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SKAWRAN, P. R.

THE INTELLIGENCE OF THE ADULT
(Its problems and methods)

II

THE INTELLIGENCE OF THE SCIENTIST
(Practical Part)

C

INTELLIGENCE AND PERSONALITY OF THE EXECUTIVE. I

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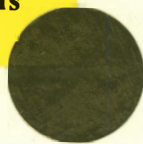
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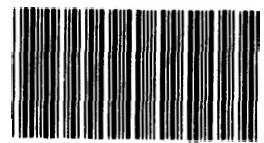
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NATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR PERSONNEL RESEARCH

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THE   INTELLIGENCE   OF   THE   ADULT

(Its problems and methods)

II

The Intelligence of the Scientist
(Practical Part)

C

Intelligence and Personality of the Executive I

P. R. SKAWRAN

C O N T E N T S.

"The disciple is always pleased when he succeeds with a detail. He over-estimates the value of it. The master, however, pays attention to the detail only in as much as it is significant in relation to the whole. - Also in judging other things the following guiding principle applies: Blessed will be he who comprehends sense and spirit of the whole. He will easily find the right approach to and the right place for the detail, the place where it belongs."

Ludwig Richter.

Where does psychology see the whole today regarding the human being in its tragic struggle for existence? It takes problems which can be seen in "reality" and then tries to prove the obvious with mathematical accuracy.

INTELLIGENCE AND PERSONALITY OF THE EXECUTIVE. *)

1   The Essence of the Executive (Theories).

(1) Career of the executive compared with other careers.

If we intend, in what follows, to get a deeper insight into

the intelligence of the executive, the flood of literature on one or

other aspect of the personality or the functions of the executive,[1]

forces us to ask ourselves two questions:

(1)   How can the strong general interest in a single
       career be explained, particularly as no other
       career can equal it in this respect?

(2)   What is the advantage of writing another article on
       this topic?

First of all, the tremendous interest in the career of the

executive suggests that we are dealing with a career of a particular

nature.   This assumption seems to be justified if we compare the

career of an executive with any other one.   A lawyer, a chemist,

an architect, a journalist, an engineer, etc., including the variations

of these careers through specialization, are careers which can be

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*)   In three preceding publications of our series of publication
      "The Intelligence of the Adult" (37, 38, 49) we have assumed
      that the intelligence of a human being can only be described by
      taking into consideration its structural connection with other
      functions, especially with the personality as a whole.   In
      dealing with the intelligence of the executive, we will find that
      the personality factor becomes increasingly important and that
      it dominates the structure of intelligence so much that it
      forces us to pay the utmost attention to it.

1)   Fig. 1 represents a small section of the immense literature
      on our subject.   It offers, simultaneously, an analysis of its
      most important results.

easily defined. The sphere of their work, the methods used by them, their functions etc., can be described and analysed, as has been done before with the career of the librarian and of the mathematician (37, 49). Compared with these careers, however, the career of an executive shows a tendency to penetrate all other careers and to take over large parts of their functions to such an extent that they are in danger of loosing their original specific character and instead develop into the career of an executive. This is particularly true for higher positions and, therefore, applies not only to the careers of scientists,[1] but also to practically all other careers. In other words, executive functions encroach on all fields whether these be the military service, religion, politics or industry, etc., and they replace the original functions pertinent to the particular career. This effect increases the higher the rank within the career. In a certain sense this process is already expressed by the well known "Law of Parkinson." What we mean, however, goes far beyond the expansive tendency of administrative organizations. This process is related to the effect which administrative functions have on other careers, the re-structuring effect of such functions; a process which is almost inevitable. The continuously growing population explosion leads automatically to the need for "teamwork", replacing to a large extent the achievement of the single individual. The result is that leaders (executives) are

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[1] Cp. (38), P. 77 ff..

3.

separated from those whom they lead to an ever increasing degree.

The following statement contains a self-evident fact which one realizes when perusing literature on executives: <u>The executive is the leader of our time,</u> i.e. there are not only executives in industry, they exist in all careers. This is what characterizes the extraordinary career of an executive and explains the intense interest in this career.

If we turn now to the second question, viz. is it worthwhile to add another publication to the unlimited literature on this career, [1] it is necessary to state first that the literature mentioned is based on numerous, fairly comprehensive job analyses. These job analysis investigations were not necessarily done on executives in industry exclusively. Many authors have pointed out the versatility of an executive and the dependence of his functions on the work situation, the climate of work, etc.. This may seem to suggest that also in our study where we are dealing with the intelligence of executives of a scientific organization, i.e. a very specific organization, it ought to be possible to identify the characteristic qualities of these executives by means of a similar job analysis approach. It should be kept in mind, however, that this organization consists of different institutes. If one considers the directors of these institutes, the president and the vice-presidents as the actual executives of this organization, it becomes necessary to distinguish between their

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1)   We, hereby, neglect the few (mostly professional) careers in
      which independent work is - at least partially - still possible.

executive and administrative functions. It can also be assumed

that the different nature of the institutes presupposes different

functions of their leaders, not only caused by the sciences they

represent. The climate of work will be different in each institute

and, therefore, demands particular qualities from each director.

Furthermore the climate of work does not remain the same. Although

it demands certain qualities from the leader, he himself influences

the climate of work and changes it. A director leaving his post by

necessity will leave behind a different climate of work from the one

that he found when he assumed duty. Therefore, the qualities

demanded from a newly appointed director of the same institute, may

be and possibly must be different from those which had been

demanded from the previous director. The latter may have e.g.

completely neglected his administrative functions or - to mention

another example - he may have paid little attention to the climate of

work. In the first case a personality must be appointed who will be

more strongly inclined towards the administrative side; in the second

case he must be able to create a better climate of work.

The hypothesis may be put forward that there must be an ideal

leader, i.e., a personality who possesses all the necessary leader-

qualities. The question, however, is whether the ideal leader exists

and, if so, what we are to understand by this term. We will discuss

this problem in a later chapter (Cp. chapter 3).

Returning to the original question on the literature problem

it seems doubtful whether we can contribute anything new with

another job analysis project,[1] including the more specific job analysis of the intelligence demands of the scientific executive. If each new appointment of a Director necessitates a follow-up analysis, not only of the functions of the post but also of the work situation and the work climate, a _general_ analysis of all similar posts can contribute relatively little towards a better understanding of the functions involved (including the intelligence). This is particularly true if our assumption is correct that the work functions of directors of different institutes also differ.

Unfortunately the majority of job analyses have produced insufficient and incomplete material with regard to the nature of the intelligence of an executive,[2] especially with regard to the form of intelligence which is typical of the adult. We can, therefore, either try a new method of job analysis, bearing in mind our specific aim, or we can attempt to obtain a clearer picture of the situation as a whole by examining more closely the most important results in which case a further analysis would be superfluous. We will pursue the latter approach as it seems more promising and because it can be considered as a pilot study for any other possible approach.

2. Definition of the concept "executive".

In the preceding chapter we interpreted the concept "executive"

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1) A report on the job analysis of the administrative staff of our organization (C.S.I.R.) has been published by R. F. Skawran and L. Cortis (43).

2) This includes the material obtained from our own efforts (43).

as "the leader of our time." This definition is by no means generally accepted. Very often it is simply assumed that what we understand by an executive is well known. At the same time, however, we apply this concept in a rather casual way. When using it, we think primarily of the manager, i.e. we think primarily of the executive in industrial organizations.

However, much more is involved than this. On the one hand everyone who exercises executive power can be considered an executive, while on the other hand, we must distinguish clearly between the actual executive and the manager (administrative officer). P. Stryker (48) formulates this difference very clearly :"Executives set the company's policies and managers carry them out." (P.6). This definition, however, implies that the concept "executive" is applicable only to the economic sphere. Actually the differentiation which Stryker makes, is a very old one. The best and most clearly formulated differentiation is found in the military service where leader qualities are of greatest importance. Here one distinguishes between the commissioned and the non-commissioned officer. In other organizations - for instance in a scientific organization - the vice-presidents and the directors must be considered as executives and the higher administrative staff as managers. This example illustrates, however, that a sharp and concise separation of the two concepts is not as simple in all cases as it is, for e.g., in the military service. As regards Stryker's definition, it remains doubtful whether his demarcation is correct. Lieutenants, captains

and majors also follow instructions, although at times independent decisions are expected from them. In modern warfare (as well as previously) such decisions are often also expected from sergeants or sergeant-majors. In scientific organizations as well as in the church and other organizations the situations do not differ much. A chief-, a senior- and even a research officer has certain administrative duties but all of them are also expected to make independent decisions. Nevertheless, there are differences between the functions of these "lower officer grades" and those of directors etc.. The managers, or alternatively the lower grade of the executing officer, is responsible only for a part of the whole. He may be entitled to determine "policies" for his division, but these policies may not contradict those of the whole, e.g. the institute.

Similarly, differences exist between the functions of a director and those of the president. Whereas an institute represents a whole in itself, the same does not apply for a division or section.

Generally speaking, the delineation between the executive and the manager - or more precisely between the leader and the subleader - are not clearly defined. Even concerning the process of policy-making, the subleader is not completely excluded. He may influence it to some extent.

Taking into consideration fig. 17 of our introductory publication (38), the difference between leader (executive) and subleader (manager) becomes more evident. This figure gives a classification of leader-grades according to different forms of intelligence demands. The form of intelligence necessary for the lower grades of leadership is characterized by its taskbound nature. The functions of the sub-leader are taskbound and it can, therefore, be concluded that the

independent decisions expected from him are linked with taskbound

situations. The decisions of higher-grade leaders, however, are

related to situations which involve a perspective view (commander-

view) and on the highest level they even presuppose a certain degree

of wisdom (helicopter-view). Having dealt with these concepts in

our general theoretical introduction (38), it is unnecessary to

discuss again the interrelation between these levels of functioning

and the different forms of our ego, responsibilities, etc.. In

order to clarify the difference between the leader and the sub-

leader, there is no better criterion than that of the taskbound sub-

leader compared with the ability to decide in perspective of the

leader. At any rate, definitions of the executive based on his position

within an organization appear - in comparison with ours - superficial.

M.M. Mandell (20, P.47) e.g. defines an executive as "someone

who has two or more levels of supervision between him and the

nonsupervisory level." This definition forces us to classify e.g. a

sergeant-major as an executive since between him and the ordinary

soldier there are other supervisory levels, i.e. the sergeant and

the corporal. On the other hand, Mandell is correct when he says:

"Executives are as much 'men in the middle' as foremen." (21, P.51).

If, in addition, we consider that "executive jobs vary

widely..." (20. P.51) - as many authors emphasize - it is doubtful

whether we will arrive at an accurate definition indicating the

essential characteristics of an executive if we merely define his

functions.[1]

If we simply say: The executive is the leader of our time,

one could justifiably accuse us of defining our concept in a manner

which is equally obscure. We are, therefore, forced to state

clearly what has to be understood by this concept "leader of our time".

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[1]   The following two examples illustrate this assertion: Mandell
(20, P. 46) defines an executive as a person who is required
to consider the following types of questions when at work and
in supervising the work of subordinate units and employees:

> "What should we be doing? On what functions and
> projects are we spending too little or too much money?
> How can we increase the reputation of our organization? -
>
> Is the action under consideration consistent with the top
> policies of the organization, or for the top executive,
> is this the right policy?
>
> Is this proposal consistent with the long-range goals of
> this organization?
>
> Is this the right time to do this?
>
> Will the cost of the suggestion be greater than the
> advantages?
>
> What methods are necessary to 'sell' this idea?
>
> What organizational and procedural changes might be
> necessary if this step were taken?
>
> Who should be informed about this proposed step?
> Whose approval is required? Whose support has to be
> obtained?"

Stryker (48, P. 6) considers five functions as essential, and an
executive must fulfil all five functions: "(a) has a direct hand
in setting the company's objectives and policies, (b) must
make or approve decisions that can seriously affect profits
and plans, (c) coordinates several main functions of the
company, or of a major division or department, (d) maintains
and develops an organization of trained subordinates,
(e) delegates authority and responsibility and controls
performance through at least one level of supervision.

3. <u>Theories of leadership.</u>

<u>M. E. Spitzer</u> (46, P. 21) distinguishes between three theories
of leadership. He describes them as follows: "The 'Great man
doctrine' postulates that leaders can be distinguished from followers
by the personal characteristics that they possess; that is, there is
a limited number of traits which define leadership and any man
possessing the proper combination of these traits will be a successful
leader in any situation. A number of such traits, such as intelligence
and emotional stability, have been investigated and correlated with
leadership scores. The relationship has usually been positive but
rather moderate in strength. Apparently, personal characteristics
explain some of the variance of leadership behaviour, but leave the
major portion unexplained." (b) "The 'Group-mind doctrine'
conceptualizes leadership solely as a function of group properties.
Leadership is thought to be a response to the environment since the
situation completely determines the quality of leadership and the means
of leadership. What an individual contributes to the leadership role
is merely his potentiality which is influenced and manipulated by
group needs. Leadership, therefore, can be explained only by knowing
the collective structure of the group." (c) "The 'Interactionist theory'
which asserts that leadership is the result of both personal and
situational variables. That is, there is no one set of characteristics
that a person must possess to be a leader, nor does the situation
completely determine what type of man will lead. Rather the theory
postulates that the role of the leader is determined by the situation

creating conditions which various people with special characteristics

fulfil and modify at various times. This theory avoids reducing the

individual to a mere target of mystical group forces, but at the same

time it considers the situation in which a leader must function."

If one intends to evaluate these three theories, one has to do it

in relation to the patterns of thinking existing when they were

formulated.

Until recently there has been no other theory of leadership

beside the 'Great-man doctrine'. Even this theory cannot be

considered as being of psychological origin. It was generally accepted

that a person had to be born a leader and the 'born leader' concept

developed from the existing structure of society in which the

aristocracy was considered to be the effective leader stratum.

Economic and political revolutions have not altered this

attitude much. The change brought about by these revolutions is the

realization that born leaders can also come from lower levels of the

society. However, in spite of revolutions, the aristocracy still

play an important role in the history of their countries and it is

often they who make the most important and the most dangerous

decisions. [1]

In practice, these revolutions and the democracies in which

they resulted also contain the nucleus of a new theory of leadership.

The new leadership concept, viz. the 'Group-minded doctrine', was

formulated shortly before the Second World War. In a democratic

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[1]   A few examples are : Viscount Mirabeau in the French
        revolution. Viscount Brockdorff-Rantzau at the peace-treaty of
        Versailles. Viscount Stauffenberg in the anti-Hitler movement,
        etc..

system a "great man" always presents a latent danger for the system.

What this system needs are leaders that can be called off, leaders

for a limited time, i.e. leaders that remain at their post only as long

as they are needed by the group. After that they are expected to

resign and to give way to others who are more adapted to the new

situations. It is the "Group-mind doctrine" which seems to meet the

purposes of such a state of affairs. [1] Apparently a demagogue like

Hitler [2] was necessary to make people conscious of these interrelations

and to stimulate the formulation of a new theory of leadership.

This theory - seen from a psychological point of view - was

based on inacceptable ideas (as we will still have to prove). For

this reason it was soon replaced by a new theory which tried to avoid

the obvious contradictions of the "Group-mind doctrine" by going back -

at least partially - to the original idea of leadership. It tried to

reconcile the old idea with the new ways of thinking. This is the

origin of the "Interactionist theory."

Considering the importance of the concept of leadership for

the organization of our social life, it seems necessary to discuss

these theories in more detail. In doing so we will start from the most

---

1)   In former times the social order was seen as "given by God."
(Cp. the expression "King by the grace of God"). The
situation, therefore, was seen as a permanent one, while
seen from a modern point of view, situations can change from
one moment to the next.

2)   A man like Hitler cannot actually be described as a leader. No
really great man has called himself "the leader" as Hitler did.

negatively formulated theory as we are of the opinion that out of the negation the positive can best be demonstrated.

Gibb (12, P. 267) e.g. says: "leadership - viewed in relation to the individual - is not an attribute of the personality but a quality of his role within a particular and specified social system. Viewed in relation to the group, leadership is a quality of its structure."

It is, first of all, interesting that Gibb talks here of leadership and not of a leader, i.e. he talks of the behaviour of a leader in a group situation. Pigors (30), (quoted by Gibb), expresses the same even more distinctly. He says: "Leadership is a concept applied to the personality-environment relation to describe the situation (underlined by author) when one, or at most a very few, personalities are so placed in the environment that his, or their, will, feeling, and insight direct and control others in the pursuit of a cause."[1] The authors, including Warren (56)[2], speak of leadership; i.e. of behaviour in a certain situation. Such behaviour, however, is based - as is also recognised by Warren - on attitudes, in our case even on attitudes which are intensely connected with the 'inborn' (unconscious) attitude of adaptation. We have defined it as the 'innate attitude' enabling the perception of changes of the situation regarding the need for adaptation, to remember them and (with the help of intelligence) to adapt to them

[1] In this definition Pigors completely neglects to answer the question of how such a personality has been placed into such a position. Has he been placed in it or did he achieve it? And how?

[2] It is of interest to note that Warren does not mention the concept "leader" at all in his dictionary.

as quickly and as economically as possible in the sense of maintaining the endangered life of the individual or the species. (Cp. 38 P. 31 and Fig. 12. 39P. 46 ff.) The will to adapt can obviously move in two directions. It can either lead to the development of an attitude to dominate the situation or to submit to it. Undoubtedly the two attitudes are related to each other. ("Sie stehen in einem Spannungsverhältnis"). In most cases, however, one of them prevails in an individual.

Perhaps this statement can best be illustrated by an example from animal life. Amongst mammals we distinguish between beasts of prey and grass-eating animals. The former tend[1] to attack, while the latter tend to escape. A clearer illustration of our statement is shown by the behaviour of a dog. Originally a beast of prey, it tends to attack. If, however, a large and strong dog meets a weaker and smaller one, the latter offers the other the softest parts of its body by lying on its back. It submits to the bigger dog, which accepts this attitude and leaves the weaker one in peace. Would it be possible to explain these attitudes (or in our case: these instincts) according to the Group-mind doctrine? Did they develop out of a group situation? Representatives of this doctrine may argue that such cases have nothing to do with "leading" but merely with "being stronger". The stronger one, however, is always the leading one.

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1)   In German one would say more accurately: "Sie sind auf Angriff eingestellt."

In this sense we also speak of the strong and the weak sex.
It is the strong, the male sex, which takes the lead in the case of
animals in the group as well as in the case of human beings in the
family. [1] This does not exclude the fact that within a family the
woman may prove herself as the stronger personality. In such a case
she will quite naturally take the lead. (If she is an intelligent woman,
she will at least try to create the impression that it is the _man_ who is
taking the lead).

Represenatives of the Group-mind doctrine refer partly to
K. Lewin (18) who states that attitudes change under the influence of
the "social field." This fact, however, means practically nothing
in connection with our problem. One could ask: Which human quality
is not subjected to this law? Gibb maintains that 'there is no
justification for saying that personality qualities which make for
leadership exist in a latent form when not being exercised in a social
situation" (P. 268). This statement is such blatant nonsense that it
hardly seems necessary to argue about it. A human quality either
exists or it does not exist, it is either strongly developed or weak but
it is never there at one time but not at another. An individual is either

1)   We are misinterpreting psychological laws if, in our modern
       society, on account of the generally accepted democratic
       principle - even in law - man and woman are considered to
       have equal rights. Therewith the leader role of the man is
       negated. It would actually be the task of psychology to point
       out the psychological absurdity of such an approach. Instead
       psychology (or at least certain psychologists) conform with
       contemporary thinking by creating such new theories as the
       Group-mind doctrine).

a strong personality or he is not and it is this strength which

predestines him to lead as soon as he gets the opportunity to do so.

We will, nevertheless, give two typical examples from history to

illustrate our points of view:

> At the beginning of the First World War the Germans had
> concentrated all their strength in the West (France).
> They did so because they assumed that the Russians would lead
> their main forces against the Austrians. Weak forces were
> left behind to defend Eastern Prussia. The Russians, however,
> attacked this part of Germany with two strong armies from the
> East and the South. General Oberst von Prittwitz, who was
> the leader on the German side, thought it impossible to face
> the situation and he proposed to withdraw behind the "Weichsel."
> He was released of his command and Hindenburg and Ludendorff
> took over. They had to fight the Russians with the same forces
> which had been at the disposal of von Prittwitz and which had
> been exhausted by this time by defeats and long marches. But,
> although Hindenburg expected further forced marches, he
> succeeded in crushing the Russians at Tannenberg and in driving
> them back far into Poland (in the East). In this respect it is
> interesting to note that it was the persistence of Hindenburg
> in keeping to his original plan, against the opinion of all sub-
> leaders, that lead his small army to victory. This happened
> at a very critical moment during the battle when all German sub-
> leaders believed it to be lost.

This example indicates that it is the leader, and only the leader,

who represents the decisive factor in the play of forces. The following

example of a weak leader may provide further evidence for this

statement:

> While the abovementioned battles were raging, a gigantic battle
> was in full swing in the West (the battle of the Marne). It was
> lost because the leader (von Moltke) did not possess the
> persistence to adhere to a conception that had been established
> long before by Schlieben. ("Keep the right wing strong").
> Through this lack of leader qualities not only the battle, but the
> whole war, was lost.

Of course there is not only one type of leader, or "the person of

allround superiority." (9). According to the aims which an individual

chooses and which depend on the prevailing form of his ego (Cp. 38, P.53), general leader qualities like selfconfidence, initiative, drive, etc., take their particular form. A strong personality with an outspoken "vital ego" would, in the first instance, aim at a full expression ("ein volles Ausleben") of his ego. He will seek situations in which he, with his vital energy, can achieve success, e.g. in a battle. He will aim at physical power and dominance and would, therefore, be best suited as a military leader. His selfconfidence, his initiative and drive, as well as his intelligence will be interrelated with the image of physical activities and achievements; activities which are linked with a daring spirit, fighting and enjoyment of adventure. Often these volitionally determined personalities are outspoken idealists and show a strong community-spirit. [1]

Where vital strength combines strongly with material aims and power, efforts of leaders tend to be directed towards the economical aspects (cp. 38 P. 86, Fig. 16). Here we are dealing with people who - in a pronounced manner - are realistically orientated, possibly combined with a strong community-spirit. They are usually not lacking in certain egocentric (not to say egoïstic) tendencies. As realists, these leader types take the community as it is, i.e., as they interpret it. It is their specific sphere of activity. There is somewhat of the "l'état, c'est moi!" of Louis XIV in all of them. We may call the prevailing form of their ego the community-ego.

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[1] According to my experiences, military leaders of the Second World War have proved themselves later as leaders in industry and commerce.

A completely diffe rent type of leader is found in the more

intellectual-spiritual sphere. In the two types of leaders which we

have described so far, the "leader-group structure" has always been

a presupposition of their leadership. This is not the case in many of

the spiritual ("geistigen") leaders. A great scientist, a great artist

and - in a more limited form - a great priest or pedagogue can become

the spiritual leader of possibly the whole world without being <u>directly</u>

in touch with a group. His selfconfidence, his initiative, his drive

and his intellectual capacities are aimed initially and solely at his

work. By this work he affects others who recognize its value and who

make him a spiritual leader of his time (possibly only after his death).

These people, contrary to other leaders, are the great "lonely wolves".

They prefer to meet only those who are similar to themselves. [1] The

fact that the modern scientist (in particular the natural scientist)

usually depends on teamwork does not invalidate the concept of the

spiritual leader. I have already demonstrated (Cp. 38, p. 77) that the

modern scientist is in danger of becoming more and more an executive.

Of the really great scientists - even nowadays - one could say that

they are exposed to such danger to a lesser degree as they - by their

very nature - are task-orientated. They accept administrative and

---

[1]   <u>Thomas Mann</u> mentions that he once wanted to make the
acquaintance of <u>Hermann Hesse.</u> At the gate of <u>Hesse's</u> garden,
however, he found a notice which read that <u>Hesse</u> would not like
people to visit him. Appreciating <u>Hesse's</u> attitude, but not
without a sense of humour, <u>Mann</u> left a note, informing <u>Hesse</u> of
his intended visit and left.

organizational duties as a necessary evil. The Group-mind doctrine is most strongly contradicted by this type of leadership 'in which the relationship with the group is merely indirect and loose. It is difficult to understand how a group can affect a leader, if - as often happens - the person concerned is only recognized as a leader after his death.

A good example for this is the great composer. It is the composer of a great orchestral work who determines what each member of the orchestra has to do; and he does not only determine what, he has to do but also how he has to do it. The leader of the orchestra plays the role of the manager, i.e. he has to interpret the intentions of the composer (the leader or the executive) correctly and he has to see that each member of the orchestra interpretes his task correctly and in harmony with all others.

By the execution of such a work the composer also influences a larger audience (group) which recognizes his greatness, i.e., his ability to lead on a spiritual (musical) level.

This example illustrates clearly that the great composer and leader creates his work completely independently from the group. It also illustrates - and this appears to me very important - that his work can only be a success if he prescribes exactly what and how everybody has to fulfil his task. As a third point we must mention that it illustrates how, in spite of this, everyone must enter into the spirit of the composer and his work if he wants to be able to do his task well.

The role of the composer and his way of working is in fact symbolic for any type of leader, whether he is a soldier, an industrialist

or a scientist heading a team. The success of a great organization always depends on whether the leader succeeds in making "good music", i.e., whether he succeeds in influencing his team in such a way whereby each member enters into his spirit and his work and accepts it enthusiastically; whereby he succeeds in influencing everyone in playing his role as expected, and in such a way that harmony is not destroyed.

There is hardly any need to prove that artists and scientists in the literary field are lone people. Real personalities in the religious field - such as contemporaries like Karl Barth, Romano Guardini, etc., - can be classified into the same group as the scientists in the literary field. Their achievements are also strongly connected with their 'artistic-creative' ("geisteswissenschaftliche) work and have relatively little to do with their activities as priests in a community. The statement of Gibbs that: "There can be no leaders without followers" must, therefore, be taken con grano salis.

Amongst the intellectual ("geistige") leaders, the pedagogues are to some extent an exception. Their achievements, as well as their work - as e.g. in the case of Pestalozzi, Lietz, Geheeb, Wynecken, etc., - is based to a large extent, although not exclusively, on practical education, i.e. on work in a group. Basically they are in the same situation as the leaders in the religious field. It is not their educational activity that makes them great leaders in their field, but the idea that initiated their work.

What is common to all these intellectual leaders, is their search

for truth, the idealism and altruism which characterizes their aims. (Cp. P. 82 etc., Fig. 16). These aims, together with a somewhat lacking sense of reality, indicate that the form of their ego comes nearest to the existential ego.

Gibb's statement that there are no latent leader qualities now offers the possibility of proving experimentally that his theory is untenable, particularly if he continues saying that "in the absence of this kind of social situation the latent existence of the pattern of qualities cannot be inferred;" (P. 268). If we succeed, with the help of correlations, in demonstrating that leader qualities can be diagnosed by means of a personality test for single individuals, the basis of this doctrine would be destroyed. [1]

Another representative of the Group-mind theory (Pigors, 30, P. 270) maintains that leadership is always in some sphere of interest, and towards some objective goal seen by leader and follower. This statement cannot be contradicted. The objective aim, however, is chosen by the leader. The group may accept it sooner or later. We must realize that it is the strong conviction of a leader which - in times of crisis - assists him in maintaining his faith and to persistently strive towards his aims, even against the will and the insight of the

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[1]   Cp. chapter 7, P.55.

group. ¹⁾

group. [1]

The follower usually has as little insight into the aims of the leader as the child in those of his father. This example reveals that psychological factors other than those considered to be essential by psychologists of our time play an important role in the relation between leader and followers. (In the father-child relation it is undoubtedly the authority of the father and the love, alternatively admiration of the child that counts. This relationship was broken up because - under the influence of modern times - both have been discredited).

In a later chapter [2] we will have to deal with the development of the leader-concept. It seems necessary, however, to indicate at this point that a modern leader, i.e. a leader in a democratic society, must be able to convince his followers of the value of his aims. It must remain an open question whether it will be necessary for him to say all he knows or describe in detail what he intends doing. However, he will have to adapt to the level and the taste of his followers. This makes his task infinitely more difficult than that of a leader of earlier times,

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1) After the battle of Kunersdorf and on many other occasions the world considered Friedrich II defeated. Only he did not loose the faith in himself and his aims. Only in this way did he succeed. (Cp. also the creation of intellectual leader. In the beginning he stands alone with his ideas against a whole world and only later he may be recognized). Against this fanatic resistance of his whole family, his ministers and the whole nation Friedrich Wilhelm I created the Prussian state and the Prussian spirit. Out of a state in rack and ruin, he created a well established and wealthy nation. Shortsighted critics may try to minimise the deeds of such men. These deeds will remain unique as deeds of leadership in history. (Cp. the novel of J. Klepper: "The father"). We could give many more examples (Cp. P. 17/18).

2) Cp. Chapter 4.

provided, of course, that he is a real leader and not only an exponent

of his group. From what is said, it may be concluded that, in a democrat-

ic society, a person with outspoken demagogic abilities will more easily

succeed (as a leader) than a person with personal convictions and aims.

Some of the followers of the Group-mind doctrine realise the

great weaknesses of their theory. They believe that they can overcome

them by rather vague and uncontrolled arguments. J. Schneider (35)

e.g. admits that great men have changed the path of history. He asks,

however, whether such changes would not have happened just as well

under other leaders.

I agree that cultural developments are subjected to unchangeable

laws.[1] On the other hand, the great leaders provide the impulses

within such a development. One cannot possibly pretend that the

deeds of Alexander the Great or those of Friedrich Wilhelm I could

have been accomplished by someone else. The tragic element in

history is rather that these great men in many cases have no

successors of equal calibre who are able to make the right use of what

they have inherited.

Gibb has formulated the three most important principles of the

Group-mind doctrine as follows: "First, that leadership is always

relative to the situation - relative, that is, in two senses: (a) that

leadership flourishes only in a problem situation and (b) that the nature

of the leadership role is determined by the goal of the group. This

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1)   I have reported on these laws in detail in my book "Seelische
Kräfte und ihre Rhythmik." (41).

goal-directed behaviour is, in fact, the second principle of

leadership. The third principle is that leadership is a process of

mutual stimulation - a social interactional phenomenon in which

the attitudes, ideals and aspirations of the followers play as important

a determining role as do the individuality and personality of the leader."

(P. 272).

Taken by itself, the statement that leadership only flourishes in

a problem situation, appears to be stating the obvious. It gains in

meaning only in the light of the second principle which we have

already proved to be wrong. All aims are, first of all, subjective

aims, i.e. in so far as they have been conceived by a subject, the

leader. They obtain their objective character by taking the whole

into consideration when they are conceived. As far as the third

principle is concerned, the arguments we have put forward may

suffice.

It remains to deal in more detail with the difference which Gibb

makes between leadership or dominance. According to Gibb the

Group-mind doctrine excludes such group situations "as those

organized for professional tuition, expert advice, management, and

the like, and excludes the concept of headship" (P. 272) and he

reasons that "when once the group activity has become dominated by

an established and accepted organization, leadership tends to

disappear; " (P. 272). First of all Gibb contradicts himself when

he takes the military group situation to be an exception to this rule.

Nowhere is the group activity more strongly characterized by

"established and accepted organization" than within military

organizations. If he tries to defend this assumption by the fact

that an officer always has to make "on the spot decisions", one

could say that any executive of any establishment has to do the same.

Our civilization is ruled by the establishment. One cannot

maintain that executives are no leaders because they are part of an

establishment. If that were the case, leaders in the sense of the

Group-mind doctrine could only be the leaders of small groups which,

however, form part of an establishment, even if they are characterized

by an ideal group spirit.

It is certainly true that - under existing circumstances -

leadership tends to deteriorate to headship or dominance. A modern

leader is always in danger of leaning too strongly on the power which

is practically part and parcel of his position in an organized system.

We have already pointed out (Cp. 38, P. 87) that power has an effect

on the person who exercises it. It makes him inclined to put his

own (egoistic) aims above those of the group. It must also be

admitted that in a modern establishment the forming of a group in

which true leadership can prosper is made difficult, particularly

as a result of such factors as high labour turnover.[1] It is here

where the actual problem lies. Maintaining that "so much of so-

called leadership in industry, education, and in other social spheres

is not leadership at all, but is simply domination" (P. 273) has

prevented the better understanding of the relevant concepts. Gibb

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1)   A. Mayer (19) has strongly emphazised the fact that labour-
turnover in our times tends to take catastrophic forms.

admits that "headship should not necessarily preclude leadership".
(P.273). We have stated that the executive is in fact the leader of
our times. We should, therefore, direct our efforts toward the
selection of the right people for this task. We ought to give them an
opportunity of getting acquainted with the necessary qualities of a real
leader and to develop them.

As far as the selection is concerned, we must realize that two
world wars have eliminted many of the best future leaders. We have
to expect, therefore, that real leaders have become scarce. As a
result of this unfortunate fact, second-rate material has to be taken
into consideration, and for this reason, also the training of such
material needs special attention.

Summarising this discussion of the Group-mind doctrine, we can
say that - in the light of both general experience and objective
reasoning - this doctrine appears to be unfounded and incorrect.
Indirectly, the great man doctrine - being thousands of years old -
offers itself as the more acceptable one. A leading German Airforce
officer expresses the same by saying: "In the future... those men
who have mastered themselves, will be accepted as examples,
although it sometimes appears as if such virtues are not particularly
asked for by our welfare societies. But the technical world of
tomorrow will not be mastered unless men of courage are aiming for
the highest achievements, disciplined men and men of a clear,
realistic mind. " One is born to be a leader and one chooses the

sphere in which one's leader qualities can most effectively be
applied by oneself. Outspoken great personalities have often been
leaders in more than one sphere. <u>Leibnitz</u> played an important role
as a philosopher and as a mathematician and <u>Rubens</u> as an artist as
well as a politician or as a diplomat. Nowadays, it is primarily
the industrial leader who influences politics to a large extent and who
must at least be able to recognize the importance of scientific
achievements. It often depends on chance in what sphere a strong
personality becomes a leader. Of <u>Picasso</u> his mother used to say
while he was young: "If you will become a soldier, you will be a
general. If you become a monk, you will finally become pope."
"Instead," <u>Picasso</u> uttered later on, "I became a painter and I
became <u>Picasso.</u>" As the most essential aspects of a great
artist, <u>Picasso</u> has mentioned the ability to see into the future.
(14, P. 190).

It seems more than strange that the Group-mind doctrine tries
to ascribe this quality to the group. Obviously, it is the ability to
see into the future, the prophetic, the imagination that enables
the leader to imagine a new outlook on life[1], a new situation to
which he directs his efforts.

No doubt, however, exists about the fact that the spirit of the
group also affects the leader. We have to ask ourselves, therefore,

1)   Cp. 38, P. 126, Fig. 23 and 24.

whether it is not the interactionist-theory that - finally - offers the

last and best solution to our problem. There are, however, good

reasons to reject such a suggestion. It is the leader who creates the

group spirit (a) by choosing the most suitable people for his group,

(b) by inspiring this selected group with his spirit, (c) by choosing

new aims for it and (d) by choosing the right methods for the

achievements of such aims. Certainly it is possible - and it happens

again and again - that at times it is the group spirit created by the

leader that inspires him and fills him with new energy and strength.

This will happen when the burden of leadership appears too heavy for

him. But even this influence of the group spirit has its origin in

the strength of the personality of the leader.

We find a classical example of such an interaction in the life

of <u>Friedrich II.</u>   After he lost the battle of Kolin, everything seemed

lost to him, until an old and ordinary cavalier told him: "Lass Euer

Majestät doch Bataille Bataille sein. Es ist nur gut, dass Euer

Majestät leben. So wahr es aber einen Herrgott im Himmel gibt,

wird er uns wieder den Sieg geben." (Your Majesty let the battle be.

The main thing is that your Majesty lives. As truly as there is a God

in heaven, we will regain victory).

I have personally experienced many such examples during the

last war. In the Airforce the squadron was a group in which group

spirit was the most strongly developed. The spirit of such a group

was created by the captain of the squadron. It often happened that on

account of the stronger demands on him, he at times felt at the very

end of his tether. At such times it was the spirit of his comrades
which stimulated him afresh and gave him new strength. I observed
the same in "wings" and "Geschwader".

Summing up, we come to the preliminary conclusion that the
essence of the leader is best reflected by the Great man doctrine, if
it is interpreted in the correct way. The newly established theories
tend to explain (to a greater or lesser degree) leadership by the
group spirit which - to my mind - represents an attempt to adapt the
concept of leadership to the spirit of our times. Although we consider
such attempts to be justified, they seem to move in the wrong direction.
Undoubtedly our times confront our leaders with new tasks. In the
following chapter we will try to find out to what extent this is the case.

Finally we - once more - define the executive as the leader of
our times. His achievements depend on his leader and personality
qualities. This does not exclude a certain amount of interaction
between leaders and followers. He is the person who is responsible
for the establishment of his group. He determines its objectives and
he guides and controls the group towards the attainment of these
objectives.

4. The dependence of the necessary leader qualities on the form of
   social life in vogue.

In the theoretical part of this series of reports on the
intelligence of the adult, (38) the course of development of careers such
as that of the scientist, the artist (as intellectual leaders) and that of

the executive[1] have already been described (P. 77 etc.). We

arrived at a result which can best be summarized with the words of

H. W. Erbe (10): "Die Zeit der mächtigen Persönlichkeiten ist vorbei:

Nicht in der Wirtschaft, nicht in der Wissenschaft, nicht im Staat ist

die einsam überragende Persönlichkeit, der sich die übrigen willig

unterwerfen, in der Lage, die Aufgaben der Zeit mit ihren vielfältigen

Strukturen zu bewältigen. Der neue Stil heisst Kooperation, heisst

Teamarbeit, heisst Gruppenstruktur."[2]

Further accentuating the role of the executive, I have

expressed the latter as follows: "The manager of today is no longer a

single ruler and the only person who has the appropriate knowledge, but -

expressed in an exaggerated manner - he is a mere 'employee', i.e.,

a person who - even if he is highly competent - in the end is

responsible to the (often anonymous) 'organization' (Cp. 38, P. 89).

He is the man in the middle, not at the top.

E.R. Stettinius, a well known American industrialist, has

stressed another important aspect in this historical development.

"The expansion of business units," he says, "the substitution of

corporate for personal ownership, and the influence that improved

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1) There, the concepts of the manager and that of the executive
have been taken to be synonimous. Later research has caused
us to distinguish clearly between the functions of an executive
and a manager (Cp. P. 6 etc.).

2) The time of powerful personalities is gone. Neither in
industry, nor in science nor in politics is the exceptional
solitary personality - to whom the others willingly submit - in
a position to master the tasks of the time with their manifold
structures. The new style is cooperation, teamwork and
group-structure.

methods of communication and transportation have had on distribution,

have all operated to impersonalize business administration." (8, P.204).

Let us first turn to the initial decisive point of the qualities

of the modern leader that have been stressed. "He is no longer the

exceptional single personality. He is an employee."

The question arises whether this was not the same with the

great leaders of the past.

Of the great leaders of armies we can say that they had the

same responsibility towards their superiors and their subordinates as

a modern executive has. They were responsible for war strategy and

they had a responsibility towards their rulers. Their decisions had

to take both responsibilities into consideration. This is the factor

which caused us to characterize the intelligence of the adult quite

generally by the "commander-view".

The same is valid for great politicians and statesmen.

Whether it is a Thomas Moore, a Richelieu or a Bismarck, all of

them - one could say - stood between two fires. Certainly it was easier

for them than for present military leaders or politicians to understand

what their superiors expected from them. The will of a single person

(e.g. the king) can be comprehended and guided more easily than that

of a democratic state as represented by a party consisting of many

people. Although, therefore, in principle there is little difference

between the leader of yesterday and today (in these two spheres of

activity), the leading personalities of the past surmounted most of

their followers far more than those of today. The circumstances

offered more scope for "free" decisions, especially if such a statesman

was the king himself. It would, however, be wrong to assume that

kings did not carry responsibility towards a "superior". This

responsibility is most clearly expressed by the concept "king by the

Grace of God". It expresses a responsibility towards a higher

(religious) order. Even in the case of kings of an earlier (pre-Christian)

epoch, the dependence on the Gods has always played an important role.

There have only been kings during eras ruled by religion. Democratic

forms of society only appeared with the decline of religion. [1]

In commerce and industry, things are somewhat different;

in a certain sense also in pedagogy as can be seen from the quotation of

Erbe (Cp. P. 31/32). In the theoretical part of this series of

publications (38, P. 88) I have already pointed out that the great man

in industry of earlier decades was solely responsible for his organization.

He was the person who created the necessary favourable state of

business, etc.. There was no responsibility towards a superior,

except that towards his own work. The same was the case with the

creators of new school-movements, e.g. Lietz, Geheeb, Wynecken, etc..

The intellectual leaders of earlier times, particularly the

scientists, must also be regarded as belonging to the same group.

[1] Countries like South Africa, in which religion and democratic forms of society exist alongside each other, represent exceptional cases. In the case of South Africa, the democratic form was taken over from the West where the decline of religion had already started with the French revolution.

For them - as has already been stated (cp. P. 18, etc.) - the

responsibility towards the top meant a responsibility toward their

work or - expressed more accurately - towards truth.

Summing up, it could be said that the position and the tasks

of the leaders did not change as radically and generally as it may appear

on first sight. It must be admitted that the responsibility towards the

top has in many spheres (military service, politics and even science)

become more diffuse, less surveyable, more anonymous and more

difficult to comprehend, and needs more stringent study. [1] In his

remarks, planning and actions, the modern leader cannot act as

arbitrarily as before. He must consider a multitude of interests, i. e.

he must act more diplomatically than arbitrarily. In addition to all

this, complex circumstances force him to listen to the advice of

specialists. Seen from a practical point of view, all these changed

circumstances have lead to the development of the executive.

In commerce and industry this change of leadership is

undoubtedly more significant. If the industrial leader of the past felt

responsible only towards his own work - whereby his personal advantage

was the decisive factor - he is now placed in the position of all leaders,

i. e. he has also a responsibility towards the top and he has also become

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1)   The punishment of political and military leaders after the
      second world war may serve as an example (not considering
      punishments for crimes that had been committed). Such
      punishments will have to be taken into consideration by
      leaders of today as well as by future leaders. In this way they
      are forced to take their responsibility towards the top more
      seriously. It must, however, be remembered that the
      "Vae victis" is no invention of our times.

an executive. "Machines and materials more than ever before are products of organized science and the laboratory. And merchandizing too - with its market analysis, consumer research, pricing procedures, and advertising methods, each in itself embodying a well-developed technique and its own special approach - has been converted into a scientific procedure." (8, P.204). This remark of E.R. Stettinius makes it clear that even the industrial leader depends increasingly on the advice of specialists and becomes to a certain extent a scientist himself, (Cp. 38, P. 99, Fig. 16).

Vice versa it has already been mentioned (38, P.105) that the modern scientist, on account of teamwork and administrative duties, develops more and more in the direction of an executive. Even scientists in the literary field are partially subjected to the force of this development.

Though we have recognised that the nature of the leader has not changed very much (seen from a principal point of view) we must admit that the format of the leader personality has diminished. In other words: The "solitary exceptional" personalities may not be the best executives or the best modern leaders. We must, however, admit that the executive must be a "relatively exceptional" personality. He must be a personality who is more able than others to adapt. He must be a diplomatic personality and one who is prepared to compromise. But even today the best executive will be the one who is most able to 'stick' to his own ideas, who is a strong personality and who is able to maintain it.

In this connection it seems to me absolutely necessary to distinguish clearly between the concept of an executive and that of a manager (Cp. P.6). Even if it is impossible to delineate clearly between these concepts, one could say that the leader qualities mentioned are less important for the administrative officer or the manager. For him rule and regulations, their interpretation and application, form the main part of his duties. The decisive moment in the activity of an executive remains the creation of this network of regulations and the responsibility for their efficient functioning.

5. The problem of leader qualities.

We have covered the first step towards the solution of our problem by stating that the executive is the modern type of leader. The question which we have to answer now, is a question which can hardly be answered precisely. In our introduction (P. 1) we have already mentioned the flood of literature which aims at answering it, e.g. on the basis of comprehensive and exact job analyses and also by interviewing experienced executives. Fig. 1 indicates that the results differ vastly. No specific job analyses results have been considered in this table since they do not lend themselves easily to this type of survey. We have concentrated on those qualities which the authors consider to be essential.

Firstly, it will be observed that the quality to lead is mentioned only as one of many qualities. Practically all authors recognize its necessity but few understand the term in the same way.

AUTHORS	FORM OF INTELLIGENCE	INTEREST	AT'ARDS LIFE	EMOTIONALITY	CHARACTER	ORGANISATION
STOGDILL, R.	Capacity (intelligence, alertness, verbal facility, originality, judgement.)		Persisten			
GIBB, C.A.	Superior intelligence, superior in other mental abilities.					
BROWN & RAPHAEL	Power to reason accurately and speedily.					
HENRY, W.E.						
PAGE, H.E.	High intelligence, genial			Stable		
WEST, H.	Analytical. Able to break down a project into its components. Bring relevant facts to light.			Cool, friendly	Honest, does not act for own advantage.	
BROWN, J.F.						
MANDELL, M M.	Judgement, ability to analyse and evaluate. Ability to judge people.	Wide interests	Alertness developm	Freedom from hypersensitivity. Reflective.	Dependable	Organising ability. Ability to delegate, to administer schedules in advance.
ARGYRIS, C.			:	Objective, ability to take "knocks" without hostility. Accept victory/defeat gracefully.		
VAN LENNEP D.F.	Judging from distance. Analytical combined with ability to anticipate. Imagination in close contact with reality. Directed towards the simple, unity and good style.		Alertness d, practical,	Not react too quickly and impulsively. Calmness.		
REVANS, R.W.	Ability to free oneself from irrelevant clutter. To be simple. Need to grasp concepts more difficult than those of simple profit and loss. Imagination. Analytical approach.		Mental a·y important.	Cold, patient.		Need for economy of managerial time and effort.
SCHILLER, K.	"Fingerspitzengefühl"					
SPAETHEN, R.	Flexible					
SEIDENSTICKER, W.						
BLOHM, H.						Ability to make right use of specialists, to co-ordinate.
MUHLFENZL, R.	Imagination. "Fingerspitzengefühl"					
REYNDERS, H F.F.	High intelligence			Emotionally mature.	Balanced, integrity, stability.	
EWING, W.	Disciplined thinking, analytical mind.			Objective.		
STRYKER, P.	Inquiring mind			Emotional stability.	Dependable, fair, integrity. Incorruptible.	Co-ordinating several main functions Maintains and develops an organisation.
BARNARD, C..	Flexible	Comprehensiveness of interest.	Alertness			Maintenance of organisation communication. Selecting leaders, creating system of commun.
TAGIURI, R.	Learning ability, ability to change and grow.					Delegation of authority. Co-ordination.
MASON, P.L.	Ability to solve problems, to adapt to new situations, to analyse and make judgements. Original ideas, engineering mind, fresh approach to problems.					Organises own work and that of others. Delegation, follow up, control of position activities.

Figure: 1.

According to our way of thinking all other qualities mentioned form part of the ability to lead. It can, however, be seen that also as far as these qualities are concerned, authors do not agree in their interpretations. Apart from this, some authors stress the importance of one quality which is not even mentioned by others and vice versa. It seems a hopeless undertaking to try and form a picture of what the most important qualities of an executive are by starting with such a survey.

As already mentioned, (P. 5 etc.) we cannot expect a solution to our problem by a job analysis, comprehensive and thorough as it may be. What must be expected from a leader must necessarily depend on very different circumstances and on the prevailing work-climate.

Presently this opinion is generally accepted. Ohmann (27) e.g. says: "... criterion measures available to us are both inadequate and inaccurate. Another complication in establishing sound criteria stems from the apparant fact that executives in similar jobs may succeed for quite different reasons. There are obviously different styles of management and most executives are well aware of their own assets and know how to capitalize on them. Sometimes they are also quite aware of their personal limitations and devise ways to compensate for these and thus minimize their impact. When two executives are equally successful on a given job for entirely different reasons, the criterion difficulties are multiple." (P. 8-9). He arrives at the following result: "A quarter century of such psychometric research has not made much progress in the solution to executive selection. If, however, it seems desirable to continue studies of the total executive function, then I would suggest that

at this stage in our research we abandon the atomistic psychometric approach in favour of a more exploratory attack with clinical methods. (Underlined by author). There is a danger that our present bias for quantification of a myriad of specifics may result in loss of perspective on the essentials in the problem leaving a dearth of hypotheses." (P. 11-12). Ward (55) also comes to the conclusion that "formal job descriptions...are not satisfactory for this purpose" (selection of executives) (P. 27). Tagiuri states that, for the selection of executives, the right personality-theory is lacking and that work analyses are not "psychologically useful." As early as 1941 the reason for it was found by Horst (16). He says that "there has been a tremendous gap between the terminology of job description and the terminology of the description of human abilities;" (P. 121). Tagiuri (50) summarizes these results by saying: "While research cannot proceed without criteria, criteria of such complex behaviour as executive function are rather ephemeral and arbitrary things;" (P. 37) and in another paper (51) "Good executive performance is an evaluative concept."(P. 111).

In the case of an outspoken leader personality, we can expect that he will be able to do justice to any kind of leader performance as long as his interests lie in the sphere of work concerned. It seems, however, wrong to search only for such exceptional personalities. Firstly the number of such really exceptional men is limited[1] and secondly because the demands for a modern executive do not conform with the tendency of really great men, to have the courage of their

1)   Cp. P. 25.

convictions. It is, therefore, understandable if an author like

Reynders (33) asks himself, after elaborating on all the qualities that

must be expected from a modern executive: "En waar gaan ons nou

hierdie superman kry?"[1]

We will have to postpone the attempt to answer this question.

First of all we will have to solve the problem of how to find the demands

which an executive has to fulfil in a most objective way.

Each one of us takes our place in the structure of leader and

follower, we are involved in it. We, therefore, form an image of what

we expect from a leader even if it is a vague one. If asked about this

image, we will - in our answer - most often start from negative

experiences with leaders. Our image will, therefore, tend to be biased.

Nevertheless, it seems permissible to me to form this personal

picture of a leader. Such a picture will be more reliable and objective,

the less it is based on mere personal experience. Therefore, starting

from the personal image, we ought to form our image by basing it on

objective scientific research (job descriptions) and experiences of

outstanding executives.

Following this procedure and basing it on a well established theory

of personality (Cp. 16, 18, 38, 41, 42), we believe that a good executive

requires the following qualities:

a. The good executive must have format, i.e. he must be a firm,

goal-orientated, balanced personality. He must possess a high degree

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1)   "But where will we get such a superman?".

of selfconfidence, initiative, energy, drive, endurance and must be able to concentrate well. Compared with followers his ego must stand out by its strength, certainty of its aims and its being well balanced. An overaccentuation of single factors in this total structure will necessarily lead to onesided developments and cause frictions. To be strong and well-balanced appear to be the most important factors.

b. <u>The good executive must clearly distinguish between personal and organizational interests and he must place the interests of his organization above his own interests.</u>

The strength of their ego misleads many executives to identify the interests of his organization with those of his own. The greater the organization, the greater the power of the executive and the greater the temptation to give his own interests preference to those of the organization. This does not necessarily mean that he looses sight of the interest of his own organization completely or that he uses them consciously as a sort of camouflage. The attitude as such leads unconsciously, and with necessity, to incorrect actions. In such a case he does not tolerate other gods alongside himself, he does not give younger or ambitious people sufficient opportunities, he frustrates older subordinates by not acknowledging their achievements[1], does not welcome criticism, reacts too temperamentally, acts too hastily

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1) In many government services it is customary that new ideas, proposals, etc., must be introduced in such a way as to give the impression that they come from the executive.

(particularly if he wants to demonstrate his own superiority) and he sees in others only a means to increase the power of his own ego.

We have already stated frequently that power has the tendency to affect the individual, e.g. by overestimating the value of his own ego. People, who by nature are inclined this way, are naturally affected more strongly by such psychological effects. In this manner the discrepancy between the interests of the organization and those of the person is increased to the disadvantage of the organization.

c. <u>The good executive must see and judge problems from a sufficiently large distance.</u>

This distance from problems is different from the distance from the ego of which we have already spoken. A person who acts in the interest of his organization gains the necessary distance from the own ego without being conscious of it. What is meant under this heading is the "commander view" which we have dealt with extensively in the theoretical part of this series of publications. It means acting responsibly toward subordinates and superiors.

This attitude emphasizes the problem of the speed of decisions. Any person acting from a sufficient distance to problems, will not act too hastily. However, quick decisions are often expected from executives. Such decisions include necessarily a certain risk and related to this, the consciousness and preparedness to take this risk in the sense of remaining responsible toward superiors and subordinates. In such 'split-second' decisions, the awareness of the perspective towards

problems has to be maintained. Where this is not the case, we are dealing with 'wild guess' decisions, which include too great a risk.

d. <u>The good executive must possess a high intelligence which enables him to comprehend the essence of a situation (analytical intelligence) and which must also enable him to act and judge practically.</u>

Here again a word from <u>E. R. Stettinius</u> best explains what is expected from an executive as far as his intelligence is concerned. He says: "It has come to be that the man who has the ability to marshall all the relevant facts - to weigh and evaluate them - to derive logical conclusions from them and base his leadership thereon - is the type of individual required in the highest posts in industrial management today. <u>He must know the difference between fact and surmise, have a knowledge of the methods that establish the correlation of facts and be schooled in the art of drawing conclusions only when they flow logically out of an analysis of the facts.</u>" (Quoted by <u>M. J. Dooher</u> (8), P. 204).

Practical intelligence (common sense) and analytical intelligence must be closely related in the case of an executive. The common sense, thereby, has much in common with the ability to act from a sufficient distance. The person acting from a sufficient distance is aware not only of his responsibility towards subordinates and superiors, but his perspective viewing of situations, problems and things also enables him to decide on the practical value of a possible decision. "An administrator has to think of a great many things, widely, in their interconnections, for a short while." (<u>C. P. Snow</u>).

The ability to view matters in perspective must be combined

with the ability to comprehend (analytically) the situation as a whole,

to perceive the essence and to exclude unnecessary detail.

e. The good executive must be imaginative.

The mere comprehension of a situation or the mere following up

of directives or remaining within a certain sphere of images would soon

lead to the stagnation of an organization. The well known painter

Alfred Kubin[1] goes as far as saying that life is imagination and he

interprets his statement by pointing out that the present picture of our

world has also only been created by our imagination. According to him

this picture will stagnate unless our imagination helps us to create a

new one, it will degenerate and perish. What he expresses here in

connection with our technical and scientific picture of the world as a

whole is valid for any organization. Real progress is impossible without

the ability to come to new ideas, to see new possibilities, to be able

to combine. The concept of creativity - so often misused - is based

(apart from the will and the capacity to create) on imagination

(Cp. 38, P. 105, etc.). The same is valid for all productive, original

work.

f. The good executive must strive for unity, simplicity and style.

The striving for unity presupposes the ability - in the case of

single decisions - to keep the whole in mind. The good executive's

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1) In the only novel written by him.

way of looking at things must, therefore, be comprehensive. This

again is closely related to the commander's view. Only from a

greater distance is it possible to gain a comprehensive view which

overlooks details. [1] Each single decision is related to the whole. He

who gets lost in details, complicates the whole. Only people who see

the simple in the whole can prevent a complication of the structure of

the whole, which may lead to a state of affairs that can no longer be

surveyed or governed.

An executive is forced - daily and by the hour - to communicate

his ideas to others. It is, therefore, necessary for him to do this in

a good and understandable style.

g. <u>The good executive must be able to judge people well.</u>

Today in practically all large organizations, the selection of

staff is left to the psychologist, at least as far as staff of the lower

and medium levels are concerned. Nevertheless, the demands on the

executive to be able to judge people will remain high. Very often he

selects people of a higher level himself. This makes his task more

difficult than that of a psychologist. It is of relatively little importance

for the organization as a whole whether a single and ordinary employee

is very efficient. He can be replaced quite easily. It is completely

different, however, if executives fail for one or other reason.

Irreparable damage can be done before it is discovered. Only by his

1) According to newspapers, the astronaut <u>Armstrong</u> has expressed
the wish that political leaders be sent to the moon. From there
they would get the right perspective.

ability to judge people well, can a higher executive prevent or discover

such cases. "Granted that it is difficult to evaluate human beings,"

concludes E.R. Stettinius (8, P.204) from rich experience, "isn't it

strange that, while large organizations maintain precise inventories of

physical properties and materials, men - and principally executives

and leaders - infrequently enter into the formal equation."

But let us leave the question of better methods of selection of

leaders open for the time being. (We will have to deal with it at a

later stage). Even if the selection problem can be solved, it will be

still necessary for executives to have a good knowledge of people. With

selection, only the initial step has been taken in the direction of a better

work-organization. A good (and well selected) worker may fail

completely if placed in a position or in a work-situation for which he is

not suited. A high degree of the ability to judge people is required for

placing and developing people. An executive will achieve little for his

organization if he looks at the individual worker merely as a number.

He must possess the ability to inspire his co-operators, to take an

interest in their work, to encourage and - where necessary - to

reprimand them.

The kind of knowledge of human beings which is expected from an

executive, therefore, cannot be taken to be the same as that of a

psychologist. To a great extent the psychologist gains his knowledge

from measurements and quantitative results. The science of expression

and personality ("Charakterkunde") as well as the development of

empathy have so far been grossly neglected by psychology or have been

rejected as unreliable 'measures'. The knowledge of human beings as applied by executives, on the other hand, is based mainly on empathy. He is not only concerned with members of his organization but to a great extent also with foreigners whose integrity, reliability, etc., he must judge. Wrong judgements may often have fatal results.

h. The good executive must be an expert in his field of activity.

This demand seems to be self-evident. It includes, however, many problems.

To start with, our assumption that a good leader could be efficient in different spheres, may be interpreted as meaning that he does not need specific knowledge. It could be assumed that what he needs to know for his task as a leader, he could acquire quickly by means of his high intelligence. This conclusion seems the more justified as - vice versa - it is expected from an executive (e.g. an engineer) to acquire all the knowledge he needs as a leader and as a person dealing with staff without a training in psychology. This, however, cannot be considered as an ideal and, therefore, it can neither be considered ideal to have no knowledge of his field of activity.

The complication caused by circumstances, e.g. the fact that most organizations are involved in one or other scientific and technical activity makes it absolutely necessary that the executive has specific knowledge at least in one specific sphere. Today it is expected that an executive (apart from his qualifications in a certain sphere, e.g. engineering) must also qualify in industrial economy. This indicates the trend towards a need for comprehensive knowledge ("Fachwissen") of the leader (a development which has its limits).

For the specialists amongst the executives, e.g. the law-adviser, the production-manager, etc., a maximum of specific knowledge is necessary. This is selfevident and needs no further explanation.

Concerning the intellectual leaders (scientists) - as far as they act as executives - we have already reported extensively in the theoretical part of this series of publications. In this report we have also pointed out the danger of the conflict-situation to which they are exposed. A scientist in the position of an executive may have been in the possession of a comprehensive knowledge of his science originally. The more he is engaged in executive-tasks, however, the more his knowledge will become outdated. As it is - and must remain so - his main task is to supervise the scientific production of his organization, to stimulate and to inspire and, therefore, sufficient time must be allowed to him to keep himself informed of the developments in his field. This refers to the study of literature as well as to his own research work. In our times such a demand is particularly valid because it becomes more and more evident that work in the scientific-technical sphere, without an insight into its effects, must have catastrophic results. [1]

Such considerations allow the conclusion that the highest degree of knowledge of his particular sphere must be expected from an executive.

Existing circumstances tend more and more toward a change of the scientific leader to an outspoken executive. Therefore, only two

1) The letter of a well known German scientist reads: "... administrative and scientific work do not agree at all with each other; the former allows under no circumstances postponing of dates and the latter demands leisure and freedom from pressure of time more than anything else."

alternatives remain to allow him sufficient time for scientific work. Firstly, the administrative tasks must be separated from the executive tasks. In practice this means that more freedom of action and responsibility must be given to the administrative officer. This infers that only such administrative officers may be promoted to leading positions who are in the possession of a fair amount of leader qualities.

While reasonable use has been made of this alternative, the second alternative has hardly been considered in most cases. In fact it has been partially rejected. The scientific executive must also delegate in his own sphere. The time needed for his administrative function should be equal, probably less, to the time needed for the scientific control and the advancement of a research institute consisting of many divisions. Amongst others the latter entails the coordination of research work, the coordination with work in similar spheres (possibly done by other institutes), creating contacts with foreign institutes working in similar directions and the coordination of such work with the work done within the own institute. For the purpose of creating sufficient time for a scientific executive (e.g. the director of an institute), to enable him to do research of his own and to lead the scientific work of his institute from the necessary distance - he needs, apart from an administrative officer, an outstanding scientist who can take charge of these tasks. Such a person ought to be free from other obligations apart from his own research work.

One could say that in some organizations this work is done by the assistant-director. An assistant-director, however, is seen more in the light of a representative of the director, i.e. his tasks are more or

less identical with those of the director. In practice he tends to remain the head of a division. This, however, should be avoided in favour of the tasks mentioned.

i. The good executive of today must be more diplomatic, more prepared to compromise and be more adaptable than the leader type of yesterday.

This demand has already been discussed (Cp. P. 33 etc.), but needs further elaboration since it is a specific quality of the modern executive and is of decisive importance. It should be kept in mind that in considering this demand we are inclined to exclude the really exceptional leader. Generally speaking, the format of a personality is closely related to the degree with which the person remains faithful towards himself. Such men stand and fall for what they uphold; in extreme cases they are prepared to sacrifice their lives for what they believe in.[1] This is what makes them great and strong and this is why they radiate so much power of conviction.[2] In earlier times pressure was also exerted on such people. In fact, the means to force such people to give in, have been considerably stronger and more brutal than they can be nowadays (with the exception of dictatorships). Ultimately this means death with torture. In a constitutional state this

1) This fact is dramatically illustrated by R. Bolt in his tragedy "A man for all Seasons." (4).

2) Cp. Martin Luther at the "Reichstag" of Worms: "Hier stehe ich Ich kann nicht anders. Gott helfe mir. Amen." (Here I stand. I cannot change my mind. God help me. Amen).

is hardly possible (although not totally excluded). More "humanitarian" methods are applied nowadays. The person is dismissed. If he tries to protest, he will be silenced and possibly abused or otherwise be made ineffective. He sees himself captured by an invisible and inpenetrable net of political intrigues, financial restrictions, lack of communication, etc., preventing any freedom of action. Previously he could change from one ruler to another, or emigrate to another country. He could create for himself a new sphere of activity. Nowadays the anonymity of the ruling powers incapacitates him. He must - to use a proverb - "howl with the wolves" or resign. There is no other choice.

Such a formulation may appear exaggerated. Undoubtedly it hits the nail on the head. What would happen to an executive in the West if he were to e.g. raise his voice against certain democratic excesses while democracy rules the whole social structure? We need not talk about the East.

Our statement is not only valid within the political sphere. Figure 1, which is mainly based on the analysis of industrial leaders, contains three authors who expect outspoken conformistic attitudes from an executive. An executive must - according to Brown (5) follow the directions of the organization and he must submit to the ideas of the group. Henry (15) expects that an executive "must have a liking" for his superiors. This standpoint is also shared by Argyris (1) who formulates it as follows: "An industrial leader must possess the ability to take adverse decisions of his superiors gracefully."

Admittedly, the majority of the other authors accentuate contrary tendencies, even up to the point of aggression. It is not clear, however,

whether they are referring in this respect to employees or superiors.

Obviously, if one talks of leaders, one thinks firstly and mostly of

their relation toward their followers. It is frequently overlooked that

the modern leader is always and simultaneously a follower. This fact

in itself proves that the modern executive must possess both the

qualities of a leader and those of a follower, i.e. a certain amount of

conformism.

It is for this reason that the modern leader or the executive

must be ready to compromise, must be flexible, diplomatic, adaptable

and, to a certain extent, conformistic. He must be able to hide his

own convictions and to show only so much as the given social structure

permits.

6. The Leadership problem of the future.

We may now ask whether this modern type of leader will also

do well in the future. This is a very serious question. We may also

formulate our question as follows: Seeing that the modern leader must

on the one hand answer to the highest demands and on the other hand

lacks the most essential qualities of a strong personality, will he be

able to tackle the tasks of the future?

In fact, the events of our time have already proved that we can

only answer the question negatively. Modern leaders in all spheres

and all over the world have e.g. proved to be unable to solve the

problem of the rebellion of the youth which is directed against them,

i.e. the "establishment" and finally against any form of authority.

They have tried to counter this movement by small concessions, they

have calmed themselves with the idea that they have only to do with a

small minority of politically infected youths whom they would control

sooner or later, or they have fought them by force. We have destroyed -

one after the other - the authority of the kings ("Landesväter), of the

church ("Kirchenväter") and even of the family ("Familienväter") and

now we are surprised that the youth has become suspiscious of any

form of authority and that it wants to destroy it. In their attempts to

destroy authority the youth nowhere met strong personalities;

personalities who did not merely demand authority but who had

authority. This has strengthened their will to achieve their ends. The

weakness of the modern executives was sufficient proof for them that

their demands were justified. It is significant that they could formulate

their demands only in a negative way. This seems to indicate that

they also lack real leaders, i.e. people with imagination who are able

to develop a new philosophy of life and who possess the ability to

convince people, an ability which can only be developed from positive

ideals.

It must be recognized that the rebellion of the youth must by no

means be considered merely as a reaction to the "unmastered past".

From what has been said it becomes obvious that the "unmastered

future" possibly plays a more important role. Responsible for this

"unmastered future", however, are the executives of our establishment.

Today each individual executive - in whatever sphere he may be - is

confronted with the decisive question of how tendencies, which are

inherent in our scientific-technical philosophy of life and which obviously

our time. He says: "Well, the father gets accustomed to having equal rights with his children and he is afraid of his sons. The son does neither respect his father and his parents, nor does he feel shy. He is free! Under such circumstances the teacher is afraid of his pupils and he flatters them; the esteem that pupils have for their teacher and educator is small. On the whole, the younger ones consider themselves as equals to the older ones and they attack them in word and deed. The old people sit together with the young ones and they are friendly and pleasing. They conform to their views as they do not want to be considered as unfriendly and dominant. The important fact is: the mind of the citizen gets weak! They get enraged and they cannot bear it if they are demanded to subject to a certain extent. In the end they do not even obey either the written or the unwritten laws. Nobody, in any sense, may dominate. And just that, dear friend, is the beautiful and youthful start of "tyrannis". I may add that olochcracy (rule of the mob) can also be a form of tyrannis." (Edition of Kröner, P. 284, etc.).

With these last sentences Plato is answering our question to a certain extent. If one tries to avoid any form of authority, and certainly all forms of dictatorship (with an anxiety bordering on hysteria) one ends up with the worst form of dictatorship that one can imagine, that of the mob (olochcracy). Should we end up in such a state of affairs - and all symptoms seem to indicate this - our question for the future has lost its meaning. The executive would be the last to master such a state as a leader.

J.W. Mannhardt (22) maintains that it can only be mastered by the

creation of new values: "There are values", he says, "which are designated to a specific epoch and with the passing of the epoch they lose their validity. Apart from the eternal values such as faith in a higher, transcendental, superhuman force which fights the evil (and which, from the start, were peculiar to human faith), there are values which are related to the human being per se as well as to the original order in which he has lived from earliest times. (Underlined by author). They are always valid. No epoch can exist without them. Such values are the family and the nation as the highest forms of community and, therefore, also the state which is formed by the latter." (P. 6)[1]

We will not try to answer the question of whether the values which - per se - are related to the human being and the original order can be imagined without the eternal values. The statement of Mannhardt impels us to ask who will be able to create these new values and who is able to realize them against the will of the mob. In my opinion only a leader with exceptional qualities will be able to achieve such an aim; certainly no executive. A leader type of earlier times could have possibly succeeded or rather one who was even greater than he and possibly endowed with an outspoken prophetic character. It would be a senseless undertaking to search for such leaders or even select them.

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[1] "Es gibt Werte, die einem bestimmten Zeitalter zugeordnet sind und mit ihm ihre Geltung verlieren. Es gibt neben den ewigen Werten, wie dem von Anfang an dem Menschen eigenen Glauben an eine höhere, überirdische, über dem Menschen stehenden Macht, die dem Bösen wehrt, solche, die dem Menschen schlechthin zugeordnet sind wie auch der Urordnung, in der er von eh und je her gelebt hat und die dadurch eine dauernde Gültigkeit haben. Kein Zeitalter kann sie entbehren. Dazu gehören Familie und Volk als die höchsten Gemeinschaften und damit der von letzterem gebildete Staat".

From our view into the future the following seems to emerge: The type of leader of our times, the executive, must be considered as a type of leader who will not last. It would, however, be advisable - when selecting such executives - not to loose sight of the type needed for the future. He may be - for the time being - an extraordinarily inconvenient and inopportune leader and even more so an inconvenient follower. If we want to change our present social order, we ought to allow him as much scope as possible.

Keeping this in mind, we will have to add one last quality to those expected from executives: In whatever sphere he may be working, he must have an appreciation of the problems of our time - heading for a catastrophe unthought of - and he must be prepared to introduce fundamental changes whenever a situation demands this and he must have the strength and the format to achieve this against all resistance with the strength of his whole personality, risking possibly his existence, but keeping in mind what can possibly be achieved.

It may seem as if the expression "but keeping in mind what can possibly be achieved" contrasts with what is demanded. It must, therefore, be taken con grano salis. What is meant by this is certainly not a sort of a shield behind which each executive would very much like to hide to avoid the consequences of his actions. Risking ones existence will be necessary where a fundamental change seems absolutely essential without harming society. By the term society we do not mean the existing society.

7. The Problem of Selecting Executives.

We now have to raise afresh the question of a secure basis for methods of selection.

It has already been pointed out that methods like job-analyses will not do (P. 3, etc.). It appears valid to correlate various methods of selection used in practice with the actual work-achievement. If no positive correlations are obtained, it will be necessary to establish new methods which - to a greater extent - aim at the very essence of the executive, as described above, taking simultaneously into consideration all that has been said about the intelligence of the adult. Such a procedure would offer the opportunity of proving which of the theories of leadership discussed can be accepted. If it can e.g. be proved that it is possible to determine leader qualities by means of an individual test (such as e.g. the Willemse Board) or that we can achieve the same or better insight into leader qualities by means of e.g. a group discussion, we would have proved that neither the Group-mind doctrine nor the Interactionist-doctrine can be correct. Since R. F. Skawran (44, Cp. clinical part of this publication) and P. R. Skawran (40) have already proved that an individual test like the Willemse Board definitely reveals leader qualities, it can be expected that experiments on a larger scale will lead to the same results.

The practical part of this publication can only be published at a later date, seeing that the necessary research will stretch over at least two years. In these more clinically orientated investigations

the primary objective will be to search for more reliable criteria

for actual leader qualities in the work situation. Simultaneously

the results of the Willemse Board (as an individual test for leader

qualities in conjunction with others means of investigation such as the

selfdescription, the incomplete sentences, the Wartegg-drawing test,

the interview., etc.), will be compared with the results of the

leaderless group-tasks, the "In-Basket Test" and those of the

theoretical and practical intelligence tests.

It is expected that, in this way, we will obtain a new insight

into the personality qualities of executives and also into the types of

intelligence prevailing amonst executives. It should be possible to

determine to what extent imagination, practical and administrative

intelligence are of importance, apart from the purely theoretical-

analytical intelligence, and how they are interrelated.

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