knowing when to do something depends upon a recognition of the many internal and external forces involved. Davis uses the quality of timing to describe the primary trait, maturity.

> One of the most striking examples of the differences between maturity and immaturity of mind lies in knowing exactly when to raise issues and when not to raise them (1962, p. 188).

Power, politics and management cannot be totally divorced from one another. However, maturity helps to put these facets into proper perspective. Hopefully, this perspective is one with which managers, managerial experts and students may all be comfortable.

A desire for power is a strong motivator for most managers. Power is also a vehicle by which certain ends can be accomplished. To be effective, an executive must have a certain amount of power. Frequently, this power is obtained through the political infrastructure of the organization. The politically astute executive is one who knows how to

obtain power. The mature executive is one who also knows how to use it wisely.

> It is not enough to want power or even to have it. It must be used creatively....Power must be the servant, not the master (Korda, 1975, p. 15).

The mature manager is one who wants power to be strong and influential to enable him to perform his job well. He uses power not for personal aggrandizement, but to help achieve the objectives of the organization (McClelland and Burnham, 1976, p. 103).

c. Perspective

Maturity of perspective goes hand-in-hand with outward vision. There is only a slight distinction between their use in models 2 and 4. In model 2, perspective was used to describe the executive's duty to view the organization as a whole. Model 4 builds on that description: the mature executive is one who is able to maintain this perspective while attacking daily problems and crises.

The executive lives in a world of stress and constant change (Getty, 1971, p. 109). The mature executive is able to handle this world and maintain his proper place in it.

d. Concern for Other People

Interpersonal skills are mentioned in almost every source as being important for executive success. They are included here to reflect the executive's need for people. People are his main resource. He knows that their success

is his success, their failure his failure. The executive and his subordinates are a professional team. As such they share in their accomplishments and they share in their satisfaction of a job well done.

The mature manager finds this type of relationship very rewarding. He is pleased to share credit with his men and is able to build permanent loyalties with them (Bittel, 1972, p. 276-277). They sense that he is genuinely interested in them and will not "use" them for his own short term gain. The mature manager works for tomorrow as well as today.

Judson suggests that "sensitivity to and consideration for the needs of others" is especially important during times of change (1966, p. 168). The mature manager recognizes that while changes have to be made, his subordinates are most vulnerable and concerned about their respective futures during those times. His interest in them during the transition will pay off in better performance after the transition. The executive's proven concern for other people will also help make the next change a little easier.

According to Levinson this quality is a <u>sine qua non</u> for the man who wishes to become a successful executive.

> Every successful executive I know cares about his people and builds a bond of trust (1964, p. 140).

Notice the continuing theme of the importance of the manager's personal integrity and character.

SUMMARY OF ANALYSIS OF EXECUTIVE TRAITS

Although the literature is replete with many traits which allegedly can lead to executive success, there is no consensus of a definitive profile or combination of traits which will produce executive success. The literature does support the desirability of a number of qualities which do appear to be consistent with executive success. Of these characteristics, four are perceived to have a primary relationship with executive success. Models of these four qualities - leadership, outward vision, judgement and maturity - are presented in Appendix B. The models show the interrelationships between these primary traits and many of the other desirable traits frequently advocated in the literature.

V. EXECUTIVE DEVELOPMENT

THE CONTINUING NEED FOR EXECUTIVE DEVELOPMENT

One of management's responsibilities is to obtain qualified executives who will be able to lead the organization successfully through tomorrow's challenges. While there are several sources of executive talent, there is virtually no pool of available executives. Executive talent almost always requires further development.

Sources of executive talent may be categorized rather neatly into internal and external sources. The external sources include new college graduates and executives from other organizations. However, both private and public sector organizations obtain most of their managers by promoting men from within (Campbell et al, 1970, p. 22-25; United States Army Management Engineering Training Agency, 1974, p. 122). The reason for this tendency is two-fold: first, there isn't a convenient pool of capable executives available. Those executives are already in existing jobs. Recruiting them away from their present jobs to fill a vacancy in a different organization is costly to both organizations. Second, outside men would have to become familiar with the organization, its people and its methods of operation before they could become effective employees. Frequently, there isn't sufficient time for an indoctrination period.

According to Damico, the need for executive development is especially acute in the Federal Government. A relatively large proportion of the current upper echelon Federal employees will become eligible for retirement within the next five years. Attrition of highly talented key executives may be expected to continue to run about ten percent per year (Damico, 1974, p. 24). Even in a declining environment, many of these key people will have to be replaced. The Government will have to look within its own ranks for their replacements.

DEVELOPMENT OF THE COMPLETE EXECUTIVE

First and foremost, an executive is a person. Unless he can develop himself as a whole being, he will be of little value to his organization. Secondly, the executive and his environment are both dynamic. The executive's world keeps changing and the man must change with it to be able to respond to tomorrow's challenges. To stagnate is to wither away and "retire" on the job. Development of the man is a continuing process of learning and growth (Houston, 1964, p. 82). No man can ever be said to be fully developed.

Executive development is an increasing of knowledge, insights and skills and their application toward satisfying new requirements and to performing old requirements better or faster. A careful distinction must be made between development and training. Training is teaching, institutionalized, and focused on the skills which the organization

desires its members to have. Development is learning, personal, and focused on the needs and motivation of the individual (Smiddy, 1960, p. 389). Training can be considered as a "push" service and development as "pull".

Some authors, notably Drucker (1974) and Houston (1964), make a further distinction between management development and manager development. Management development, which is primarily the responsibility of the organization, involves the assessment and fulfillment of managerial needs. The purpose of manager development is to enable each manager to develop his capabilities to the fullest extent to perform his function in the organization with excellence. It is the responsibility of each manager to develop himself (Farnsworth, 1973).

In this research, the general term "executive development" is used to embody the activities and responsibilities of both the organization and the individual. Executive development ought to be viewed as a mutually beneficial partnership. Ultimately, the burden of executive development must be placed on the individual. However, the organization must accept the responsibility of creating the proper environment and the opportunity. In the final analysis, executive development is executive growth. Growth can take place only in real situations involving real management problems. Growth is achieved when an individual "makes consistently good decisions in increasingly complex situations involving higher and higher stakes" (Bowen, 1973, p. 85). It takes both partners to make this growth happen.

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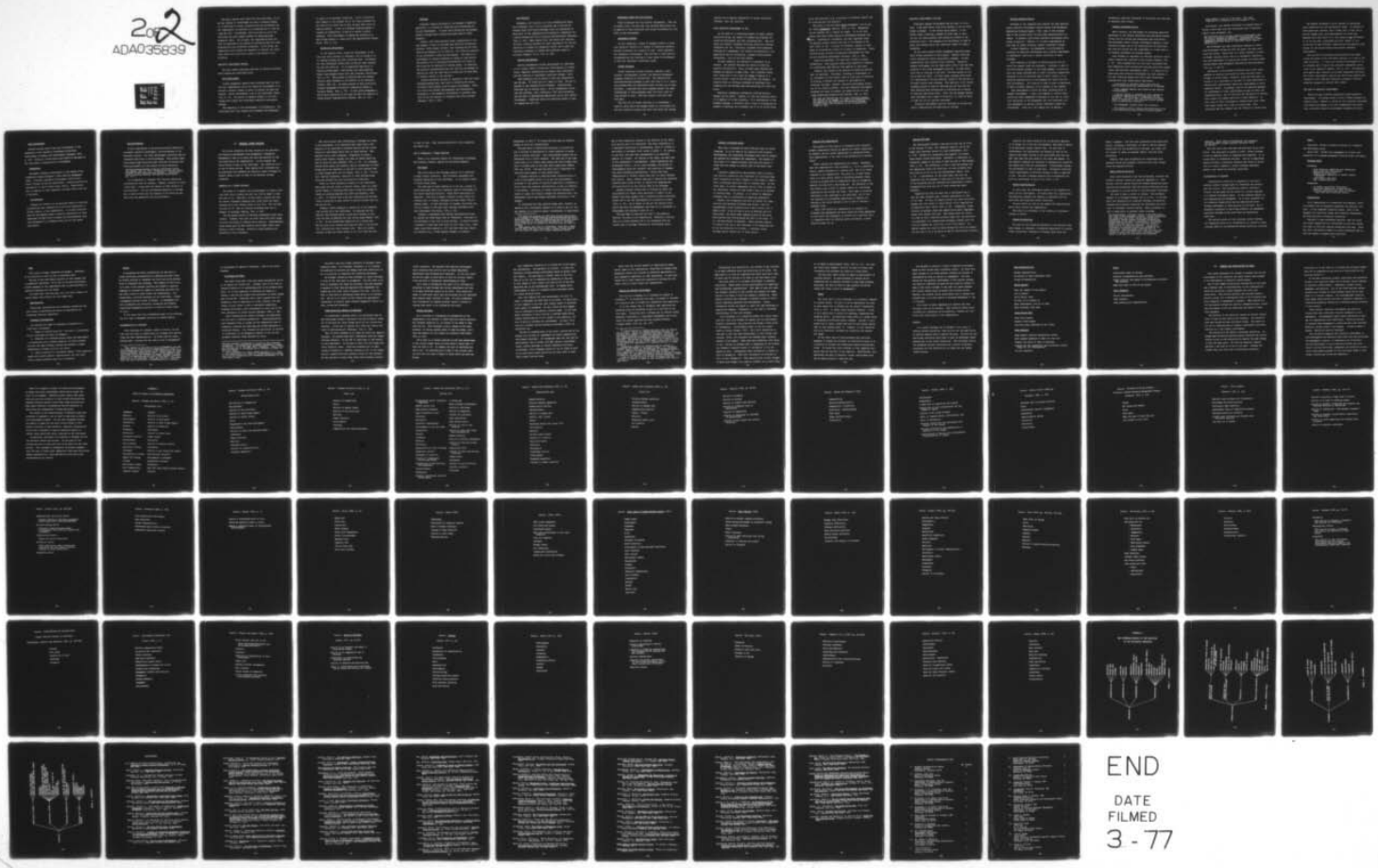

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The major impetus must start with the individual, for if any man refuses to acknowledge his duty to develop himself or is unwilling to accept responsibility and accountability, the organization is powerless to do anything but to look for a man who will. Accordingly, the first move is up to the individual who must prepare himself by acquiring basic managerial skill. On its part, the organization must provide the opportunity for growth by putting the man into real, progressively more difficult situations. By so doing, the organization will enable the executive to develop the confidence which will allow him to grow to the limits of his potential.

EXECUTIVE DEVELOPMENT METHODS

The most common techniques employed in executive development programs are described below:

Self Development

Several managerial experts have concluded that the most that any organization can do for executive development is to provide a fertile climate in which its people can grow and develop. Actual development is up to the individual (Black, 1957, p. 15). The desire to improve oneself is the motivating force behind any worth-while executive development program.

The beginning of self development is introspection. The individual must first examine his strengths and weaknesses

in light of his personal objectives. If he is deficient with respect to his present job or not fully prepared for the position he would like to get, he must take action to improve himself. It may be a planned reading program to broaden his perspective; it may be a course in public speaking. Self development is taking the initiative to make things happen to create one's own opportunities (Farnsworth, 1973, p. 310).

On-The-Job Development

In its simplist form, on-the-job development is the trial and error process of learning a job by trying to do it, making mistakes and then correcting them. Ultimately all real development takes place on-the-job when concepts are put into practice. It is especially applicable to executive development: "few persons can learn anything faster than managers faced with real problems" (Boettinger, 1975, p. 57). The process is enhanced when the manager receives rapid feedback on the effects of his decisions (Judson, 1966, ix). By being allowed to make noncritical mistakes management provides an inexpensive method of learning (Hayes, 1964, p. 75). It also gives management a fairly good indication of who does not have the capacity to assume greater responsibility (Albers, 1961, p. 144).

Coaching

Coaching, usually performed by the manager's immediate supervisor, is a method of enhancing and accelerating on-the-job development. It helps avoid having the new manager stumble through every mistake previously made by other managers.

Ideally, the coach provides timely consultation to the new manager to help him through some difficult situations. Levinson (1962) noted, however, that coaching has not been used as successfully as it could be. Too often the superior is not motivated to help the new manager. The superior's performance is usually evaluated in terms of cost-control and profits, not in developing subordinates the value of which may not be realized for several years. In addition, the superior subconsciously may not want the new manager to develop too fast for fear that he either may be hired away or become a threat to his own job.

Another potential problem in coaching is that the coach, although meaning well, may tend to interfere and stifle initiative and actually slow the man's development. There is a fine line between encouragement and interference. Frequently, a new manager's development is greatest when left to his own devices to recognize and solve problems (Barnard, 1960, p. 454).

Job Rotation

Systematic job rotation is a time consuming and expensive technique, but it is an excellent way of giving the trainee broad first-hand knowledge about the operations of many parts of the organization and helping to compensate for a narrow perspective due to previous specialization (Newcomer, 1955, p. 136). When coupled with real duties and responsibilities, rotation presents an ideal opportunity for the new executive to broaden his managerial skills and to gain the confidence necessary to handle many different types of problems (Campbell et al, 1970, p. 246).

Special Assignments

Special assignments include appointments to committees or to a junior board of directors, participation in conferences, temporary substitution for higher level executives and the creation of "assistant" positions (Riegel, 1952).

This technique can be useful to both the organization and the man. It could also be a waste of time. The key to success is the responsibility delegated. Observational positions are of dubious value. Ad hoc assignments involving real problems, real constraints, real decision-making and the task of implementing appropriate action will enhance development. Committees which are powerless except to pass on suggestions will not.

Management Games and Role Playing

These techniques are like special assignments. They can be useful tools; but only when the learning experiences can be applied to real situations with actual accountability will there be any development.

Assessment Centers

In this technique, a panel of managers observe a potential executive function in a number of simulated executive problem situations for a period of time. After assessing the candidate's performance, they are able to make specific recommendations for training or other types of development to meet the candidate's individual needs.

Formal Training

Formal training includes lectures, seminars, short courses, correspondence courses, and advanced management programs conducted at universities. The weakness with institutionalized programs is that they tend to be a compromise between what the individual needs and what can be made available. Long-term full-time programs present the added disadvantage of taking managers away from their jobs for long periods of time. They may actually lose more than they gain.

The best use of formal training is to strengthen a specific skill which the manager needs for his present job. The most effective courses are those from which the lessons

learned can be applied immediately to actual situations (Drucker, 1974, pp. 422-423).

WHAT EXECUTIVE DEVELOPMENT IS NOT

As the need for a continuing supply of highly capable executives grows, the number of schemes and programs for executive development has been increasing also. Some programs are helpful; programs involving artificial settings frequently are not. Similarly, programs which emphasize training as a management tool without consideration to its application may be interesting - perhaps intellectually stimulating - but are not very useful.

In many respects, the executive is analogous to an athlete. The athlete develops his skills by practice, practice and practice. Sure, he needs some coaching and perhaps an analysis of game films. But a baseball player can't learn how to hit a ball by taking a seminar or a lecture series - even if Ted Williams were the speaker. He acquires skill in hitting a baseball by grabbing a bat, stepping into the batting cage and practicing for hours and hours.

Similarly, managerial information received during a seminar can be useful. However, it only has potential until it is applied to a real situation. In a continuation of the baseball analogy, a "lecture" from a coach on hitting may be helpful in pointing out a mistake, but it is of little value

until the principle (e.g. a new grip or different stance) can be tried and put into practice.

The point is "We can teach about management, but we cannot teach management" (Levitt, 1974, p. 124). Management can be learned, but it cannot be taught. It is for this reason that many formal executive development programs fall short. According to Livingston, the most important tasks "in getting results usually are left to be learned on the job" (1971, p. 82). A series of lectures, courses or other types of training has little or no value in themselves. These activities may be tools of executive development but they are not executive development (Drucker, 1974, p. 422).

Tools are important, but they must be kept in proper perspective. They are most useful when acquired in response to a particular need and are then applied to that need.

Finally, the timing of the purpose of executive development is important. Obviously, training or development is an investment for the future, just as long hours of practice in hitting a baseball are endured in anticipation of (winning) the game. However, executive development should not be too future oriented. The best executive development programs are based on present job needs and not on long range promotional possibilities (Smiddy, 1960, p. 390).

> The best and fastest way for a man to develop managerial ability is to manage - to carry the responsibility for making his own decisions from learning through mistakes (and) from facing up to his accountability (1960, p. 391).

EXECUTIVE DEVELOPMENT POLICIES

Originally manager development was not much of a problem. A man knew almost from birth whether or not he would become a manager. It was really quite simple: if his father owned a business, someday he would take it over. (If not, he would probably work beside his father on the production line.) The manager-to-be had plenty of time to learn the business which was relatively simple by today's standards.

As the caste system eroded, management positions gradually became available to more people. Usually there was little preparation before being made a manager. In many organizations this practice still prevails. Typically, manager development did not begin until after a man had been promoted to his first management position. In some cases there was no training of any kind. The man learned on the job as best he could. In other cases, perhaps there would be a smattering of written material loaned to the new man or he might receive some coaching. This practice is not unlike teaching someone to swim by throwing him off the dock and then shouting some instructions to him while he is trying to keep his head above water. Until the new manager gained some confidence and a sense of direction, it could be quite a rough job for all parties concerned.

Executive development policies followed by private and public organizations are described as follows:

Private Industry Policy

Although no two companies have exactly the same approach toward executive development (United States Army Management Engineering Training Agency, 1974), many of the programs used in the private sector do have some characteristics in common. In general, most actual executive development still occurs on-the-job. However, it is often complemented by some type of formal training, usually conducted in-house.

In most companies, top management is giving special attention to executive development and is making commitments of substantial resources to ensure continuity of their programs.

Most training is designed to develop specific skills which the company feels are necessary. Coaching is used to provide personal guidance to the young manager, to help him with any unique problems and to offer occasional suggestions. Coaching is not an ancillary type of duty; rather it is a definite responsibility of top managers for which they are held accountable. Job rotation is used in some circumstances to give a broader exposure to all aspects of the company.

Self development is still the basic building block of manager development. A man's willingness to acquire basic skills and learn management techniques on his own is a positive indication to top management that the individual will join management in making a mutual commitment toward his development. After all, the company will be making a

substantial long-term investment in the person and they want to maximize their return.

Federal Government Policy

Until recently, the philosophy for obtaining qualified executives in the Federal Government has vacillated between hiring from the outside and developing them from within. The philosophy toward internal development appears to have prevailed largely due to the unavailability of sufficient men from the outside and the requirement to orient them to the Federal Government environment anyway.

Past attempts to implement an effective executive development program have achieved little success (Grande, 1975, p. 16). Most programs have not been well coordinated and have emphasized institutionalized training activities (push) rather than personal development (pull). It should not be surprising that executive development has been handled in the same classical manner with which many bureaucratic programs have been traditionally approached:

. a directive is received from a high official source establishing the requirements for a program.

. local commands embrace the directive and endorse its principles.

. a special deputy is assigned at each command as a positive demonstration of complying with the directive. (In this case, the directive probably would be forwarded to the training officer perhaps with a notation for "action".)

. top management forgets about the directive.

. the training officer obtains and distributes a set of brochures describing various training courses

which appear to him to be relevant. This task completes his obligation and the program is over.

Fortunately, the Federal Government is showing signs of trying to move away from this disjointed type of approach toward a more systematic one.

> The objective now is to have executive development take the form of planned assignments to progressively more responsible managerial positions, supplemented by formal management training based on individual needs (Damico, 1974, p. 25).

The Government has made substantial progress in executive development during the last ten years, but past practices die slowly. There still is a great tendency to focus on formal training rather than on a systematic identification and development of high-ability talent for future needs (United States Army Management Engineering Training Agency, 1974, pp. 71 and 75).

Executives in the Federal Government place their major emphasis on getting the present job done and give little thought to future needs. Moreover, there has been and continues to be a reluctance on the part of these executives to develop their subordinates beyond the requirements of their immediate duties. In general, they do not perceive managerial development of their subordinates as part of their own responsibilities. Nor do they feel any obligation to develop their people for higher positions in other agencies. In fact, part of their reluctance to develop their most competent people stems from a fear of losing them. This reluctance may also explain why job rotation is seldom used.

The Federal Government's prior methods of developing their executives are not satisfactory today. In defense of these practices, however, don't forget that a clear policy did not emerge until only approximately ten years ago. Remember also that there is no such thing as the Government. It is not one well coordinated monolith; rather it is a collection of many different organizations and agencies each having its own unique mission and specific manpower requirements.

The new policy advocating decentralization and emphasizing the needs of the individual agencies is a step in the right direction. It "calls for executive development to be an integral part of day-to-day personnel management operations in all agencies" (Damico, 1974, p. 28). Conceptually, each agency shall identify its present managerial positions and future requirements, specify the skills and capabilities required to fill them and establish a program to develop potential managers to satisfy their needs.

THE KEYS TO EXECUTIVE DEVELOPMENT

There are many different approaches toward executive development. As already noted, no two of these programs are exactly alike. However, a review of the literature indicates that there does appear to be four fundamentals upon which most successful executive development programs are based.

Self Development

Several sources assert that self development is the foundation of all executive development activities. "Development is always self development" (Drucker, 1974, p. 427). Without a strong desire and effort on the part of the individual no program will be successful.

Integration

Successful executive development is the result of an integrated program designed to meet specific management needs. Training complements development, which occurs mostly through on-the-job experiences. Training provides an opportunity to build certain basic skills. These skills must be applied in real managerial settings before they can be mastered.

Job Rotation

Planned job rotation is an excellent means of acquiring progressively more responsibility and broad experience in several aspects of the organization. It is most effective when the new manager makes a positive contribution to each department through which he passes and simultaneously uses each assignment as a stepping stone for his own career advancement.

Decision-Making

If self improvement is the prime motivation behind all successful executive development, decision-making is its essential vehicle. All other development activities must be considered ancillary to decision-making. Real growth comes from making tough decisions under difficult situations and being accountable for the results of those decisions.

> Decision-making demands tough and disciplined thinking (Smith, 1973, p. 155). Being put on the job, being allowed to make decisions and mistakes....allow managers to grow and develop into genuine contributors (p. 111).

It is important to remember that decision making and accountability must go together. Making a decision is relatively easy. Living with the results of that decision is more difficult. But the outstanding executive is the man who is able to work with the results of all decisions and make even the apparently bad ones profitable.

VI. PERSONAL CAREER STRATEGY

Up to now, attention has been focused on the executive and executive development from management's standpoint. Management's task is to place the best men possible in the key positions in the organization. In this chapter the focus shifts to that of the individual. His objective is to be one of those key men. This chapter will illustrate how an individual can formulate an executive career strategy for himself based in part on some of the material already presented.

BENEFITS OF A CAREER STRATEGY

The theme of a popular beer advertisement is based on the idea that since a person has only one life he ought to make the most of it. Similarly, in most cases a person has only one career frequently spanning over forty years and representing one of the central points of his life. Why not make the most of it? Why not "become everything that one is capable of becoming" (Maslow, 1954, p. 92)?

Yet few people rarely do anything substantial about their careers. Instead, they just let their work-life drift along or evolve according to someone else's desires. Unfortunately, these people pass up many benefits which might result from having a career strategy. Several of these benefits are described in the literature.

The first benefit that formulating a strategy can bring is the development of an awareness that comes from a self analysis of an individual's personal desires and the forces within his environment which bear on those desires. Self analysis can be very revealing. Frequently it gives a person some valuable insight into what he really wants and what he does not want (Djeddah, 1971, p. 13). As a minimum, having career goals will enable a man to concentrate on those things which are important to him and to avoid wasting time on those things which are not (Marks, 1976, p. 39). It also will identify obstacles, conflicts or other problem areas which may prevent him from achieving his objectives.

There is a more substantive benefit to the individual. When goals are set forth in specific terms, there is a much better chance of achieving them than if they are allowed to remain as nebulous generalities (Kolb and Boyatzis, 1974, p. 352). It follows that a man who formulates well-defined career objectives is more likely to achieve success than the men who do not.

Finally, career planning is beneficial to the organization as well as to the individual. An employee who has specific well-defined goals is much more valuable in the long run than an employee who just drifts along (Marks, 1976, p. 39). No one establishes mediocrity as a career goal. Men who plan their careers are those who want to be successful, starting with their present jobs. They are usually willing to make the extra effort to do a job right and get

it done on time. They become dedicated to both themselves and their jobs.

HOW TO FORMULATE A CAREER STRATEGY

There is no universal method for formulating a strategy. Most methods, however, embody the following elements:

Set Goals

The first step in any strategy session is to establish a broad overall objective. This objective represents the ultimate aspiration of the individual. It is usually stated in fairly broad terms.

The next part of goal setting is to lay out a series of short-term goals which will logically lead to fulfillment of the broad long-term objective. These short-term goals are important. They give a person a chance to grow toward his ultimate goal in steady, attainable strides rather than by quantum jumps. As each milestone is reached, the person may lift his sights to the next goal, gaining confidence with each achievement (Van Fleet, 1970, p. 55).

Finally, a reasonably well-defined and quantified plan to achieve all these goals must be formulated. This part of the procedure is the crux of goal setting. It should include a schedule to show when each activity will begin (e.g., start night school MBA program in 1977) and when each goal should be achieved (e.g., become general manager of research

department in 1981).[8] Of course the plan must be flexible enough to allow for uncertainties.

The plan must be sufficiently detailed to account for and to provide an opportunity to obtain whatever is necessary to achieve each goal. Goal requirements usually can be determined with a little research. One easy way to get some useful data is to observe other people who have already been able to achieve many of the same short-range goals (Marks, 1976, pp. 36-37). How much and what kind of experience do they have which appear to have helped them?

A helpful exercise in reducing these characteristics to a set of developable skills is to use the relationships developed in the models of executive qualities in Appendix B. First locate the observed characteristic on any (or several) of the models. Then move in either direction through the models to learn the relation between the characteristic, the fundamental skills and primary desirable attributes of the example.

To illustrate how this exercise might work, consider an executive who consistently appears to be able to get his own way whether it is with his peers, subordinates or supervisors.

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[8]It should be pointed out that many people making their first attempt at career planning find goal-setting difficult, especially when it comes to quantifying the short term goals. It is difficult to be objective and realistic, setting a career plan which is neither too difficult nor too easy to achieve.

Some people also find it disturbing. They get a funny feeling when they see a major part of their lives blocked out on a piece of paper in a rather impersonal manner.

How is this capability related to the function of the executive and how can it be developed? The above observation is a reasonable definition of salesmanship, which is located in the middle or secondary trait column on model 1. By looking to the left, one sees that salesmanship is an important quality of a leader. By looking to the right, one sees some of the ingredients of salesmanship. These ingredients are developable skills. To be a good salesman, one should be knowledgeable about his "product" and learn how to communicate this information persuasively. Notice also that communication is further broken down into its basic developable skills. Hence, someone desiring to emulate the executive observed above would do well to improve his speaking and writing abilities as the initial step in his strategy.

Another straight forward way of finding out about the requirements for higher level positions is simply to ask. Kindall and Gatza suggest that a promotion minded individual should ask to see the requirements of a position he seeks (1970, p. 79). By so doing, he can get the desired information and also let management know that he is interested in advancement and willing to work for it.

The plan must be tailored not only to the person's desires, but also to his capabilities. Therefore, development of a career schedule has to be integrated with the second step of strategy formulation, the personal audit.

Conduct a Personal Audit

This step is perhaps the most difficult step in career planning. It is not easy to be objective with yourself. Nevertheless, the individual strategist must look at himself and analyze his strengths and weaknesses. The purpose of this step is to compare personal abilities and values to those that are needed to achieve each of the short term goals.

A person's capabilities and potential must be consistent with his objectives and time-table for achieving them. Early recognition of short comings in vital areas is important in allowing sufficient time to overcome them. On the other hand, if certain weaknesses are not vital to plans of the individual, energy and time doesn't have to be devoted to overcome them. In general, it is better to emphasize strengths than to concentrate on improving weaknesses.

Finally, the integrated plan must be tested for compatibility with personal attitudes and values. How will implementing a plan interfere with a man's social life or family life? Is he willing to give up Saturday golf for home study? Are there other demands placed on him which would prevent him from pursuing any part of the plan? If so, the plan should be adjusted. These personal aspects of a man's life can be very important to his happiness and to his own definition of success. A personal career strategy should reflect all of these values.

Analyze The Organization

The purpose of this step is to determine how a person's present organization stacks up against his career objectives. In essence, can his career aspirations be satisfied within this organization; if so, what is his probability of success there?

First, analyze the organization as a whole. Determine what the organization's real business is. Is it a relatively static, stable business or a volatile one? How is it doing compared to its competition? The point is, in most cases, there is a much better chance of achieving personal career success by growing with an organization than by struggling against the odds with a declining one. The exception is the case where a man is able to assume control of a declining organization and reverse the trend. This type of situation represents a real challenge to an individual, but it also can represent an outstanding opportunity to enhance his reputation and career pattern if he is able to reverse a downward trend.

Next, look inside the organization to consider its strengths and weaknesses and which areas are being emphasized. At this point the strategist is looking for a position that is compatible with his personal goals and values, a place where he might fit in.

Analyze The Boss

The relationship between a man and his boss can be vital to the success of both. His immediate superior can be the single most important person to a man (Schoonmaker, 1971, p. 116). Without his cooperation and support, his career could easily become dead-ended. Similarly, a supervisor is frequently judged on the basis of what his men do (Van Dersal, 1974, p. 70). The difference is that a boss has perhaps ten men immediately under his direction, but will probably rely most heavily on one or two key subordinates (Smith, 1973, p. 54). A subordinate, on the other hand, has only one immediate boss and perhaps a couple more in the next levels of the hierarchy who may influence the subordinate's career. Incompatibility with any one of these bosses may spell disaster.

Compatibility does not mean that a subordinate has to have the same interests and a similar personality to that of his boss. In fact, as Argyris points out, many successful leaders are "not likely to allow others in his organization to duplicate" their style (1973, p. 57). Frequently, compatibility is having a style and capabilities which complement rather than reflect the boss. When asked about his choice of a man to fill a position directly under him, the principle vice president of a medium-sized aerospace company said he'd look for someone who could fill in his "flat spots". He wanted someone who could do those things well which he himself did not care to do or at which he was not particularly skillful.

Possibly the ideal situation for an ambitious employee is to become one of the key subordinates, described by Smith, to an ambitious, highly capable boss. In this type of relationship, the subordinate can advance as fast as the superior who keeps filling in his new staffs with "his own men" upon whom the boss knows he can trust and depend. As the superior advances he continues to delegate more authority and expect more from the subordinate. Interestingly enough, the subordinate is able to keep pace. Livingston found that a man's performance is directly related to what is expected of him. The more a manager expects from a subordinate the more the subordinate is able to do (1970, p. 93).

Analyze Opportunities

In this step, the strategist starts to tie together his goals and his environment. He looks within his organization and generally assesses his chances of achieving both his short-term and long-term career objectives.

He also starts to look at and compare the opportunities which exist outside the organization.

This step is a precursor to the creation of alternate courses of action.

Create Alternatives

For each of the situations analyzed in the previous step which appear to represent a reasonable opportunity to achieve career objectives, formulate a strategic plan which can

"make it happen". Set down each alternative with sufficient detail, including a time-table, so that it can be analyzed objectively for the probability of success, its risks, and its "costs" in terms of personal effort, time and other sacrifices.

Finally, test each alternative for consistency with personal values and potential conflicts with other obligations and responsibilities.

Make a Choice and Do It

After each alternative has been formulated, analyzed and possibly revised, choose one plan and implement it. This process involves making trade-offs between maximizing opportunities and minimizing risks and finally selecting the one that appears to be best suited to the particular individual.

The need to make a choice is obvious. The procedure appears to be straight-forward, but it is not. In writing about the formulation of corporate strategy, Uyterhoeven, Ackerman and Rosenblum described the importance and difficulty in strategic decision making. Their discussion is just as applicable to personal career strategy.

> Not surprisingly, strategic choice is the most difficult step in the strategic process. Having established the frame-work and facts, having made predictive judgements, having scanned strategic alternatives, having applied the test of consistency, the general manager now must decide. This decision cannot be based solely on facts and analysis. It is also influenced by uncertain predictive judgements and qualitative tradeoffs among a multiplicity of dimensions. The strategist will need the nerve and courage to make major and often irrvocable commitments in the face of uncertainty and imperfect

> analysis. Under these circumstances, the strategic choice becomes a highly personal decision (1973, pp. 63-64).

Once the choice has been made the plan must be put into action. The plan must be worked to work! Career strategy is not an exercise which is completed and forgotten. It is a plan which is formulated and used. Just as a light-house beacon provides a continuous reference and course of direction to a ship's captain, a career strategy constantly guides a man toward his personal objectives.

ILLUSTRATION OF STRATEGY

A hypothetical situation is presented to show how a personal career strategy might be formulated and actually put into action. The hypothetical scenario involves a 35-year old man named Joe who works as a project engineer in a Federal Government agency. He has advanced degrees in both engineering and management. He is well respected for his technical capabilities and has demonstrated above average performance in each position he has held. He is generally considered to have high potential for management positions although he has never held any supervisory positions.

The salient points of Joe's personal career strategy are synopsized below as an illustration of a specific career strategy based on the generalized method previously outlined.

Goals

Long term: become a technical director of a research and development group.

Short term: "break" into management as a first line supervisor of a program management division within two years.

Personal Audit

Strengths

- good technical capability and background.
- gets along well with people.
- speaks and writes well.
- demonstrates capability to handle complex projects.
- hard worker; ambitious.
- has a supporting wife.

Weaknesses

- no formal supervisory experience.
- needs more experience in negotiating.
- previous experience and areas of involvement have been relatively narrow.

Organization

Joe's organization is a relatively well-managed, effective agency with an excellent reputation for getting a job done. It has competent technical people. Most of the managers are relatively young, have technical backgrounds and keep involved in technical operations.

Similarly to many government agencies, they are faced with tight budgets and are contracting in size even though the scope of work has remained essentially the same. There has been a deliberate attempt to curtail promotions and reduce the number of higher-level positions.

Boss

Joe's boss is young, competent and dynamic. Sometimes he is difficult to work for but is generally fair.

The man in the next higher position is even younger and is especially ambitious. He is one of the most politically astute managers in the organization and is quite skillful in gaining acceptance for his ideas.

Joe works well with both men, but if he had a chance, he would rather work directly for the higher man.

Opportunities

Promotional opportunities are presently limited but the work itself is satisfying and gives an opportunity for broadening technical experience.

Strategic Alternatives

Joe reduced the range of reasonable alternatives to three basic strategies:

1. Remain in present position - The work is interesting but it could peak and start to stagnate.

2. Transfer to a different group within the same agency - It would give him a broader exposure, but would present him with the same blockage problems and perhaps a slight diminishing of status vis-a-vis his peers.

3. Seek a position in a different agency - Other agencies might offer better specific opportunities, but the tight fiscal climate probably would not be improved.

Choice

In analyzing the basic alternatives Joe was able to create additional alternatives by combining the basic ones. He finally decided to integrate the first and third alternatives to formulate his strategy. The essence of Joe's plan is to stay in his present position and conduct a vigorous campaign to increase his sphere of influence and move into the inner circle of power within the organization. Joe established a critical milestone on his time-table: attain a management posture within 18 months. (A management posture accompanies any officially recognized and formally established management position; it could be either staff or line.)

In the event that this intermediate goal is not achieved, Joe will seek a management position in another agency.

IMPLEMENTATION OF STRATEGY

After deciding on a general course of action, Joe was left with the task of translating his strategy into specific terms and then implementing it. He broke down his intermediate goal - moving into the inner circle of management[9]

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[9]The concept of the inner circle of management can best be visualized by thinking of an organization in terms of a three dimensional cone instead of the traditional two dimensional pyramidal organization chart. Schein suggests that this model allows the movement of people through an organization to be analyzed and not just their relative official positions in the hierarchy (1974, pp. 334-337). This movement can occur vertically, circumferentially or radially.

by increasing his sphere of influence - into a five point program.

Do Present Job Well

The worst thing that a man with great aspirations can do is to ignore his current job. Instead, this is the time to redouble efforts to do outstanding work in his present position. It is very important to maintain an image as a winner, a man who has always been successful on every assignment he has had. Sometimes when a man is passed over for promotion, lack of experience is cited; however, the real reason is more likely a lack of successful experience. Although not perfect, past performance is still one of the best indicators of future success (Barnard, 1960, p. 456).

After formulating his career strategy, Joe approached his job with a different perspective. Characteristically, most engineers tend to slough off the responsibilities of budgeting, planning and reporting and become engrossed in technical details. Joe reversed his priorities; he decided to concentrate on the managerial aspects of his job and delegate technical tasks whenever he could.

Vertical movement corresponds to rising in the hierarchy (promotion). Circumferential movement represents a change in function, but at the same level (transfer). Radial movement corresponds to increasing one's influence or power on any given plane.

Joe's strategy is to move toward the axis, i.e., core, of the organization as a means of strengthening his posture vis-a-vis his competition for subsequent advancement to the next higher level.

Joe didn't have any formal authority to delegate these technical tasks. His strategy, therefore, is to increase his quantity of projects and manage them more effectively to be in a position to negotiate for technical assistance.

As straight forward as this strategy is, quite obviously it will be far from easy to accomplish. Joe will have to be able to formulate new ideas for projects, find and persuade a sponsor to fund them and negotiate with management for people who will work "with" (actually for) him. Joe will have to work hard at developing these skills to be successful. But he is on track; he has created the opportunity (necessity) to develop these valuable managerial skills in a real, on-the-job situation.

Learn About All Aspects of Business

In conducting a personal audit, Joe discovered that he had unwittingly become a specialist and had virtually locked out of his mind all those things which did not involve him directly. He now had to reverse this trend and "remove the curse of specialization" (Newcomer, 1955, p. 136).

Part of Joe's strategy is to learn all about his agency's business. He learned some basic information from his organizational analysis. He now had to learn many of the details in each department. He decided to start with the budget and other financial areas. Long-term planning will be next, closely followed by a complete run-down on all of the organization's capabilities and potential areas for new business. He also decided to study those areas which normally receive

little attention. He reasoned that employee development, union relations and policies such as Equal Employment Opportunity were becoming more important. At the very least he felt he ought to know where to find the various regulations and have a rudimentary understanding of them.

Joe's plan to accomplish this part of his strategy was primarily to walk through the various departments and talk to as many different people as he could. Most people are eager to talk about their jobs and problems and are flattered when someone shows interest in them. He would supplement this information by reading internal reports (instead of tossing them aside as he customarily had done).

Unload the Boss

As a corollary to broadening his perspective of the organization, Joe decided to learn about his boss's position. His ultimate objective is, of course, to be ready to take over his job. This strategy is not a threat to his boss. Actually, by having someone ready to take his place, Joe's boss can enhance his own chance for promotion (Van Fleet, 1973, p. 210).

Joe's plan is to become involved in and then assume many of the routine tasks which his boss doesn't really want to take the time to do. In essence Joe will be enriching his boss's job. By relieving him of some of the routine load, Joe will give his boss a chance to think about and plan new things.

Joe's immediate objective is to become one of his boss's key subordinates. His approach is critical. It calls for building a strong working relationship based on mutual trust and respect. Joe must make it crystal clear to his boss that he is not out to undermine his authority in any way. At this stage in Joe's career, his boss is one of the most important men in his professional life. To weaken their relationship in favor of a possible short-term gain could be a fatal tactical error.

Once this rapport has been established, Joe will be ready to implement the next step in his plan. At that point, he will suggest to his boss that certain types of functions could easily be delegated. He will follow up this suggestion by offering to do specific routine tasks. As his boss gains confidence in Joe's ability to perform these duties without perceiving him to be a threat to his position, Joe will be able to increase his involvement. In fact, Joe's boss will probably welcome having an assistant, albeit an unofficial one.

The key to assuming more of his boss's routine and ad hoc duties is to be able to complement his boss's capabilities and primary interests. Joe recognized that his boss did not particularly like to bother with EEO reports, procurement forms, routine meetings or outside speaking activities. Accordingly, Joe's stragegy called for him to learn as much as he could about these activities and then offer to ease their burden from his boss.

Aside from the obvious benefit of improving his managerial image in his organization, being able to assume these managerial duties will provide an excellent opportunity to gain managerial experience in real situations. It will also enable Joe to work toward his objective of moving into the inner circle of power within the organization.

Expand and Broaden Involvement

Part of Joe's strategy is to increase his sphere of influence.[10] To accomplish this goal, he needed to increase his visibility and to broaden his perspective and experience.

It is not always easy to recognize real opportunities. Sometimes they are presented as part of a job that no one else wants. Situations have a strange way of turning around. Seemingly unfavorable or unpleasant assignments can be parlayed into great opportunities and ultimate personal triumphs (Bray, 1974, pp. 104, 107).

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[10]A clarification of terminology and a word of caution are in order. There is a marked difference between increasing one's sphere of influence and empire building. In the former situation, a person is growing in importance to his organization by providing successively more valuable services. His sphere of influence grows as a result of his increasing worth. In the latter case, a man tries to build up the perceived importance of a constant service or fixed function.

Increasing a sphere of influence may be likened to increasing the number of balloons one has, i.e., responsibility. Empire building is analogous to increasing volume, i.e., importance, by blowing up a balloon further. Unfortunately for the empire builders, just as ultimate success is about to be achieved, the balloon bursts (Parkinson, 1957).

A man on the way up will do well to ensure that any increase in stature is based on real responsibility and not just "air".

Recognizing this possibility, Joe decided to get involved in as many different areas and activities as he could. His game plan is to look for opportunities where they don't seem to exist and be willing to do what no one else wants to do.

His first step is to increase involvement in external activities. These areas include participation on committees and professional organizations. This type of work will give him valuable contacts on the outside and enhance his image inside as he helps to build his agency's reputation. These outside contacts also represent a valuable source of information regarding important new developments. Timely information allows the agency to react and take advantage of significant changes. Frequently, it can lead to increased effectiveness or even new business.

Joe's strategy is to establish himself as a major interface and vital link between his agency and its environment. Properly cultivated, this position can become a focal point of information. Intelligently used, it can be a great source of power (Ringer, 1974). Once Joe's reputation as "the man to see" has been established, it will become reinforcing. First, for outsiders Joe becomes their valuable contact at his agency. When they want something, they think of Joe. Second, by knowing what is happening on the outside, Joe becomes a valuable source of information to his own agency as well. Consequently when information is needed he will be thought-of. When this information is provided he will be well thought-of. "The executive who is well thought-of pulls more weight, his ideas go farther, he is more likely

to be asked to participate" (Uris, 1957, p. 41). As a man who "pulls more weight," Joe will be able to obtain more information and increase his value as a focal point.

Joe also will "more likely be asked to participate" in internal matters. By participating on various ad hoc committees and by getting involved in long range planning decisions, Joe will be able to take another big stride toward the "inner circle of management."

Teach

The final part of Joe's strategy is to develop a seminar or lecture series. He sees "it as an opportunity not only to help others but to further his own career" (Farnsworth, 1973, p. 314). It offers three definite benefits. First, it will enable him to polish his planning, organizing and speaking skills. He especially feels there is a great value in becoming an articulate public speaker. Second, it will enable him to learn a great deal more of the subject matter than by just reading about it. Finally, it will establish him as an authority, increase his visibility and enhance his image.

In the event that he could persuade some top-level managers to attend the lectures, he effectively would be in a position to reverse the traditional superior-subordinate roles. Of course this role reversal is only temporary and exists only at the will of the superior. Nevertheless, this experience can help to develop a closer relationship with and an easier access to these key men.

Joe decided to outline a course in employee development based on work he had done in graduate school. He chose this topic because of its broad general interest and because it represented an area of concern to management. His plan called for the parallel development of two similar courses; one would be conducted in-house and one could be offered to some of the local colleges in the form of a guest speaker. His initial thrust would be toward the in-house course. However, the outside course would permit him to develop the program even if he were unable to persuade management to use it in-house.

Joe's plan included expanding his research and then writing a book on the subject. This follow-on effort would increase his credentials as an authority, broaden his visibility and bring credit to his organization.

TACTICS

If a career strategy can be thought of as a plan to achieve certain objectives, then tactics are the application of various methods used to execute the plan. Tactics are the day-to-day activities which help to gain an advantage toward meeting any of the career objectives. The following tactics are presented without elaboration as a series of guiding principles for the executive as he climbs his own ladder toward success.

Seek Responsibility

Assume responsibility

Be willing to take reasonable risks

Accept accountability

Build Support

Gain the support of key people

Get a sponsor

Build mutual trust

Be able to be counted on

Make commitments; live up to them

Make promises; keep them

Treat People Well

Help other people

Respect other people

Cultivate good relations at all levels

Keep Prepared

Keep resume' position description current

Have someone prepared to take over your job

Respect the value of time; be punctual

Prepare for the unexpected; have alternate courses ready for all contingencies

Do your homework!

Write

Consolidate ideas in writing

Document recommendations and positions

Submit articles and papers to professional societies and journals

Keep your name in view of key people

Don't Stagnate

Resist obsolescence

Keep learning

Keep seeking more responsibility

VII. SUMMARY AND IMPLICATIONS OF STUDY

This study represents one attempt to analyze the job and environment of the executive and those factors which appear to be instrumental to executive effectiveness.

One of the biggest difficulties encountered in the study was a general lack of discrimination in the literature between top executives, middle managers and first line supervisors. Some written material was directed toward a specific group, but a substantial body of the literature was about managers or management in general. Many authors did not distinguish between the specific responsibilities, forces and environment of the top executives and those of lower level managers.

The function of the executive remains an elusive coalescence of many diverse factors and elements. The executive does many things and many different things. The nature of his job is characterized by frequent interruption and rapid reaction to a very dynamic environment.

The executive's job defies a universal definition. Although many executives perform similar functions and fulfill similar roles, no two executives do exactly the same things or have the same style. Nor does an executive himself approach a new task as he did in the past. Perhaps the closest that one could come to defining an executive

succinctly is to say that he is a person who provides leadership for an organization and acts as a focal point for all activity within it.

Of the many attributes normally associated with executive success, four qualities stand out as having a direct bearing on executive effectiveness: leadership, outward vision, judgement, and maturity. All of the other desirous characteristics are related to these primary traits and to each other in a circular fashion. The interdependent relationships among these factors preclude a simplistic approach to identifying potential executives by matching desired patterns of basic traits.

Traditionally, executive development and executive success have been considered from the standpoint of top management. Top management wants better executives to manage its organization more effectively. Executive success is attained when management's objectives have been achieved. Executive success doesn't just happen. It must be made to happen. Executives must be developed.

The literature suggests that executive development is self-development and therefore must start with the individual. Top management, however, is responsible for providing a fertile environment in which executive growth can occur. Given a willing individual, management can establish an executive development program for the individual based on both formal training and on-the-job experience.

There is no magical formula for executive development. It starts with basic developable skills which become the tools of the manager. Executive growth begins when these tools are put into practice in real on-the-job situations. Greatest executive growth occurs when tough decisions are made under difficult circumstances and the executive is faced with the consequences of those decisions.

The models of the realationships of executive qualities contained in Appendix B can be used to help plan an executive development program. One can work backwards through the models to grasp how the basic skills relate to the primary functions of the executive. Specific training activities can be designed to help an executive acquire or improve those particular skills required by the individual.

An ambitious individual can formulate a strategy for his own executive growth and success. He can plan for his success and work to that plan just as he would for any other project. The consensus of managerial literature suggests that the best of these plans emphasizes three main activities: assume responsibility, take appropriate risks and accept accountability for results.

APPENDIX A

LISTS OF TRAITS OF SUCCESSFUL EXECUTIVES

Source: Freeman and Motta (1975, p. 12)

Preliminary List

Judgement	Stamina
Ambition	Ability to get power
Intelligence	Ability to keep power
Personality	Ability to make things happen
Honesty	Ability to negotiate
Integrity	Risk-taker
Motivation	Ability to bounce back
Persuasive ability	Common sense
Perseverance	Discretion
Good listener	Ability to develop loyalty
Analytical ability	Confidence
Foresight	Ability to get along with people
Considerate of others	Intellectual curiosity
Regard for timing	Willingness to delegate
Courage	Competitive attitude
Emotionally stable	Perceptive
Good communicator	Have the right people around oneself
Commands respect	Forceful

Source: Freeman and Motta (1975, p. 13)

Consolidated List

The ability to communicate

Decisiveness

Ability to set priorities

Ability to make things happen

Ability to handle stress

Drive

Organization and team development

Intelligence

Ability to obtain and maintain power

Leadership

Human relations

Maturity

Training ability

Ability to formulate policy

Planning capability

Source: Freeman and Motta (1975, p. 13)

Final List

Ability to communicate

Drive

Ability to handle stress

Ability to set priorities

Maturity

Human relations

Decisiveness

Training

Organization and team development

Source: Leshko and Vosseteig (1975, p. 21)

Initial List

Professional and/or technical competence

Stable social life

High stress tolerance

High frustration level

Intuition

Perception

Selective independence

Willingness to try new ideas

Flexibility

Honesty

Integrity

Morality

Motivation

Appreciation of time & timing

Diagnostic ability

Enjoyment of conflict

Ability to communicate; written and verbal

Recognition of own abilities and weaknesses

Innovativeness

Enthusiasm

Healthy, subordinate superior relationship

A strong ego

Above average intelligence

Ability to use power

Ability to negotiate

Concern for resources

High aspirations

High energy levels

Ability to rise to the occasion

Ability to deal with risks and uncertainties

Upward mobility

Ability to develop strategies

Ability to form and follow tactics

Inquisitive mind

Ability to train and develop personnel

Common sense

Confidence

Ability to set priorities

Survival instinct

Foresight

Source: Leshko and Vosseteig (1975, p. 23)

Consolidated List

Upward mobility

Decision making capability

Communicative ability

Innovativeness

Ability to manage time

Psychic, Ego, status

Health

Rewarding family and social life

Job security

Mobility

Ability under stress

Reaction to conflict

Desire for power

Intuition

Personality

Leadership ability

Intelligence

Planning capability

Courage to commit resources

Source: Leshko and Vosseteig (1975, p. 50)

Final List

Decision making capability

Innovativeness

Ability to manage time

Communicative ability

Psyche / Status

Mobility

Rewarding family life

Job security

Health

Source: Houston (1964, pp. 89-90)

Ability to diagnose

Ability to project

Ability to inspire and motivate

Ability to integrate work of individuals

Ability to communicate

Ability to contribute to learning of subordinates

Ability to make timely and quality decisions

Source: Smythe and McMullan (1975)

Communication

Decision making ability

Imagination / Creativity

Motivation / Agressiveness

Risk taker

Human relation skills

Flexibility

Source: Judson (1966, p. 168)

Intelligence

Imagination

A mind that is analytical and logical

Sensitivity to and consideration for the needs of others

Ability to be a good listener

Skill in communications, particularly oral

Skill in persuasion

Personal objectivity and detachment with respect to the change

Personal flexibility and adaptability in approach to the change

Understanding of special role requirements during periods of change

Source: Booze, Allen & Hamilton

(Packard, 1962, p. 148)

Performs well in present position

Drive

Intellectual ability (judgement)

Leadership

Administrative skills

Initiative

Motivation

Creativeness

Source: Professor William Gormbley

Director, Harvard Advanced Management Program

(Packard, 1962, p. 148)

Bright

Get along with people

Drive

Have goals

Make the most of what they get

Not content to sit still

Source: Chris Argyris

(Packard, 1962, p. 150)

Exhibits high tolerance for frustration

Encourages full participation

Continually asks questions

Understands rules of competitive warfare

Expresses hostility tactfully

Accepts both victories and setbacks with controlled emotions

Can snap out of defeat

Source: Packard (1962, pp. 155-171)

Ability to maintain a high level of thrust

Ability to be deft in handling people

Ability to marshal a competent mind against the problems peculiar to executives

Ability to communicate - and perhaps originate - ideas

Ability to respond to provocation objectively and effectively

Ability to enjoy organizing and running large projects

Ability to generate confidence

Source: Albers (1961, pp. 530-536)

Organizational and social skills

(Greater feeling of personal attachment toward supervisors than subordinates)

Decision making skills

(Willing to make decisions under circumstances that would put others into a quandary)

Communication skills

(Speak and write effectively)

Motivation skills

(Work effectively under frustrating conditions and take defeat without a feeling of being "washed-up")

Leadership skills

Source: Newcomer (1955, p. 135)

Work effectively with people

Make decisions

Accept responsibility

Understand basic forces in society

Understand objectives clearly

Source: Bittel (1972, p. 1)

Acquire a discerning point of view

Follow an effective mode of action

Employ a sensitive touch in interpersonal relationships

Source: Davis (1962, p. 41)

Speak well

Write well

Listen well

Think clearly

Think with imagination

Profit from mistakes

Remember well

Simplify jobs

Tie up loose ends

Rise above boredom

Source: Black (1957)

Leadership

Firm grasp of technical aspects

Skill in human relations

Courage to make decisions

Ability to sell ideas

Teaching ability

Source: Flory (1971)

Make sound judgements

Get along with people

Understand people

Meet the vicissitudes of life with composure

Plan and organize

Delegate

Manage others

Act vigorously

Communicate effectively

Blend all action with finesse

Source: Royal Bank of Canada Monthly Letter (1971)

Common sense

Intellegent

Judgement

Temperate

Drive

Leadership

Strength of purpose

Broad education

Willingness to make personal sacrifices

Self confident

Self reliant

Emotionally stable

Responsible

Dreamer

Originator

Effective communicator

Good listener

Cooperative

Patient

Modest

Enjoys work

Open mind

Source: Dun's Review (1964)

Ability to handle complex situations

Broad working knowledge in scientific fields

Well-rounded education

"Feel"

Quick responses

Ability to make decisions just on key information

Diplomacy in dealing with people

Ability to delegate

Source: Moses (1973, p. 122)

Manage time effectively

Organize effectively

Delegate effectively

Make effective decisions

Handle people skillfully

Be motivated

Identify with purpose of business

Source: Riegel (1952, pp. 103-105)

Healthy and high vitality

Knowledgeable

Imaginative

Original

Resourceful

Analytical capability

Sound judgement

Decisive

Ambitious

Willingness to accept responsibility

Initiative

Emotionally stable

Dependable

Cooperative

Character

Integrity

Ability to coordinate

Source: Uris (1970, pp. 105-106, 177-178)

High level of energy

Drive

Dedication

Competitiveness

Honesty

Realism

Maturity

Ability to handle multiple pressures

Charisma

Source: Van Dersal (1975, p. 58)

Does well in present job

Has qualities of:

- Enthusiasm
- Initiative
- Imagination
- Patience
- Good humor
- Emotionally mature
- Good judgement
- Common sense

Asks questions

Conveys ideas clearly

Has broad interests

Gets along well with:

- Peers
- Subordinates
- Supervisors

Source: Barnard (1960, p. 443)

Vitality

Endurance

Decisiveness

Persuasiveness

Responsibility

Intellectual capacity

Source: Granade (1975, pp. 16-17)

Perception

(The ability to analyze a situation and identify the variables)

Planning and control

(The ability to plan, coordinate and control the efforts of a work group)

Leadership

(The ability to deal with people individually and as a group, encouraging desirable behavior and extinguishing undesirable behavior)

Source: Field-Marshal Sir William Slim

Former Governor General of Australia

(Tannenbaum, Weschler and Massarik, 1961, pp. 427-428)

Courage

Will power

Flexibility of mind

Knowledge

Integrity

Source: Development Dimensions, Inc.

Bittel (1975, p. 4)

Written communication skill

Initiative and creativity

Stress tolerance

High work standards

Sensitivity toward others

Independence of thought and action

Planning and organizing

Management control and follow-up

Delegation

Problem analysis

Judgement

Decisiveness

Source: Strauss and Sayles (1972, p. 492)

Moves rapidly from job to job

(Both interorganizationally and intraorganizationally)

Flexible

Realistic

Sensitive to complexities of work environment

Seeks risk

Handles critical assignments

Has a sponsor

Copies values of superiors

Is not concerned with pleasing subordinates and peers

Source: Nation's Business

(Getty, 1971, pp. 94-95)

Ability to be flexible and adapt to accelerated change

Ability to be imaginative and to innovate

Proficiency in controlling and reducing expenses

Ability to mobilize and motivate men

Skill in coordinating and correlating forces within and outside the company

Source: Fortune

(Getty, 1971, p. 94)

Initiative

Assumption of responsibility

Leadership

Job knowledge

Skill

Dependability

Thoroughness

Follow-through

Getting along with people

Stability under pressure

Fine personal qualities

Good work habits

Source: Getty (1971, p. 109)

Intelligence

Initiative

Interest

Integrity

Imagination

Leadership ability

Loyalty

Energy

Enthusiasm

Source: Ranftl (1976)

Competent at staffing

Directs organization's efforts effectively

Competent at handling complexities and problems and in dealing with new concepts

Skillful Communicator

Supports and guides subordinates in their work performance and in their professional development

Effective leader

Source: Van Fleet (1970)

Character

Power of decision

Wisdom to plan and order

Courage to act

Capacity to manage

Source: Campbell et al (1970, pp. 207-208)

Effective intelligence

Personal soundness

Drive and ambition

Leadership and dominance

Likeableness

Responsibility and conscientiousness

Ability to cooperate

Potential

Source: Ghiselli (1971, p. 32)

Supervisory ability

Intelligence

Initiative

Self-assurance

Decisiveness

Masculinity - Femininity

Working class affinity

Need for occupational status

Need for power over others

Need for high financial reward

Need for job security

Source: Marks (1976, p. 37)

Know-how

Confidence

Real interest

Hard work

Positive thinking

Adaptability

High aspirations

Commitment

Competitive attitude

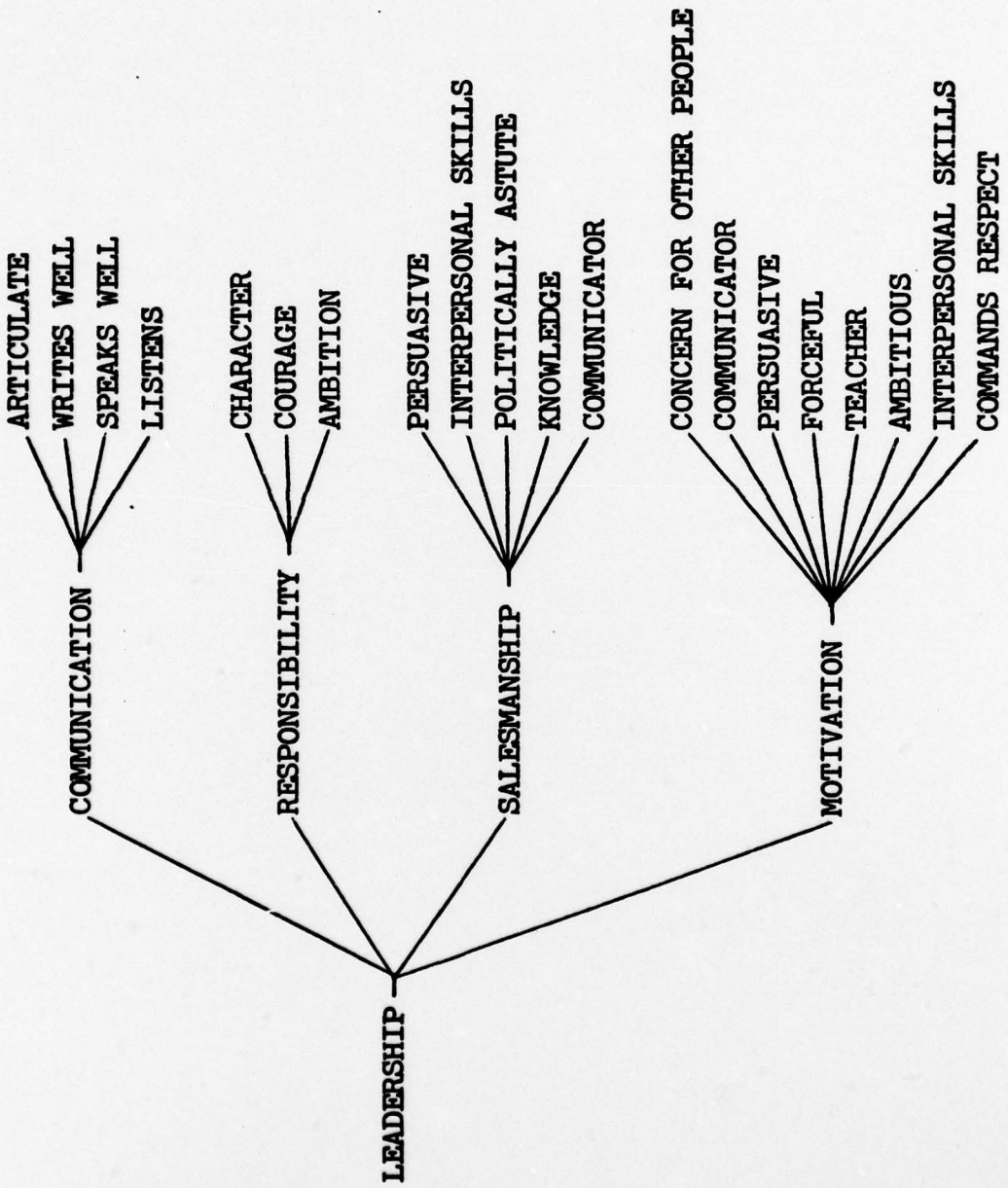
Leadership

Verbal skills

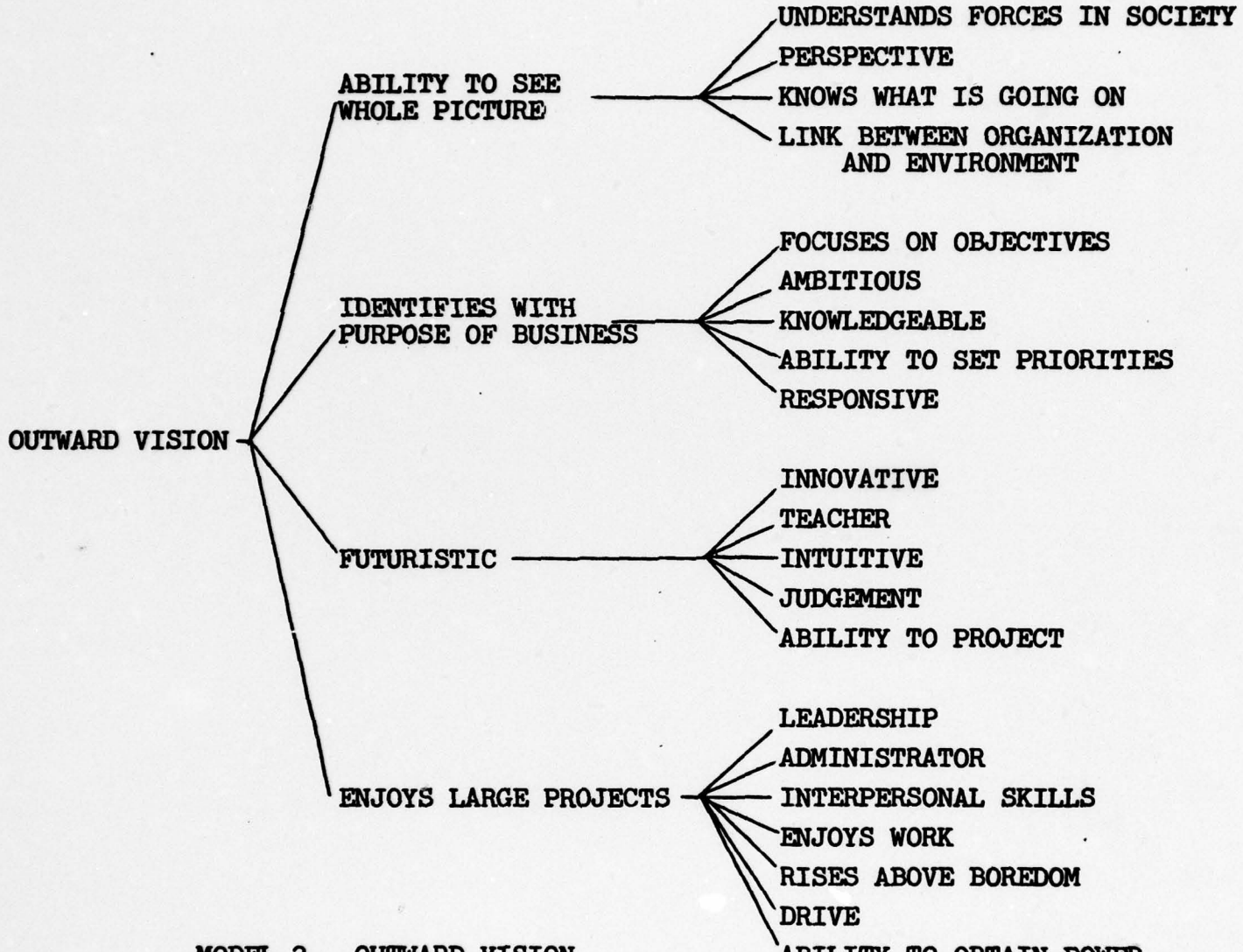
Concentration

APPENDIX B

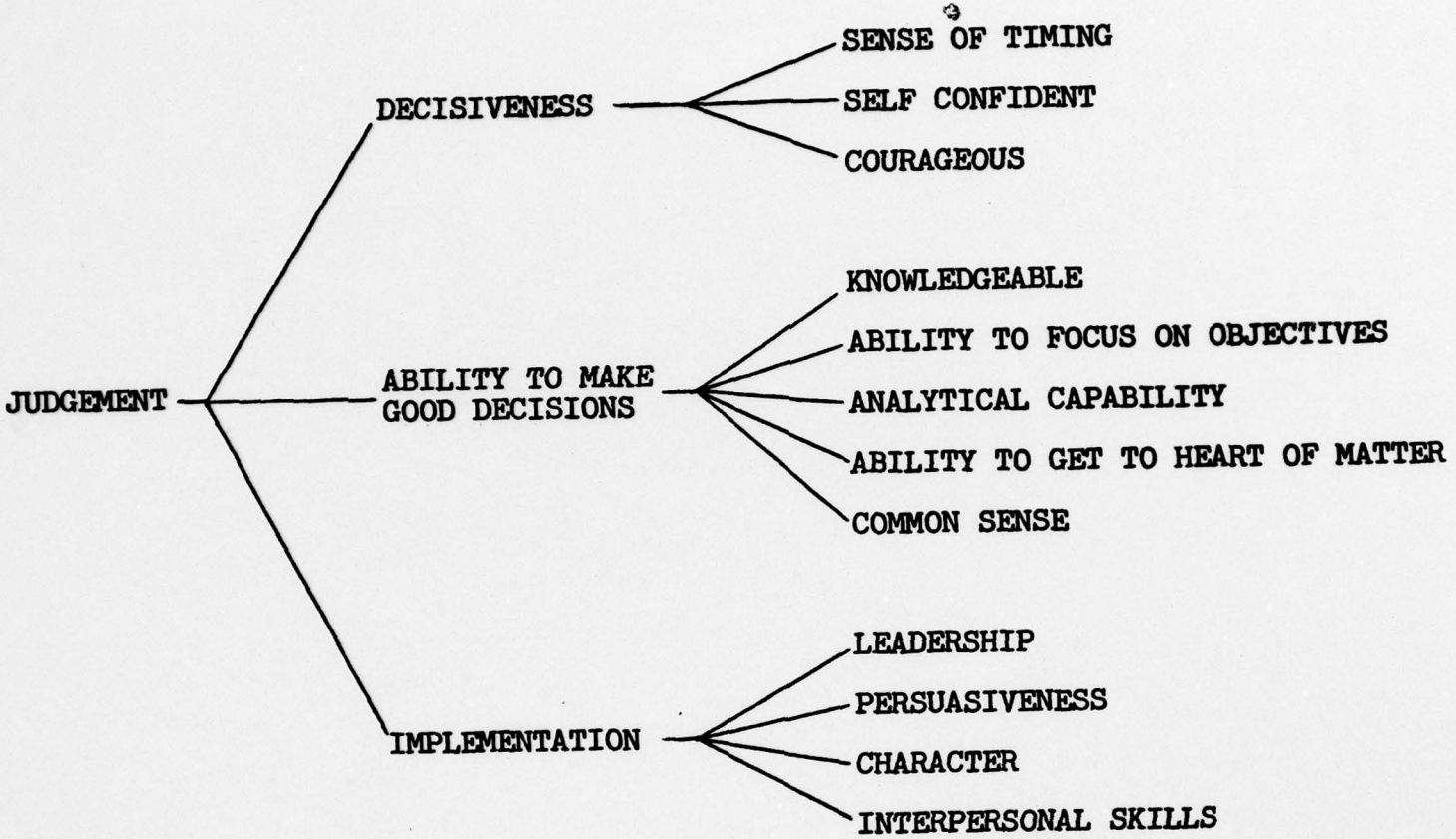
THE INTERRELATIONSHIP OF THE QUALITIES OF THE SUCCESSFUL EXECUTIVE



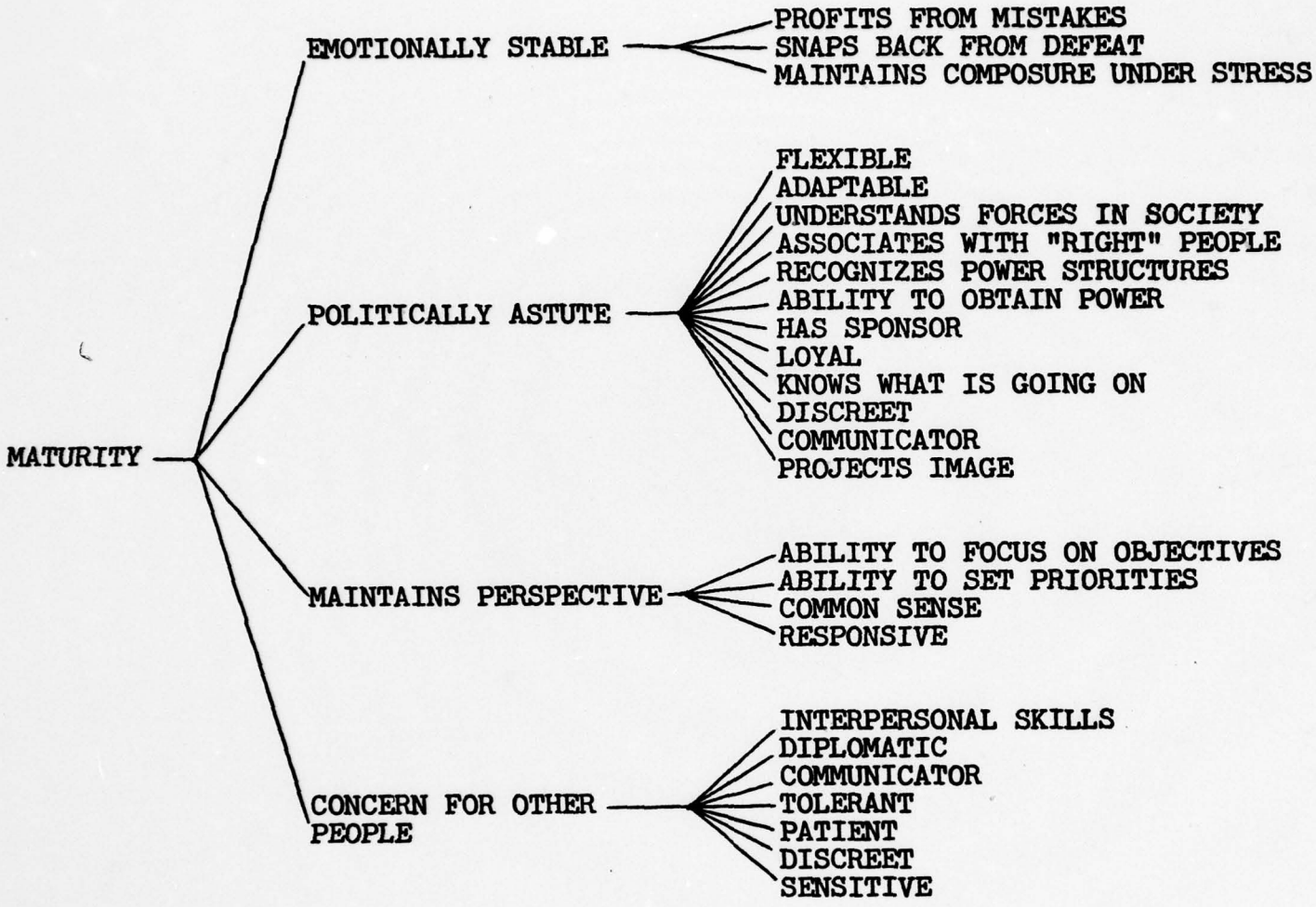
MODEL 1. LEADERSHIP



MODEL 2. OUTWARD VISION



MODEL 3. JUDGEMENT



MODEL 4. MATURITY

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