

AN ABSTRACT OF THE THESIS OF

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(Name) (Degree) (Major)

Date Thesis presented May 15, 1939.

Title An Analytical Study of Papers on Leaders  
and Leadership.

Abstract Approved:   
(Major Professor)

Leadership is a factor in education which has been disregarded for a long time. Very little has been done in analyzing the traits of leadership. Eichler combined the many lists of traits of leadership into one list and found the total number of traits to be forty-six. From this list he found by factor analysis that eleven traits included practically all of the factors of leadership included in the list of all the writers on this subject. He lists intelligence, scholarship, social intelligence, height, and ascendance in what he terms the objective group, and vitality, individuality, social adaptability, self control, persistence, and voice in the subjective group.

The papers of a great many more writers than were listed in the bibliography were studied. Only those writers were listed from whom quotations were taken. Several types of leaders were listed from various sources, direct, indirect,

autocratic, democratic, partisan, scientific, social, executive, mental, and special. Although hundreds of papers have been written on leadership, the majority of them are of an essay variety and not of a scientific nature. Such purely subjective material was disregarded in this paper. An attempt was made to find among the papers of a more scientific nature evidence of a satisfactory definition of leadership. No adequate definition was found. Five definitions were quoted from various writers as attempts to discover the true definition of leadership. It is generally considered that leadership operates in social situations but it may be found in private research, literary and arts attainments apart from apparently social situations.

Each writer upon leadership has approached it from a different viewpoint. The majority of these writers have supplied only subjective material although several writers have made some contributions of an objective nature through their attempts to formulate tests and measures of the various traits of leadership. This paper presents five approaches to the study of leadership, (a) the subjective, which deals with the subjective material of merit relative to types of childhood training, delinquent case-problems, adolescent age studies, the development of superior and genius children, hereditary and environmental influences, and leadership development through extra-curricular activities; (b) the tabulatory studies, which discuss and list the trait groups presented by several authors

with some comparisons on leadership and followership; (c) the physiological studies, which are principally concerned with the physical relationships in human behavior and heredity, and endocrine gland and autonomic nervous system influences in their relationship to leadership; (d) the situational studies of leadership and opportunities for its practice, since writers seem to be generally agreed that leadership occurs more often in social situations involving leaders and their followers in either spontaneous or in chance groups; and (e) the more analytical studies, which attempt objective work and give a few suggestions relative to possible courses of action to be pursued in future studies in the analysis of leadership.

The summary contains ten conclusions of a general nature.

AN ANALYTICAL STUDY OF PAPERS ON LEADERS  
AND LEADERSHIP

by

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A THESIS

submitted to the  
OREGON STATE COLLEGE

in partial fulfillment of  
the requirements for the  
degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE

May 1939

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## ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The author is deeply indebted to Dr. H. R. Laslett, professor of educational psychology, for his sacrifices in time and excellent counsel, without which the work vital to the success of this thesis would have been impossible.

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## AN ANALYTICAL STUDY OF LEADERS AND LEADERSHIP

### CHAPTER I

Leadership is a term that is heard even more frequently today than in former years. Leadership is as old as the human race, and doubtless older. It is a trait found among the lower animals where it is dependent on strength or cunning or both. Leadership is a complicated function so little analyzed as yet that it is usually regarded as an intangible quantity. Psychologists, educators, and public speakers have talked and written a great deal about it but, thus far, have failed to learn much about what it really is or the way in which it operates. Partridge (33) has written: "For many years men have written and spoken of the qualities that make for successful leadership. A complete cataloguing of these qualities would reveal many contradictions, duplications and vagaries."

The proper training of leaders is a vital problem to all social systems, but especially to democracies or democratic systems. The selection and training of leaders within the democracies must be well done if particular democratic systems, or even the democratic ideals, are to endure. The development of acceptable forms of society

depends upon the quality of their leadership. This has been true ever since history began to be recorded. It is true of both large and small units of society. Governments are recognized or described by the kinds of leaders in power. Social systems are effective or ineffective according to the abilities of the leaders who have them in charge. Religious systems have been forces for good or evil according to their leaders. Systems of art in its various forms have been led forward or backward as their leaders, far-sighted or short-sighted, have been capable or incapable. The same thing is true of education and of all other forms of group activity. It is true of the family, as a group. Better leaders could have, throughout history, prevented many heartaches and tragedies.

Any organization of society depends upon its leadership for its successful existence. More and more, it is recognized that in the training of both principal leaders and minor leaders lies the continuance of any system, whether it be better or poorer. Training systems for the entire group of children and youth have been purposefully and consciously brought to high degrees of proficiency in Germany, Italy, and Russia; no matter what one may think of the ideologies behind their systems of training. In these nations the desired kinds and directions of training are enforced upon the whole group; but the training of the

leaders is one of encouragement and rewards rather than of enforcement. They are carefully fostered and expensive systems, even though they may not have scientific bases.

In a democracy, such as that of the United States, there is at least one regularly constituted provision for the training of leaders. This is the public school system, assisted by or interfered with at the hands of particular private schools and their backers. In neither the public nor the private schools in this nation has there been a generally uniform policy of training for leadership or even a general emphasis upon such training in any specific forms. Until such a time as greater interest has been developed in the selection of desirable leaders, it is unlikely that there will be much interest in the selection of potential leaders or in programs to be worked out for their training. Until the rewards of true or constructive leaders are commensurate with their sacrifices of time and effort, in contrast with the "beating of drums" or the more substantial returns of graft to the false or selfish leaders, it will follow that the more able people will avoid public leadership except when forced to take it up in self-defense or when led to accept an unpleasant task through belief in civic and social responsibility. Until that time, the schools will doubtless continue to work

along haphazardly in a subjective program of leadership training. They will continue on their program with a meager knowledge of the fundamentals of such a course of training and with a subjective mixture of academic leadership training, personality development, character training, and academic information carried out according to the subjective ideas of the principals and teachers and without knowledge of the results which they may have been able to bring about.

Writers have prepared papers numbering into the hundreds on the topic of leaders and leadership. These are largely in the subjective or essay form. A few have made pioneering attempts to write from a scientific, analytical, and objective viewpoint. Almost without exception, each has laid down his own premises and arrived at his own conclusion without approaching very closely to the premises and conclusions of other writers. This has resulted in a diversity that furnishes a survey of the field, but one that is uncoordinated and unsystematic.

Some of the writers have believed that the elements of leadership are biologically hereditary in large part, if not in their entirety. Among the hereditary factors which have been studied are those of degrees of intelligence, possible kinds of intelligence, and strength and selection or drives or urges. Physical prowess and

athletic ability might well be considered here, also.

Others believe that leadership performance results from the social heritage of the home, the school, or from the type of experience sometimes called "the school of hard knocks." The first of these emphasizes the importance of the early formative years in the home, or calls attention to importance of the influence of the social and economic backgrounds of the home upon the self-confidence and social maturity which they may yield to the child as it is growing up. The influences of available playmates in their ages, selection, and characteristics could be considered either under the home or the school. It is placed under the home because there is usually more selection possible in the schools and, therefore, the topic may be of less importance there. It is true, of course, that in the very mixed public schools, the choice of companions may be a most important matter. The second calls attention to the large number of hours each day for the large number of years that the school has the child under its control and in the social situation involving the influence of children upon each other. In addition, other factors influencing the leadership tendencies of the children in the school are the personalities of the teachers, the methods of classroom management, the methods of teaching, and the comparative ages of the indi-

vidual pupils in relation to those of the group.

The question of the development of the problem child is one which the school has to face. What to do with the timid child, the over-aggressive, the spoiled, the lazy, the superficial, and the other kinds of children deviating markedly from the normal is a frequently-met and perplexing problem. One of the problems of the school is that of making more worthy leaders out of the overly-aggressive. Another is the development of the latent leadership which may lie within the the timid or the thwarted child. The third of these calls attention to the fact that while leaders usually come from families that are in fortunate social and economic positions, other leaders achieve prominence from clearly unfavorable beginnings, driven by fear or by pride.

Still other writers have called attention to the importance of health, the functioning of the endocrine glands, and the operation of the autonomic nervous system with its checks and balances in the attainment of people to positions of leadership. Others have cited their belief that accidentally formed programs calling for leadership or denying it have produced leaders or non-leaders, as the conditions warranted. Still others have sought to analyze leadership by analyzing the personality or the character traits found in individuals already in positions of

acknowledged leadership. Others have sought to differentiate among kinds of leaders and to separate leaders from mere attention seekers. Leaders are described as true leaders and headmen. Some leaders are said to lead by force, others by cunning, and others by greater intelligence and ability.

Leadership has been variously described or defined by the different writers. Cowley (15) wrote: "A leader is an individual who is moving in a particular direction and who succeeds in inducing others to follow after him. A leader then is a person who is going somewhere, who has a motive, and a program." Cowley does not differentiate between constructive and destructive leaders although Education does. Thorndike (38) in his Educational Psychology, defines education as "the changing of human beings for the better." This has come to be an accepted point of view. Partridge (33) offered this definition: "Leadership is here defined as the ability and disposition to inspire confidence in others, over a period of time, and to cause them to think and act in the way the leader desires them to act and think." Bogardus, (7) wrote: "A leader is a person who exerts special influence over a number of people. Leadership is personality and action under group conditions. It includes dominant personality traits of one person and receptive personality traits of

many persons. It is interaction between specific traits of one person and other traits of many in such a way that the course of action of the many is changed by the one. True leadership is a process of mutual stimulation which by the effective interplay of relevant differences guides human energy in the pursuit of a common cause." Smith (36) stated: "Leadership is the setting by one person of unusual or original behavior patterns which are responded to, accepted and adopted by other persons. Leadership is the process of bringing meaning to others and followership is adoption of those meanings. A leader is the agent in the functioning of social control."

Leadership as defined by these authors has a strong thread of personality interwoven through it. Both character and personality are so definitely tied up with leadership that they cannot, except in theory, be separated from it. There are so many factors entering into the composition of a leader that definition of leadership becomes both complicated and a matter of delicate checks and balances. Eichler (19) declines to define leadership, since there is very little objective material upon which to formulate a definition; but he does arrive at the conclusion that five objective traits have been isolated and lists, in addition, six subjective traits which he hopes will be included as objective traits when sufficient

analysis and measurement have been secured with which to control their study. He believes that this list of eleven traits embraces practically all of the fundamental factors necessary to leadership.

Many of the Writers call attention to the point that leadership can be exercised only in social situations, and that it should be studied only in such situations. Others point out that leadership training may be accomplished by the use of direct and of indirect methods. The direct methods are those in which attempts are made to teach leadership as a subject within itself. The indirect methods are those of seeking to train leaders through giving them practice in leadership activities in other subjects and programs, especially the extra-curricular program.

Another point is that a leader is not always leading. Few people are well enough endowed or trained to be superior in all activities. A part of leadership training involves the ability to know when to lead and when to follow the leadership of others. An extension of this idea is that those who can not be good leaders should learn to be good followers. This does not mean blind following. It does mean intelligent and discriminating following; and this requires training and deserves encouragement.

With this vague and indefinite beginning, the writer proceeds to the plan of the thesis.

## CHAPTER TWO

## PLAN OF THE THESIS

The purpose of this study is that of gathering together all of the available papers on leaders and leadership; and of seeking to analyze them to a point at which some of the essentials may become apparent. An additional purpose is that of calling attention to the problem of leadership with the hopes that (a) objective tests of leadership traits may be developed by workers with suitable training; and that (b) useful methods of training for leadership both by direct and indirect techniques, may be worked out.

The writer used the libraries of the Oregon State College and the University of Oregon in his search for papers on this topic. By selective abstracting of these papers, he hoped to gain from each all of the information of value which it contained. For the sake of simplicity of organization and greater possibility of comparison, he sought to place all of the studies into groups according to their general characteristics. Some of the papers are composed of several parts and, for this reason, are put under two or more classifications. These headings, arranged in the order of their complexity and the generally chronological order of their appearance are: (a) subjective

studies, (b) tabulatory studies, (c) physiological relationships, (d) situational studies, and (e) analytical studies.

The subjective studies are little more than essays or statements of belief, although some of them show keen-off-hand analysis. Purely literary productions have been omitted as not of value to this study. In the tabulatory studies, based mostly on the use of rating scales, lists of traits have been made and leaders and non-leaders estimated on these scales in attempts to discover the most important traits that characterize leaders in contrast with non-leaders. The papers treating the relationships between physiological characteristics and leadership ability are mostly first attempts to relate two fields that seem quite certainly to have a distinct continuity. The situational studies are those that seek to study leadership in its natural settings, that is, those involving an interplay between leaders and their followers. While this approach is complex, it should not be neglected. It should be most valuable as a checking device upon the usefulness of the discoveries made under the other headings. The analytical approach seems to be the most important in the present state of development of the whole problem. It should, of course, be followed by processes of synthesis when it has been carried far enough to justify such a

step. Still later, the course of the study of leadership will be one of alternating analysis and synthesis if this field is to be developed scientifically and if it follows the courses of the other scientific developments.

The following chapter gives summaries of the papers which were chosen for inclusion in this thesis.

## CHAPTER THREE

## REVIEWS OF THE STUDIES ON LEADERSHIP

The greatest volume of source material on the study of leadership is historical and subjective. The student searching for objective material must read a great number of articles in the various journals on education, sociology, and psychology in order to winnow out a few truths from the great mass of unscientific writings. It seems to be so easy to moralize and so very hard to write articles of scientific exactness which really say what ought to be said on this subject of leadership. Leadership, character, and personality are all very much interwoven and all are as yet intangible from a study approach.

In primitive tribal life, training was slower and more natural in its growth than education is today. In our more artificial, institutionalized school systems, children are speeded up by as many kinds of motivation as the minds of teachers can invent. Hall (23) aptly described this situation when he said, "Our educational system is a hot-house method which rushes child development ahead of nature's plans." In tribal life, learning was largely the result of discovering the best method of supplying man's wants through trial and error and simple reasoning in meeting new situations. Tribal training methods were

fitted to the time of need and leaders were selected on the basis of demonstrated ability. The present field of developing leadership is increasingly complicated with the proportionately increased complexity of society. Present-day education begins to store up a reservoir of knowledge and skills long in advance of actual need for them. Tribal leaders were developed directly and often under some sudden emergency, when the most capable warrior or fisherman showed his superiority in the presence of the group. The tribal children in their play imitated their elders, and thus gained the fundamentals of tribal education. Even in the complexity of modern living, with its more expanded home life and high degree of specialization in methods of supplying human needs, the child still recapitulates the life of the tribal child in its play and must, in addition, undergo several hours daily of schoolroom instruction of a different kind of activity from that of the playground.

A number of students conducting research in leadership have designated the play-group as the natural group and the most important field in which to study leadership. Subjective evidence lends support to this view. The limiting and artificial situations are fewer, simplifying the research procedures in the examination of the natural group. Many present-day writers are inclining to the

view-point that home environment is the most important single phase of leadership development, both in the natural group of young children and in their parental and brother-sister relationships. One of the items upon which more scientific observation is needed is the development of leadership in the home in association with other members of the family. Does the child with leadership capabilities show leadership tendencies in its relationships with other members of the family or does it merely follow in paths of learning and exhibit its leadership outside the home in play groups and in playground situations? This is a difficult problem since an observer, to get first-hand observation, would have to assume the role of a member in each of the homes where observations were to be made and the presence of an observer in such homes might, in some instances, change the situation enough to make the validity of materials collected of questionable value. Moreover, the recording of whole social situations is difficult on account of their complexity and the rapidity with which they change.

#### SUBJECTIVE STUDIES OF LEADERSHIP

Bird (5) believes that children are handicapped in their developments toward leadership or are helped by their home environments, depending on the family life in the

home. She found that only one-third of the 100 pupils whom she studied showed influences of good home training at the beginning of the school year. Another third showed occasional personality disturbances which interfered with progress temporarily. A few less than one-third were handicapped by firmly rooted habits that diverted the attention of the learner and continued to militate against speed and accuracy in their school work. The poorest group required twice as many trials to complete their work as the best group although their IQ's were the same. The "fear group" required three times as many trials in learning as the average group. The introverts required the same number of trials as the average, as soon as they began to make definite effort. Later the introverts gained speed. Pupils with strong personal prejudices exceeded the average group under pleasant conditions, but fell far below it under other conditions. Since the IQ's were the same among all of these children, mental hygiene seemed to offer the best or the only solution in this kind of problem, leadership growth based on school success.

Hall (23) mentions fear and anger as being, equally with love, stimulants to desirable personality traits and socially valuable activities, without doing much more than making the statement. The psychologists believe that anger creates either an attitude of aggression or a defense

attitude, and that fear brings about either another type of defense or furnishes an urge to attain as impregnable a position as possible. Study of the training of attitudes is necessary in understanding the drives back of the seeking of positions of leadership, but practically nothing has been done in this field in a scientific manner.

Jack and Bradbury (24) advocate that the growing child learn to give and take and to develop judgment in social situations so that he may determine just what his rights are and how to defend those rights firmly. This kind of training usually develops attitudes of rivalry expressed in the child's mind by such expressions as, "My hobby horse is better than yours." It is active learning by the child in action rather than the passive learning from hearing about the best things to do or no learning at all from conditions of over-protection or isolation.

Blanchard (6) says, "Some of the earliest learning of the child is of a non-intellectual type, taking place at a stimulus-and-response level in connection with the visceral functions and the emotions of fear, anger and love. Attitudes formed at a very early stage of life become integral factors of the mature personality. The child subjected to many experiences that call out fear responses develops a timid fearful attitude toward the

world." Such a condition clearly blocks the usual paths of leadership development. The relationships of anger and love to personality and leadership were not explained.

Eckert (18) believes that the ideals leading to choices of leaders differ among children and among adults; and that the older the child is or the more advanced in school grades, the more he is like the adult in viewpoint. This may be partly explained by the probability that children are controlled more by instincts and emotions and simple preferences than are people in their later years when custom has modified both. Laboratory and clinical experiments show in great numbers of tested cases that the personality and behavior traits of children have been greatly changed by modifying parental methods of training. Parental training of the child is regarded by many authors as the most important condition of child development. The beginning of the study of leadership should probably be retrieved from high schools and colleges and be begun in the earliest grades where these can cooperate with the home in giving the child a well balanced start along the road of its training for its participation in society. This will include the give-and-take of leadership and followership.

Problem children should be studied as well as leaders, since some problem children are unsocial because their leadership tendencies are being blocked. Should problem

cases be studied from the angle of blocked leadership and, if they are found to be leadership material, what techniques should be employed to correct their faults in social relationships? An abstract answer is impossible, for there are many factors entering into the solution of such a problem. Problem cases are a very small number of all the cases to be studied, but command more than their share of attention as a part of leadership studies because they lead anti-socially.

Van Waters (40), long a juvenile court judge, describes several delinquent girls who became leaders of anti-social groups. Her conclusions were that delinquent girls often have tremendous vitality. The normal recreations available to them do not give them feelings of satisfaction. As a result, they seek other and more exciting diversions. Their followers often come from homes that are dull and insipid, with no guidance for wholesome recreation. As a result, these girls transfer their interest from their homes to companions who can give them, for a time, more absorbing and stimulating forms of activity. These are attempts, even though they may be poor attempts, to satisfy the social urge. If parents do not provide wholesome recreation for their children, the children will find it elsewhere and often in company below the social levels of their homes. Quoting Van Waters (40), "Delin-

quent leaders have experienced the withholding of normal parental relationships and being misunderstood by the community, rejected by school, church, and clubs, isolated and distorted by neighborhood gossip, they find their only road to prestige through rebellion. Equipped with physical and mental energy, buoyancy, and courage these youths explore every avenue and find it blocked. The wise parent opens doors instead of closing them." Many of these girls have more than average ability along many lines. The wise parent will seek to use socially accepted releases of physical energy and develop in the child social responses combined with sublimated ideals that produce feelings of satisfaction and a desire to become integrated into the community as well as within the family life.

Partridge (33) conducted an interesting study among adolescent boys in a Boy Scout Camp. He worked out a plan called "The five-man-to-man plan," in which the boys were divided into groups of five and asked to select a leader for their group. After this was done, the groups were reformed and new leaders were elected. That the discoveries made by these selections were real is shown by the fact that the boys thus elected were still functioning actively as group leaders a year later.

Brown (10), in a study of leadership among high school pupils, found that pupil leaders represent a highly selected

group. The pupils who excel in extra-curricular activities have a higher degree of intelligence and are generally superior intellectually to those pupils who do not participate so freely in extra-curricular activities. Her study was based upon 259 pupil leaders in a large western city high school.

She concluded that those individuals selected as leaders tended to be selected with reference to intelligence, scholarship, nativity of pupils and parents, economic status, and social status. There was a tendency for the leaders to choose college preparatory subjects more often than did students who were not leaders. There was a larger selection of hobbies represented among the leaders than among those pupils not in the leaders' group.

Bird (5) made a study of leadership traits by examining the IQ ratings of both emotionally handicapped and unhandicapped children, taking into account the environmental factors and weaknesses of training in the genesis of their conditions. Bird wrote that the causative disturbances were of the same kinds as those which bother adults--being over-timid, anti-social, a chronic introvert, a braggart, an annoying egotist and excessively sociable. These children were all victims of habits that divert attention from the task in hand. She states, "An environment presenting as early as possible appropriate

situations for the development of serviceable mental habits both at home and at school seems necessary not only for social adjustment but for advancement in learning. This truth is particularly significant if one accepts the prevailing belief that the pattern of the future individual is already laid down by the end of the second year, the period of two to four (years of age) being neither too late to recondition nor too early to establish desirable ones."

This early recognition and redirection of personality handicaps serves to reduce trial and error in the learning process regardless of the type of learning considered, since distraction of attention by the affective disturbance appears to be the cause of lowered efficiency. The removal of these stumbling blocks should minimize dangerous elements of failure in the adult and ensure a greater measure of life success to many individuals whose native intelligence appears to promise greater achievement.

Ellis (20) thought the best method of solving leadership lay in the comparison of large numbers of leaders through a study of their biographies and autobiographies, to find common influences that produced the leadership drives. He says of British genius, of which he studied 1030 cases, tracing the ancestry back two generations, "Characteristics have been noted as marking genius in

various countries which seem to indicate that in all probability the characters that constitute genius are fundamentally alike in all countries, though it may well be that minor modifications are associated with national differences."

His method was to study nationality, social class, heredity along with immediate parentage, childhood and youth as recorded in biographies, marriage and family, pathology, stature, pigmentation, and other factors which might have causative effects. He does not regard genius as a purely health variation nor as an allotropic form of insanity. He thinks a genius is a human body with an immensely active brain capability and which, if thrown out of balance so that the body cannot supply the brain with sufficient repair, may become a victim of insanity or feeble-mindedness. He offers this explanation for the feeble-bodied persons who become mental giants on the grounds that the energy that should have gone into bodily repair and growth has been absorbed by the brain. He concludes that there is "No genius without some mixture of insanity," but that it must be "A finely tempered mixture." Ellis was one of the first of the modern students of genius and of fame and, thus, suffered from a confusion of terms that is still extant. His conclusions were too much affected by a few outstanding cases and by failure to

recognize the more normal cases at their true worth.

Blanchard (6) believes that the mental capacity of children is fixed at birth through inheritance, and that environment is a smaller factor in determining the place that a person must take. She does not propose, however, to do nothing about it. She says, "The nursery school, offering as it does the opportunity for cooperative study of the child by trained experts and parents can well apply this genetic viewpoint to the study of personality development, for both observation and correction. Exceedingly superficial are the attempts of elementary schools to introduce courses for character training into their curricula, in an effort to change by intellectual precepts conditioned emotional responses which function on non-intellectual planes. The most practical use of our knowledge of personality development is in the education of parents as to the ways in which their own mode of living modifies the personalities of their children. To be effective, character training must begin with the parents and be carried over through them into the modifying experiences which the child undergoes in the family relationships. It is from this field of adult education we may expect the most important results for the personality development of the child." Bowden (9) states that intelligence has been extensively studied and measured, but very little work has been done in

the field of character and leadership in connection with intelligence. He differs from Blanchard, and tries to prove that environmental influences are the principal forces which produce leadership. The varieties of training of children by parents reveal that children can be changed. Psychologists have analyzed child behavior well enough to know that anti-social behavior of children resulting from unfortunate parental training can be reconditioned to social behavior.

Neel and Matthews (30) believe that colleges generally neglect the superior students and aid the normal and the struggling groups. They compared achievers with non-achievers. A group of 112 students ranked as superior, through being in the upper quarter of the Ohio State University Psychological Tests, were studied for academic efficiency. They were compared with a group at the lower end of the academic scale. These groups were compared on various details of information taken from the records, the Bernreuter Inventory, and extensive interviews. In general, the "achievers" were found to have skipped more grades and to have failed less often; to carry fewer courses, study more regularly, participate in more campus activities, and take more honors; to be more introverted, less social and more self-conscious, more easily embarrassed, more independent, more self-sufficient, less interested in the opposite sex,

and more persistent; and to attach a higher degree of happiness to their college careers than did the "non-achievers". The "non-achievers" were more certain of their vocational choices, more individualistic, and more extroverted; they made friends more quickly, and experienced homesickness more frequently; they were more unstable, less certain about habits of study; and more prone to complain, argue, and experience conflicts about religion and life in general.

Smith (36) writes, "The act of leadership is the act of controlling others in the name of the group or in the name of the leader. Leadership by position and achievement are interactional. According to the process or concept, leader-followership is a type of interaction which consists of interstimulation and interresponse of a leader and one or more followers, in which the leader gives a stimulus to each follower which is reacted to in such a way that unity of action results. The leader is the giver of the stimulus, the followers the reactors to the stimulus." Leaders of large groups face an almost infinite variety of followers and all degrees of cooperation among their followers, even to open opposition. The leader must get cooperation from otherwise conflicting personalities toward a common goal. "The habitually successful leader will, however, have secondary choices of action for use

in case his first choice meets with positive opposition or inertia, or he will have a marvelous facility for thinking of sound suggestions on the spur of the moment. A real leader must be flexible, resourceful, willing to make small concessions, and courteous to opponents. All that a potential leader can do is have an objective, promote a plan, and experiment with his followers observing carefully the results."

An abstract of a paper by Bellingrath (2), relative to the qualities associated with leadership in extra-curricular activities in several high schools, states, "The seniors in five high schools near New York were rated on a point system according to the number and type of extra-curricular activities in which they were engaged. Group A, 120 students who scored the highest (in extra-curricular activity participation) and Group B, 120 students who scored zero along these same lines were compared. The ratio of boys to girls is greater in the group of elected leaders than in the group of those who were not elected as leaders.....The qualities related to leadership depended largely on the sex of the leaders. In physical measurements, school marks, or school habits boys who are leaders do not seem to differ from boys who are not leaders. Among boys there was found a positive relation of age and home background to elected leadership.

Ambition to continue their education (through college) was the sole school attitude which elected leaders among the boys were found to possess to a greater extent than boys not elected to leadership. Girl leaders differ markedly from girls who are not leaders. They were younger, taller, heavier, make better grades, have better school habits, and come from better homes than do girls who are not leaders."

Pigors' (34) study of leaders in group work among working youths stated that an abbreviated and adapted form of Winkler-Hermanden's questionnaire was submitted to group workers in Boston and in Rochester. Although many workers fell into a mixed-type classification, there is some evidence for a "master" type of leader and an "educator" type of leader. These are closely identified with the "autocratic" and the "democratic" leaders described in Bogardus. The "master" type has more of a desire for self-expression, is extrovertive, is interested in personal ascendance, and is found among an older range of followers. Their characteristic trait was egotism. The "educator" type was more desirous of service, was introvertive, was interested in the development of his followers, and preferred a younger age group. He had a tendency toward self-doubt; his characteristic trait was sympathy. The age-range of the workers studied was not given so that an

age comparison was not possible, but the approach of the study is different from that of the other authors and yielded information not given by them.

It may be safely said that the rank and file of teachers generally are kept so busy teaching subject matter that they do not have time to think in terms of training for leadership. There is a definite effort being made in the public schools to create a new attitude in teaching, "that of teaching children rather than teaching subject-matter." This is a step in the right direction for it keeps the teacher thinking in terms of individual pupil needs rather than the required amount of subject matter to be covered by the demands of the planned curriculum. This attitude has possibilities for leadership development in the classroom.

#### TABULATORY STUDIES

Leadership is dependent upon so many factors that no one should attempt to choose a few traits and say that these along are the attributes that establish leadership. Many authors on the subject of leadership and its traits have sought to make their lists as small as possible for the sake of simplicity whereas it seems to this

writer that the lists should be as inclusive as possible in order to have as complete and accurate a survey of the whole field as one is able to obtain.

The studies made of leadership up to the present time are, each, in a restricted portion of the leadership field and each, while directly related to the others, approaches the subject from a somewhat different angle. This is in keeping with the early analysis of problems, that is, at first limiting each problem to one narrow phase of its entire scope and trying to solve that particular portion of the problem. In this respect Bogardus (7) wrote, "Leadership is so baffling a problem that careful examination of it has been long postponed." He studied leadership as a group phenomenon, seeking to learn the reactions that took place between leaders and followers in leadership situations. He recognized interaction between the personalities in the group in relation to the primary or fundamental sources of energy that develop into leadership and acquiescence or followership. Some of the traits which he recognized as favorable to leadership were: democratic attitudes, vitality, positiveness, friendliness, enthusiasm, sympathy, trustworthiness, and perseverance. Several negative traits which keep the child from developing into a leader were also listed. These are: indifference, narrowness, timidity, affectation, egotism, silliness,

ness, fickleness, and stubbornness.

Eckert (18) collected a list of thirty-five traits based upon these questions: (a) "What are the traits that boys and girls consider important in the leaders they elect?", and (b) "How do these leaders differ from students who are never elected president of a club or homeroom?" His study was made at the high school level. The following list of traits thus arrived at is arranged according to their frequency of mention or choice, in TABLE I. Only the seventeen ranking highest were given by the author. These are worthy of careful study because they analyze leadership from the high school pupils' point of view.

TABLE I

Eckert's Scale of Trait Frequency as Voted by High School Pupils.

Rank	Frequency of Mention	Trait or Quality
1	1414	Plays fair.
2	1010	Is cheerful - always in good spirits.
3	954	Does not cheat.
4	949	Is industrious - hard worker.
5	948	Accepts responsibility.
6	844	Is an honor student - gets good marks.
7	840	Loyal to class or club when criticized.
8	840	Interested in this kind of work.
9	773	Cooperates with others.
10	684	Has initiative - starts things.
11	675	Has self-control.

12	643	Has poise - does not easily get rattled.
13	626	Upholds high standards.
14	609	Takes pride in appearance of schools.
15	597	Has talent - learns easily.
16	576	Shows common sense - is not flighty.
17	516	Get things done.

Savage (35) studied leadership-followership as part of a character education program in a high school physical education curriculum. She found the following characteristics essential to successful leadership: imagination or emotion, intelligence, intuition, self-control, sincerity, and faith in the cause. In a second study by Savage, conducted in fifteen schools, she asked 5000 pupils to designate the most important traits in leadership. The most frequently mentioned are given in TABLE II:

TABLE II

## Savage's List of Traits Essential to Leadership

Intelligence	Trustworthiness
Faith	Democracy
Self-control	Courageousness
Sincerity	Social-mindedness
Considerateness	Fairness
Pride in appearance	Natural ability

Caldwell (11) asked 282 children from the seventh to the twelfth grades in a large city school to choose members from their classes to become leaders under stated conditions. These conditions included two trips to points of interest and the reorganization of an athletic program.

The pupils were asked to choose their leaders on the basis of traits relative to intelligence, dependability, social adaptations, age, and size. They were requested to give their reasons for their choices. No results were given nor were any of the reasons offered by the pupils for their choices listed.

Nutting (31) made a study of 181 girls in gymnasium classes in which she asked the pupils to choose class team captains and state their reasons for the choices they made. The reasons given with the frequency of each one is tabulated below:

TABLE III

## Nutting's List of Traits Essential to Leadership

Qualities and Frequencies	Qualities Ranked
obeys 77	honest 27
plays fair 73	obeys 21
honest 68	capable 15
plays best for her side 59	plays fair 14
can control team 58	can be depended upon 12
play and not quarrel 50	acts like a lady 7
capable 47	trustworthy 7
knows how to treat her team 45	good in athletics 7
can be depended upon 43	knows her business 7
knows her business 43	good player 4
	active 4
	able to do everything 4
	good in gym 4

## Personal Traits Frequency

good player	57
good in athletics	35
tall	25
good in gym	21
active	20
good captain	18
knows rules	17
big and strong	16

Nutting's list in TABLE III above is quite similar to Eckert's list in TABLE I. Each list is reproduced exactly as presented by the authors. It is interesting to note that the two lists, secured from groups of students located far enough apart to have almost no influence upon each other, were quite similar in traits listed and in the order in which these traits were ranked.

Moore (27) asked women students in colleges to designate their leaders in contrast, if need be, with office-holders. Those receiving the highest votes were:

President of the student body	74
President of the athletic association	47
Yell leader	31
Editor of the school annual	23
President of the senior class	21

The principal characteristics upon which these officers were selected were: sympathy, dignity, friendliness, fairness, initiative, intelligence, social-mindedness, sincerity, and dependability.

Chevaleva (14) listed four traits of leaders in contrast with followers among children. These were:

duration of excitement, rapidity of associative reactions, predominance of excitement over inhibition, and a higher degree of differentiation of reactions. This list seems to have met the first two of the three phases which Partridge (33) lists as necessary techniques for discovering leadership ability. They are:

- "(1) A valid method of selecting leaders in natural situations.
- (2) A survey of the characteristics of leaders.
- (3) A study of leaders in action, their methods, and the effect of their influence on the group."

Flemming (21) used a list of forty-six traits in examining seventy-one high school girls. He did not state how the list was obtained. Each girl was checked by from three to six teachers on the forty-six traits. The teachers used a scale of ten points to indicate the degree of intensity of each girl in pleasingness of personality. The average number of lists checked by teachers per girl was three and six-tenths. Each girl was required to evaluate each of the other girls on the scale of ten points in rating pleasingness of personality. In all the ratings there was an average of over thirty-five ratings per girl on the factor of pleasingness of personality. Fleming states, "The method of determining the degree of association between leadership and each of the traits on the list was by means of the Thurstone diagrams for securing the tetrachoric coefficient of correlation. A

study of the groupings of the traits was made with the aid of Thurstone's simplified method of factor analysis. The usual correlation technique was used to determine the relation of leadership to personality as measured by the teachers' ratings, to pleasingness of personality as indicated by the ratings by the girls of one another, to the average number of traits attributed to the girls from the entire list, and to the average number of traits attributed or not attributed from a selected list of eight items which appeared to be most significantly related to leadership as determined on the basis of groupings of traits after factor analysis."

Flemming's list of forty-six leadership traits is listed on the following page, presenting the tetrachoric coefficient of correlation between leadership and each trait.

TABLE IV

## Flemming's List of Leadership Traits

Is lively	.47
Has wide interests	.45
Is intelligent	.44
Is a good sport	.40
Is original	.38
Is athletic	.38
Is clever	.36
Has a sense of humor	.34
Is cultured	.34
Has individuality	.33
Is sociable	.33
Is amusing	.31
Is well informed	.30
Is competent	.30
Has a pleasant voice	.28
Has good judgment	.28
Is witty	.28
Is entertaining	.28
Is interesting in conversation	.28
Is tactful	.27
Is talented in some field of art	.22
Has attractive personal appearance	.21
Is adaptable	.21
Is natural, unaffected	.20
Is honest	.19
Is frank	.19
Is helpful	.18
Is idealistic	.16
Is generous	.16
Is industrious	.16
Is fair	.16
Is unselfish	.14
Is considerate of others	.13
Is understanding	.11
Is loyal	.11
Is dependable	.10
Is sincere	.10
Is sympathetic	.06
Is beautiful or pretty	.05
Is neat	.00
Has a smiling countenance	-.01
Is tolerant	-.02

Is courteous	-.03
Is good natured	-.04
Is not easily excited	-.08
Is modest	-.19

Flemming (21) says, "In conclusion, then, we may infer that the method of factor analysis has hopeful possibilities for revealing types of leaders found in a particular group; that in the group studied there seemed to be four types of leadership ability--the entertaining, the brilliant, the cultured-talented, and the just; but that for the highest scores on our criterion of leadership a personality embracing qualities from among all the types is necessary. The qualities basic to leadership as we found them are liveliness, wide interests, intelligence, good sportsmanship, ability to amuse, athletic prowess, a pleasant voice, and the absence of modesty. With these eight traits leadership is not guaranteed, but without a majority of them leadership is improbable." This list of eight traits is shown by Fleming to correlate  $+.57$  with leadership and he states that the chances are ninety-two in one hundred that relationship between leadership and the average of the selected eight traits is of a real nature.

Bowden (9) conducted studies based on the assumption that leadership traits were grouped around two factors, viz., physical and social traits. His tabulations were

secured from comparisons of the elections of student-body presidents or student council members in forty American colleges. His findings show college leaders to be well balanced, all of the ascendant type, with the majority extroverted and expansive in social types. This group of leaders was found to have, in the majority, splendid insight and good judgment. There were no "freak" personalities in this group of leaders. Height, weight, voice, and hair color influenced the choices of these leaders, according to Bowden.

Bennett and Jones (3) carried on a study of leadership traits using the following list: intelligence, initiative, courage, self-trust, bodily energy, insight, kindness, humor, and knowledge of human nature. The purpose of this study was to discover whether the possession of these qualities resulted in leadership. A small, more or less homogenous group of twenty-nine boys was used in the investigation. They concluded that intelligence does underlie ability in leadership and that low intelligence bars one from leadership. Those who achieved leadership were physically sound and had an abundance of bodily energy.

Cowley (15) conducted two separate studies on the traits of leaders, the first of which brought out distinctions between leaders and headmen. The second made a distinction between situational and individual emphasis in

studying traits and more especially the distinction between situational prestige traits and individual traits in isolation. He made a third distinction between so-called natural leadership and leadership in specific situations. No mention was made of the group or the conditions under which the above impressions were secured. The second study is the most specific, in that he states that he worked with 112 subjects divided into the two groups, leaders and followers. His subjects were chosen from three widely different situations. The subjects were commissioned officers, non-commissioned officers and privates in the United States Army, and a group of criminal leaders and their followers. The results of the study showed that leaders rated themselves higher in self-confidence; they scored higher in motor impulsiveness, used less time in making decisions, worked faster on arranging tact mottoes, read titles faster on postcards, and took shorter times to arrange mottoes of aggressiveness. The traits characterizing leaders which resulted from both studies combined are: aggressiveness, self-confidence, intelligence, emotional stability, finality of judgment, tact, speed of decision, suggestibility, and motor impulsiveness. Cowley seems to have been the first to study the traits of anti-social (criminal) leaders in comparison with socially useful leaders. He finds the criminal

leaders excel their followers in the same traits as socially adjusted leaders.

An article by Luithlen (25) assumed the three typical leadership traits to be initiative, ambition, and vitality. He devised several tests by means of which he sought to measure these characteristics. He says, "Certain individuals were positive and aggressive in their work. Their motor activity was rapid and vivid. The negative defensive workers were slower, less certain and hesitant. Leaders did not work well together, but the follower groups cooperated well with each other." The tests consisted of cards in sets of fifty with one word on each card and one set having a red border on each card while the other set had a blue border on each card. Persons taking the test for initiative were placed in pairs and one individual given cards with blue borders and the other red borders. They were requested to arrange the cards into short sentences. It was found that some individuals worked with certainty and aggressiveness,, made quick choices of words which were promptly arranged into short sentences, even though these were often vague in meaning. The defensive workers (negative) were slower, less certain of their choices of words, and tended to make longer sentences than the aggressive group. As soon as pupils were identified as leaders or followers they

were then paired as two leaders together. They were paired again as two followers together, and as one leader with one follower different from that in the original test. It was found that two followers worked well together in excellent cooperation; when leader and follower worked together the leader usually placed the first word of the sentence working by himself; and finally, when two leaders were assigned to work together, there was no cooperation but there was rivalry. These results are self-evident and need no further explanation.

Thrasher (39) studied 1313 Chicago boys of adolescent age who were in groups or gangs of their own organizing. He found these groups to be generally well organized, with names for the groups, and with recognized leaders. He analyzed these groups from two points of view. The factors from the environment which he believed to cause or to allow some of the boys to be leaders were: propinquity to boys who were willing to be led, a community of interests among the boys, a common socio-economic status, and a neighborhood tradition. The factors within the individual which assisted him to leadership were; age (generally older), race (socially approved), sex (almost always males), physique (generally superior), looks (generally more attractive, interesting, or striking), intelligence (somewhat above that of the group, and personality (more forceful). This list is incomplete

but it does give some trends of the direction of boy group leadership in a large city.

Smith (36) found that leaders are: resourceful, flexible, courteous to opponents, cooperative, stimulating, and that they achieve results.

Jack and Bradbury (24) in a study of child leaders, discovered that the following traits were valuable in leadership: rivalry, self-esteem, wholesome assertiveness, and self-confidence.

In recent years, military writers and speakers have laid a great deal of emphasis on "leadership" as opposed to "drivership". Munson (29) is quoted because he is a military man, and an account of the military views of leadership gives another approach to the study of traits of leadership. He lists the following traits as important in military life: personality, manner, use of language, tact, cheerfulness, courtesy, justice, discipline, duty, patriotism, esprit de corps, and knowledge of men.

Miller (26), like Munsen, was a military man and his findings in relation to leadership and its importance in the military services are interesting for comparison. He lists: self-control, assiduity, common sense, judgment, enthusiasm, perseverance, tact, courage, faith, loyalty, acumen, truthfulness, and honor as the attributes of character and personality typical of all great leaders.

Do military men expect different traits of leadership in the military services from those in civilian life?

Every traits mentioned by both Munson (29) and Miller (26) are recognized as desirable traits in civilian leadership, but it is expected that military leaders emphasize loyalty, honor, duty, and courage because of their particular value to the military services.

Eichler (19) did extensive research work in tabulating the traits of all the authors on leadership who had preceded his study. From a list of forty-six traits, he chose eleven which he believed included practically all the fundamental factors underlying the other traits in the entire group of traits. The eleven are: intelligence, scholarship, social intelligence, height, ascendance, vitality, individuality, social adaptability, self-control, persistence, and voice. Eichler tested 181 students in the eleventh and twelfth grades using the Henmon-Nelson Test of Mental Ability, Form A. This test, with other objective means of measurement, yielded objective data on the first five traits recorded in the above list. Ratings on the remaining six traits were secured from teachers. Using the intercorrelation technique of treating the data secured, he found the probability that the eleven chosen traits, giving a multiple correlation coefficient of .904, included nearly all of the elements

which contribute to leadership.

Eichler's entire list of forty-six traits and a companion list combined from the lists of all other authors available follows. Most of the trait names in Eichler's list are vague and general terms. A very few can be measured fairly objectively, e.g., ascendance, extraversion, height, intelligence, motor impulsion, sex, speed of decision, and weight. There are no measuring instruments for the others because there are no satisfactory definitions of the terms. There are no satisfactory definitions because there is no general agreement about what they are to mean. The "combined list" is, on the whole, even more vague than Eichler's list.

TABLE V

EICHLER LIST	COMBINED LIST OF AUTHORS
ambition	abilities (in several fields)
ascendance	achievement status
attractiveness	analytical tendencies
audacity	application
congeniality	athletic
considerateness	capable
cordiality	cheerful
courage	chronological age
democracy	complexion
desire for personal growth	cooperation
dignity	curiosity
emotionality	democratic ideals
extroversion	dominance
fairness	enthusiasm
faith in cause	environment
finality of judgment	executive ability
fortitude	experience

friendliness	faith
good humor	hair color
goodness	heredity
height	honesty
imagination	industry
individuality	intelligence
industry	loyalty to group
insight	mental age
intelligence	mentally well balanced
interest	natural ability
intuition	originality
knowledge of human nature	perseverance
liveliness	personality
motor impulsions	perspective
openmindedness	positiveness
pride in appearance	reaction to group
school habits	rivalry
sex	shrewdness
self-confidence	social ability
self-control	tact
sincerity	talent
social and economic control	thoroughness
socialmindedness	trustworthiness
speed of decision	versatility
spirituality	vitality
sympathy	voice
tenacity	willingness to assume res-
vision	ponsibility
weight	

Next in order are the lists of other authors treated in this chapter, showing the traits recognized by each placed together on one page for inspectional comparisons. It will be noted that intelligence appears in the lists of more authors than any other trait, showing that more authors recognize it as an important factor in leadership. This may be true because more progress has been made in analyzing intelligence than any other of the traits mentioned. Bennett and Jones, Caldwell, Cowley, Eichler,

Flemming, Moore, Partridge, Savage, and Thrasher include intelligence in their lists, while Eckert uses "honor student-good grades", Miller substitutes assiduity and acumen, Munsen prefers "use of language", and Smith thinks "accomplishment" suits his views best. Bowden, Chevaleva, Luithlen, and Jack and Bradbury do not mention intelligence at all although some of the factors of intelligence may be recognized in their lists.

#### TABLE VI .

The lists of traits as presented by each author in the text are segregated into one table below. Points of agreement and disagreement are readily apparent.

#### BOGARDUS

democratic attitudes  
vitality  
positiveness  
friendliness  
enthusiasm  
sympathy  
trustworthiness  
perseverance

#### BOWDEN

height  
weight  
voice  
hair color

#### BENNETT & JONES

intelligence  
initiative  
courage  
self-trust  
insight  
kindness

#### COWLEY

aggressiveness  
self-confidence  
intelligence  
emotional stability  
finality of judgment  
tact  
suggestibility  
speed of decision  
motor impulsions

#### ECKERT

plays fair  
is cheerful  
does not cheat  
is industrious  
accepts responsibility  
honor student--has good grades  
loyal to class or club  
interested in work  
cooperates with others  
has initiative  
has self-control  
has poise--not easily rattled

TABLE VI (Continued)

BENNETT & JONES (continued)	ECKERT (continued)
humor	takes pride in school's appearance
knowledge of human nature	has talent--learns easily
	shows common sense
CHEVALEVA	gets things done
duration of excitement	
rapidity of associative reactions	EICHLER
predominance of excitement over inhibition	intelligence
higher degree of differentiation of reactions	scholarship
	social intelligence
	height
	ascendance
	vitality
CALDWELL	individuality
intelligence	social adaptability
dependability	self control
social adaptations	persistence
age	voice
size	
	JACK & BRADBURY
FLEMMING	rivalry
liveliness	self esteem
wide interests	wholesome assertiveness
intelligence	self-confidence
good sport	
athletic ability	LUITHLEN
cleverness	initiative
sense of humor	ambition
cultured	vitality
individuality	
sociability	MOORE
power to amuse	sympathy
well informed	dignity
competence	friendliness
	fairness
	initiative

## MUNSON

personality  
 manner  
 use of language  
 tact  
 cheerfulness  
 courtesy  
 justice  
 discipline  
 duty  
 patriotism  
 esprit de corps  
 knowledge of men

## MILLER

self control  
 assiduity  
 common sense  
 judgment  
 justice  
 enthusiasm  
 perseverance  
 tact  
 courage  
 faith  
 loyalty  
 acumen  
 truthfulness  
 honor

## PARTRIDGE

intelligence  
 dependability  
 athletic ability  
 appearance  
 height  
 weight  
 age  
 scout tenure  
 scout rank

## MOORE (continued)

intelligence  
 socialmindedness  
 sincerity  
 dependability

## SAVAGE

intelligence  
 faith  
 self-control  
 sincerity  
 considerateness  
 pride in appearance  
 trustworthiness  
 democracy  
 courageousness  
 social mindedness  
 fairness  
 natural ability

## SMITH

resourceful  
 flexible  
 courteous to opponent  
 cooperative  
 stimulating  
 achievement

## THRASHER

intelligence  
 personality  
 age  
 race  
 sex  
 physique

## SITUATIONAL STUDIES

The situations in which leadership is developed and displayed are worthy of careful study. An expression in common use is that many leaders are "born leaders" because leadership had been evident in them from early childhood. An occasional child may be born with or may inherit brain quality of such structure that, combined with a suitable endocrine and autonomic equipment and living in a proper environment which provides a favorable foundation for the development of leadership, he shows early and strong evidence of ability in leadership. Persons of this type may be termed "born leaders", but the assumption that any "leaders are born" is not a safe one to make in the present condition of knowledge about leadership. Neither is it safe to conclude that there are no "born leaders." Some persons may have drives that result in leadership even in unfavorable environments, but given favorable situations in which to develop, they are more likely to become efficient leaders. Opportunity is one factor that surely has accounted for many leaders. In this connection, Bogardus (7) says, "The nature of leadership is set by the nature of opportunity. The Eskimo has different opportunities from the Wall Street banker. The nature of opportunity determines the direction that leadership takes.

Some persons would become leaders under almost any circumstances while others require a favorable setup in one direction. Environment is a great factor in producing leaders. Opportunity includes training, for even genius requires training. Leadership arises out of energy, intelligence, and character. Energy is sheer ability to act. Intelligence is energy engaged in solving problems. Character is energy and intelligence organized in relation to social situations. Energy means push, drive, activity. A doer always comes to the front. Application, thoroughness, endurance, persistence, courage, assuming personal responsibility and versatility are leadership qualities."

To be a leader one must be out in front of his group in thinking ability, in wealth of program, and in pleasing personality. If the leader gets too far ahead of his followers, they can not keep up with his leadership and a gulf will develop between leader and followers which will break their contacts and make possible the rise of opposing leaders who have a better adjustment to the group of followers. Cox (17) made extensive observations of 888 spontaneous groups of children ranging from three to eight years of age. She observed that, with opportunities for leadership, two or three persons sought the leadership of the group. The one who eventually gained the leadership

was older, more experienced, or more trained in and desirous of leadership. Boys more frequently become the leaders of mixed groups than girls. The latter statement may be true because boys are inclined to exhibit more dominance than girls. Whether this is a hereditary characteristic (sex-linked) or due to the social structure which generally favors male leaders is an unanswered question at the present time. With women entering into more kinds of public activities and with larger numbers of them seeking careers outside of the home, this situation may change in the future. Since more equality has been accorded women, they seem to have taken a much more aggressive attitude in competing with men in the business world, although there is no evidence of a satisfactory nature with which to support or deny this belief.

Bogardus (7) has this to say in support of the influence of the situations which one may meet in providing conditions favorable to or opposed to development in leadership, "Environment is a great factor in producing leaders. In a study of American notables, it was found that cities are more stimulating than country areas for the development of eminence, that towns and middle sized cities are better centers than big cities for the growth of superiority, that choice residential areas of cities furnish relatively far more prominent people than do

other urban regions, and that suburban areas are best of all. Sparse settlement hinders cooperative development necessary for leadership while on the other hand radical leadership develops best in crowded areas where injustice exists." Bogardus treats leadership as a group phenomenon with a spirit of give-and-take between leader and followers. Leadership develops from personal achievement, after personal achievement is recognized and accepted by the group. It has been stated by several writers that children from rural schools, having very limited libraries and school equipment cannot compete successfully with children from urban schools where large libraries and much more equipment is available. The result is then in conformity with Bogardus' statement above.

Cattell (13) studied 1000 American scientists and traced them to their birthplaces. He found that certain portions of the United States produced a larger per capita share of men of outstanding ability than other portions. He believed environment was responsible for this. Eli Whitney from association with the cotton growing industry realized the waste of time and energy from hand extraction of cotton seeds, invented the cotton gin, and revolutionized the entire industry. Mechanical inventions are nearly always the product of someone's realization of a need or an opportunity for improvement in some particular machine.

Familiarity with that machine is nearly always necessary before the improvement is discovered. Charles W. Elliot, former president of Harvard, is an example of favorable environment in the développement of leadership. First of all he had a remarkable ancestry of illustrious people, and his father was an educator of note. He was surrounded with culture and refinement in the home, had the opportunity of witnessing college faculty social functions, and was privileged to read in his father's extensive library. Children growing up in an environment of culture and refinement in the home and of favorable childhood associations outside the home may at an early age develop abilities in which they excel their associates; and the success they experience may develop leadership drives. On the other hand, when too much is expected of them at an early age they may rebel; or the monotony of a restricted environment may cause them to seek change and variety.

Partridge (33) studied Boy Scouts in a summer camp. The method which he used to get his data was that of dividing the boys into groups of five each and asking each group to elect a leader from the boys outside their group. The groups were reformed so that the boys could vote for a second group of leaders. This voting scheme was called the five-man-to-man rating plan. The correlations of the boys' choices with the ratings of the selected leaders by

adults was .946. Later the elected leaders were carefully observed working with various groups to check up on the satisfactoriness of the boys' judgments in their choices. The leaders were measured for their ages, their Army Alpha scores, height, weight, scout ranks, and scout tenure. The outstanding leaders excelled their groups in every trait in which they were measured. There was some "halo" effect noted, that is grading certain boys consistently higher on some traits through their excellence in other traits. The heights and weight excelled those of the non-leaders when associated with all the other traits of leaders, but had little or no relationship when taken separately. There was a spread of leadership from the very good to the very poor in ability of leadership. The groups themselves varied widely in their choices of their leaders. There was no set type of leader, and the boys selected varied widely in intelligence, physical appearance, and general personality. The boys themselves rated leadership traits in the following order: (1) intelligence, (2) dependability, (3) appearance, and (4) athletic ability. Even the poorest leaders influenced their groups more than the members of the groups who were not elected leaders.

Some leaders are developed from a sudden shock or aversion to some unwholesome social situation or sudden change in direction of thinking. Lincoln may have been

shocked into a tremendous drive to free the slaves of the south after witnessing a slave market scene and other unpleasant situations of slavery in the southland. The leadership he developed later placed him in a position in which he accomplished this ideal. Biographies of Lincoln credit his mother with creating an environment for his boyhood that resulted in leadership drives.

Some children have been surrounded more by adult companions than children of their own age and as a result have become patterned to adjust themselves to adults. To a similar extent, they may have lost the ability to appreciate children their own ages. This situation may cause such children to become followers, but is more likely to develop leadership in these children as they have been influenced to make judgments beyond their years. If they can make a sufficient adjustment and gain the companionship of children of similar ages and more usual training they may excel through having experienced more mature companionships. One of the difficulties likely to be experienced is being too far advanced intellectually for the group in which they may be thrown by environment. A bright or more experienced child is most likely to become a leader of a group in which he exceeds moderately rather than by a wide margin, as children seem to form natural groups near their own abilities and aptitudes. Many writers affirm this statement.

William Jennings Bryan was an unusual type of leader with a gift of oratory that brought him fame. He was known in college for his ability as a debator and early developed an interest in political life. He was three times a candidate for the presidency of the United States but failed of election each time. Mrs. Bryan was more desirous of her husband being president than he was himself and she consistently pushed him on in a political career. It seemed that Mr. Bryan lacked the kind of leadership drive which Mrs. Bryan sought. In other instances wives have been credited with opposing or hindering the leadership of their husbands in public life.

Madame Marie Curie, the discoverer of radium, is a peculiar example of the way in which leadership may be gained. She worked in chemical research under most unfavorable circumstances, and with almost no equipment, yet she gave the world a discovery which equally skilled chemists with much better equipment had failed to make. She kept persistently at her work until she achieved success and with it a fame and leadership in science which she was able to maintain most creditably. This brings up the question of the best methods of selecting leaders in natural groups, a survey of the characteristics of the natural group leaders, a study of these leaders in action, and their methods of influence on the group. If an observer

is going to get accurate results, he should observe leaders in action in their natural group situations. These observations should extend over a long enough period of time that he may get averages of reactions rather than momentary examples of the group and its leader which may not be typical and are surely only fragmentary. The observer in some instances will be surprised to find that the one he first thinks is the leader of the group is only a temporary spokesman for the real leader, and that the group must be understood before the real leader is discovered.

Thrasher (39) in his observations of adolescent boys' gangs in Chicago found that the chief characteristic of the leader was "gameness" in meeting the situations of the environment instantly and then following up with vigorous action. Physical prowess, imagination, and intelligence were other noticeable traits in the leaders of these gangs. The traits varied greatly from gang to gang. Leadership seemed to be the result of the social situation in most instances. These observations were of natural reactions in natural settings and, while subjective, have distinct value in a study of situations.

Chevaleva (14) studied 400 groups of children in natural situations, discovered the leaders, and then placed them in new group situations in order to have

opportunities of observing whether or not these leaders would assume their old leadership in the new situations and what the effect on the various groups of new leadership would be.

## PHYSIOLOGICAL STUDIES

Some of the earlier writings concerning the human qualities that develop into leadership have presented heredity as the most outstanding factor. Galton (22) was one of those who led in this belief. He studied the biographies of 1000 English men of genius, assuming that the positions which they held were guarantees of their ability. The list includes judges, statesmen, commanders, literary men, scientists, poets, musicians, painters, and clergymen. He even studied other members of the families of these geniuses to learn, if possible, what hereditary influences were most noticeable in their positions of eminence and of leadership. His conclusions were that "Man's natural abilities are derived by inheritance under exactly the same limitations as are the form and physical features of the whole organic world."

Woods (42) studied 832 members of royalty, covering a period of 500 years. He found that out of the several main families of royalty in power at the time of his study and earlier, several had been quite outstanding over many generations in constructiveness, good government, intelligence, and morality. Several other families had been conspicuously incompetent, stupid, and immoral over many generations. Where the two families merged, the later

generations were generally mediocre. In the majority of the families Woods studied the accomplishments were not outstanding in either direction. He believed that these family records were due to the heredities of the families.

Ellis (20) in his study of 1030 British geniuses found that the families of English clergymen produce an unusual proportion of very bright children. The same situation exists in the American "Who's Who". Some writers explain this on the basis of hereditary intelligence and forcefulness of character; others on the influence of scholarly, well disciplined early home environments.

Quoting Bogardus (7) "Heredity in relation to leadership, involves additional factors. The inheritance of a given gene does not necessarily mean the inheritance of a given personality or leadership trait. In addition there is a certain working-together of the genes. It is this working-together or interaction of the genes that is as vital as the inheritance of particular genes which explains special ability. The inheritance of a 'character' does not depend on any one gene but on the interaction of many. One parent may be defective in certain traits, and the other parent defective in other traits, but the working-together of inherited genes may result in normal or even above-normal offspring." Eugenics is a relatively

new study and no definite conclusions have been deduced as yet so that these statements may well be questioned.

Children born in poor homes under trying conditions may be superior, while those born in superior homes may be inferior. The type of one's home is no guarantee of his quality, neither is the environment of the home easily controlled. The whole question of the relative amounts of influence of heredity and of environment upon all traits, including that of leadership, is still very obscure, but a worthy subject of continued study.

The endocrine glands received a great deal of attention as factors in both the physical and personality development of people over several years. At first, this attention was of a somewhat spectacular nature. In more recent years, the amount of research has been as great as it was earlier but of a more serious and thoroughly scientific nature. For this reason and because the subject is one involving many complexities, little material of a generalized nature has appeared recently, Berman (4) says.

The thyroid gland is believed to be related indirectly to leadership in that the proper activity of this gland affects body proportion, body size, appearance, apparent intelligence, and physical energy. The improper functioning of this gland would, if of a marked degree, prevent

one from becoming a leader or caring to become a leader.

The pituitary gland is believed to be related to the persistence and the determination which are held to affect leadership. Pituitrin is also believed to have some influence over the traits of stability and self-control and, thus, to be related traits to leadership. The adrenal glands are the emergency glands that give the human body marked increases in the amounts of energy which may be needed in emergencies and, in this connection, for situations calling for leadership. On the other hand if adrenalin is present in deficient quantities, bodily energy is limited and leadership possibilities are blocked. The sex glands are also related to leadership, usually indirectly, since the sex drive often calls forth action of a leadership nature. This may be in the form of direct aggressiveness or in the sublimated forms of the desire to appear well in the eyes of the opposite sex or the use of the derived energy in more socially approved forms of activity.

The endocrine glands also influence the autonomic nervous system in a most complex set of checks and balances. This, in turn, determines in a high degree the way the individual will behave and this affects the possibilities of his being a leader. Bogardus (8) says, then, that "Leadership arises out of energy, intelligence

and character. Energy is the sheer ability to act. Intelligence is energy engaged in solving problems. Character is energy and intelligence organized in relation to social situations."

Other writers working in other fields are inclined to give much more value to environment coupled with social situations than to heredity in the development of leadership. Ellis (20), and Cattell (13) supported this view. Arlitt (1) places strong emphasis on the importance of the training of the child from earliest childhood to twelve years of age. She goes into great detail in analyzing many kinds of home influences and clarifying the child's normal and natural reactions in each instance. The child, according to Arlitt, should be taught to be self-reliant and respectful of the rights of others, and aggressive when the occasion demands leadership and the child is the one best fitted in the group to take the lead. The child should seek to have good judgment so that he will be a good follower when someone else has better leadership qualities.

Neel and Matthews (30) made a study of 118 students at Ohio Wesleyan who were the achievers in a group of 200 students. In two comparisons the students with work above the seventy-five percentile were taken as the group of achievers and those above the median were compared

with those below the above levels. The results show that "The achievers are slightly younger; their parents have had a little more schooling; they come from smaller families; they have experienced less family opposition to college attendance; and they have suffered less homesickness. The "achievers" hold more honorary organization memberships. The "non-achievers" blame their extra-curricular activities for hindrance more than "achievers" do, but participation in extra-curricular activities does not seem to account for non-achievement, since the "achievers" participate most freely in them. These authors believe that, "Whatever it is that is affecting the academic efficiency of the 'non-achievers', it seems to have persisted through the years." Heredity may show some influence here in quality of brain structure and amount of drive. Again, it is a question of the degree of influence and of environment.

Smith (36) states "Biological integration, ecological dominance and leadership are questions of coordination of differential tendencies to act so that diversity and opposition merge into unity and organization." This seems to sum up present knowledge of the physiological basis of leadership as well as any other statement could.

## ANALYTICAL STUDIES

The analytical approach to the study of leadership is a move toward scientific objectivity which will eventually replace personal opinion in favor of experimental and statistical proof. Even here there is confusion in the very foundations of such study because there is a decided lack of agreement about the selection of individuals to be studied as leaders. "Headmen" and officeholders are not always the true leaders although they may later become leaders. The member of a committee who talks most is not always the one who most influences the decisions of the committee.

Again, there is not unanimous agreement on what leadership is, or the best methods of gaining leadership. There is a lack of agreement about the amount of energy one is justified in expending in seeking positions of leadership or of prominence before the group. Men of ability have been known to seek to avoid positions of leadership as long as possible and to relinquish them as soon as the task they agreed to perform was accomplished. Cincinnatus left his plow unwillingly. George Washington did not seek the generalship of the Continental Army or the presidency of the United States and left both, eager to return to Mt. Vernon. General Robert E. Lee left the

command of the Confederate Army to become a teacher and believed he did his greatest work in his civilian life-- at least, he had his greatest satisfaction in it.

There is also the question of leadership at the various social levels. Some individuals who are not leaders in the levels at which they may be found would almost undoubtedly be leaders at lower or simpler social levels. The questions arises: Is the student of leadership to accept as a leader only the individual who is located in a position of leadership or what appears to be a position of leadership? In the early study of the problem, this will doubtless be necessary; but this is a complicating factor which should not be ignored indefinitely.

Assuming that a leader is one who forges ahead into a position of prominence and who exerts effort to attain his ends, this paper proceeds to take up the analytical studies of leadership. Bogardus (7) illustrates this point with his definition of character. "The stereotype of a strong character is that of a person who has great drive, who seems to know what he wants and how to get it, who is clear cut and prompt in making decisions." This statement also describes the stereotype of a leader.

Mulkin (28) studied such personality traits as aggressiveness, submissiveness, and social intelligence in an endeavor to throw some light on relationships of

personality, character, and leadership. He compared 153 college sophomores and 171 high school sophomores, using the Allport Ascendance-Submission Test and the George Washington Social Intelligence Test. His summary was:

"(1) There is a large increase in social intelligence and aggressiveness between the sophomore years in high school and college. (2) High school pupils and college women older than the average are more submissive than those younger than the average. College men older than the average are more aggressive, probably because they have been out working. (3) College women with high scholastic averages are more aggressive than those with lower averages, but there is no consistent correlation between scholastic averages and aggressiveness. (4) High school sophomores who have attended country elementary schools have far lower intelligence scores and social intelligence scores than those who have attended the borough school. (5) High school sophomores older than the average are apt to have intelligence test scores and scholastic averages lower than the average. (6) Women excel men in intelligence score, scholastic average, and social intelligence; both in high school and in college. (7) Scholastic averages and aggressiveness correlate positively and noticeably, (.11 to .57). Scholarship and submissiveness correlate negatively and slightly, (-.04 to -.22). Scholarship and

social intelligence correlate positively and noticeably, (.25 to .88). Social intelligence and aggressiveness correlate positively and noticeably, (.08 to .53) Social intelligence and submissiveness correlate negatively and slightly, (-.09 to -.26)." The development noted between high school and college sophomore years in social intelligence indicates the trainability of youth during these impressionistic years.

Cowley (16) made a study of the traits of "face-to-face leaders". He defines face-to-face leaders as those who meet people in face-to-face situations, giving the minister, lawyer, and politician as examples. In taking three groups of leaders, twenty commissioned officers, twenty criminal leaders, and sixteen student leaders, he found six traits to be common to this classification of leaders: "(1) self-confidence, as measured by a rating scale; (2) motor impulsiveness, as measured by the Downey Test; (3) finality of judgment, as measured by the Moore-Rice Questionnaire; (4) speed of decision, as measured by the Aggressiveness Motto Test; (5) speed of decision, as measured by the Moore-Rice Questionnaire; and (6) speed of decision as measured by the Tact Motto Test." His conclusion was that these traits are not general traits of leadership and that it is impossible to find any traits that may be considered general traits. Speed of decision

appears in three of the six measures. Cowley wrote, "It is therefore in order to conclude that the Spearman tetrad difference formula--that tetrad differences be zero--is satisfied and that there is reasonable assurance that a general factor is present in the six leadership traits held in common by the three groups of leaders studied. What this factor is, it is not possible to say, but as pointed out above, it very likely bears some relationship to speed of decision although the presence of the traits called self-confidence and motor-impulsion makes it possible so to judge from the experimentation carried on to date. Six traits have been isolated which are common to all three groups of leaders studied. These six traits are all related to an undefined general factor which has been discovered by means of the Spearman Two Factor Analysis."

Cowley (15) affirms that leadership has always been and must continue to be a study through traits, since no single trait constitutes leadership and a complex of many traits taken as a unity is required to produce the qualities of leadership. Some persons become real leaders and others, called leaders, are merely headmen elected to leadership positions. The headman does not possess leadership qualities though he may succeed in getting a position of leadership. Headmen may do well enough in

routine situations or in situations which they have been able to make highly formal, but in times of crisis or at times when results have to be obtained, they usually are supplanted by others who may seem less like the common idea of leaders but who can obtain the desired results.

Cowley believes that certain situations are coupled with the leadership function and that parallel studies are necessary, one of traits and the other of situations. He set up an experimental research with 132 people, half of whom were leaders and the other half followers, in an endeavor to answer two questions: (a) "Do followers possess traits different from leaders in the same situation?" and (b) "Do leaders in different situations possess the same traits?". The subjects in his study were:

20 commissioned officers	}	of the United States Army
20 non-commissioned officers		
20 privates		
20 criminal leaders	}	from the state penitentiary at Joliet, Ill.
20 criminal followers		
20 student leaders	}	from the University of Chicago
20 student followers		

Twenty-eight tests were given these groups. The tests were designed to measure aggressiveness, self-confidence, intelligence, emotional stability, finality of judgment, tact, suggestibility, and speed of decision.

"This experimentation with these three groups of leaders

and followers has proved two things: first, that leaders possess different traits from their followers; and second, that leaders in these three different situations do not possess a single trait in common. This amounts briefly to a demonstration of the fact that leadership is a function of a definite situation and that we cannot talk about leadership traits in general but that instead we must talk about the traits in particular situations. We must talk about the traits of Army leaders, the traits of student leaders, the traits of criminal leaders, and the traits of political leaders, always designating the leadership situation."

Conclusions from a study by Partridge (33), involving some statistical methods, were: (a) The outstanding leaders excelled their followers in every characteristic measured. (b) Height and weight have significance only when combined with other traits, such as age and intelligence. (c) Boys rating each other on the following traits listed them in the order of importance given below;

1. intelligence
2. dependability
3. appearance
4. athletic ability

(d) Boys who were leaders were distinguished at once as leaders by boys outside their own groups. (e) The results of the rating scheme show a continuous leader distribution from the boy rarely chosen as leader to the one almost universally chosen. (f) Groups differ

widely in the excellence of leaders they choose. (g) Constant social interaction in a group tends to bring out the best leaders. (h) There is no definite type of leader. The leader must fit the situation of his group. He also stated that leaders influence the group more than does any member of the group who is not its leader.

Bennett and Jones (3) made a study of leadership through intelligence, testing twenty-nine boys on the Otis Intelligence Scale. The method used in selecting the boys was for each teacher to select five boys he considered as leaders and five whom he considered lacking in leadership. The athletic director selected five boy leaders in athletics as judged by the student following. The principal of the school chose five whom he considered the leaders in school activities. The results showed that all but one of the boys whose Otis Test scores were above 110 were rated as leaders and all of the boys who were rated low in leadership were below 100 on the Otis Test. The one superior boy who was rated as inferior in leadership was found to be lacking in athletic ability only. The conclusion of these writers was that scores on the Otis Test of 112 plus were indicative of leaders, and those below 100 were not. If this situation occurred, as it undoubtedly did, it was purely adventitious. The study does indicate the paucity of scientific material

in the study of leadership.

Miller (26) studied eighty-three exceptionally able college students in a student body of 558 and found that the superior group of students had 2.4 positions in extra-curricular activities, as compared to .76 for the average group. This ratio indicates that the exceptionally intelligent and scholarly students were not maladjusted in this particular group, but were also the leaders of the group outside of the classroom as well as in it and that by choice of the student body itself.

Eichler (19) was very much interested in discovering whether or not leadership could be taught directly in measurable quantities. He made a careful survey of experiments in teaching leadership in high school in the ninth and twelfth grades. He secured his own data from a series of four separate parallel group experiments on the teaching of leadership, with the results that the chances were 2.2 to 1 that the instructed groups had been influenced or had improved in leadership ability at the end of one school year. The experiment was so encouraging that it was extended a second year in the former ninth grade group which had then passed to the tenth grade. The twelfth grade had been graduated and were not available for an extension of the experiment. The results for the second year with the former ninth grade group were that

the chances were 26.8 to 1 that there was a true difference in favor of the instructed group in benefits from the leadership training. He concludes that leadership can be taught both directly as a teaching subject of leadership technique and indirectly through various school subjects as history and civics, and clubs and extra-curricular activities.

Flemming (21) endeavored to find out whether certain traits were common to all types of leaders. His first deduction was that traits are found in clusters or groups. He believed that certain "clusters" of traits were more likely to be associated with leadership than other clusters. The data were collected in a girl's school in New York. Each girl was checked on forty-six traits, averaging 3.6 checkings per girl by their teachers. The four traits; liveliness, wide interests, intelligence, and being a good sport are positively associated with leadership, according to his study, with correlations between .40 and .47. These traits were found to be more characteristic of leaders than of those who were not leaders. Nine other traits; athletic ability, cleverness, sense of humor, being cultured, individuality, sociableness, power to amuse, being well informed, and general competence, had correlations between .30 and .38 with leadership. Six negative factors in leadership were recognized as follows: a smiling

countenance, tolerance, courtesy, good-naturedness, not easily excited, and modest. Why these traits, generally recognized as desirable, should be related negatively to leadership is difficult to discover. Possibly the relationship is due to intense competition and a desire to achieve prominence even at the expense of more desirable qualities. The intercorrelations of the list of traits found by Thurstone's simplified method revealed that four general factors accounted for most of these traits of the leaders. These appear in the following order; fairness, originality, liveliness, and a pleasant voice.

Fairness, or fair play, is the honest person's nearest approach to social security in his group relationships. Originality is the ability to think in advance of one's followers and win the approval and support of the group. Liveliness is energy combined with intelligence in action and may be restated as intelligent action. A pleasant voice is refreshing and soothing as compared with a harsh voice which irritates. A pleasant voice is an asset to both leaders and followers. Fairness, originality, liveliness, and a pleasant voice are general traits which, possessed by a person, indicate possibilities of leadership. The absence of any one of them may handicap that person to the extent that the attainment of leadership is much more difficult or impossible.

The reader may see that the analytical studies of leadership are few in number and unsatisfactory in their scope even though they are, without much question, the most satisfactory of all of the studies that are available at the present time.

## DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

## CHAPTER IV

The practice of leadership is as old as mankind. As the subject of formal study it is so new that it has not yet been analyzed or defined satisfactorily. Leadership is not ordinarily thought of except in a social situation of some kind. True, there are scientists, engineers, and artists who are leaders in their fields and who may have developed into leadership other than in direct social situations, but they are so few in number when compared with the great number of leaders who work in social situations that they may be disregarded.

Partridge (33) made a definite attempt to outline a scientific treatment of leadership. His method proposed: "The development of a valid technique for the identification of leaders within a group. A study of the characteristics of leaders as compared with those they lead. A study of leaders in action to determine (a) what their actual influence is on the group; (b) their methods of influence and how they use them. The problem of this study, then can be outlined as follows: (1) A treatment of the scientific knowledge on the nature and functioning of the social group. (2) A critical review of previous studies of leaders and leadership ability. (3) The con-

struction of an instrument for identifying leaders within a group. (4) An inventory of the characteristics of the leaders found and a comparison of these qualities with those of the persons they lead. (5) A measurement of the amount of influence various leaders have upon the attitudes of their group. (6) An interpretation of the results in terms of educational procedures."

Bowden (9) stated that recent research in the study and measurement of personality is the most interesting field in all the fields of education. He says, "Teachers and parents should know more about the technical process. They should know that in early childhood and youth, repression oftentimes does make a submissive, introverted, asocial type of personality of one whose possibility is favorable for developing the extroverted, expansive ascendant social being capable of much good as a leader."

A study of leadership is tremendously complex because the practice of leadership has so many qualifying conditions and so many implications for life as it is lived. The variety of social situations in which leadership has a part is almost infinite. In democratic groups, a reverberating cooperative interplay should exist between leaders and followers. This type of procedure usually results in the greatest long-time efficiency in group activities. In autocracies, there is far less interplay in both directions

and far more in one direction between the leaders and the groups. This relationship yields quicker results, but usually not lasting results.

Writers on leadership have written from partial points of view, and perhaps the majority of these writers always will. Someone has worked out an idea which he thinks is valuable as a possible procedure in aiding in the research development of such a problem. He has shaped his procedure around that idea and tried to put it into practice. Some other person, interested in the same problem has originated another idea which he treats similarly and has approached the problem from another angle. These partial points of view of the problem of leadership may be roughly classified at present as (a) biological heredity, (b) social heredity, (c) the influence of the school, (d) health and physical constitution, (e) accidental programs of events, and (f) kinds of leaders.

Large numbers of writers have written on the influence of the school on leadership, but only a few of these attempted to conduct experiments along scientific lines. Bird (5), Brown (10), Bellingrath (2), Eckert (13), Savage (35), Nutting (31), Moore (27), Flemming (21), Bowden (9), Bennett and Jones (3), Cowley (15), and others have conducted various kinds of studies in schools, attempting to secure objective data on school procedure in rela-

tionship to leadership.

Some of the more alert schools have begun to be interested in the training of leaders, but no really efficient programs have been outlined to date. Just as a large volume of experimental work preceded the present status of the definition and measurement of intelligence; so an extended period of experimental studies, carefully planned and as nearly objective as possible, should be started in the attempt to analyze and then to teach leadership in the school systems of the country. Where teachers are available, who are skilled in techniques that would make feasible the direct teaching of leadership that should be done. Where there is a lack of suitable teaching conditions and of a highly capable teacher personnel for the direct teaching of leadership, a plan should be worked out whereby indirect methods of leadership instruction may be used in other teaching subjects or in conjunction with the other activities of the school.

Known methods of imparting leadership knowledge and skill are haphazard and are not properly planned. There has been no provision made to pool whatever knowledge is available on the technique of teaching leadership. All present definitions of leadership, character, and personality are vague because authors are not agreed on the meanings of the terminology used to describe them. It

may be that an adequate terminology will have to be developed before the study of leadership can go forward, just as a projected building can not be erected until its foundation is laid. Accurate and definite descriptions of leadership situations will also have to be added to the stock of knowledge before objective procedures can be initiated and experimental knowlege can be obtained.

Bogardus (8) has classified leaders as (a) direct, those who get recognition during their life-times, (b) indirect, those whose recognition comes after their deaths, (c) the partizan, represented by lawyers and debators, (d) the scientific leader who sacrifices many things in the search for truth, (e) the social leader, as characterized by the college yell leader, (f) the mental leader, who does his best work in seclusion, (g) the executive leader, who has the ability to direct other lesser leaders and secure efficient responses through them, as in business affairs, (h) the autocratic leader, who rules through his own selfish motives and requires a hero-worshiping public for success, (i) the paternalistic leader, who feels that his followers are dependent upon his watchful care and does not permit more than partial cooperation and interplay in return, (j) the democratic leader, who becomes a leader through recognition of his ability and cooperates with his followers to make for the largest

efficiency of the group as a whole. This is a descriptive and probably partial list, but it is a beginning of an approach to the problem of leadership that seems worthy of further development. Perhaps these kinds of leaders have different kinds of abilities. Perhaps they have the same abilities in different amounts. Perhaps the apparent differences are entirely superficial.

Cowley (15) believed leaders are of mental, social, or executive types. Mental leadership is generally one of ideas for social betterment. Social leadership is primarily leadership in action in social situations. Executive leadership deals with procedures of directing groups through intermediaries. Pigors (34) mentioned "master" and "educator" types of leaders as differing slightly from "autocratic" and "democratic" leaders. The "master" type exhibited a desire for self-expression and was egotistical. The "educator" type was more desirous of rendering service and developing his followers.

The type of leadership existing in a group determines the quality of performance of the group. A poor leader may hold the group together and secure mediocre results; while a virile, mentally alert leader with an interesting and workable program has almost unlimited possibilities for group accomplishment within the abilities of its members. Leadership has long been regarded as something

of vital importance to the most useful functioning of society but, with the increasing complexity of social organizations, leadership is more important today than ever before. Leadership is so important in the daily life of mankind that false leaders often take advantage of the existing needs for better leadership and exploit the groups for their own selfish ends rather than serving the best interests of the group. When this unfortunate leadership situation exists, it often causes able leaders to avoid leadership positions because of the stigma attached to such leadership. The rewards of socially efficient leadership are often so small that those having the ability to lead successfully and efficiently prefer other more remunerative and satisfying activities. Competent leadership can be secured only when it is well rewarded financially, or in prestige, or both.

In summarizing this study, the following conclusions may be arrived at:

1. Leadership is a complicated function that will require definite and carefully planned procedures and scientifically detailed experiments for its analysis.
2. Further study will have to be given to the methods of applying these results in order to make them a part of programs of education for the improvement of society.

3. Present knowledge of leadership, as an entity or as a part of an educational program, is still in a very unsatisfactory condition. This is made evident by the absence of any exact definitions of leadership or even of useful descriptions of what leadership does or the ways in which it operates. It is made more evident by the present inability to determine the actual leaders in many, if not most, situations.
4. The sources of the leadership abilities of acknowledged leaders and the courses of development of these abilities are practically unknown today.
5. The relationships between leadership and personality and between leadership and character are almost entirely unknown. A relationship is generally conceded, but remains undescribed. The terms themselves remain undefined.
6. The course of action of an individual who is a leader in one situation when he is put into other and different situations remains undetermined. Whether circumstances make leaders or leaders make circumstances is still debatable.
7. Whether or not there are different kinds of leaders or whether the situations of leadership and the directions of the leading are the differentiating factors remains to be discovered.

8. If descriptions of the conditions under which leadership is brought about or of the situations in which it takes place are necessary for the accurate study of leadership, procedures for the making of such descriptions will have to be evolved.
9. Not only should the means by which leadership operates be studied, but the ends to which it operates should be examined and, possibly, limited by definition.
10. Until true, or constructive, leadership has been identified and brought to a point of general recognition, it can not be suitably rewarded. Until it is suitably rewarded by means of prestige or monetary returns on a just and accurate basis, the potentially most able leaders will frequently be ignored or will actively avoid positions of public leadership and, thus, leave these positions to be sought and held by the less able or the selfish leaders, or the seekers after attention. Such a situation is least desirable in a democracy, although it is undesirable anywhere.

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