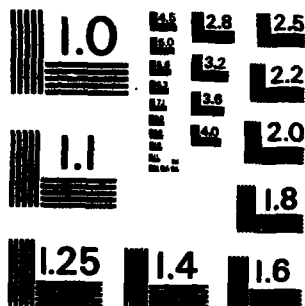


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20. ABSTRACT (Continue on reverse side if necessary and identify by block number) Three-hundred fifty (350) major leadership studies were obtained, reviewed, and evaluated. Of these research contributions, 125 were directly referred to for their conceptual, theoretical, practical, and statistical values. Each investigation identified specific leadership characteristics considered constant and dominant for Americans. This review of the research represents the combined expertise, efforts and professional dedication of numerous behaviorists, each of whom made definitive contributions to the perceptions, understanding and recog-			

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The major findings of this research review identified six categories consisting of 12 prominent characteristics which have directly reflected national perceptions of the leadership characteristics possessed by successful leaders in all organizational environments. The six categories were found to be: physical, social background, intelligence and ability, personality, task-related variables, and social factors. The 12 appendaged leadership characteristics supported by the evaluation of the data indicated that successful leaders are above average in energy and activity, appearance and grooming, education (scholarship), social status, intelligence, fluency of speech, self-confidence, personal integrity, achievement, responsibility, administrative ability, and interpersonal relations skills.

Some weak leadership characteristics, i.e., those appearing not to be specifically associated with national perceptions of leadership were factors identified as: age, height, weight, adaptability, control, extroversion, strength of conviction, tolerance of stress, persistence, attractiveness, popularity and prestige.

Variations or differences reported in leadership style were interpreted to be affected by national boundaries as opposed to cultural boundaries. This was translated to mean that national boundaries appear to determine the consequence to understanding leadership, whereas cultural boundaries were viewed to impact on values, sentiments, ideals, language, and role models. In addition, attributes associated with black leadership were to be found only in personal values. And, there were no clear boundaries marking the black culture off from the dominant caucasian influence. Lastly, the research review did not discern a clear pattern of trait difference in male-female leadership style. Women, once accepted or legitimized, were found not to behave differently than men in leadership positions.

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LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS 1900-1982

by

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ABSTRACT

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Three-hundred fifty (350) major leadership studies were obtained, reviewed, and evaluated. Of these research contributions, 125 were directly referred to for their conceptual, theoretical, practical, and statistical values. Each investigation identified specific leadership characteristics considered constant and dominant for Americans. This review of the research represents the combined expertise, efforts and professional dedication of numerous behaviorists, each of whom made definitive contributions to the perceptions, understanding and recognition of both strong and weak leadership characteristics prevalent in the American culture since 1900.

The major findings of this research review identified six categories consisting of 12 prominent characteristics which have directly reflected national perceptions of the leadership characteristics possessed by successful leaders in all organizational environments. The six categories were found to be: physical, social background, intelligence and ability, personality, task-related variables, and social factors. The 12 appendaged leadership characteristics supported by the evaluation of the data indicated that successful leaders are above average in energy and activity, appearance and grooming, education (scholarship), social status, intelligence, fluency of speech, self-confidence, personal integrity, achievement, responsibility, administrative ability, and interpersonal relations skills.

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CONCEPTS OF LEADERSHIP

Since the time of Adam and Eve, man has been fascinated with the concept and study of leadership. It has been exemplified in ancient and classical writings. Machiavelli's guide to effective leadership, The Prince, formed the basis for modern research. It is both a universal phenomenon and an ancient art differing only in the space of time and cultures. Leadership is experienced by all people at all ages and on all strata. It has been the most observed, discussed, and written about phenomenon in the history of mankind. Yet, it is a phenomenon rarely understood. One definition of leadership is that it is an art which directs and moves human resources toward the attainment of accepted goals and objectives. There are, of course, as many interpretations of leadership as there are individuals wrestling with and defining the concept.

As a focus of group process, leadership is viewed as being held by persons having abilities greater than those of the group being led. A leader is seen as being central to the group much like a hub is to the spokes of a wheel. The leader is the focal point, the center of interest, importance and activity. People, as with spokes, are the braces or bars extending between the hub (leader) and the wheel's rim (objective). These people have motives and needs which influence leadership to meet group demands. The leader's mission, in relation to the group, is to organize and direct the abilities and energies of the group toward the attainment of desired objectives. And, although a leader

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may have centrality of location within the group; experience direct linkages, i.e., relationships with subordinates; and be the hub of communications -- the position of centralization alone is not considered leadership. The legitimation of leadership roles is granted by another's perception of a person's right to function as the leader.

Leadership effects group actions interactions. It emerges in interpersonal relations at a time when common purposes are identified and compliance is voluntary. Unless conferred or acknowledged by those who will accept subordinate roles, leadership will not emerge. People accept others in leadership roles because they want to and for no other reason. For example, imagine a passenger airline crash landed onto a snow filled mountain top, far from civilization. The passengers are stranded. The communications system has been knocked out, and once experienced comfort and warmth are non-existent. Survival becomes the major objective of all. Everyone in that downed plane is now equal in status -- without exception! No one person is in command, not even the pilot. But someone will emerge as the leader. And that person will be one who is influenced by the plight and needs of the rest; one who the rest will recognize and accept as being more capable and knowledgeable; one whose expertise can get them back to safety. The manifestation of this form of leadership is the result of the group interaction process.

Another form of leadership is persuasion. It has been regarded as a method of convincing others to cooperate, i.e., to voluntarily expend physical and mental energies toward the achievement of common objectives (Koontz and O'Donnel 1955). Further, it has been thought as being management by inspiration (Shenk 1928), and emotional appeal (Cleeton and Mason 1934) as opposed to intimidation, force, threat, or coercion.

Leadership also implies influencing behavioral change. This form of leadership has been called attempted leadership by Hass (1960). He suggested that a followers actual change of behavior by a leader is termed successful leadership. Further, if reinforcement theory is used to change followership behavior, "this evoked achievement is effective leadership."

The acculturation or emergence of follower abilities by a leader is leadership as an instrument of goal achievement. The needs of followers are satisfied when they are stimulated or motivated to economically attain goals.

Other leadership theories are centered around power relations, the degree of force a leader can induce on a follower; personality, interpreted as a one way influence effect; behavior, a mixation of leadership acts designed to organize and activate work situations; compliance, an instrumentality theory for molding followers to the leader's will; role differentiation, a role relationship to others; and the initiation and maintenance of structure, the

process of organizing and maintaining role structure.

This brief introduction to leadership views as presented does not exhaust the myriad of leadership concepts theorized over the centuries. However, they are the most prevalent. They refer only to the concept of leadership and not to the multi-traits, topics or theories of group, institutional, and organizational leadership. Leaders by their very positions and obvious visibility have an ethical obligation of being an example of correct behavior. Proper examples lead followers to correct actions. Therefore, leaders must expect their behavior to exemplify the ethical standards and values of his/her culture. They must possess the characteristics of leadership which sets the tone and esprit de corps. Alone, a leader is nothing. To have a following they must possess those characteristics valued by the members of the culture they are elected or appointed to lead. The conceptions of leadership characteristics are examined fully in the following section.

LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS
1900-1982
UNITED STATES ARMY TRANSPORTATION CORPS
UNITED STATES ARMY TRANSPORTATION SCHOOL

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BACKGROUND

America's early Twentieth Century leadership studies interpreted and characterized leaders as male persons possessing established inheritances and unusual wealth. The very nature of their birth within financially entrenched families was said to manifest superior qualities and abilities which differentiated them from the main stream of common folk. The search to identify specific leadership qualities engulfed the thinking of the next two generations of researchers, but with limited success. The 1940's produced three major research studies initiated by Bird (1940), Jenkins (1947), and Stogdill (1948). Bird, understanding the analyzation of twenty research investigations, discovered seventy-five leadership characteristics. Of these, only intelligence was significantly correlated with measures of leader effectiveness. W. O. Jenkins, in a separate review of seventy-four military studies, determined there was little agreement as to the abilities characterizing leaders. However, he did conclude that leadership was specific to the (military) situation (Bass 1981). Stogdill in his analysis of 124 trait studies complimented Jenkins' view by reporting that leadership characteristics appear to change with the situation. Therefore, since leadership characteristics have been viewed as changing in a similar fashion as situations, and/or are specific to a situation,

said characteristics experiencing the change process are best identified as personal skills emanating from within the person.

Although pre-1950 leadership reviews interpreted or embraced leadership as being situational in origin, consideration of personal skill predictors and qualities are necessary. The human element has never been monodimensional, it is multidimensional. The behavioral qualities and skills enabling a corporal to gain and maintain control over a squad of soldiers are not the same as those enabling a commissioned officer to gain and maintain a larger command. Yet, certain general qualities -- such as courage, fortitude, and conviction -- appear to characterize both. R. D. Mann's study of small group leadership (1959) supports the conclusion that successful leaders are somewhat more competent than those they lead. Competency, i.e., skills, knowledge or intelligence (IQ) tends to be a major variable contributing to effective leadership.

At this juncture, a comparative enumeration of Stogdill's 1970 survey results based on 163 studies of leadership characteristics is presented. These studies (1948 & 1970) provide positive (confidence at the .05 level) as well as negative (insignificant) relationships.

Statistically, in these studies, a positive or significant relationship is interpreted to mean that either (1) a given

characteristic experiences a significant correlation with another measure of leader effectiveness; (2) a leadership sample significantly differs from a sample of followers on the measured characteristic; (3) an effective leadership sample is shown to differ rather significantly from an ineffective leadership sample on the characteristic; or (4) a high-status leadership sample may indicate significant differences on a characteristic measured against a sample of lower-status leaders. For example, military studies have indicated that senior officers possess different leadership characteristics than junior officers.

The discussion following Tables 1-6 is broken down into clusters of individual leadership characteristics emanating from the previously mentioned surveys conducted during 1948 and 1970. These surveys represent the evaluation of major research data since 1900. Additional contributions in leadership research to 1981 are credited to Bernard M. Bass, Professor of Organizational Behavior at the State University of New York, Binghamton. Each table introduces a major leadership characteristic along with related factors of that variable. Columns 1, 2, and 3 are respectively identified as positive (significant), zero or negative, and positive only under the calendar dates 1948 and 1970. The tables allow for a systematic comparison of

the leadership characteristics of research to 1948 and 1970.

LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS

TABLE 1*
Physical Characteristics
(Total Number of Findings)

	1948	Zero or Neg	1970
	Positive 1		Positive Only 3
Activity, Energy	5		24
Age	10	8	6
Appearance, Grooming	13	3	4
Height	9	4	
Weight	7	4	

*Source: Tables 1 through 6 are adapted from Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership, Revised and Expanded Edition by Bernard M. Bass

Activity, Energy: The measure of physical characteristic activity, energy indicates both positive and positive only findings in the 1948 and 1970 surveys. The 1970 survey (24 findings) shows a greater concern with this particular factor than it did in the 1948 survey (5 findings). These findings suggest that individuals endowed with a greater or higher degree of activity, energy tend to be considered the most successful leaders.

Age: In looking at the age variable, a complicated relationship over the years is noted. As it stands, it appears that the

times, setting and/or the situation might well contribute to the age in leadership factor. Research conducted by Lehman (1953) and Cox (1926) reported that great men and women experienced outstanding successes relatively early in life; special education and training aside. However, these personages represent a minute percentage of the population in general. They also possess creative talents that are considered more effective in small organizational environments. Larger organizations, such as the U. S. Army, require individuals who have attained organizational and administrative knowledge from experience and age. But, as Table 1 indicates, age in our modern society tends to have a minimal impact on leadership.

Reviewing this phenomenon back in 1920 Kohs and Irle conducted a longitudinal study of 116 college students electing an Army career. The results were that correlations between rank and ratings ranged from .11 to .39. It was reported that the predictive criteria for success in the Army were estimates of potential value to the Army and estimates of intelligence. These estimates were correlated .11 with Army rank. Academic scholarship was not a predictor. Army Research Institute studies (1979) have shown that careerists experiencing on-going training demonstrate success in leadership activities throughout their military career. The results emanating from studies concerned with

physical characteristics indicated a low positive correlation between leadership and such variables as physique, age, and dominance.

Appearance and Grooming: Measures of appearance and grooming showed both positive and negative findings in the 1948 survey; however, evidence indicates that there is a possible relationship between appearance and leadership. Dunkerley's (1940) study stressed that first impressions, neat appearance and good grooming, contributes to the selection of a leader. A correlation of .81 between appearance ratings and leadership status was found by Patridge (1934). And Tryon's (1939) study reported that appearance is closely associated with male rather than female leadership.

Height and Weight: The variables height and weight were not considered an advantage in achieving leadership status as much as they once were. This shifting of values, inclusive of such factors as club memberships, fraternities, etc., is indicative of a changing society that has replaced mid-century standards and values with those a sophisticated, technologically advanced society can be comfortable with.

TABLE 2
Social Background
(Total Number of Findings)

	1948		1970
	Positive	Zero or Neg	Positive Only
	1	2	3
Education	22	5	14
Social Status	15	2	19
Mobility	5		6

Education: Table 2 shows that the acquisition of education retains its prominent place as one of the major factors in achieving leadership positions. Since World War II greater emphasis has been placed on the necessity of becoming formally educated. Now, as industry and government continue to feel the effects of affirmative action, greater cross-cultural strides in upward mobility can be expected to increase. This upward climb by emerging cultures will identify large numbers of submerged leaders who, because of previously held social, religious, and ethnic prohibitions, were prevented from surfacing.

Social Status: Social status continues to influence, to a large degree, the acquisition of positions of leadership. However, values associated with acquired status have changed according to the accepted values of their times. For example, up to 1934 political leadership (58%) rested in the hands of descendents of

professionals, proprietors of major corporations, and those who held official occupations (Matthews 1954). Whereas, as indicated by the Newcomer (1955) and Scientific American (1965) studies, a greater portion of post-WWII corporate, military leadership has had its origins rooted in poorer and middle income groups.

Mobility: The mobility factor appears to have changed little over the decades; that is, upward mobility has, to a considerable degree, retained its posture in that it is seen to depend upon being at the right place at the right time. Kipnis' (1964) study reported that job satisfaction increased one's upward mobility expectations. On the other hand downward mobility (Lindzey and Kalnins (1958)) has been associated with low work, task, group, and self-satisfaction.

Bass (1981) has indicated that "...the most significant conclusions to be drawn from surveys of social background factors are that (1) high socioeconomic status is an advantage in attaining leadership status; (2) leaders who rise to high level positions at present tend to come from lower socioeconomic strata of society than they did a half century ago; and (3) they tend to be better educated now than formerly."

TABLE 3
Intelligence and Ability
(Total Number of Findings)

	1948		1970
	Positive 1	Zero or Neg 2	Positive Only 3
Intelligence	23	10	25
Fluency of Speech	13		15
Knowledge	11		12
Judgment, Decisiveness	9		6

Intelligence: Of the studies conducted prior to 1948 (Table 3), seventeen made reference to a rather sizeable overlapping of intelligence test scores. These findings indicated that superior intelligence could not be considered an absolute requirement for leadership. But, the trend of the data did show that the status of leadership was specifically related to superiority in intelligence. Further, the 1970 survey, reviewing twenty-five research investigations, clearly indicated positive relations existing between ability, leadership, and intelligence.

Hollingworth (1926) reported that leaders are likely to be more intelligent than those they lead. His investigations of IQ indicated that in groups averaging an IQ of 100, the leader falls in the 115-130 IQ range. In addition, persons with higher IQ's, namely 160, have greater difficulty leading a group whose average IQ is 100. A leader having an IQ of 160 increases the probability that

his/her communication (verbal proficiency) will not be comprehended with a lower achieving group. But, a person of such high calibre is more likely to experience success leading higher achieving groups averaging an IQ of 130 or better.

Also, it appears from these earlier studies that a necessary condition for group leadership is similarity in interests, goals, motives, and patterns of behavior. Research indicates that when these variables compliment each other, leadership experiences success. Therefore, in the leadership selection process, a candidates' IQ score should be considered prior to actual selection. To experience cost effective, productive leadership, the potential leader's IQ score would be slightly above the mean score of the group s/he is to lead. McCuen (1929) reported that followers prefer to be lead by a person of average intelligence; more specifically, one that is not too far detached from the average intelligence of their immediate group.

Stogdill (1948) noted that extreme discrepancies of intelligence between leaders and followers work against the exercise. Supporting that finding, and those of Hollingworth (1926) and McCuen (1929), Ghiselli (1963) discovered that persons attaining both high and low IQ scores are less likely to acquire success in leadership (management) roles than those with IQ scores at an intermediate level.

Fluency of Speech: In addition to intelligence, leaders are further identified by their fluency of speech (Harville 1969), knowledge (Moore and Smith 1953), and superior judgment (Sarachek 1968). Table 3 indicates that the 1970 survey of 163 studies support those reviewed in the 1948 survey. The results indicated that the development of communications skills -- oral and written -- contribute largely to leadership success.

Knowledge: This factor, an acquisition of training, skills development and application, and experience, continues to be reported in all major research studies as a major factor in leadership, especially effective decision making.

TABLE 4
Personality
(Total Number of Findings)

	1948		1970	
	Positive 1	Zero or Neg 2	Positive 3	Only
Self-Confidence	17		28	
Personal Integrity, Ethical Conduct	6		9	
Originality, Crea- tivity	7		13	

Personality: The personality variables self-confidence, personal integrity and originality, creativity (Table 4) express positive

findings in both the 1948 and 1970 leadership surveys. The noted differences between each of these major research reviews are that the studies reported in the 1970 survey were conducted among actual "working," that is, "real world" populations. Whereas, the previous survey (1948) tended to be reviews of research investigations conducted among school children, college students, club members and homogeneous groupings. The conclusion from Table 4 is that personality characteristics differentiated, to an impressionable degree, leaders from followers, the successful from the unsuccessful, and the high level achievers from the lower level. These data suggest that personality characteristics independently determine leadership effects, i.e., different levels of leadership can be identified by the degree said characteristics are exhibited.

Self-Confidence: Researchers (Buttgereit 1932, Moore 1932, and Zeleny 1939) uncovering data on the relationship of self-confidence to leadership reported in their findings that leaders rate much higher than their subordinates on this variable. Self-esteem, i.e., esteem of one's own special talents, including the ability to measure them correctly, received an equally high rating. Both of these variables manifested correlation coefficients of .12-.59 indicating that leaders exceed the ratings

of their followers. Cox (1926) found that exceptional military leaders and statesmen are characterized by their eagerness and quest for notoriety. Further, these findings infer that leaders are persons who are not handicapped by an excessive degree of modesty (Bass 1981).

Integrity: Integrity of character is a leadership factor long associated with a sound, uncompromising adherence to an accepted code of moral values. Cox's (1926) and Carlson's (1942) studies indicated that this variable experiences positive associations with eminent leadership in maturity. Both personal integrity and ethical conduct are qualities which have experienced positive findings in the 1948 and 1970 surveys (Table 4). Successful leaders in industrial and military environments have, for over a century, placed a significantly high value on a strong social and moral code of ethical behavior.

Originality, Creativity: Studies central to the leadership characteristics originality and creativity are rather sparse; however, correlation coefficients gleaned from the 1948 leadership survey are impressive. Research conducted by Bellingrath (1930), Drake (1944), Flemming (1935), and Webb (1915) reported correlation coefficients ranging from .38 to .70. These leadership qualities have maintained a position second only to the once vogue popularity variable.

TABLE 4a
Personality
(Total Number of Findings)

	1948		1970
	Positive 1	Zero or Neg 2	Positive Only 3
Adaptability	10		
Adjustment, Normality			11
Alertness	6		4
Aggressiveness, Assertiveness			12
Alertness	6		4
Ascendancy, Dominance	11	6	31
Emotional Balance, Control	11	8	14
Enthusiasm			3
Extroversion	5	6	1
Independence, Non- conformity			13
Objectivity, Tough- Mindedness			7
Resourcefulness			7
Strength of Conviction	7		
Tolerance of Stress			9

The personality characteristics listed in Table 4a are those which appeared most often in the 1948 and 1970 surveys. These factors or characteristics are considered weak leadership traits as compared to those discussed in Table 4. The variables ascendancy, emotional balance, and extroversion showed both positive and negative findings suggesting major differences in the personality found in one type of leader or another. The remaining factors did not, unfortunately, provide a clear picture

of positive personality traits sufficient enough to be considered major leadership indicators.

TABLE 5
Task-Related Characteristics
(Total Number of Findings)

	1948		1970
	Positive 1	Zero or Neg 2	Positive Only 3
Achievement Drive, Desire to Excel	7		21
Responsibility	12		17

Achievement: Rubenowitz (1962) and Nelson (1963) complemented the findings of existing studies indicating that leaders exhibit higher degrees of task orientation than followers. An item with an overall correlation with every leadership study is achievement, i.e., the desire to excel. Data supports the view that successful leaders are characterized by a high need for achievement (n.Ach). Leaders, to attain positive results from set objectives, must provide structure to subordinates; because subordinates will unquestionably seek clarification of the task's path to its goal. Bass (1960) reported that task orientation was seen as a characteristic of persons who in social settings "will (try) hardest to help obtain the group's goal, solve its problems, overcome

barriers preventing the successful completion of the group's tasks, and persist at ... assignments." Further, projective measures (McClelland 1966, 1969; and McClelland and Winter 1969) supported the major premise that a high n.Ach is an important value for leaders.

Although an abundance of research evidence indicates that leaders achieve higher than average scholarship than followers, and they are more intelligent than those they lead, a very interesting phenomenon remains in that an extraordinary number of individuals of superior intelligence and accomplishment do not occupy positions of leadership. The bulk of the correlation coefficients gleaned from research indicated that factors associated with leadership status are multicomplex. For example, Blass (1954) found, in reviewing the effects of esteem and competence, that individuals rated most competent by superordinates received increased personal contacts from others, but interacted socially less than the least competent. Bass (1960) discovered that people are more likely to interact with those like themselves and those they value -- and only when mutual esteem is rewarding will interaction increase. High frequencies of interaction, according to Klaus and Bass (1981) correlate with satisfaction and leadership effectiveness, but not with subordinates' judgments of a leader's trustworthiness or ability to inform.

Research, in general, indicates that more competent individuals tend to not only interact with those of equal competence but limit, to the point of exclusion, interactions with those who are less competent. Where then, do those of superior intelligence and accomplishment fit in? Are they the magnets to whom the less competent are drawn in their search for problem solutions? Are they the true leaders, the guiding lights active behind the scenes? Or, are they simply knowledge resources to be drawn upon and used at the will and whim of power structures? Do the most competent view leadership differently? Are they outside the main stream?

Evidence has shown (Stogdill 1948, 1951, 1968) that to be a successful leader, the leader should not be too far removed, intellectually, from those s/he leads. Since that proves to be the case, those with superior intelligence, knowledge, scholarship, and accomplishment should be found closest to the pinnacle (flagpole) of the hierarchy -- or at least function at the upper levels of their stratum. It is from these strata that they provide solutions to the less knowledgeable or competent; they are the leadership magnets to whom all eyes look up. Their knowledge is a marketable resource, exchanged for rather lucrative benefits. Their style of leadership is all encompassing. For them, leadership takes on a global perspective. They

are the main stream, the guiding force who directs those who voluntarily or involuntarily carry out required tasks. In the final analysis, it is safe to say, the most competent influences and fashions the direction of all organizations with persistence, whether they be social, economic, military or political. The most successful leaders are to be found in the most respected, successful organizations.

Knowledge: Other factors associated with achievement are knowledge and scholarship. The results of knowledge studies indicated that individuals chosen as leaders are those who know how to get things done. Said persons are differentiated from followers by their intensity of application and industry. Bass (1981), in his review of "The Leader as a Person" concluded that abilities ascribed to leaders were intelligence and practical knowledge relative to the position or situation for which they were chosen.

Scholarship: Scholarship was mentioned (page 5) as a leadership characteristic not fully predictive of success in a military career. This statement was made on the basis of the magnitude of correlation coefficients gleaned from pre-1948 research conducted in primarily non-adult educational environments, and data acquired from non-published military leadership studies. Although the results of these research activities

indicated that scholarship variables accounted for only a fraction of the total complex of factors associated with leadership status (Bass 1981), the entertainment of this premise by contemporary researchers is viewed as unreliable and totally unfounded. Research conducted within and outside military environments over the past thirty years has provided factual evidence which views the attainment of better than average scholarship as a contributing characteristic of leadership (Andrews 1955; Margiotta 1976; Wherry 1950; Wherry and Olivero 1971; and Willmorth, et. al. 1957). Margiotta (1976) indicated that better than average scholarship is an imperative for success in the highly sophisticated, technologically advanced armed forces of the United States.

Responsibility: Factors associated with the characteristic responsibility are dependability, initiative, persistence, aggressiveness, and self-confidence. Partridge (1934) reported a correlation of .87 between leadership and dependability. The results represent higher ratings for leaders over followers. Bass (1981) believed responsibility to be more highly related to amount of education than to age or time in position, i.e., time in grade. In addition, superordinate responsibility is said to influence subordinate performance. However, increased leader responsibility appears to contribute to lowered subordinate job satisfaction and performance,

especially when leader authority impacts on the followers' expectations. Research cautions that responsibility needs to be comprehended within the context of the total organizational environment in which a leader is functioning.

TABLE 6
Social Characteristics
(Total Number of Findings)

	1948	1970
	Positive 1	Zero or Neg 2
		Positive Only 3
Administrative Ability (Project Execution)		16
Sociability, Inter- personal Skills	14	35

Sociability, Interpersonal Skills: Data gathered from research investigating the social characteristics of leadership (Bass 1981) indicated that leaders are active participants in varied activities. They are regarded as leaders because of their skill in interpersonal relations. Followers comply to their style voluntarily, not because they are forced to (Merton 1969). The frequency of a leader's positive interaction and group participation, according to Homans (1950), contribute to increased followership, sentiments, and mutual liking. Faquier and Gilchrist (1942) and Newcomb (1942) assigned higher ratings in cooperativeness

to leaders than followers. And, correlations reported by both Webb (1915) .69, and Cox (1926) .62 showed that exceptional leaders rate "outstandingly high in sense of corporate spirit." Further, Raven and Eachus (1963) discovered that groups with cooperative members were more likely to develop leaders than groups with competitive members. In historical retrospect, the Raven and Eachus (1963) findings correlate with ancient metaphysical philosophies which deplored the wasting of physical and mental energies on competitive tasks. The philosophies of Zen stressed that energy must be properly harnessed to flow in cooperative association with the natural order of the continuous movement of the universe -- universe being defined as "all there is":

Popularity: Additional factors in association with social characteristics are popularity, loyalty, and group cohesiveness. Diversified studies have shown that the variable popularity as being closely related to leadership status, but popularity alone cannot be regarded as synonymous with leadership (Nutting 1923). Findings by Riedsel (1974) have stressed that popularity distorts sociometric leadership studies. Being liked, that is, popular, appears to be of some importance in leisure activities; but in professional environments, wherever morally acceptable tasks are to be performed, competence and value remain the most important influence (Smith 1963).

Loyalty: The loyalty factor has been found to have a decided impact on every organizational situation and human resource relationship. Research stresses that loyalty considerations are hinged to benefits, bargaining power, rewards and equitable agreements (Thibaut and Faucheux 1965) existing between people and the institutions in which they are employed. Further, loyalty is not a onesided affair. Leaders, to be respected and receive the loyalty of subordinates, must be unquestionably aboveboard and loyal to them. Subordinate disassociation and withdrawal of loyalty manifests when action undertaken by superordinates are viewed as undermining their best interests. Evan and Zeldich (1961) reported that differences arising from disloyalty seriously affects productivity. Group members engage and exhibit covert disobedience and resistance to least loyal leaders than to trustworthy, genuinely honest leaders. This effect has been attributed to subordinate attitudes regarding personnel activities of appointed leaders. Member loyalty to leadership and organizations is strengthened only by overt positive participation (Patchen 1970).

Group Cohesiveness: Individuals welcomed and accepted into group settings experience positive relations with group members in contrast to those who are envied, avoided, resented and/or socially tolerated (Dittes 1959). A group member's willingness

to expend effort for the benefit of the group affects directly the leadership process. Leaders unable to gain group members' commitment experience reduced group effectiveness and mission performance (Gustafson 1968). A necessary ingredient affecting the success of leaders is the motivational level of the group/unit membership (Bass, Flint, and Pryer 1957). Acceptance of the group leader is linked (Bass 1981) to a member's identification with the in-group. Appointed leaders, and persons who take over leadership roles by virtue of time-in-grade status (tenure), are least likely to succeed in gaining full commitment from group members. Such leaders are unable to relate favorably, experience hostility, and create problems more rapidly than selected /accepted leadership (Raven and Eachus 1963). Stogdill (1972) reported that group cohesiveness was predicated on the degrees of positive reinforcement each group member provides to individual and group expectations about the value of maintaining the group as a functional unit.

Administrative Ability (Project Execution): Lastly, administrative ability appears in the 1970 list only (Table 6). Research data concerned with administrative ability makes strong references to a leader's intellectual capacity to project manage. Most of the studies concerned with administrative effectiveness of leaders have centered on competence and mission results.

E. Williams (1968) reported effective administrators as those who have been rated significantly higher in the areas of responsibility, human relations, trustworthiness, decision making and problem solving. Scientific management theory (Taylor 1912) maintained that the major functions of leadership were planning, organizing, activating, and controlling performance; that is, getting work done with and through others. Although this theory was the rationalized process of pre-technological-sophisticated-formal-organizations, said organizations naively defined, codified and taught management (administration) as if it were a military science (Hamel 1983). This attempt at codification unfortunately ignored the human element which not only makes up organizations, but provides the energy, the matrix, that keeps the structure together. To be an effective administrator or project manager one must learn not only to relate the needs and motives of the organization to its personnel, but to comprehend that: (1) the will of the investor fuels and strengthens the organization's mission; (2) the will of the consumer determines the degree of the demand for services; and (3) personnel, i.e., employees invest their energy, knowledge, skills, time, and yes, even their lives, in support of legitimate organizations.

In the final analysis, investment in organizations is made by people; demand for service is made by people; and support of

a humanistic idea, whether it be an organization, fraternity, or mission, is granted solely by the WILL of the human element -- people. Leaders who think otherwise need only to experience the disintegration of organizational structure when any one or all investors, consumers, and/or employees withdraw support.

Administration is an extremely sensitive function. Few leaders make the grade. Those who do embrace the human element.

SUMMARY

In summary, the clusters of characteristics identified in Tables 1-6 specifically differentiated leaders from followers, effective from ineffective leaders, and executive-echelon leadership from first line supervision. Twentieth Century leadership research indicated that different strata of leaders and followers can be described in terms of the extent to which they exhibit some of these characteristics (Bass 1981). Also, the element of chance plays a part in the acquisition of leadership positions. Upward mobility, for example, to a considerable degree, is determined by being at the right place at the right time. And finally, conceptions of leadership characteristics are culturally determined (see Appendix A for elucidation).

Conclusions supported by the evidence gathered from the numerous studies conducted since 1900 indicated that a leader is above average in energy (activity), appearance and grooming, education (scholarship), social status, intelligence, fluency of

speech, self-confidence, personal integrity, achievement, responsibility, administrative ability, and interpersonal relations skills. In many instances, each of these qualities are determined by situational demands. Leaders, as has been noted, exceed the average follower in their group in sociability, popularity, verbal facility, insight, self-confidence, and knowing how to accomplish a mission.

APPENDIX A
CULTURAL DIFFERENCES IN LEADERSHIP

INTRODUCTION

Early research and reviews dealing with comparative management and leadership indicated that variations in approaches are directly associated with a particular cultural background (Triandis 1980). The results did not, however, discount global tendencies germane to multicultural, multinational variations. Nevertheless, more often than not, variations or differences reported in leadership style, inclusive of effective intelligence, emotional stability, and interpersonal competence, were interpreted to be affected by national boundaries as opposed to cultural boundaries. What this means is national boundaries determine, on the one hand, the consequence to understanding leadership and management, and cultural boundaries, on the other hand, impact on values, sentiments, ideals, language, and role models (Bass 1981). For example, Weissenberg (1979) found that there was a variance in cultural units; that is, German-speaking managers (leaders) in one nation hold life goal values that are different from those of German-speaking managers in other countries. The study indicated that German-speaking Swiss place importance on wealth and duty: West Germans stress *selbständigkeit* (independence), prestige and leadership; and German-speaking Austrians entertain a preference for service (*dienst*). Observations from other sources (Mant 1977) found that German-Americans put emphasis on scholarship, competency, and the spirit of entrepreneurship—entrepreneurship being the highest form of leadership and self-sufficiency.

WITHIN-CULTURE DIFFERENCES

Heller (1969) noted that North Americans (Canadians) and their British contemporaries equate authority to speedy decision making; whereas, Anglo-Americans tend to gather data prior to formulating and making a decision. Further, leaders in military environments tended to be either boyishly emotional when evolved with decision making activities or mechanistic followers of superordinate mandates (McCann 1964). Within the military culture wide differences in leader behavior exists. Chowdhry and Pal (1960) indicated the foolhardiness to focus on the overall pattern of values among people within a nation (culture) at the expense of overlooking the differences found between minority groups (subcultures) within that nation. The study suggests that military organizations, although constitutionally connected to a country nationalistically, actually reflect contrary practices of leadership and management other than those practiced by the mainstream culture. Military organizations embrace the concept of separate cultural boundaries within the national boundaries of the nations they defend. This is not a unique phenomenon. Similar practices occur in industrial, religious, and educational settings as well. Normally, initiates go through a subtle resocialization process designed by the organization for the purpose of stressing specific leadership-management values and standards of behavior. The new organizational arrival tends to accept (on the surface) diverse forms of leadership-management

only to the degree that their personal and professional needs and motives are met.

LEADERSHIP IN DIFFERENT COUNTRIES

This paper has essentially provided a review of those leadership characteristics which are predominantly American. In many ways, similar patterns appear to be present in the cultures of other nations. We can justifiably expect this to be so mainly because the United States is a harbour comprised of multi-world-cultures. The profound spirit of Americanism places a cultural emphasis on individualism, action, pragmatism and equalitarianism -- characteristics brought into this nation by settlers and immigrants who were denied these God-given rights under totalitarian and similarly oppressive governments. Although a discussion of cross-country confusions goes beyond the intent and scope of this paper, consideration of the unique leadership approaches within given countries can be briefly addressed. For example, Wilkinson (1964) noted that Confucian and Victorian England valued good manners, form, and classical training; holders of property and acquisition of formal education assured leadership roles in both France and Belgium (Bass 1981). The key to leadership success in Japan is graduation from a prestigious university (Hamel 1983); party officials, the military, and scientists are the upper classes in the Soviet Union (Granick 1962); Latin American family affiliations are imperative to emergence as a leader (Lauderback 1963);

Mexico is lead by self-made millionaires, industrial elite, and middle-class bureaucrats (Bass 1981); and lastly. Germany since 1945, influenced by American democratic ideals, has filled positions of leadership from the energetic working class as opposed to the pre-1945 military subculture and landed aristocracy (Granick 1962). Each of these nations, and others throughout the globe, possess attitudes and traits of consequence of leadership associated with both culture and country. Dimensions such as traditionalism vs. modernity, particularism vs. universalism, pragmatism vs. idealism, loyalty, social skills, interpersonal communications, integrity, intelligence, etc., are but a few of the multidimensional variables considered appropriate by these nations for leadership success.

APPENDIX B
BLACK CULTURE AND LEADERSHIP

Black Americans form a distinct, unique, and major subculture matrixed to the dominant white society in ways sensitive to the values and standards of the total American philosophy (Liebow 1967). There are no clear boundaries marking the black culture off from the dominant caucasian influence. Its cultural patterns are the same as those of the white culture (Baldwin, et.al. 1966), and, in many ways, black middle-class standards of behavior exceed national cultural standards (Pinkney 1969). Farley and Hermalin (1971) reported that the majority of black families experience stable family life with sound husband-wife-children relationships.

Leadership researched by Fichter (1966) and Bayer and Boruch (1969) indicated that attributes associated with black leadership were found only in personal values. That is, in addition to assigning importance to achieving independence (autonomy), self-fulfillment, close personal affiliations, and positions of responsibility (Vinson and Mitchell 1975), black Americans place a high value on being helpful to others. Individual and cultural group energies are directed toward assisting and contributing to society as a whole. Black Americans view themselves as Americans in equally the same way as all Americans do -- whether they be descendants of first settlers, naturalized citizens or recent immigrants. Contrary to uninformed opinion, little difference has been found in the values held by either black or white leaders and managers (Watson and Barone 1976).

In Rosen's and Jerdee's (1977) study, the performance of blacks and whites as leaders was found to be dependent on the supervised group's ethnic composition. A discovery by Shull and Anthony (1978) indicated that although there was no significant difference in the manner each cultural group addressed individual and group conflict situations and disciplinary problems, the white culture was shown to be more willing to accept harsh organizational punishment for rule violations than blacks of the same peer groupings. Further, the race of each, according to Sattler (1970), was said to affect interactions and interpersonal communications between black and white leaders and their subordinates. These results indicated that subordinates of either racial culture, specifically lower class subordinates, experience greater sensitivity to being directed by a leader other than one of their particular culture. However, among the educated and upper classes of either culture the evidence supported positive increases in professional and social inter-actions and interpersonal communications.

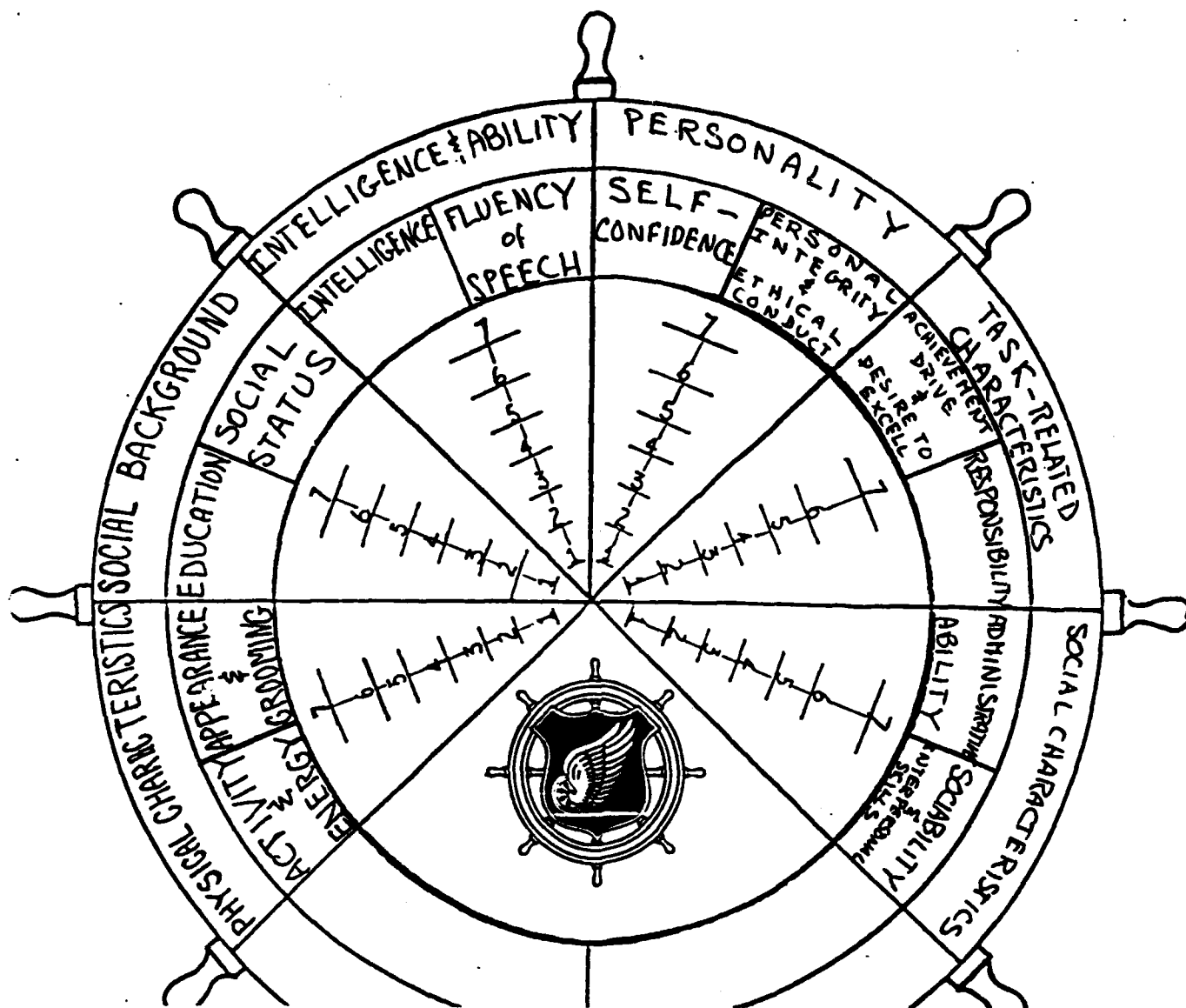
APPENDIX C
WOMEN AND LEADERSHIP

Society at any given time, past, present, and future will affect status and sex-role stereotyping. Historically, leadership opportunities for women were limited to subordinate female environments except where their position was legitimized by lack of male heirs, marriage or inheritance (Shein 1975). Stereotypic handicaps created by men, in the best interest of men, curbed female motivation and limited their upward mobility. This senseless stereotyping by sophomoric psychologists, behaviorists and medical science blunders falsely conditioned both male and female into unnecessary role playing automaton. Women were counseled into subservient auxiliary and service roles. They performed as nurses, secretaries or administrative assistants; were denied entry into medical schools and law; and obstructed from achieving managerial positions. The perpetuation of selfish societal attitudes against women inadequately provided successful role models for future generations. And today, in the latter quarter of the Twentieth Century, both men and women, despite the advancement of equal employment opportunity laws, are socially and professionally separate. Unfortunately, many men have been wrongly socialized and programmed into believing that women are not "of-men," that they lack career direction, are overly emotional, undependable, lacking in leadership potential, and are somehow spiritually and intellectually different.

Any and all behavioral traits of both men and women can be said to be socially controlled. Contrary to the male-female socialization

process research has been unsuccessful in discerning a clear pattern of trait difference in male-female leadership style. In general, women lean more toward a human relations oriented style of leadership: whereas, men, especially military and scientific management exponents, have shown preference toward task behavior. Each of these differences in leadership orientation cannot be attributed to sex alone, but rather attitudinal and behavioral perceptions. A concern for people is an attitudinal dimension directly related to one's values. This attitude or perception of people has a high correlation with productivity. Task orientation is, in essence, a form of situational leadership which contributes to one's understanding of the kinds of behaviors which may effectively impact on environmental changes. In the final analysis, and in spite of the various attributes once associated with male-female leadership differences, women, once accepted or legitimized as a leader, do not behave differently than men (Osborn and Vicars 1976).

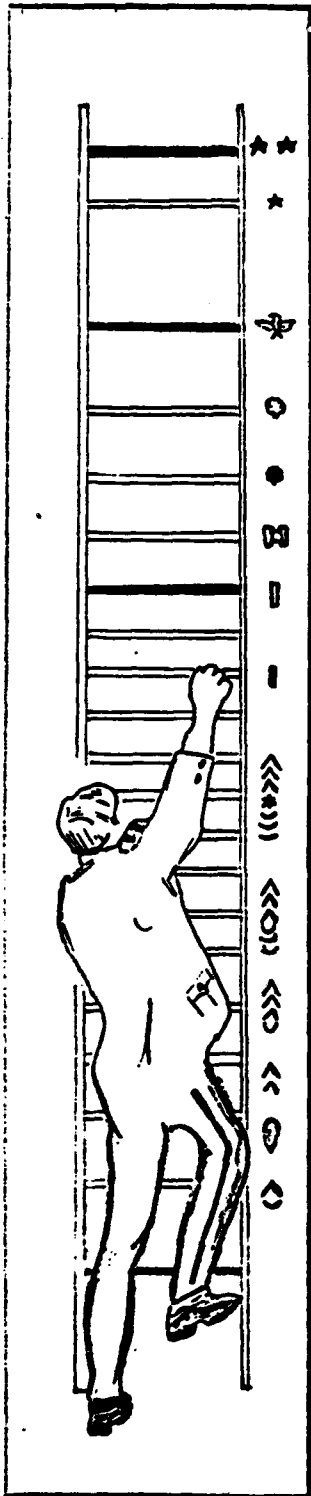
APPENDIX D
MEASUREMENT AND SCORING INSTRUMENTS



The purpose of this Leadership Appraisal Wheel is to measure leadership characteristics. Results are compared and used with other evaluation factors. It is important that you are completely honest in marking your selection and that you base your responses on your true status as much as possible.

Review and rate each factor on a scale of 1 to 7. Decide the degree that each has to you. If a factor is strongly descriptive, check (✓) number space 6 or 7. If a factor is moderately descriptive, check (✓) number space 3, 4 or 5. For factors that are least descriptive, check (✓) number space 1 or 2. Mark your check (✓) on that side of the scale 3 directly under the factor you are measuring.

Make your decisions quickly as you consider your current level of proficiency on each factor as opposed to that of 3, 5, 10 or 20 years ago.. Base your selection entirely on how you truthfully see yourself.



Directions: Locate the numbers you have rated on the Leadership Appraisal Wheel. Transfer these ratings to the respective boxes on this page. Add the 12 factor ratings and enter the sum in the TOTAL RATE box. Divide this rating by 12 in the indicated box and place the score in the adjacent box.

When you have calculated the score turn to the Leadership Thermometer and draw an arrow pointing toward the numbered box which corresponds to the score you have attained.



RATE PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS

	ACTIVITY AND ENERGY
	APPEARANCE AND GROOMING

RATE SOCIAL BACKGROUND

	EDUCATION
	SOCIAL STATUS

RATE INTELLIGENCE AND ABILITY

	INTELLIGENCE
	FLUENCY OF SPEECH

RATE PERSONALITY

	SELF-CONFIDENCE
	PERSONAL INTEGRITY & ETHICAL CONDUCT

RATE TASK-RELATED CHARACTERISTICS

	ACHIEVEMENT, DRIVE AND DESIRE TO EXCELL
	RESPONSIBILITY

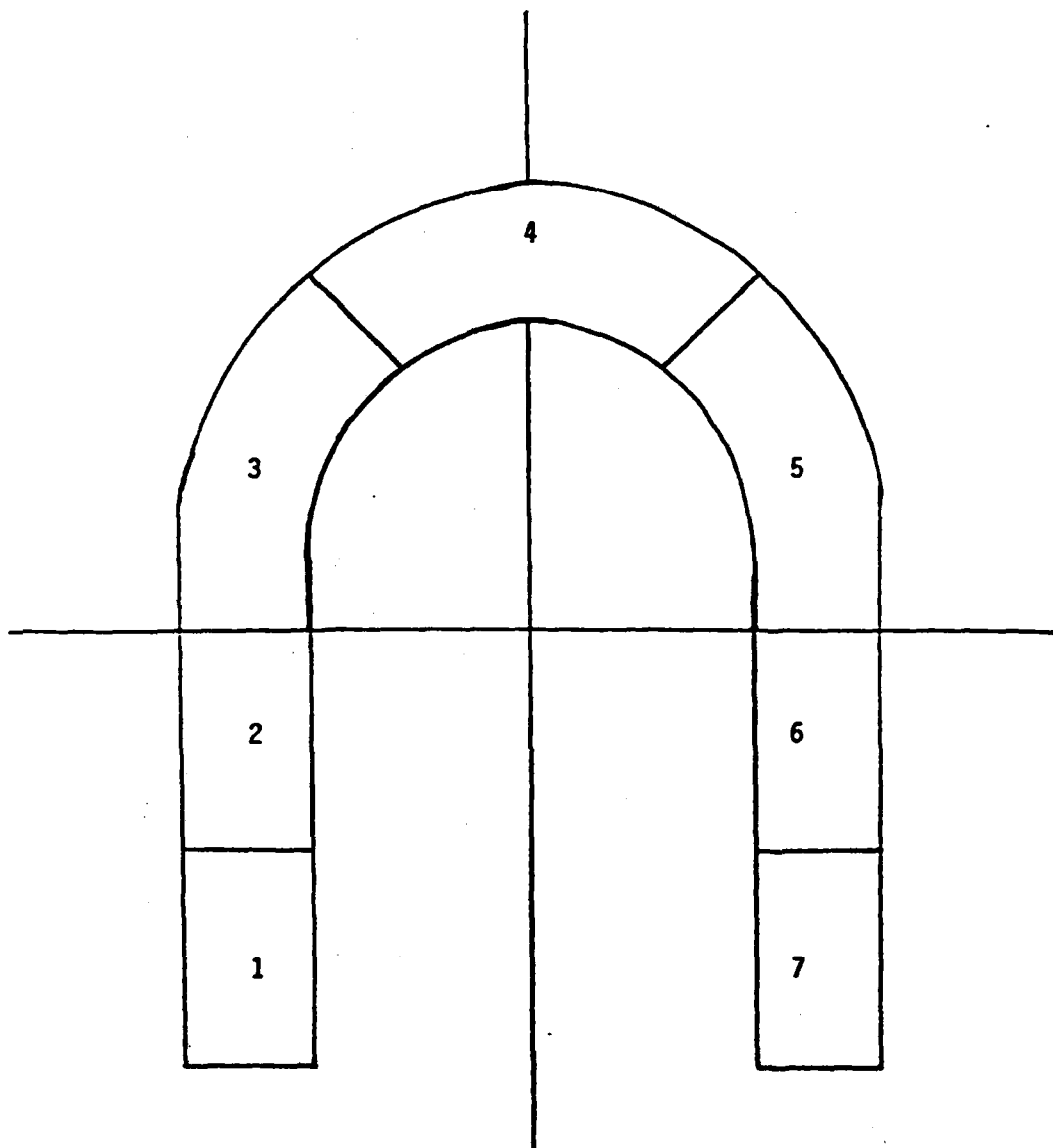
RATE SOCIAL CHARACTERISTICS

	ADMINISTRATIVE ABILITY
	SOCIABILITY & INTERPERSONAL SKILLS
	TOTAL RATE $\div 12 =$ Leadership Score

12	
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Score



The U. S. Army has been heard to say they want people with as much leadership potential as possible. But that could be a person who is highly likely to take a discharge to form his/her own corporation. What the army really means is they want people with enough leadership ability to make a successful career.

The inverted U-shaped Leadership Thermometer places all the generally accepted army leadership characteristics above the mean line and all the undersirable ones towards the bottom of the graphic. This design provides an easily understood visual of each leader's ability.

To determine what your score means turn to the Assessment Chart.

7
6
5
4
3
2
1

Supercharged. This score characterizes a take charge person; one with greater than average potential. High energy persons of this calibre are successful in both intreprenurial and entrepreneurial activities, especially the latter. They are more likely to direct their total energies in the formulation of a small business rather than support the missions of traditional corporate or military organizations.

Autonomous. Persons scoring at this level tend to expend minimal energy on salaried, career limiting jobs. A large portion of their creative effort is directed toward the development and management of personal sideline businesses. They eventually succeed in turning part-time sidelines into full-time entrepreneurial occupations.

Very high leadership ability score. A person falling in this range will prove to be an excellent organizational investment. This score indicates that s/he will experience above average success in the pursuance of a military or corporate career.

Excellent for corporate and/or military career. This is a high leadership ability score. Persons scoring in this range will succeed in attaining leadership positions at both the mid and lower senior levels of most organizations.

Good leadership ability. Individuals will exert their energies to learn and contribute to an organizations overall goals. They can be mission oriented, therefore prime candidates for junior grade positions. To maintain their energies organizations need to incorporate reinforcement and motivation theories in dealing with such people. People scoring at this range seek organizational training and educational opportunity.

Not good. Does not take advantage of advancement or progress. This score indicates little regard for principles or ultimate consequences. At this level one does not grasp opportunities for an organization. Undesirable characteristics.

No leadership ability.

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