

NOTE TO USERS

Page(s) not included in the original manuscript are unavailable from the author or university. The manuscript was microfilmed as received

67

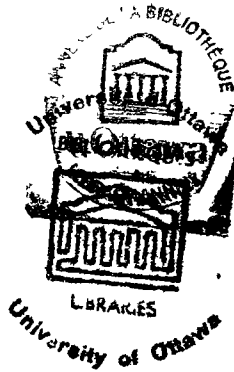
This reproduction is the best copy available.

UMI[®]

SUCCESS IN ADMINISTRATIVE EMPLOYMENT
IN THE GOVERNMENT SERVICE

by Anatole Gagnon

Thesis presented to the Faculty of Arts
of the University of Ottawa, through
the Institute of Psychology, towards
the degree of Master of Arts.



Ottawa, Canada, 1950

UMI Number: EC55670

INFORMATION TO USERS

The quality of this reproduction is dependent upon the quality of the copy submitted. Broken or indistinct print, colored or poor quality illustrations and photographs, print bleed-through, substandard margins, and improper alignment can adversely affect reproduction.

In the unlikely event that the author did not send a complete manuscript and there are missing pages, these will be noted. Also, if unauthorized copyright material had to be removed, a note will indicate the deletion.

UMI[®]

UMI Microform EC55670
Copyright 2011 by ProQuest LLC
All rights reserved. This microform edition is protected against
unauthorized copying under Title 17, United States Code.

ProQuest LLC
789 East Eisenhower Parkway
P.O. Box 1346
Ann Arbor, MI 48106-1346

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The plan of this thesis was discussed with the Director of the Institute of Psychology of the University of Ottawa, Father Raymond-Henri Shevenell, O.M.I. and given a very helpful critical examination by his professors and students.

It was written under his direction and as a result of his encouragement.

Thanks are also expressed to Miss Aline Cardinal who gleaned from the files the meaningful material analysed here.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Chapter	Page
INTRODUCTION	vii
I.- NOTES ON THE STRUCTURE AND OPPORTUNITIES OF THE CLASSIFIED SERVICE	
1. Its Organization and Conditions of Employment.	1
2. The Promotion Opportunities it was Meant to Provide.	8
3. Observations on the Success of this Plan.	14
4. Relevant Economic and Political Factors Affecting the Service (Size, Turnover, Change in Government) . . .	24
5. Comments on Motivation and Morale . . .	32
II.- DESCRIPTION OF THE FIRST GROUP STUDIED	
1. Writings and Opinions on the Characteristics of Successful Clerks.	36
2. Eventual Disposition of Office Boys on Eligible List for the Year 1925.	41
3. The Determination of a Success Criterion	42
4. Analysis of Ability Factors	44
5. Analysis of Stability Factors	51
6. Analysis of Administrative Factors.	56
7. Summary of Observations	59
III.- DESCRIPTION OF THE SECOND GROUP STUDIED	
1. The Difference Between the Clerk and the Administrator	61
2. A General Review of the Factors in Leadership.	62
3. Writings on Potential Leadership Ability	64
4. Executive Ability	66
5. Senior Administrative Ability	73
6. Choice of Subjects in the Second Sample	80
7. The Success Criterion	82
8. Analysis of Personal Factors.	83

TABLE OF CONTENTS

iv

Chapter	Page
9. Analysis of Environmental Factors. . .	88
10. Analysis of Administrative Factors . .	92
11. Summary of Observations.	97
IV.- AN IMPORTANT COMPARISON BETWEEN THE TWO GROUPS	
1. Starting Low in the Ladder is a Real Handicap	99
2. The Unexplained Success of a Note- worthy Percentage.	101
CONCLUSIONS	
1. Critical Review of Present Research. .	103
2. Proposed Research.	106
BIBLIOGRAPHY.	112
Appendices	
1. DUTIES AND QUALIFICATIONS OF OFFICE BOYS. . .	119
2. EXAMINATIONS FOR OFFICE BOYS.	121
3. UNEVEN SALARIES FOR VARIOUS GROUPS.	123
4. CONTEMPORARY TOPICS (Executive Personnel) . .	125
5. AN ABSTRACT OF Success in Administrative Employment in the Government Service. . .	127
INDEX	130

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
I.- Classified Summary Showing Numbers of Permanent and Temporary Employees in the Month of March for Each Year 1925-1949 Together with Total Annual Expenditure on their Salaries.	25
II.- Monthly Averages of Number of Employees in the Most Important Departments for Years Marking Typical High and Low Points in Staff Totals	27
III.- Totals for Staff Employed at Headquarters and at Other Points than Headquarters for all Departments and Percentage of Each for Total Staff.	29
IV.- Number of Male Assignments to Permanent and Temporary Positions.	31
V.- Relationship Between Intelligence Test Scores of Clerical Workers at the Time They Were Hired and Job Level Achieved Some Time Later.	38
VI.- Eventual Disposition of Office Boys Shown on Eligible Lists for the Year 1925	42
VII.- Present Distribution by Classification and Salary Levels of Office Boys Appointed from Eligible List for the Year 1925.	45
VIII.- Contingency Coefficient Between School-Leaving Grades and Salary Groups	48
IX.- Contingency Coefficient Between Number of Transfers and Salary Groups.	53
X.- Home Address at Time of Appointment and Salary Achieved.	54
XI.- Contingency Coefficient Between Types of Character References and Salary Groups	55

LIST OF TABLES

vi

Table	Page
XII.- Contingency Coefficient Between Number of Children and Salary Groups.	56
XIII.- Contingency Coefficient Between Number of Reclassifications and Salaries Achieved . .	57
XIV.- Mean Salaries by Departments of Longest Employment.	58
XV.- Qualities of Leadership on the Strength of Opinions Expressed by Industrial Leaders. .	72
XVI.- Correlations Between Background Items and Success Ratings of Personnel Classification Investigators	76
XVII.- Dates of Appointment of Top-Salaried Administrative Personnel in the Classified Canadian Civil Service.	82
XVIII.- Age Distribution by Salary Groups of Forty Senior Administrators in the Canadian Civil Service Appointed from 1920 to 1929	83
XIX.- Contingency Coefficient Between Completed Levels of Educational Achievements and Salary Groups	85
XX.- Place of Residence at Time of Appointment and Salary Achieved	89
XXI.- Contingency Coefficient Between Types of Character References and Salary Groups. . .	91
XXII.- Contingency Coefficient Between Number of Children and Salary Groups.	92
XXIII.- Contingency Coefficient Between Number of Reclassifications and Salaries Achieved . .	94
XXIV.- Mean Salaries by Departments of Longest Employment.	97

INTRODUCTION

There is presently much unrest concerning promotions. In the last few decades, we sought to afford everyone a democratic chance at the satisfactions and rewards of high position. Now, we are actively seeking ways and means of permitting individuals with a propensity to leadership to be in a position to lead.

The recent war created an acute need to utilize to the full the potential of every individual. Everyone can name very senior officers often times entirely on their own to reach decisions affecting a whole brigade or a ship's crew, who were not yet out of their twenties. These men had to be picked without the benefit of the perspective provided by the acquisition of years of experience. The responsibility for proper selection weighed heavily on those entrusted with authority and it was made real to them that we had no great certainty of being able to identify leaders before they had actually led. In his outline of current trends in psychology¹, Flanagan, who had been in the midst of problems of leadership during the recent conflict, places at the top of his list of basic

1 John C. Flanagan, Personnel Psychology in Current Trends in Psychology, Pittsburgh, University of Pittsburgh Press, 1947, pages 167-168.

projects for the next twenty years, the development of critical requirement for success in a wide range of activities. Our research derives its orientation from his recommendations.

The military services and industry have, for obvious reasons, become increasingly aware of the necessity for a successful adjustment of the persons entering such activities. The interest has spread beyond the point of selection where the study of testing had long held sway. The same trend toward the determination of the causes for effective civil service employment, while not as evident, is still discernible. The Canadian Civil Service has been fortunate in being one of the first to benefit from a systematic organization designed to free it from the vagaries of patronage. This phase, centering primarily about the selection process, has passed the acute stage and thought should now be given to what takes place in the use of the persons selected to man the public service of Canada.

In it are found many representatives of the professions and technically trained individuals who perform in the government service in much the same way as they would outside. Generally the criteria of the effectiveness of the latter is arrived at by standards that are universal in their application. They are not, therefore, the greatest

unknown quantity we face. It is in dealing with employees engaged in administration that we grope our way.

This is not to say that systematic study has not been directed towards the ideal conditions of administrative employment. It has. But, the approach is too frequently the logics of organization and procedure charts, the applicability of rules, regulations, and directives, the nice appearance of classification structures. There is what some have called a forgotten human aspect where we have individuals and dynamic social groups and where feelings have their place. This research is far from having the pretension of bridging this gap between two points of view; other more masterful efforts have already been made². What has been attempted is merely to try to determine the circumstances and personal characteristics contributing to success in an administrative capacity by looking with equal attention at all that can be objectively appraised.

If we look more closely at this definition of the purpose set before us, we note that the conditions of employment will be considered with personality traits. To

² De Grazia, Human Relations in Public Administration, Public Administration Service, Chicago, Illinois, 1949, 53 pages.

Schuyler Dean Hoslett, Human Factors in Management, Parkville, Missouri, Park College Press, 1946, pages VI-322.

try to evaluate administrative success simply in terms of one or the other seems absurd.

Administration was and still remains the essential function of a civil service despite the growing groups of technicians that have formed in many of its ramifications. The range of purely administrative functions is broad; the clerk and the senior career official are within such bounds. When deciding whether we should arbitrarily limit ourselves to top officials or clerks, we were reminded of Moses'³ comments way back in 1914:

But where does our sympathy lead us? Can the state repair the defects of heredity or of early education? Can it endow the average individual with the intelligence, acuteness and cultivation which economic exigencies have denied him?

There should be no social bar to promotion from the lowest to the highest place - but let us not fool ourselves. When we have made every possible provision for the encouragement of early promise, when we have prepared every child as far as possible for its suitable vocation, the subordinate employees of the government or of private enterprise who are fit to rise above the ranks will be few and far between.

We thought it would be interesting to find the worth of this conclusion by examining two groups situated at both ends of the administrative ladder.

³ Robert Moses, The Civil Service of Great Britain, New York, Longman's Green and Co., 1914, pages 244-245.

By following the progress of junior entrants and retracing the achievements of senior officers over the same period and making comparisons within each group and between the two groups, interesting information has been collected. It is in the matter of choice of subject-matter and methods of analysis, however, that this research has been most fruitful.

Adopting Flanagan's⁴ distrust of efficiency ratings, we limited our analysis to the data gleaned from official files; these constitute mature case histories. A period averaging 25 years was considered sufficient to allow the full play of opportunity. This led back to initial appointment in 1925 in the first group and to 1920 to 1929 in the second. Much of the post-war blanketing-in appointments were then over. Time was felt to be a more reliable meter of personal values than any number of statistically based programs. This approach would appear to be well suited for research in the government service where economic changes do not have the same direct effect and progress is more easily discernible over a period of years. Decisions concerning personal qualities are always the outcome of committee or board deliberations and lead to eventual promotion. These take on the character of a consensus of

4 John C. Flanagan, op. cit., pages 161-164.

opinions and a succession of them becomes a valid basis for establishing true success.

The above conditions and the elimination of females, who constitute a particular problem, reduced the size of the group to 37 in one instance and 40 in the other.

The test of this technique is in the pages to follow. Its limitations have been recognized and avoided in the outline of a further research on the same subject which concludes this work.

CHAPTER I

NOTES ON THE STRUCTURE AND OPPORTUNITIES OF THE CLASSIFIED SERVICE

Its Organization and Conditions of Employment

Before one can arrive at a satisfactory understanding of some of the reasons for the successful or unsuccessful careers of the individuals we are studying, it is necessary to describe those aspects of the Federal Civil Service of Canada which can be shown to have had an effect on the development of its members. In doing this, we will look first at the personnel organization of the service, following up with the promotion opportunities deriving from this and the pertinent political and economic factors of the period, and summing up with general comments on the motivation of civil servants.

Personnel Organization -

The organization of the Service as we know it now, can be said to have its beginning with the adoption of the Civil Service Act of 1918. To put this Act into effect, a study was conducted by the Arthur Young and Company, a firm of management experts. Their conclusions were presented to the Government of the day in a comprehensive report

outlining the basic principles of good man-management ¹. The plan of the description to follow is drawn from this report since the essential characteristics of the organization of the Service have remained unchanged.

The sixty-thousand positions coming at that time under the new Civil Service Act were first to be classified. This involved placing all positions in a group - called a "class" - where the duties and responsibilities, as well as the qualifications required, were the same, and granting to each group a suitable rate of pay. It was clearly outlined then that such a process should be completely independent of the incumbent of the positions.

As a necessary part of the classification plan, all groups were defined as to duties and qualifications and possible lines of promotion were described. (See Appendix 1). In theory, no one could be appointed to a position unless he or she met the qualifications of the class to which this position had been allocated. Transfers were to be rigidly controlled so that indiscriminate changes would not cut across the path of promotion of persons coming in at the entrance grade.

1 Arthur Young and Company, Report of Transmission to Accompany the Classification of the Civil Service of Canada, Ottawa, 1919, pages IX-62.

NOTES ON THE STRUCTURE AND OPPORTUNITIES
OF THE CLASSIFIED SERVICE

3

In examining how this plan was applied, it may be well to look at each objective underlying it and describe how these were met.

The agency charged with carrying out this plan, frequently referred to as the most complete of its day, was the Civil Service Commission. This body was organized into three distinct branches: the Organization Branch dealing with position-classification and pay; the Examination Branch concerned with recruiting, promotions, and transfers; the Assignment Branch charged with putting eligible candidates into positions by order of their rank on lists previously prepared.

P o s i t i o n c l a s s i f i c a t i o n . --
The administration of the plan laid considerable stress on the classification of the duties of positions which accounts for the extensive influence in civil service personnel matters exercised by the Organization Branch. It is significant that, up to this day, the Civil Service Commission, in the keeping of records, lays more stress on the identification of positions as such, than on the individuals occupying them. And, although the thought was for the practical determination of structures and the creation of positions only with the economic value of the work to be done as the major factor, the dynamism of the civil service

group soon obscured this objective. The basic principle that a position should be given a salary rate independently of its incumbent was never fully operative. In effect, advancement became possible by promotion within an existing cadre or simply by changing it.

A confusion of objectives soon resulted from this theoretical emphasis on position classification: while the Civil Service Commission could decide the organization of a branch and the various classes of positions that went to make it up, it found itself forced by departments to discuss individuals and, thereby, had to go into the type of personnel management now known as job-adjustment. This responsibility was more or less vaguely included in its terms of reference, but not defined. The concept of personnel administration had not developed to the point where a third party, introduced between the employee and the supervisor, was recognized as good practice.

The application of the principles of position classification thus became subject to compromise; in controlling the number and types of positions, classification never fully played the role assigned to it in the original plan. The activity and importance of the department, the aggressiveness of the heads of a branch or even its members often had an important influence on the size of the unit. As a result, the Service did not develop as

rigid a structure as could have been expected. It is well to bear this in mind as a factor making for unevenness in promotion opportunities throughout the Service, but also one that would allow for some play of personality differences even within a limited area.

The all-embracing requirement that there be a common terminology regardless of the department in which the positions were to be found allowed the initial description of groups to suffer only gradual and minor change. Classes could be created and abolished with ease, but whenever this was done, it concerned mostly positions occupied by one person; the classes covering large numbers of employees suffered no appreciable change during the period chosen.

The very important matter of equal pay for equal work can, as a consequence of this, be said to have received a satisfactory solution where it concerns the lower classes of employment. It is fair to say for groups containing large numbers of employees that the following policy, as quoted from the Letter of Transmission, has been given consistent application:

All that can be said therefore as to the correctness of individual "salary" schedules is that the whole classification with the recommended standards of compensation constitutes a conscientious attempt to appraise positions on a

relative basis according to the best facts available and in conformity with the prevailing opinion of the economic world².

S e l e c t i o n. -- In knowing the classes of positions to be filled, the Examination Branch could set standardized examinations and draw up eligible lists. Great reliance was placed on written examinations as a mass selection techniques for the classes made up of many positions. Office boys and clerks have, to this day, been subjected to the type of selective process that is known in educational examinations. (See Appendix 2). From these, lists of eligibles provided appointees in the strict order of ranking. In one-man classes containing a limited number of individuals, selection was by less impersonal procedures and entrance could conceivably have proven easier.

As indicated before, it became almost impossible to transfer from one section to another even within departments. The facts that all transfers were carefully scrutinized at the Commission will illustrate the importance attached to what is termed "the competitive spirit of the merit principle". It does not appear to have been the intentions of the originators of the plan to foster such a freezing-in process, but it proved easier to administer in this fashion.

² Arthur Young & Company, op. cit., page 27.

Much of the stagnation that ensued can be related directly to the highly autonomous character of the departments concerned. Each of these is an individual employer, although governed, in part, by general directives emanating from the Civil Service Commission. There is no interdepartmental placement procedure; an employee at the clerical level would not be transferred to another department unless he takes the initiative to convince all parties concerned of the wisdom of the move. This will be discussed again later.

P e r s o n n e l r e g u l a t i o n s . -- The classification of positions and the examination of candidates for appointment and promotion are the main responsibilities of the Civil Service Commission, but, it is well to note its place in the regulation of leave of absence, hours of attendance, holidays, and other welfare aspects that should form part of a complete employment plan.

In the matter of leave of absence, complete regulations have been evolved which must be applied by departments. Removal from employment is also subject to scrutiny. Since most employees were permanent before the recent war and a dismissal must be submitted to the Governor in Council, such an occurrence was very infrequent. The matter of overtime is also regulated by the Commission. Holidays are observed as allowed, but hours of attendance have been known to vary. The Commission has had no direct influence on

working conditions and is just now beginning to enter the field of training; strong recommendations had been made in 1919 in favour of a complete training programme for the new employee and those aspiring to promotion. Up to very recently, efficiency records were, for all purposes, non-existent. The superannuation plan remains one of the best; it has provided an incentive to remaining in the service once one became a contributor. Lastly, an interesting suggestion was made in the original report for some means of employee representation in the fixing of the conditions of his employment. The National Joint Council has recently been formed to take up such matters.

Promotion Opportunities

Some of the effects on promotion opportunities have been noted already and others might be surmised from the above description, it may now be of value to compare what took place in the Service, prior to the war of 1939-45, with a set of promotion principles and practices considered as ideal at the time of their publication in 1929³, a date close to the period of initial appointment of the groups under study.

³ Frank O. Everett, Promotion Principles and Practices, Technical Bulletin No. 2 of the Civil Service Assembly of the U.S. and Canada, Chicago, 1929, pages 1 and 2.

NOTES ON THE STRUCTURE AND OPPORTUNITIES
OF THE CLASSIFIED SERVICE

9

1. All vacancies in positions above the lowest rank in any service, whose duties are not principally concerned with the determination of policies, should be filled by promotion, whenever there are such employees who are able to qualify under appropriate standards, rigidly maintained, and who will accept promotion.

To fill a vacancy, a department had three alternatives: it could ask the Civil Service Commission to send an employee chosen from lists of qualified eligibles generally established for the Clerk, Grade 1 and 2 classes or other specialized clerical employment; if such lists were not available, it could ask for a service-wide or open (to the general public) competition; it could seek the promotion of one of its own employees. In effect, the latter was the general practice. Having decided to promote one of its employees, the Department had the choice of indicating the specific individual it wanted upgraded or of asking the Civil Service Commission to institute advertising proceedings addressed to the section in which the vacancy occurred. Occasionally, when the first recommendation was made, the Commission would insist on the latter procedure because of the obvious necessity not to disregard the claims of others besides the one proposed for promotion. If the position was for Clerk, Grade 2, and sometimes for other classes, the candidate for promotion had to have passed a qualifying examination generally set for the Service as a whole. Special examinations could also be held for a small group of

people who had not qualified; these tended to be easier than the more general examinations. Other factors entering into the decision to promote were seniority, efficiency, and fitness for the new position as understood by departmental representatives. In some departments, such as Post Office, National Revenue (Customs and Excise), and Immigration, recruitment from the outside at almost all levels is very uncommon.

In promotions to higher posts, position-classification was frequently brought into play. If a man had increased the responsibilities of his position, it was given another title and more pay. There was no element of competition here other than to be the first to draw the superior's attention to one's efficiency.

Once the decision to promote a particular person was made, there was no appeal possible. The present appeal procedure is an innovation introduced in 1939.

As can be gathered, the "appropriate standards" of qualifications were not maintained for the whole Service, but there was a definite effort made to safeguard the competitive privileges of those in the immediate vicinity of a vacancy.

2. Determination of whether there are qualified employees available, and which are the best, should be by means of competitive promotion tests open to all employees in lower

ranks who can demonstrate the minimum kind of experience prescribed as necessary to qualify.

As will have been gathered from the previous paragraph no competitive examinations were carried out to settle whether or not there were employees available for promotion except for the classes of Clerks Grade 1 and Grade 2. The department's word of the availability of candidates had to be taken. As a result, interdepartmental promotions were very infrequent and it was only by service-wide or open competition that transfers took place. Being already in the Service often gave no appreciable advantage to a candidate over his competitors from outside.

3. Definite lines of promotion from lower to higher classes of positions should be adopted and published, but they should be interpreted as an outline of the natural or logical avenues of advancement and not as excluding employees in positions of other classes who can show qualifying experience.

Lines of promotion were recognized in a practical way. As noted before, these were determined in the initial drawing up of the plan; no effort was made to keep them up to date. No emphasis having been placed on this requirement, an employee could have left one field of work to enter another as there was no systematic exclusion, except for the professions. In practice, the absence of movement between departments did not favour such changes. As a corollary, an employee was handicapped in rising higher in his specialty

than was allowed by the importance of this work in his department.

4. Department and other organization lines and geographical lines should be almost or entirely disregarded in promotion tests and the service should be treated as a whole, the best qualified employee being promoted without regard to the organization unit or geographical location in which he has been serving or that in which the vacancy exists.

As has already been said, departmental organization lines were very restrictive and it was a rare instance when a promotion was brought about in the manner described above. Further, the Service was divided, prior to the present Civil Service Act, into the Outside Service and the Inside Service, the latter being the headquarters of most departments located at Ottawa. Promotions from the field within even the same department were not the practice until recent years. Geographical restrictions on initial appointment are still in effect, but positions at Ottawa have always been open to the Country as a whole and a field employee could always compete for these when they were advertised.

5. A plan of rating systematically the performance on-the-job of employees considered for promotion and currently recording such ratings should be applied.

Except for the Post Office, no such plan of efficiency rating was carried out. Salary increases within the range of pay allotted to the class were granted only when the employing department certified that the employee had rendered

useful and meritorious service. This was a perfunctory control which carried no meaning beyond the routine certification for annual salary increase.

6. Administration of the promotion plan and other personnel policies through a central personnel agency is necessarily involved.

While the Commission can be said to have had a paper control on the manner of promotions in departments, its influence cannot be considered as more than that of a standardizing force in the matter of applying promotion formalities. There was no concerted effort to encourage ability to come to the top. Occasionally, it played the role of a benevolent arbiter where matters boiled over the departmental confines. With the advent of the war, the ensuing disruption of established practices and the sudden expansion forced the Commission into a still more submissive role with regards to promotions as such, but a reaction soon came about in the latter part of the war and the post-war period. Position-classification, as was explained earlier, took on the guise of a check on the qualifications of individuals slated for advancement by the departments. This was inevitable since positions had to be created constantly to fit the enlarged activities of the government service. Representatives of the Organization Branch, because of their first-hand contact with the employees of departments, were in a position to recommend favourably or otherwise on the

desirability of changing the classification to a higher rate of pay, in effect, of allowing or not a promotion. This, however, was an essentially negative control. Our next step will be to examine some authoritative statements on the success of the plan of promotion as previously and presently applied.

Observations on the Success of the Plan

Much criticism of the plan has been voiced in well-documented articles. A study of the less formal material available on this subject would not throw much light on this controversial question. Only the published findings of Committees of the House, Royal Commission of Enquiries and a specific research project were thought to afford enough reliable conclusions to be worthy of note. The first report to be dealt with here will be that on technical and professional services published in 1930.

This enquiry, although directed at professional and technical classes, had generalized in these terms:

We do not believe that this system is well calculated to secure the most suitable technical, scientific and professional appointments. It has one distinctive merit; it gives no place, at least ostensibly, to purely personal considerations. On the otherhand, it is mechanical and lifeless. For junior positions involving no responsibility, there is something to be said for a system of rating, or alternatively, for a written test. Except in the case of junior positions, we regard either

arrangements as being in many cases an unsuitable method of selection ⁴.

It will be noted that the reporters were not greatly convinced that the system was entirely as coldly objective as it had been described to them. Their criticism, founded on the "mechanical and lifeless" attributes of the system is therefore without its only support and cannot be considered very substantial. As a matter of fact, while this represented the most serious assessment of the system installed 10 years previously, the conclusions reached were very meager and the recommendations with regard to promotions were not implemented. This would suggest that, at the time, experienced administrators publicly known as capable, could find nothing glaringly wrong with the plan. They said, taking their cue from the British Service, that an insufficient element of flexibility had been incorporated into the original structure, thus impeding the recruitment and development of potentially valuable civil servants. Their aim was to reduce the control of the Civil Service Commission on promotions. This control, we will see, was never as great as they had assumed.

⁴ E.W. Beatty, Chairman, Report of the Royal Commission on Technical and Professional Services, Ottawa, 1930, page 19.

In 1932, A Committee of the House quite at odds with the above urged the Civil Service Commission to use its powers to speed up and facilitate promotion. Its criticism, rather mild in comparison to other parts of the report, was only levelled at the cumbersome character of the machinery ⁵.

The same approach is confirmed in the findings of an extensive and somewhat famous inquiry carried out by the Pouliot Committee ⁶. A perusal of its recommendations shows the following pertinent points to have been given prominence:

the need to facilitate transfers between branches and departments;

the importance of allowing an impartial hearing of an employee's complaints;

the requirement that efficiency ratings and fitness for promotions be made by three departmental officers constituting a board instead of an individual;

the creation of a system of periodical ratings; and

the desirability of retiring male employees at sixty-five years of age and female employees at sixty to facilitate promotion.

The most remarkable recommendation, in the light of statements in the previous paragraph is quoted below:

⁵ J. Earl Lawson, Chairman, Select Special Committee on Civil Service and Civil Service Act, Minutes of Proceedings No. 27, Ottawa, 1932, page 930.

⁶ J.F. Pouliot, Chairman, Special Committee on the Operation of the Civil Service Act, Minutes of Proceedings No. 39, Ottawa, 1938, pages 1553-1554.

18. Your Committee recommends that the practice of placing employees in vacant positions in an acting capacity instead of holding promotion competitions for them be discouraged.

This committee of members of the House had obviously found evidence of departments favouring a candidate despite the possible claim of other employees.

In 1946, as a result of the war experience, another searching and vigorously written report was presented to the Government. It, too, believed the planning of promotions to be in very serious need of overhaul:

In a career service, assuming recruits to be of appropriate quality, success in obtaining properly qualified and efficient senior administrative personnel is dependent in the main upon a wise policy in regard to promotions. Judging by results there must be something radically wrong with the existing policy in this regard. Able individuals are kept far too long in the low salary ranges. Promotion, when it does come, brings little immediate advantage since scales in general overlap or touch. Many of the best paid positions are filled by men brought in from outside. In the result there is little to tempt an able and ambitious man to enter the service on the lower rungs of the ladder, and even less to encourage him to remain in it.

Accepting the loose affirmation repeated in a number of places in the report, that efficient administrators are not to be found in the Civil Service, the blame would lie in the salary structures, the recruitment policies, the promotion

7 W.L. Gordon, Chairman, Report of the Royal Commission on Administrative Classifications in the Public Service, Ottawa, 1946, page 19.

procedures, and the absence of movement between departments.

The matter of salary paid on promotion is covered in the quotation above; it may be of advantage to look at some statements in the report with regards to the other factors.

Recruitment, according to this report, has been too specialized. Limited qualifications are asked for routine and clerical grades and very specialized ones for positions in the senior grades. There should exist a series of administrative classes with general qualification requirements allowing an employee with "general intelligence and capacity" to rise from the lowest pay-rungs to the top without getting tangled up in specialized duties. Specialized recruitment's secondary effect is summed up in the following statement:

We note in this regard that the present highly specialized classification system militates against the recruitment of men and women of capacity from those parts of the country where the educational system is not primarily based on specialized types of training. It was represented to us that the number of French-speaking Canadians in administrative and other senior positions is comparatively small. This situation, which is obviously undesirable is due in large measure to the existing system of classification and recruitment ⁸.

Adapting a famous French metaphor, the report states, "In theory the messenger boy who enters the Canadian Civil Service has a Deputy-Minister's baton in his knapsack" ⁹.

8, 9 ibid., page 18.

That is as it should be, they believe, but in the case of the Civil Service it is more theory than practice. It would have been of considerable interest to have had this point developed beyond the mere speculative statements to be found here. For instance, the same section of the report speaks of the importance of recruiting yearly the bright products of universities as the basis to a satisfactory solution; are we to understand, in contradiction to the previous remark, that no one else can achieve important administrative posts? A very vital issue to a career service in a democratic country has simply been side-stepped.

In the criticism of the promotion procedures, it is interesting to note a return to the ideas expressed in the Beatty Report¹⁰ with the quotation of some of its phrases such as "cumbrous and tardy" and "mechanical and lifeless". Inquiries into promotion procedures, when carried out by individuals with only a passing responsibility in the matter, would bring to light an exaggerated concern for the meddling of a central agency in departmental affairs, when the inquiry is done by responsible legislators, the opposite would be the case. Political interference in appointment is supposed to be thwarted by a Civil Service Commission and it is interesting to see a desire to bolster the central agency

10 Cf. page 15.

by the very people it is meant to impede.

In the matter of transfers, the absence of movement between departments, and even branches for intermediate and senior employees is deplored as a real limiting factor in the development of administrative officials. The responsibility for this solidified condition is placed on those sections of the Civil Service Act which make all transfers subject to the approval of the Civil Service Commission. It is implied also that the Commission, as the central personnel authority, is not in a position to ensure equivalent replacements to departments permitting the movement of their good men. Easier transfers could also help to solve the problem of incompetents as would earlier retirement at the age of 60 for men and 55 for women.

As a whole this report suggested radical changes to meet what was considered a basically weak system. Although some of the conclusions, especially with reference to the need for transfers would appear sound, much more proof would be required before such a sweeping premise became entirely acceptable. Some work has recently been done with the objective of probing deeper into the effectiveness of the promotion plan now in existence. Carried out in 1949, some of the findings will conclude our review of authoritative criticisms of the system.

NOTES ON THE STRUCTURE AND OPPORTUNITIES
OF THE CLASSIFIED SERVICE

21

Endorsing in great part the conclusions of the Gordon Report, this study deplored the absence of general administrative classes leading to senior posts and gave proof that the present system of strict categorization of duties was not favourable to the training, through free transfers, of potential top executives. To this end, an analysis of a group of Clerks, Grade 4, qualified on special competitions for university graduates in the years 1937 to 1941, was carried out. These candidates were to be given every opportunity to move around and develop. The table below was presented to show that the job of junior administrative assistant could lead to many things, other than administrative posts of importance ¹¹.

Administrative Officers	9
Clerical Employees	12
Foreign Service Officers	7
Finance Officers	5
Combines Investigation Officers	4
Civil Service Commission Officers	6
Statisticians	12
Economists	5
Translators	15
Departmental Solicitors	1
Other Employment	38
Out of Service	85
	<hr/>
Total	199
	<hr/> <hr/>

¹¹ K.C. Callard, The Career Basis of the Canadian Civil Service, Ottawa, August 16, 1949, page 8.

Lines of promotion lacked definition and the grade pyramids were shown to be different between departments and for offices performing the same functions in the same department. Similarly, a comparison of the salary structures of all departments indicated a tendency for departments with a large number of highly paid specialists to have a highly paid administrative staff and a greater proportion of senior clerks ¹².

In a thorough analysis of the pay attached to all classes in the Service, a wide diversity of opportunity for advancement was shown to exist between the initial salary an appointee could receive and the one he could expect on reaching the top of his career-group. The complete account has been reproduced in Appendix 3. The interesting statistical data presented proves the absence of planning for promotions in the classification structure; instead, the bargaining power of the various professional or technical groups is clearly reflected.

As we have seen previously, reclassification of positions, that is, their change from a lower paid class to a higher paid class became prevalent in the closing years of the war and the post-war period. This report was

¹² ibid., page 12.

especially critical of this method of advancement:

Establishments are not fixed and the Organization Branch is prepared to discuss them at any time. Hence in many jobs the chances of advancement by reclassification are better than by promotion. During 1948, the number of local reclassifications was 4,588 as compared with 1,901 promotions during the same period. Reclassification is the deadliest enemy of a career service. It provides a constant opportunity for the artful and unscrupulous to write up duties and to expand his possibilities irrespective of the best interest of the Service.

.....
Reclassification is bound to be haphazard. No system can evaluate duties and responsibilities so accurately as to fix all individual classifications beyond dispute. The present system of job analyses and evaluation as applied by investigators is far from adequate. The unscrupulous, with the cooperation of his superior, can usually succeed where his less aggressive colleagues fail and a determined senior official or deputy can achieve almost any result by this process. It penalizes the older more rigid departments and enables the employee in the others of expanding his responsibilities to achieve more rapid advancement ¹³.

Such criticism may appear rather strong and it is argued that the sudden demands on the existing machinery did not allow sufficient time to study and develop better methods. Still, these are the observations of an impartial researcher and are especially pertinent in drawing attention to the type of employee likely to have been favoured when reclassifications were frequent and based on individual and unrelated factors.

13 ibid., page 27.

In summary, prewar studies of the promotion plan did not bring forth any serious handicapping feature except for the infrequency of transfers between units and departments. Later reports, on the other hand, deplored the absence of a positive movement towards the development of promotion opportunities. The change from the passive policy of letting employees progress under the observance of a fair set of rules and the later attitude of seeking to direct and train the inevitable forward movement corresponds very closely to the economic and political conditions that have taken place during the last twenty-five years. These will now be briefly covered.

Relevant Economic and Political Factors

In reviewing the political and economic factors that have affected the Civil Service, no attempt will be made to distinguish between one type and the other. Instead, periods of expansion and reduction as shown in Table I below will be examined. Before doing so, it suffices to note here that only once has the party in power been changed in the past twenty-five years. Such a situation creates stability and ensures orderly advancement; it also tends to maintain the same people at the top, thus preventing employees with differing points of view from ever coming into positions of authority.

TABLE I.- Classified Summary Showing
 Numbers of Permanent and Temporary Employees
 in the Month of March for Each Year 1925 - 1949
 Together with Total Annual Expenditure on their Salaries

(Taken from the Dominion Bureau of Statistics Memorandum on
 Federal Civil Service Employment and Payrolls of 1949)

Years	Grand Total Permanent and Temporary Employees	Total Expenditure on Salaries and Wages of Permanent and Temporary Employees
1925	38,946	\$ 56,808,300
1926	39,154	56,733,320
1927	39,592	57,521,252
1928	41,243	61,974,986
1929	42,790	64,801,592
1930	44,175	67,178,198
1931	45,581	70,166,310
1932	44,008	69,453,043
1933	41,911	59,243,072
1934	40,469	57,463,618
1935	40,792	57,083,682
1936	41,132	61,045,048
1937	42,836	62,578,454
1938	44,143	66,880,328
1939	46,106	69,621,258
1940	49,739	73,198,895
1941	66,926	84,965,369
1942	83,781	108,424,845
1943	104,055	141,702,395
1944	112,658	167,971,996
1945	115,908	180,148,183
1946	120,557	190,828,046
1947	125,337	223,776,687
1948	118,370	226,789,694
1949	123,924	262,980,078

The years 1925 to 1931 were a period of expansion, staff increased by 6,535 and expenditures went up by \$3,358,010. An examination of Table II shows this increase to have been evenly distributed amongst departments. A major shift of personnel took place in the transfer of the responsibility for the work on the reestablishment of veterans of the First World War from what was the predecessor of the present department of Veterans' Affairs to what is now known as National Health and Welfare. The study and treatment of pensionable cases formed the major part of this work. 1934 marked the lowest total staff for the retrenchment taking place as a result of the depression and a change in government. Expenditures were to drop by close to \$380,000 the following year although there was an increase in staff. A scrutiny of departmental staff totals in 1934 shows decreased or static figures in comparison to 1931 for most departments. The Department of the Interior was rapidly waning; Unemployment Relief, later to become the Unemployment Insurance Commission (U.I.C.) had added only a small number of employees. The abolition of the Interior poses an interesting question concerning the effects on the advancement of their personnel, some of which was laid off for varying periods of time.

This, then is the period when no advancement was in sight for the average civil servant, and it will be seen

TABLE II.-- Monthly Averages of Number of Employees
in the Most Important Departments
for Years Marking Typical High and Low Points in Staff Totals

27

(Taken from the Dominion Bureau of Statistics Bulletins for the
Federal Civil Service for the Years concerned)

Department	1925	1931	1934	1944	1949
Agriculture	1,594	2,247	2,176	2,176	6,324
Auditor General	194	211	212	262	174
Civil Service Commission	147	176	124	591	543
External Affairs	103	155	159	435	1,165
Finance	486	447	1,513	12,440	6,799
Fisheries	--	382	310	364	744
House of Commons	483	599	542	487	471
Immigration and Colonization	889	883	647	See Mines and Resources	
Indian Affairs	865	1,074	1,020	"	"
Interior	2,052	2,037	969	"	"
Justice	656	897	1,225	1,421	1,786
Labour	103	143	116	2,637	611
U.I.C.	--	--	48	5,728	6,932
Marine	4,175	4,242	3,528	See Transport	
Mines and Resources	310	532	354	3,601	5,032
Munitions and Supply	--	--	--	4,027	--
National Defence	1,090	1,358	1,113	29,625	15,743
National Health and Welfare	318	2,848 ^a	2,266 ^a	4,998 ^a	2,420
National Revenue	3,957	5,153	4,209	4,160	5,777
Income Tax Division	1,057	1,156	1,151	5,125	11,566
Post Office	10,276	11,961	18,842	13,105	19,939
Public Printing and Stationery	685	721	601	824	805
Public Works	3,859	4,050	3,594	5,694	6,501
Reconstruction and Supply	--	--	--	--	390
Railways and Canals	1,295	1,441	998	See Transport	
Secretary of State	190	220	196	361	549
Senate	126	126	134	135	120
Trade and Commerce	968	1,870	1,882	2,657	3,438
Transport	--	--	--	6,833	8,509
Veterans Affairs	2,938 ^a	504	343	339	15,986 ^b

a Including Pensions

b Department of Veterans Affairs created in 1945, prior figures for Soldiers Settlement.

that it took two years after the beginning of hostilities for the staff totals to become markedly increased. Expenditures, however, had reached the seventy million dollars mark by 1940. Since expenditures seem to have taken on an accelerated pace over staff totals, it is reasonable to assume that the pent up conditions with regards to promotions, we know to have existed, were being remedied; normally, deserving cases should have been enjoying rapid promotions from 1938 on. From a strict mathematical point of view, the public service having more than tripled in size from 1925 to 1949, an employee serving in those years, should have gone up that much more quickly than if he had had to wait for normal casualties and retirements in an agency remaining static in size. This, of course, is an oversimplified view of the matter since growth was not equal throughout and recruitment from outside sources must be remembered as an important factor.

No analysis in greater detail of Table II which shows this unevenness need be made at this point. As the progress of the subjects chosen is examined in relation to the departments to which they belonged, further reference will be made to its contents.

In order that the totals in both of the above tables may not be misleading by the size of the numbers included,

TABLE III.-

Totals for Staff Employed at Headquarters
and at Other Points than Headquarters for all Departments and
Percentage of Each for Total Staff

(Taken from the Dominion Bureau of Statistics Memorandum on Federal Civil Service Employment and
Payrolls of 1949)

	1925		1931		1934		1944		1949	
	Total	% of Total	Total	% of Total	Total	% of Total	Total	% of Total	Total	% of Total
Headquarters	10,091	25.9	11,766	25.8	10,784	26.7	33,329	29.6	29,172	23.9
Other	28,855	74.1	33,815	74.2	29,685	73.3	79,329	70.4	94,752	76.1

Table III has been compiled. It shows a ratio of one employee at headquarters to four in the field to have existed rather consistently despite the fluctuations represented in the years chosen.

New appointments have a definite bearing on the opportunities for promotion of existing staff and the totals for male intake for the years 1925 to 1948 have been drawn up in Table IV. If we keep in mind the ratio established in the previous paragraph, we have some idea of the situation at headquarters. It is unfortunate that statistics are not available to show the level at which these appointments were made; it can be assumed, however, since women, who make up a large proportion of junior clerical employees, have not been included in our totals, that a large proportion of these were for senior administrative or professional positions. While the figures in this table are not sufficiently broken down to give support to the observations concerning the absence of opportunity for development for professional personnel contained in the Beatty Report¹⁴ and the similar criticism presented in the Gordon Report¹⁵, there is singular agreement

14 E.W. Beatty, op. cit., page 15.

15 W.L. Gordon, op. cit., page 19.

TABLE IV.- Number of Male Assignments to
Permanent and Temporary Positions

Year	Assignments
1925	4,124
1926	3,284
1927	4,093
1928	5,019
1929	5,844
1930	5,908
1931	4,776
1932	2,262
1933	1,537
1934	1,919
1935	2,376
1936	4,750
1937	6,571
1938	5,313
1939	7,102
1940	12,922
1941	16,630
1942	20,292
1943	19,418
1944	14,290
1945	6,998 ^a
1946	27,820
1947	13,666
1948	13,246

a A large number of female appointments occurred
in 1945.

that too many positions are filled from the outside. In the report on the career basis of the service quoted previously, the author came to the conclusion that the safeguard to promotions contained in the regulation whereby an open competition is held only if there is no suitable candidate for the position within the service, is not a real one. Only through provision for training can recruitment from the outside for the senior positions be curtailed ¹⁶.

Motivation and Morale

Until very recently, little attention was paid to morale other than as a result of unit surveys conducted for purposes of position classification. The results of such findings were never coordinated since this was a secondary objective. Some effort is now being made to evaluate this factor, but it is still too early to look for conclusive results.

Gathering together some of the indications of good morale, we can, of course, underline an absence of serious unrest in the ranks of civil servants in the past years. Employee associations have not adopted the aggressive

16 K.C. Callard, op. cit., page 17.

pattern found in industry; their strongest remarks have usually been described as serious representations. The associations with a large membership are found amongst employees with similar duties usually of a routine nature. Their strength would appear to come more from this rather than to spring from any real desire to protect themselves from low salaries or poor working conditions.

Where the dulling security of civil service employment has apparently satisfied many, it has led older men to a lessening in their efficiency; ratings in a representative group of departments brought to light a negative correlation between age and such factors as work proficiency, mental alertness, personal relations, dependability, and resourcefulness ¹⁷.

Modern writers in personnel psychology have found a decrease in alertness and response to environment where monotony prevails. The ordinary belief that the unskilled job is more likely to produce this condition has been investigated. The result would indicate a distinction between manual and non-manual jobs and a greater job satisfaction existing in the higher levels of each type¹⁸.

¹⁷ J.F. Dawe, Research Study No. 6 of the Civil Service Commission of Canada, Ottawa, page 20.

¹⁸ Edwin E. Ghiselli and Clarence E. Brown, Personnel and Industrial Psychology, New York, McGraw Hill, 1946, pages 419 and 438.

A change in the mental life of men performing routine clerical jobs at the age of 40 is therefore not surprising. Further studies may reveal a similar condition in the higher strata of the service because the tasks have also the character of an endless activity, each one's contribution being so relatively small.

In a table already quoted¹⁹, we referred to a group of clerks grade 4 chosen and admitted to the civil service with the intention of developing them into employees capable of filling senior positions. Despite such interesting prospects, 85 out of 199 are now out of service. The war has no doubt diverted some to other employment, yet had they found satisfaction in their period of civil service employment, they probably would have returned. It is an important number to have tried out such secure employment and to have left it as giving insufficient promise of a satisfying life's work.

The critics, as we have seen, have stressed various aspects of the same principle: a need to simplify the structures so as to allow planned movement. Despite the manifold development of the service and the efforts of a central agency, stagnant conditions of employment have remained a sore point. In view of the proven effects of

19 Loc. cit., page 21.

monotony, we should look for some results of this characteristic of the Service in the groups under study.

CHAPTER II

DESCRIPTION OF THE FIRST GROUP STUDIED

Writings and Opinions on Characteristics Required for Success

Having established the background of employment conditions in the Federal Civil Service over the past years, we can now turn to the limited writings on the characteristics possessed by successful individuals employed in clerical positions with the hope that there may be some clue to follow in our analysis of the group of clerks with which this section is concerned. Only four published sources of information close enough to our subject were found to warrant attention. Two of these established a relationship between intelligence and clerical jobs. They are the result of careful research and, although derived from a commercial setting, will be studied first. The two others refer to a civil service setting.

The remarkable aspect of the research projects carried out in a manufacturing firm and a life insurance company is that they were done independently and came to the same conclusions. Both faced the problem of determining a success criterion and used as a basis for comparison, the progress of individuals over a period of years in administrative work broadly defined to include all tasks

associated with office duties. Taking the first¹, we note that their scaling of employment was based on a job classification reduced to four levels for clerical and supervisory personnel; typing and stenographic classes also had four divisions. The test used was of the general ability type administered at the time of employment. The results showed clearly a very definite tendency for people with high scores to have been promoted to higher grade jobs.

In the other report², efficiency was determined from both a classification of jobs and a rating by supervisors. Their tables, establishing a criterion of success, showed seven divisions for male employees resulting from this complex arrangement; it also showed five divisions for female employees. The test was similar in type to the one mentioned previously and the conclusions were the same.

High test scores as a measure of potentiality for promotion is covered in a summarized fashion in a table derived from these studies in a later publication³.

1 Marion A. Bills, Intelligence and Clerical Jobs, in The Personnel Journal, Volume XII, No. 1, June 1933, pages 43-45.

2 Millicent Ponds, Intelligence and Clerical Jobs, in The Personnel Journal, Volume XII, No. 1, June 1933, pages 49-50.

3 Edwin E. Ghiselli and Clarence W. Brown, op. cit., page 210.

TABLE V.- Relation Between
Intelligence Test Scores of Clerical Workers
at the Time They Were Hired and
Job Level Achieved Some Time Later

Intelligence test score	Low job, per cent	Middle job, per cent	High job, per cent	Total per cent
180 and above	4	42	54	100
160 - 179	9	71	20	100
140 - 159	33	59	8	100
139 and below	87	13	0	100

It is apparent that the 300 clerical workers whose advancement is shown in this table tended to rise to better jobs when their score was high.

Apart from the general conclusion above, the method and care exercised in determining a success criterion are to be noted both as to the limited number of recognizable levels and the seven years, in one instance and the eight years in the other, allowed for maturation of data. Educational training was not considered to have materially influenced promotions.

The next report on the qualities required for promotions in the Civil Service is not based on systematic research, but on the observations, over a period of years, by an officer primarily interested in the training of United States Civil Servants ⁴. Such qualities were, in order of

⁴ Alfred M. Cooper, Supervision of Government Employees, New York, McGraw Hill, 1943, pages 8-10 and 98.

importance as presented: intelligence, integrity, forcefulness, judgment, fairness, loyalty, kindness, knowledge of work, and health.

The writer develops some of these points especially that relating to the need for a universal liking from superiors, equals, and subordinates. To become a Supervisor, almost a sine qua non is to be liked by the existing supervisors; ability to supervise is based on their judgment. The lack of knowledge of required leadership traits has often caused emphasis to be placed on seniority. Yet, if the individual has resisted authority, this factor can be completely nullified.

Success to this author is the achievement of a supervisory position. Skill in overseeing clerical operations can make a great difference in the speed of advancement. The importance of making a good showing on examinations is also underlined.

It is interesting to note here an odd point-of-view of an experienced administrator, who maintains that, in a general way, leadership is not to be identified with intellectual ability. This point will be developed further in discussing the second group ⁵.

⁵ Chester J. Barnard, The Nature of Leadership, in Human Factors in Management, editor Schnyler Dean Hoslett, Parkville, Missouri, Parkville College Press, 1946, page 26.

In discussing the selection of supervisors, another author⁶ gives his own set of qualities. These are mental ability, understanding of the organization, and skill in human relations. The latter supposes emotional stability to avoid unnecessary irritations of staff and technical knowledge to allow the development of proper training plans. Under the second trait,, a high degree of reading comprehension is explained as a requirement, because of the great amount of material concerning policies and regulations to be interpreted.

Although the last expert on this matter (now Chief, Administrative and Management Testing, United States Civil Service Commission), strongly states that we can select supervisors on the basis of known required traits, little is definitely known, as has been shown, other than the correlation of success with general ability of the type that gives a high score on so-called intelligence tests. It is probable, in the light of the effects of monotony, that too much of this quality might not be desirable; it could lead to problems with supervisors, a condition which an experienced observer seems to believe to be the greatest

6 Milton M. Mandell, The Selection of Executives and the Supervisory Staff, in Production Series No. 179, American Management Association, New York 18, 1948, pages 32-33.

stumbling-block to promotion. About the only indications that we can gain from the writings above is that average ability patterned into a respectful acceptance of authority and existing conditions is the best ingredient for success as a clerk. It is an obviously broad division into ability and stability. In the results of our analysis this breakdown will be followed with the addition of a third cluster of factors which might be termed extraneous and relating to the circumstances of employment over which the individual exercised little or no control. General notes and the determination of a success criterion will precede this analysis.

Original List and Salary Distribution of
Candidates Still Employed

The eligible list of Office Boys gazetted in 1925 contains 165 names. Remembering that offers of employment are by order of ranking and that the last candidate on the list was appointed and resigned, the figures in Table VI take on considerable meaning regarding the interest of the candidates who did remain. In percentages, 55% declined employment, 18% resigned or were dismissed, 4% were appointed in other classes or deceased. The 33% remaining must have had a definite interest in the job and must have proven of a calibre satisfactory to the departments to which they were assigned.

TABLE VI.- Eventual Disposition of Office Boys
Shown on Eligible Lists for the Year 1925 -
January, 1950

Never Appointed	91
Dismissed or Services Dispended With	11
Resigned or Retired	19
Appointed in Another Class	5
Deceased	2
Still in the Service	37
TOTAL	165

As we have seen, 37 of these applicants have had 25 years of service, starting at a salary of 420 dollars, with a class maximum of 600 dollars. The first question we might ask before attempting a detailed analysis is what can be accepted as a reasonable success criterion? Three approaches have been considered to see if an answer to this question could be provided. They are:

I n d i v i d u a l p e r f o r m a n c e. -- This heading calls to mind efficiency ratings and the matter of personality studies. Obviously, under the latter subdivision, we would have to have as a starting point what we are looking for, that is, a knowledge of the traits that go to make up success; as we have seen, there has been practically nothing

done in this field. A recent review of a sample of ratings has not provided reliable conclusions, even in this formalized method of judging efficiency ⁷. As success is deemed to be a relative condition involving occupational progress, occupational competence, occupational adjustment, and the attainment of a self-chosen goal, this would be the proper way to establish points of comparison ⁸. As has been shown, other rougher measures will have to be employed.

C o m p a r i s o n s w i t h G e n e r a l
S a l a r y I n c r e a s e s. -- The General Wage Increase Index, published by the Department of Labour for a similar period, is 108%. This index does not take into account the promotions gained by individuals; the results of nationwide salary surveys are simply compared. Using the same method of compilation by measuring the average salary of Civil Servants in 1925 and 1949, the increase would be 145%. The group under study, on the other hand, have achieved a 472% increase in salary. These figures are interesting, but of no value in establishing some criterion of the increase in salary a normally promoted civil servant could expect.

7 J.F. Dawe, op. cit., pages 19-20.

8 M.B. Stott, What is Occupational Success?, in Occupational Psychology, issue of April, 1950, Vol. XLIV, No. 2, pages 106-112.

As has been shown in previous tables, the composition of the service has suffered important changes. Even if the salary of the same individuals went to make up the totals for 1925 and for 1949, the proportion of lower-salaried positions has been increased and comparisons are meaningless.

I n t e r n a l s a l a r y c o m p a r i s o n s.--
Valid information can be derived from the salary distribution of the group as shown in Table VII.

To establish comparisons, six groups have been adopted. There are recognizable differences in such levels which are not necessarily represented by the salary differences between classes. The Clerk, Grade 4 group contains the largest number of subjects, while 17 were distributed above and 9 below. Actually, the average salary is located higher than the salary for Clerk, Grade 4 and establishes itself at 2831 dollars.

This distribution offers a wide scatter, if we remember that these people all came in under the same requirements and were subjected to very similar conditions. Correlations of this scale of achievement with data derived from files should give some measure of information.

Ability Factors

S c h o o l i n g. -- General mental ability tests were not the practice in 1925 and we cannot duplicate the

TABLE VII.- Present Distribution by
 Classification and Salary Levels of
 Office Boys Appointed from Eligible List
 for the Year 1925 -- January, 1950

Class	Salary	Numbers	Numbers by Salary Groups
Messenger	\$1500-1800	1)	
Packer & Helper	1620-1920	1)	
Clerk, Grade 2 (A & B)	1500-2040	2)	4
Clerk, Grade 3	2040-2280	5)	5
Clerk, Grade 4	2280-2580	11)	11
Dept'l Purchasing Agent, Gr. 1	2580-2880	1)	
Dept'l Accountant, Grade 1	2580-2880	2)	
Principal Clerk	2580-3060	5)	8
Dept'l Accountant, Grade 2	2880-3180	2)	
Supervising Clerk	3060-3360	2)	
Head Clerk	3060-3660	1)	
Treasury Officer, Gr. 4	3360-3780	3)	8
Administrative Officer, Grade 3	3600-4380	1)	1
TOTAL			37

work done through such means as described above. Instead, we must examine the schooling of our group to arrive at some appreciation of this factor. As shown in Appendix 2, the level of difficulty of the examinations for office boys was not very high and could be assimilated to a set of questions relating to the subjects taught in Grade VI of the primary school. In one instance, such low standards lead to inability on the part of the employee to achieve promotion without the privilege of specially set examinations. It is difficult to understand why the examinations were not made more difficult since schooling expected was beyond Grade VI training. In later years such examinations were stiffened to qualify for higher classes.

In making application, candidates had to submit sworn statements. Elementary school graduation was a minimum requirement and the age limit was sixteen to eighteen. We can infer that the great majority gave an exact answer to these two questions. There are two instances of underage, but this would tend to increase the ability of the group in terms of relationship between chronological age and level of schooling. In the province of Ontario, for the year 1929, fourteen years and one month was the average age for completion of grade VIII. Supposing no period of employment to have intervened, our group, to be of average mental ability, would have had to have a

minimum of two years in high school. In fact, 59% reached this point and more, while 16% who did not reach this grade, gave an account of some experience after leaving school and before joining the Service. Putting these two together, we can almost be certain of a normal school progress and, as a corollary, the required general ability for 75% of the group. The remainder, either do not account for the period of two years or completed school at a relatively advanced age.

A contingency coefficient was established between school leaving grades and salary groups, as will be seen in Table VIII. We find a positive relationship, with a low degree of significance. Of much more interest, however, is the fact that a comparison of the mean salary, 3216 dollars, of the nine subjects who took training subsequent to regular schooling and the mean salary, 2707 dollars, of those who did not, shows a difference of 500 dollars in favour of the first. Most of the studies were carried out in night schools and, without exception, courses undertaken were in commercial subjects. It would appear that a desire for betterment, as represented in post-graduate efforts, is a greater asset than actual formal schooling where advancement from grade to grade may be simply a matter of course. It would be a question of attitude rather than actual accomplishment.

TABLE VIII.- Contingency Coefficient
Between School-Leaving Grades and Salary Groups

SCHOOL GRADES	S A L A R Y G R O U P S						TOTALS
	1800	2040	2280	2880	3180	3780	
XII				1	2		3
XI			2	2	2	1	7
X	1	2	3	4	2		12
IX		2	3		1		6
VIII	1	1	2	1	1		6
Less than VIII	2		1				3
TOTALS	4	5	11	8	8	1	37

$$C = .65 \quad \chi^2 = 27 \quad n = 25 \quad P = .30$$

E x p e r i e n c e. -- As can be surmised, the working experience of the subjects is very limited. Most were errand boys or apprentices and in three instances experience was acquired between two periods of service. one of these comprised enlistment in the permanent R.C.A.F. As a matter of interest, all Clerks, Grade 3 had outside experience. The average salary of those with experience establishes itself at 2859 dollars and those without experience at 2807 dollars.

Seven joined the Military Services, four obtaining ranks: one as a Captain, two as Sergeant, and one as a Corporal. This latter experience was apparently to the disadvantage of the individuals as the average salary of those who did not join establishes itself at 2863 dollars and those with service at 2691 dollars. The differences found here are insufficient to warrant the formulation of conclusions.

E x a m i n a t i o n s. -- Returning to the observations made by Cooper ⁹, we find success in examinations important in gaining promotions. This hypothesis has been thought worth testing here. Adopting the salary groups we have seen and giving each a value of one to six, the competitions in which our subjects had been successful were weighted with these numbers and the totals correlated with the salary achieved. By adopting such a procedure, the coefficient expected should have been very high; it establishes itself only at .54 .

A word of explanation may be necessary. Successful candidates are placed on an eligible list, as we have indicated before, but may not necessarily be appointed, if vacancies do not arise. The inference from this low coefficient is that our subjects enjoyed a promotion as the

9 Loc. cit., page 38.

result of examination, only when the opening was marked for them; when they did succeed on other competitions, they were only ranked as eligible and not appointed. The value then of trying competitions would not be as evident as has been stated.

A further attempt to evaluate examinations as a method of gaining promotion was made in correlating salaries achieved with the total number of examinations tried, without regard to success or failure. A man's name appearing continuously on promotion competitions was thought likely, at some time or other, to attract attention. The average competitions tried was seventeen. The resulting coefficient was actually nil. By eliminating one of the subjects who entered fifty-four competitions, the coefficient only rose to .16. Incidentally, this particular individual who is now a Clerk, Grade 4, tried twenty-one examinations for this class and failed; in the end, he was reclassified to it. From such figures, persistence in trying examinations gives no serious advantage in promotion.

More encouraging, but also low is the relationship between the place of individuals on the original eligible list in relation to their own group and their rank now, on the basis of salary. This gives a rho (rank correlation) of .43 with a P.E. of .13 . The advantage in having been placed at the top of the list seems to have been negligible in the long run.

Stability Factors

S u p e r v i s o r y R e s p o n s i b i l i t i e s. --

A status of supervisor, as we have seen, requires a degree of ability to understand the organizational structure and directives, but it also supposes a large measure of skill in human relations. This skill rests much more on an evenness of temper and an understanding of people than on intellectual ability and the discussion of supervisory responsibilities has been placed under the heading of stability rather than ability.

As stated by Cooper ¹⁰, supervision generally accompanies promotion. In the examination of the duties of this group, thirteen were shown to be supervisors with an average salary of 3134 dollars. In this connection, even in the top brackets, only three subjects were doing work where the play of initiative could be allowed. The group is largely employed on routine duties referring to government accounting, filing, checking of supplies, or the application of well-defined regulations. They have not gone out to the field and have avoided challenging jobs. With the advent of war, their knowledge of civil service ways should have forced a larger number upwards to supervisory responsibilities. If

¹⁰ Loc. cit., page 38.

we remember that 75% of them possessed a sufficient degree of schooling and the ability required for a satisfactory performance at intermediate levels at least, this small number should hold some meaning.

It may be that where progress from one position to a higher one is slow and not as a result of expansion, steadiness is the desired quality and more highly rewarded than a show of initiative and resourcefulness; with booming conditions, individuals who have attuned themselves to the other tempo cannot make the change. The effects of monotony referred to previously thus find confirmation.

F r e q u e n c y o f T r a n s f e r s . --
Table IX shows a contingency coefficient of .67 between frequency of transfers and salaries achieved. This coefficient must be qualified by the probability that it has twenty chances out of a hundred of being haphazard.

From the table we note that only a small number have transferred while a large majority did not move more than once. We have here further evidence of the acceptance of a fairly narrow area of employment. In only two instances is there on file evidence of dissatisfaction, although the appeal procedure has been in effect for eleven years. In one of these, the individual accepted employment outside of the City and found himself deprived of a promotion he had

been led to expect. As indicated earlier, this absence of movement was fostered by the manner in which the Civil Service Act was administered.

TABLE IX.- Contingency Coefficient
Between Number of Transfers and Salary Groups

NO. OF TRANSFERS	S A L A R Y G R O U P S						TOTALS
	1800 2040	2040 2280	2280 2580	2880 3060	3180 3780	3780 4380	
5				1			1
4		1	1			1	3
3			1	1	2		4
2		1	1	3			5
1	2	1	4	3	2		12
none	2	1	4	3	2		12
TOTALS	4	5	11	8	8	1	37

$$C = .67 \quad \chi^2 = 30 \quad n = 25 \quad P = .20$$

H o m e E n v i r o n m e n t. -- There is a scarcity of information on the files under this heading. An attempt to evaluate its influence has been made nonetheless by looking at home conditions in four ways: home address and character references at time of appointment; present marital status; number of children.

Table X refers to home address at the time of appointment. The sections of the city and surrounding

districts adopted represent progressively better developed areas from such points of view as housing, school facilities, and playgrounds. Again, we are unable to establish a significant association.

TABLE X.- Home Address at Time of Appointment and Salary Achieved

SECTION OF THE AREA	S A L A R Y G R O U P S						TOTALS
	1080	2040	2280	2880	3180	3780	
Glebe							
New-Edinburgh	1	1	1		2	1	6
Ottawa East							
Sandy Hill		1	2	2			5
West End							
Westboro			1	2	2		5
Centre Town							
Rochester-ville	2	2	1	3	1		9
Hull							
Mechanicsville							
Lower Town	1	1	6	1	2		11
Flats							
Eastview							
Outlying Districts					1		1
TOTALS	4	5	11	8	8	1	37
$C = .58 \quad \chi^2 = 20 \quad n = 25 \quad P = .70$							

Character references, as shown on the application forms, have also been correlated with salaries, as shown

in Table XI. They were divided into six groups using as a criterion the influence of the individual as judged from his place in the community. Although we have a positive contingency coefficient, its significance is not high.

TABLE XI.- Contingency Coefficient
Between Types of Character References and Salary Groups

PROFESSIONS	S A L A R Y G R O U P S						TOTALS
	1080 2040	2040 2280	2280 2580	2880 3060	3180 3780	3780 4380	
Members of Parliament, Aldermen, etc.		3	2	2		2	9
Priests, Ministers, Rabbis	3	2	3	5	4		17
Professionals and Teachers	2		8	13	1	1	25
Tradesmen and Merchants	2	4	3	4	4		17
Civil Servants	2	2	9	4	2		19
Others		4	6	5	1		16
TOTALS	9	15	31	33	12	3	102
$C = .52 \quad x^2 = 38 \quad n = 25 \quad P = .05$							

Married employees were found to receive an average of 2984 dollars while single individuals, and there

were only six of them, have an average salary of 2240 dollars.

Finally, Table XII shows the number of children correlated with the salary received. The result is the same as for practically all other correlations attempted: there is a positive relationship, but the possibilities that it was derived from chance are very high.

TABLE XII.- Contingency Coefficient
Between Number of Children and Salary Groups

NUMBER OF CHILDREN	S A L A R Y G R O U P S						TOTALS
	1800 2040	2040 2280	2280 2580	2580 3060	3180 3780	3780 4380	
5		1	1		1		3
4		1	1	1			3
3	1		1		1		3
2		1	3	5	3		12
1		1	1	2	2	1	7
None	1		3				4
TOTALS	2	4	10	8	7	1	32
	$C = .62 \quad \chi^2 = 20 \quad n = 25 \quad P = .70$						

Administrative Factors

R e c l a s s i f i c a t i o n. -- Advancement by reclassification was prevalent in the latter part of the war and post-war period. It was suggested in some of the writings we reviewed that the more aggressive individuals were

favoured by this method of advancement. Table XIII establishes a contingency coefficient between salary levels and the number of reclassifications. The resulting coefficient is not conclusive, but we do find that thirty-two out of thirty-seven were either reclassified only once or not at all.

TABLE XIII.- Contingency Coefficient
Between Number of Reclassifications and Salaries Achieved

RECLAS- SIFICATIONS	S A L A R Y A C H I E V E D						TOTALS
	1800 2040	2040 2280	2280 2580	2880 3060	3180 3780	3780 4380	
4			1		1		2
3			1	2	3		6
2	1	1	2	1	1	1	7
1	3	3	4	3	2		15
0		1	3	2	1		7
TOTALS	4	5	11	8	8	1	37

$$C = .54 \quad \chi^2 = 15 \quad n = 20 \quad P = .80$$

Departments of Longest Employment. -- In Table XIV, the departments of longest employment have been arranged in descending order of the mean salaries achieved by individuals in them. At the top of the list are found three large departments which might point to the greater opportunities for clerks to be found in such agencies. Lower down, however, we come across Finance (Comptroller of the

Treasury) with five subjects and National Defence with six subjects below the average of the group which we remember to be 2831 dollars.

TABLE XIV.- Mean Salaries by
Departments of Longest Employment

DEPARTMENTS	NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES	MEAN SALARIES
Customs and Excise	2	3670
Civil Service Commission	2	3210
Public Works	5	3204
Post Office	4	3000
Fisheries	1	2880
Finance (proper)	1	2880
Labour	2	2820
Finance (Comptroller of the Treasury)	5	2760
Interior	3	2720
Transport	1	2580
National Defence	6	2520
Secretary of State	2	2430
Agriculture	1	2280
Health and Welfare	1	2040
External Affairs	1	1800

Referring back to Table II ¹¹, Customs and Excise, Public Works, and Post-Office have not been the Departments of greatest increase as contrasted, for instance, with Finance and National Defence; they were less affected by the turmoil of the war expansion and have experienced no far-reaching reorganization. Such facts and the small ratio of reclassifications would bear out previous conclusions that our subjects advanced more quickly where they found stable conditions of employment with well-determined promotion ladders.

Summary of Observations

From the previous analyses, there is an agreement between our findings and the attitudes of writers on the subject; clerks in a civil service gain advancement in a slow, deliberate manner. The conditions giving rise to an orderly rate of promotion are productive of monotony. Post-graduate studies, as we saw, gave a decided advantage to the individuals who undertook them and it is reasonable to assume that they resisted the effects of such conditions in this manner. They thus kept themselves prepared for the openings that came as a result of expansion.

¹¹ Loc. cit., page 27.

To go beyond the very limited observations we are able to make would require deeper probings into the personal makeup of each individual in our group or the application of the same techniques to a larger sample. The low coefficients might, in part, be attributed to the size of the sample.

Yet, our small numbers have given a consistent pattern. A larger group would simply establish further the mediocre quality noted so far. Possibly the scarcity of literature referring to characteristics required for success by career-clerks results from a tacit acceptance that there is hardly anything to write about in this sector of the working world.

It does not follow that this is so. Clerks collectively have been classified, charted, their jobs point-rated, their supposed dullness frequently ridiculed. Logical structures, in their wide stereotyping sweeps, have made the individual clerk anonymous and most things concerning him devoid of interesting characteristics. It is by going beyond the administrative setting and into his personality that real answers could be found. From the experience here this is the direction future studies should take.

CHAPTER III

DESCRIPTION OF THE SECOND GROUP STUDIED

Some Descriptions of Factors in Executive and Administrative Ability

Wrongly or rightly, popular opinion has placed a hazy line between what it considers a clerk and what is known as an executive in the United States and an administrator in England. Typically, in Canada, we use both words. Literature on the subject of successful behaviour in the multitude of functions covered by these deceptively simple words prefers to call the work of such men "leadership". There would lie the difference between the clerk and the administrator: the latter would be a leader and the former a follower. This popular antithesis is one to be guarded against and the clerk, instead of being a "follower", is thought to be "indifferent" to the challenge of leadership. This is a point brought out in the able review of the literature on this subject by Stogdill ¹. It is one which can help us understand why the greater amount of active research has taken place under this heading in the industrial and business world where

¹ R.M. Stogdill, Personal Factors Associated with Leadership, A Survey of the Literature, in Journal of Psychology, Vol. 25, 1948, page 66.

there is keen competition and proper manpower utilization is frequently the essence of survival; the indifferent is pragmatically insignificant. In the Civil Service, leadership is just as needed, but its attributes have not been scrutinized with as much vigour or system.

We should then categorize our sources of information into two types: that deriving from business and industry and the other from government or public administration. But, there is a third source to be found in studies of school and college populations. The review referred to above has included all three and its conclusions will be reported first. The others will be grouped under the titles of potential leadership ability when they deal with a pre-employment population, executive ability for commercial activities and senior administrative ability for government.

A G e n e r a l R e v i e w o f
L i t e r a t u r e.-- As the first part of a research project on factors in leadership, to last ten years, Stogdill reviewed 124 publications subsequent to 1938. He found the five methods most frequently in use in the identification of such factors to be: observation of leaders in group situations; choice of associates; nomination and selection by qualified observers; rating and

testing of persons occupying positions of leadership; analysis of biographical data. The first and last of these methods are most productive of useful information. The results were classified under a wide range of headings. There are listed below as significant, contradictory and non-significant results according to the summary of the reviewer.

Significant Results

Health	Industry
Appearance (social leadership)	Initiative
Fluency of speech	Responsibility
Intelligence	Self-confidence and conviction
Scholarship	Social Activity and mobility
Knowledge	Social skills
Judgment and decision	Popularity and prestige
Originality	Cooperativeness
Adaptability	

Contradictory Results

Introversion - Extroversion	Emotional control
Dominance	

Non-significant Results

Chronological age	Social insight
Height	Mood control
Weight	Social and economic status
Appearance (intellectual leadership)	

A single glance at the above list shows the fuzziness of the terminology being used concerning the basic nature of leadership qualities. The same note is to be found in other reports even when the situational limits of leadership, the other important determinant as opposed to

personality, have been reduced. Stogdill goes as far as to say that measurable traits in determining social interactions is a concept to be distrusted. His summary is quoted as it contains the best definition, so far, of leadership².

The findings suggest that leadership is not a matter of passive status, or of the mere possession of some combination of traits. It appears rather to be a working relationship among members of a group, in which the leader acquires status, through active participation and demonstration of his capacity for carrying cooperative tasks through to completion. Significant aspects of this capacity for organizing and expediting cooperative effort appear to be intelligence, alertness to the needs and motives of others, and insight into situations, further reinforced by such habits as responsibility, initiative, persistence, and self-confidence.

P o t e n t i a l L e a d e r s h i p A b i l -
i t y.-- Much attention has been devoted to leaders in school populations. Two investigations were found worthy of our attention because they were carried out with a view to identifying leadership potential in activities in which we are interested.

Ten scholarships were provided high school students to encourage the development of competent executives for the business world. The recipients were required to have

2 ibid., page 65.

that type of a career in view. The selection team³ began by building up a description of the requirements. Intelligence was listed as a primary component with five secondary and differentiating aspects: securing and evaluating information; planning; communicating ideas; making decisions; personal integrity; effective interpersonal contacts. Personal qualities required were very simply classified as physical traits and cultural accomplishments. The evidence of scholastic, health, and other records was rated and the final choice made by personal interview. Of particular interest to us is the evaluation of the method made by comparing the group with fellow-students, five years after graduation. In the final comments, intelligence was believed overweighted and no really valid criteria of leadership qualities was advanced. In accordance with the definition we have seen, the authors conclude that leadership is a social quality to be judged by effective social interaction.

Another study⁴ of 100 high school seniors was designed to measure their potential for leadership in

3 C.E. Manson and G.L. Freeman, A Technique for Evaluating Assembled Evidence of Potential Leadership Ability, in Educational and Psychological Measurement, Vol. 4, No. 1, issue of Spring 1944, pages 21-33.

4 Launor Carter and Mary Nixon, An Investigation of the Relationship between Four Criteria of Leadership Ability for Three Different Tasks, in Journal of Psychology Vol. 27, January, 1949, pages 245-261.

intellectual, clerical, and mechanical tasks. Observation of leadership performance in small groups, ratings by supervisory personnel, nominations of leaders by associates, and activity in clubs and other school groups were related to performance in specific tasks. In the discussion, it was noted that superlative success in a family of situations was not necessarily repeated in another. Noteworthy is the association in this respect of clerical and intellectual tasks and the absence of relationship to either categories in mechanical-assembly. We have here the germ of a very taunting question: the government service does not consider the clerk a leader and, since success in clerical and intellectual tasks requires a similar potential, where does the widening gap between the "indifferent" and the "leader" referred to, begin and what causes its inception? We hope to return to such questions in our conclusions.

E x e c u t i v e A b i l i t y.-- Chief among the students of the nature of leadership who have gone over their daily experience to discover its essential qualities is Chester Barnard ⁵. According to him a successful executive has vitality and endurance, is decisive,

⁵ Chester I. Barnard, The Nature of Leadership in Human Factors in Management, Parkville, Missouri, Park College Press, 1946, pages 23-26.

persuasive, has a sense of responsibility, and intellectual capacity. The order in which they are presented is from the most to the least important. It is further noted that intellectual eminence is apt to be confused with leadership, one of the mistakes resulting from insufficient emphasis being given to the character of the organization.

After twenty years of experience with top-management a group of psychological consultants⁶ believes first-class executives to be above all intellectually competent. They are also emotionally stable, skillful in human relations, possess insight into human behaviour and are able to organize and direct. Intellectual ability is common to both lists but placed at different poles.

In a book bearing the title of this section⁷, we have the following definition of an executive:

A well-rounded individual who does not deviate outstandingly from the average person of general intellectual superiority when measured by psychological tests; but who does deviate outstandingly by exceeding the averages shown by others on estimated qualities involving health, drive, judgment of fact, reaction to human qualities, and leadership.

6 Rohrer, Hibler, and Replogle, What it Takes to be a Good Executive, in Modern Industry, Vol. 16, No. 2, issue of August, 1948, pages 100-110.

7 Glen U. Cleeton and Charles W. Mason, Executive Ability, Its Discovery and Development, Yellow Springs, Ohio, the Antioch Press, 1946, pages 26 and 71-98.

The authors, it will be noted, make a difference between measurement by psychological tests and the estimation of qualities. Their subsequent discussions of executive qualities make no distinction between those derived from subjective opinions or objective measures. As a form of summary, they present the consensus of opinions on executive traits of fifty persons selected for their knowledge of the requirements of executive employment. These are: a desire for authority, resourcefulness, industry, diplomacy, constructive initiative, study, persistence, and the ability to handle men.

It is a moot question whether or not the authors should have mixed together in a confused synthesis opinions and controlled facts. In commenting a recent book on the assessment of men, Line has this to say ⁸:

Psychology is still seeking a truly virile way of handling the concept "personality" and reliance on the layman's opinion of attributes which contribute to success or failure may not be the productive starting point in psychological analysis.

It is not, of course, proposed to provide an answer, but we should know that efforts are being made to objectively measure estimated factors in the success or failure of

⁸ William Line, commenting on The Assessment of Men, by the OSS Assessment Staff, New York, Rinehart & Coy, 1948, pages XV-541, in The Canadian Journal of Psychology, Vol. 4, No. 2, issue of June, 1940, page 93.

executives. The Committee on Human Development at the University of Chicago using the Thematic Apperception Test on a group of 100 business and industrial executives have reported eleven traits possessed by the successful individuals and twelve traits particular to the unsuccessful ⁹:

Traits of the Successful

- Achievement desires
- Acceptance of authority
- Strong mobility drives
- Organizational ability
- Decisiveness
- Firmness of conviction
- Activity and aggression
- Fear of failure
- Realism
- Identification with superiors
- Impersonal with subordinates
- Emotionally independent of parents

Traits of the Unsuccessful

- Inability to grasp broad problems
- Failure to carry responsibilities
- Unconscious desire to be something else
- Overwhelming desire for promotion
- Inability to cooperate with associates
- Resistance to authority
- Arrogance with subordinates
- Prejudice
- Overemphasis on work
- Gravitation toward self-destruction
- Mental ailments

⁹ Burleigh B. Gardner, What Makes Successful and Unsuccessful Executives, in Public Management, Vol. XXXI, No. 2, issue of February, 1949, pages 34-39.

Commenting on the same research efforts, Henry¹⁰ gives a similar list which he prefaces with the following paragraph:

From the research it became clear that the successful business executives studied had many personality characteristics in common. (It was equally clear that an absence of these characteristics was coincident with "failure" within the organization). This personality constellation might be thought of as the minimal requirement for "success" within our present business system and as the psychodynamic motivation of persons in this occupation. Individual uniqueness in personality was clearly present, but despite those unique aspects, all executives had in common this personality pattern.

He describes the projective technique used, emphasizing its superiority over the specific-question type test. He admits that there are no quantitative studies to demonstrate its value.

Remembering the divided opinions of psychologists on the worth of the techniques employed above, we would have very little left were we to disregard the layman's opinion.

¹⁰ William E. Henry, Executive Personality and Job Success, in Personnel Series No. 120, New York, American Management Association, pages 3-12 and The Business Executive: The Psychodynamics of a Social Role, a reprint from The American Journal of Sociology, Vol. LIV, No. 4, issue of January, 1949, pages 286-291.

Close agreement with such opinions characterized a study¹¹ involving a two-day standard interview with American industrialists, 50 receiving an average of 80,000 dollars, 50 an average of 35,000 dollars, and 50 an average of 4,000 dollars. Qualities described are listed below in the order of importance attributed to them by the persons interviewed.

TABLE XV.- Qualities of Leadership on the Strength of Opinions Expressed by Industrial Leaders

Qualities by Order of Importance	Percentage Indicating Importance of Each Quality by Groups		
	\$80,000	\$35,000	\$4,000
Independent Thinking	72%	58%	46%
High Intellectual Ability	2/3 were in top 1/3 of finishing classes		
Desire to Improve Present Job	72%	62%	--
Urge to Plan	80%	--	62%
Capacity for Hard Work	75-80%	75-80%	--
Liking for Work	General Agreement		
Eagerness to Assume Responsibility	90%	60%	--
Ability to Handle People	General Agreement		

¹¹ Herbert Moore, What Makes Industrial Leaders Tick?, in Personnel Journal, Vol. 27, No. 8, issue of January, 1949, pages 302-303, quoting a study by Daniel Starch, How to Develop Your Executive Ability, New York, Harper Bros., 1943, 267 pages.

So far, we have been concerned with information broadly encompassing various fields, we should now narrow our attention to what has been said of government administrators.

S e n i o r A d m i n i s t r a t i v e
A b i l i t y.-- Reid ¹², speaking both as an employed executive in industry and an appointed government administrator, sums up the state of our knowledge relating to leadership, he says: "About the only thing we know for sure, as a starting point, is that executives begin life in the same general form as other people". Despite this facetious statement, the author believes that government officials know more than industrialists and business men about the nature of leadership. Our review would lead us to think otherwise and it would have been very enlightening to know whether the author was thinking of the unrecorded traditions transmitted from senior to junior administrator or serious, systematic research.

Hazarding what must necessarily be a guess, in the light of his opening statement, he believes the requirements of leadership can be grouped under the three headings

¹² Thomas R. Reid, How Do People Become Executives, in Personnel Administration, Vol. II, No. 5, issue of May, 1949, pages 23-25.

of judgment, drive, and vision. This grouping has at least the value of being simple.

In answering the question posed by the need for a valid criterion of success, Appleby¹³ also has a simple formula: an able administrator is worthy of the name when he has survived three different times in highly different situations. To have succeeded once or twice could mean that he simply adjusted to a good organization. This author favours the "generalist" capable of synthesis to a high degree.

Speaking also of problems of selection, Mandell is somewhat more specific¹⁴. He distinguishes between the people-minded and the stereotype-minded administrator. The first is interested in people, the second in regulations. A combination of both approaches is desirable with people-mindedness as the strongest tendency. We will remember that Starch¹⁵ found the ability to handle people the least important in his list.

13 Paul H. Appleby, Modern Trends in Public Administration, in Personnel Seminars, Staff Training Division, Civil Service Commission, Ottawa, May, 1949, pages 16-17.

14 Milton M. Mandell, The Selection of Executives and the Supervisory Staff, in Production Series No. 179, American Management Association, New York 18, pages 29-30.

15 Cf. page 72.

As we can see, what we know about the requirements for success in public administration is so general as to be almost meaningless in terms of practical application. To fill in and provide a body of knowledge sufficient to support the formulation, with some certainty, of the needed traits will require a number of studies equal to the number of areas of public administration which we should clearly differentiate. Illustrative of such studies is the one carried out with respect to classification officers and another dealing with managers and assistant-managers of a social security agency.

Using a rating scale devised for the purpose, Stonesifer¹⁶ established quantitatively the success of a group of officers engaged in the classification of positions in government departments in Washington. His results were discouragingly lacking in significance - as can be seen from the summary in Table XVI. For such low correlations, Stonesifer gave, as partial explanation, the subjective nature of his rating scale, the large number of different raters, the heterogeneous character of his group, and the rise in recruiting standards which tended to allow

¹⁶ Joseph N. Stonesifer, Evaluating Success in Terms of Background, in Personnel Administration, Vol. 3, No. 7, issue of March, 1941, page 13, and in personal correspondence of February 14, 1950.

TABLE XVI.- Correlations Between Background Items
and Success Ratings of Personnel Classification Investigators

BACKGROUND ITEMS	SUCCESS CRITERIA				BACKGROUND ITEMS
	Sum of Ratings	Personal Contacts	Production and Recommendations	Initiative	Months Age Classif.
Age	-.07	.20			
Grade	-.20				
No. of Dependents	-.22				.39
Marital Status (N:70)	.05				.35
No. of Col- lege Credit (N:32)					
Hours	-.23				
Years in Govt.	.15		.10	.11	.51
Years Outside the Govt.	.08		.16	.15	.25
Years Worked	.20		.20	.11	
Months in Personnel	-.05	-.21		-.05	
Months in Classification	-.04	.00	.00	-.07	.46
No. of Jobs	.17				.26

as much success to beginners as to the more experienced employees. The amount (not reported) of positive correlation between the courses taken beyond the undergraduate level and success, was high. Post-graduate work, it will be recalled, was the most significant factor in the success of members of our first group.

Stonesifer felt that his greatest contribution was from the standpoint of method and advocated limiting the types of occupations studied to include only those requiring a particular kind of experience.

The second study and the last one to be reviewed satisfied this requirement ¹⁷. It dealt with managers and assistant-managers of the field offices of the Social Security Board of the United States, engaged in the maintenance of individual records for insured employment, in the receipt of claims for benefits and in the explanation of the old-age insurance program. By tabulating the yearly efficiency ratings for three subsequent years (1938, 1939, 1940) and relating the results to such factors as age, education, previous experience, and source of recruitment, interesting trends were brought to light.

¹⁷ John J. Corson, A Case Study in the Selection of Administrative Personnel, in Public Personnel Review, issue of October, 1940, Vol. 1, No. 3, pages 36-42.

The techniques, based on ratings for five levels of efficiency, were termed limited by the author, but he still felt that the correlations offered helpful, if not conclusive, guides for the development of a future recruitment policy. He warned against transferring his tentative conclusions to other fields of employment.

The relationship of age to success showed a definite tendency for persons in the older age classes to be concentrated in the lower efficiency groups. This tendency was pronounced above age 54. The results were not meaningful with regards to education. Persons with and without college degrees were equally successful. Types of college degrees, major subjects and graduate work made no appreciable difference. Even "majors" in relevant fields gave no significant relationship. Previous experience was classified into broad categories: private business, insurance, federal government, education, and social service. Persons in educational work were more successful than those in the other categories. Employees drawn from private business, insurance, and social services were low in efficiency for the first years with some improvement in the last.

In commenting on the sources of recruitment, Corson¹⁸ distinguishes between individuals reinstated into

18 ibid., page 41.

the Civil Service or transferred from other departments, experts or attorneys, and the ones chosen from lists (called Administrative Officers' registers), made up following examinations for the positions in questions or young college-graduates with no work experience placed on special registers. The most successful employees were transferred from other departments or entered as "green" college graduates with some waning in efficiency in the third year. Reinstated employees and experts tended towards low efficiency. The comments on the effectiveness of examinations designed to pick able administrators are quoted because they are a good summary of the caution to be exercised in dealing with this subject:

The results of these studies, inconclusive as they are, pose some interesting questions as to the effectiveness of techniques designed to discover administrative competence. These results must of course be considered only in terms of the nature of the positions considered here, and the degree of competence required for these positions. They must be evaluated as well in the light of the methods by which they were derived. If there is any validity in an analysis based upon service ratings, even the most charitable interpretation of these results cannot credit the techniques associated with the Administrative Officers' register with any outstanding degree of success.

S u m m a r y.-- There is one persistent quality in all the material we have reviewed, it is the hedging of the conclusions whether they were reached by general

observation or by careful research. Turning back to the definition given by Stogdill ¹⁹, we can now understand the significance of the prefixing of the important sentences with the word "appear". In setting out on our analysis of this second group of administrative personnel, we should not hope to be a great deal more conclusive.

Senior Employees in Administrative Positions

No remarkably good pattern of study suggests itself from the literature reviewed. The one adopted is close to what was done in the previous chapter; the grouping is different in that factors over which the subject could exercise greatest control have been placed first, environment next, and administrative circumstances last.

As with the first group, our success criterion and the choice of our subject will be covered first.

C h o i c e o f S u b j e c t s.-- Top bracket government administrators can be appointed by the government or obtain their positions under civil service classification, although frequently without the same degree of open competition as for the intermediate and lower levels. Beginning with a complete list of employees from 10,000 dollars down to 6,000 dollars, we dropped the

19 Loc. cit., page 61.

the first category, but made no attempt to consider the method of entrance of the others. Subject who were identified by such professional titles as medical officer, for instance, were also stroked out. In the same way, employees supervising the practice of professional employment such as engineering, law, etc., were not included in the list unless they had exercised a well-defined administrative responsibility for at least ten years and had obtained a minimum of two promotions during the same period.

What remained has been tabulated on the following page. The period with which we are interested is from 1920 to 1929 where we have a total of 47 appointments. The eliminations of seven files was made from these because of the skimpiness of the material they contained or for other similarly practical reasons.

Table XVII is of interest, if we remember the insistence in the Gordon Report on the fact that many of the best paid positions are filled from the outside ²⁰. Over 1/3 of the employees in the 6000 dollar to 10,000 dollar brackets were appointed after 1940. This certainly represents an encouragement towards the improvement of our personnel methods and policies.

20 Loc. cit., page 17.

TABLE XVII.- Dates of Appointment
of Top-Salaried Administrative Personnel
in the Classified Canadian Civil Service
- January, 1950 -

DATE OF APPOINTMENT	S A L A R Y					TOTALS
	6000 7000	7000 8000	8000 9000	9000 10,000	10,000	
1940						
1950	54	20	11	2	2	89
1930						
1939	38	3	5	0	1	47
1920						
1929	35	4	5	1	2	47
1910						
1919	36	6	13	3	3	61
1910 and before	9	0	3	1	0	13
TOTALS	172	33	37	7	8	257

The Success Criterion.--

Salary is again our success criterion. This time, it is in comparison to the whole Civil Service. In going into each factor, the group as a whole will be considered as successful and their achievements examined before more detailed correlations are developed. Reference will be made wherever applicable to a recent U.S. selection of 400 senior administrators chosen for special remuneration. An analysis of this group is reproduced in Appendix 4.

Personal Factors

By the title of this section is meant qualities which are essentially those of the individuals. Age, health, education, examinations, and experience will be discussed.

A g e.-- The average age of our subjects is 51 years with a range from 42 to 65. The distribution by salary groups is shown in Table XVIII which has been added here as a matter of interest. It shows that $3/4$ of our sample are between the ages of 52 and 62 years, while an important number are not yet past 46. Given favorable circumstances, it is definitely possible to be successful long before retirement age.

TABLE XVIII.- Age Distribution by Salary Groups of
Forty Senior Administrators in the Canadian Civil Service
Appointed from 1920 to 1929 - January 1, 1950

AGE	S A L A R Y					TOTALS
	6000 6300	6600 6900	7200 7500	8000 8500 9000	10,000	
63 plus	1	1		1		3
57 - 62	6	2	3	2	1	14
52 - 56	4	3	3	3		13
47 - 51			2			2
42 - 46	5		1	1	1	8
TOTALS	16	6	9	7	2	40

H e a l t h.-- A chronic disease with frequent sick leave was mentioned in only one case.

E d u c a t i o n.-- The U.S. Civil Service Group of specially remunerated employees we referred to before (Appendix 4) was made up educationally as follows: 24% Ph.D., 33% law degree, 15% Master's degree, 25% bachelor's degree, and 3% were non-graduates. We find only 7.5% with a Ph.D., a figure which also includes an individual with two law degrees and a Ph.D. as well, 5% with a Master's degree, 52.5% with a bachelor's degree, and the remarkable figure of 35% as non-graduates. In all fairness, it must be added that, as explained, professionals as such were excluded. It still remains surprising to find 20% of a representative sample of top administrators to have reached this level with only an elementary education. While Corson²¹ spoke of college degrees, he found a similar lack of relationship between success and scholastic achievement and Stonesifer's²² correlation was negative. Stogdill's²³ list of significant results includes scholarship, but his definition refers only to intelligence; as we know, the latter can and does

21 Loc. cit., page 78

22 Loc. cit., page 75

23 Loc. cit., page 64

exist without the former.

The contingency coefficient arrived at within the group is meaningful enough, considering the importance generally given to higher education, despite a P. of .30 . We can, in other words, rightfully say that it is better to hold a degree, but it is not as rewarding as is popularly thought.

TABLE XIX.- Contingency Coefficient
Between Completed Levels of Educational Achievements
and Salary Groups

EDUCATIONAL LEVEL	S A L A R Y					TOTALS
	6000 6300	6600 6900	6200 7500	8000 8500 9000	10,000	
Doctorate		1	1		1	3
Master's Degree	1		1			2
Bachelor's Degree	9	1	5	5	1	21
High School Certificate	2	2		2		6
Elementary School	4	2	2			8
TOTALS	16	6	9	7	2	40
C = .54 $\chi^2 = 17$ n = 16 P = .30						

Before leaving this subject, two cases of a high and a low in pertinent educational training should be contrasted.

The first is exceptionally well qualified academically for the duties performed in the Department of External Affairs. At 32, his age of appointment, he held the degrees of B.A., M.A., LL.M., Ph.D., and LL.D. having attended the Universities of Laval, Montreal, McGill, Paris, and London. The doctorates were from the last two universities. The four theses prepared dealt with law, political science and economics. This employee is now at 7200 dollars and there is an inclination on the part of the authorities to make this rate his ceiling.

The second employee completed primary school and attended night classes to acquire a knowledge of shorthand and commercial subjects. There is no mention of further educational training. This man is now at the head of the personnel functions of one of the largest and most completely technical departments. He has had neither the benefit of a humanistic discipline nor a grounding in the technical knowledge of the junior or senior employees whose future he is called upon to influence daily. He now receives 6300 dollars and there are indications that he may still obtain more.

There may be a number of good reasons for this remarkable difference. Some can be guessed at from the files, others could be found. Whatever they are, that such a situation can exist is not an inducement to self-betterment.

E x p e r i e n c e.-- Of the sample, 65% were found to have had at least one year of full employment before entering the Civil Service. Industrialists and businessmen account for 52.5% of that total. Their average salary now is 6952 dollars. One individual came from a University faculty and receives 9000 dollars. The last 10% was drawn from municipal and provincial government, and from secretarial duties to a cabinet minister. The average salary is 6825 dollars.

We then have 35% with a full career in the government service; their average salary is 6578 dollars and consequently lower than their contemporaries with previous experience.

As the date of initial appointment was in the twenties, 65% had served in the war of 1914-18; none were in the last conflict. Of this, 40% were commissioned officers and an important number received military decorations. This time, those with military experience have a slight advantage; their average salary is 7675 dollars as compared to 7314 dollars for those without.

It could tentatively be said that military service, representing an intense participation in the activities of the community, leads to success if it takes place before one's career has begun to develop; when it constitutes a break, it has a retarding effect.

E x a m i n a t i o n s.-- Persistence was one of the qualities consistently mentioned by the authors. We believed its existence would be shown in the number of examinations for higher classes our subjects had attempted. The statistics were disappointing: the average number of examinations tried was 3.5; the correlation between the frequency of candidacy at examinations and salary levels is $-.04$. The probable error of this last figure does not permit us to say that it pays to keep away from examinations, but it certainly lets us come within nodding distance of that conclusion.

Unlike the subjects in the previous group, it is the exception here who has submitted his application for a position not easily within his grasp. The examination records are close parallels of subsequent promotions. The end result as far as the worth of examination for promotion in both groups is therefore the same, except that the senior employees have not accumulated the same list of failures having kept their applications to a minimum. It is understandable that they should know when to apply while the others do not.

Environmental Factors

This section deals with place of residence at time of appointment. and character references given on initial

application forms, as well as marital status and number of children.

P l a c e o f r e s i d e n c e.-- For the purpose of calculating a contingency coefficient, the five generally accepted divisions of the country were listed in the order in which educational opportunities are considered best in terms of Civil Service requirements. Preference went to Ontario: 62.5% came from this province. Judging by our figures, British Columbia has gained considerably in favour since the twenties.

With such a large proportion coming from one area, the contingency coefficient of Table XX is meaningless.

TABLE XX.- Place of Residence
at Time of Appointment and Salary Achieved

PLACE OF RESIDENCE	S A L A R Y G R O U P S					TOTALS
	6000 6300	6600 6900	7200 7500	8000 8500 9000	10,000	
Ontario	10	3	5	5	2	25
West Coast	2					2
Prairies	2	1	1	2		6
Quebec	1	1	2			4
Maritimes	1	1	1			3
TOTALS	16	6	9	7	2	40
$C = .42 \quad \chi^2 = 9 \quad n = 16 \quad P = .90$						

C h a r a c t e r R e f e r e n c e s.-- As was to be expected, the character references given revealed acquaintances in the higher strata of the Canadian population. University professors and officials were most frequently included since many in our sample came into the Service soon after graduation. There was, on the other hand, a tendency for those without graduation to give the names of local merchants, clerks, and tradesmen. None gave an elected representative; an indication of a better understanding of Civil Service ways; deputy-ministers were there, but not ministers. Many referred the Civil Service Commission to other Civil Servants, a fact explained by a predominance of Ontario and especially Ottawa residents.

Arbitrarily dividing such references into five categories on the strength of the influence they should have had on the career of our subjects, a contingency coefficient with their present salary came out as a low positive with a probability ratio much too high to be of significance. Table XXI shows the scatter the 100 character references found on the files covered.

M a r i t a l S t a t u s.-- With the exception of one subject now receiving 7200 dollars, all are married. Good economic possibilities and the need to be active in more ways than one are reflected in this quasi-total acceptance of married life.

TABLE XXI.- Contingency Coefficient
Between Types of Character References
and Salary Groups

	S A L A R Y G R O U P S					TOTALS	
	6000	6600	7200	8000 8500	9000		10,000
PROFESSIONS	6300	6900	7500	8000 8500	9000	10,000	TOTALS
Senior Government Officials and Army Officers	4	1	3				8
Priests, Ministers, and Professionals	7	2	5	5			19
University and Educational Officials and Professors	7	4	12	5	2		30
Owners, Managers of Firms	10	3	4	1	2		20
Civil Servants and Others	11	5	1	4	2		23
TOTALS	39	15	25	15	6		100
$C = .39 \quad \chi^2 = 20 \quad n = 16 \quad P = .20$							

As with the previous group, the number of children mentioned on income tax returns has been related to the present salary. For this sample of older men, such figures may not be as accurate as some of the children have passed the age allowed for exemptions. Granting this condition, the families could not have been very large. The contingency coefficient established is positive, but even without the above limitations would still not be significant.

TABLE XXII.-- Contingency Coefficient
Between Number of Children and Salary Groups

NUMBER OF CHILDREN	S A L A R Y G R O U P S					TOTALS
	6000	6600	7200	8000 8500	9000 10,000	
5				1		1
4	1	1		1		3
3			1	1		2
2	4	2	5	1	1	13
1	8	1	1	2	1	13
none	3	2	1	1		7
TOTALS	16	6	8	7	2	39
$C = .51 \quad \chi^2 = 14 \quad n = 20 \quad P = .80$						

Administrative Factors

Reclassification.-- The numbers of reclassifications enjoyed by the 39 subjects for whom this

information was available are high. Turning to Table XXIII, we note as many as eight changes in the remuneration of one position; reasonably enough the incumbent is now at 10,000 dollars. The contingency coefficient between the number of reclassifications and salary achieved is .72, significant at the .01 level. While this is of course not a sweeping discovery - reclassification is synonymous of advancement which normally brings more money - it does mean that this group went up the scale of promotion largely through a method judged haphazard and inadequate ²⁴.

It is not believed that these men can be tagged "artful and unscrupulous", but that they rose, where others did not, is a tribute to their ability to quickly grasp the implications of the system and keep their names before those who could push the starting button of the reclassification reaction.

We have seen that there is nothing spontaneous about the reclassification procedure, it has to be initiated.

L e v e l o f E n t r y.-- To establish comparisons under this heading, present pay levels have been preferred to those existing between 1920 and 1929. Changes in the salary relationships of classes have not been

24 Cf., page 23.

TABLE XXIII.- Contingency Coefficient
Between Number of Reclassifications
and Salaries Achieved

RECLAS- SIFICATIONS	SALARIES					TOTALS
	6000 6300	6600 6900	7200 7500	8000 8500 9000	10,000	
8					1	
6	2					2
5	1	1				2
4	4	1	3			8
3	3	1	2	2		8
2	2		3	4	1	10
1	4	2	1			7
none		1				1
TOTALS	16	6	9	6	2	39

$$C = .72 \quad \chi^2 = 42 \quad n = 24 \quad P = .01$$

numerous; the original salaries tend to complicate the comparisons.

Taking four levels of entry, we find 2.5% to have entered at a salary below 1000 dollars, 30% between 1000 and 2000 dollars, 52.5% between 2000 and 3000 dollars, 15% between 3000 and 4000 dollars.

Referring again to academic qualifications, the average appointee had a bachelor's degree when he entered the Service at a salary level corresponding to the classes between 2000 and 3000 dollars. Above that, the scale of qualifications runs from elementary school to a Ph.D.

In the American Selection (Appendix 4), engineers, businessmen, and accountants were appointed at high salaries. Ours were drawn from business or were considered qualified for foreign representation or in studies of economics and statistics.

F r e q u e n c y o f T r a n s f e r s.-- Only eleven of our forty subjects were ever transferred and six of these are in the lowest bracket, that is 6000 dollars and 6300 dollars.

The necessity to adapt to new conditions is an absolute requisite to broad experience, also termed an insight into situations. This is one of the qualities

included in Stogdill's definition ²⁵. Judging from the above figures, men who should have had the opportunity to develop their administrative ability under the stimulus of frequent transfers were not moved.

The temptation to underscore this deficiency by referring again to Table XVII has not been resisted. Out of 257 senior administrative officials, 89 were appointed between 1940 and 1950, a period of great challenge. Only four subjects in our group of forty were able to clearly identify themselves with the far-sweeping and imagination-taxing responsibilities of national government during those times.

D e p a r t m e n t s o f L o n g e s t
E m p l o y m e n t.-- The tabulation of the mean salaries by departments - Table XXIV - reveals very little in this instance because of the large number in Trade and Commerce, leaving too small a distribution in the others. This condition is explained by the time limits adopted in the selection of a sample. The Canadian expansion into foreign markets really began to gather momentum in the twenties and brought, as its consequence, the appointment of trade commissioners. In fact, thirteen of the employees in our sample belonging to Trades and Commerce were engaged in

25 Loc. cit., page 63.

such duties. This decreased the worth of our sample as the individuals in classes covering the duties of trade promotion tended to be dealt with as a group.

TABLE XXIV.- Mean Salaries
by Departments of Longest Employment

Departments	Number of Employees	Mean Salaries
Civil Service Commission	1	8000
Auditor-General	1	8000
Mines and Resources	3	7533
Insurance	3	7533
National Revenue	3	7333
External Affairs	2	7200
Agriculture	3	7066
Trade and Commerce	16	6984
Immigration and Citizenship	1	6900
Finance (proper)	1	6900
Transport	2	6900
Veterans Affairs	2	6750
Finance (Comptroller of the Treasury)	1	6300
Air Transport Board	1	6000

Summary of Observations

Our average administrator in the government service, who has about twenty-five years seniority is a married man

in his early fifties. He has a small family and enjoys good health. He lived in Ontario and graduated with a bachelor's degree working for one year before joining the Service; he was well-known to his professors. In 1914-18, he saw war as a commissioned officer, but kept out of the last one. Throughout his career, he has stayed quietly at his one appointed task and has put in applications on advertised examinations when he could read a description of himself in the poster, otherwise, his preference in advancement was for the reclassification of his position. Mostly in this manner, he has risen from a middle-of-the class 2500 dollars to an average 6891 dollars, an increase of 275%.

The Department of Trade and Commerce is most likely to have had the benefit of his services. Not because this particular department was unfavourable to his development, but due to the narrow strip that unfolded before him and soon became dully familiar, he was unable to acquire those qualities which writers so freely describe, that would have allowed him to ride the crest of wartime expansion. In this, he is not too different from his clerking fellow to whom we should now compare him.

CHAPTER IV

AN IMPORTANT COMPARISON BETWEEN THE TWO GROUPS

The question immediately posed by placing these two groups alongside one another is the problem envisaged by Moses¹ and quoted in the introduction: there is a distinct handicap for the person who starts low to reach high; none of the office boys attained the upper brackets, confirming his conclusions. We did find an important percentage above 6,000 dollars with a schooling and an early environment closely similar to theirs, which would agree with his belief that a few can pierce through the level that would normally be their ceiling. "The defects of heredity and early education", as stated by Moses, would explain the disadvantage under which the office boys were labouring. Not taking heredity too seriously, we should establish the difference in early education by reviewing some of the significant factors we have seen and then proceed to a study of the fourteen subjects who were able to overcome this handicap.

E n v i r o n m e n t.-- The wide circle of acquaintances of the second group is easily determined from the character references given. Merchants, tradesmen,

1 Loc. cit., page x.

and teachers appeared frequently with office boys, the others, quite understandably had friends in more influential quarters. Replies by their referees were frequently in the form of letters mentioning friendly relations with the family. Few were from persons other than influential members of their communities. We might also remember the large number who came from the admittedly richest province of Canada and contrast this with the majority of our office boys who gave addresses in the poorer sections of Ottawa.

E d u c a t i o n.-- As to formal education, the office boys did not exceed grade XII, while 65% of the other group were graduates. Some of the former took further training while one only of the latter seems to have enrolled in post-graduate courses after appointment. Despite this, the erstwhile office boys have not been able to compensate to the extent of hurdling the 6000 dollar mark.

What differences then exist between our subjects in the first group, where the highest paid receives 4380 dollars, and the others, above 6000 dollars, whose "early education" was very much alike.

Most noteworthy is a dissimilarity of age. Although their seniority in the Service is the same, eleven of the fourteen better paid subjects are 55 years of age or more;

the other three are 42, 43, and 44. How many of the subjects of the office boy group will be in the 6000-dollar category in another 10 to 15 years is, of course, impossible to predict.

Like our office boy appointees, six of the group of fourteen came from Ottawa. The remainder represented all other areas of the country except the Maritimes.

While the educational levels are the same, there is a tendency for the more successful individuals to have attended specialized business and technical schools or to have made a start in the apprenticeship of such professions as pharmacy or chartered accountancy. This is too small a difference to be significant.

The character references given represent, on the average, a letter type of acquaintances than the average of our lesser paid group; they are not as uniformly high in the social scale as those given by the university graduates. The fact of applying for civil service employment as a young man rather than as a boy can give the advantage gained here. All but two, had had outside business experience and established the personal contacts given as referees on their application files. Their early environment may not, therefore, necessarily have been better.

In two cases, there is clear evidence that friends in influential circles were either responsible for an

initial appointment at a high salary or for subsequent timely guidance after entrance in a relatively low position. Apart from this, there is no valid administrative explanation to provide a key to the success of the non-graduates. Their positions were reclassified more frequently as with their better trained fellows. Criticism of their rapid ascent was voiced by their associates or the Commission in a few instances. Outside of that we can gain no further insight into the problem, with one possible exception: the employee who is now 42 years and who joined the Service as an office boy after Grade VIII was repeatedly described as an intelligent and eager young man by senior officials of his department.

Such personal assessments are not frequently on file. Were it not so we would have been able to know better what traits the more successful non-graduates possessed. The paucity of information of this kind has been the principal drawback of our subject-matter. We hope to show how it could be overcome in the conclusions to follow.

CONCLUSIONS

Critical Review of Present Research

It will be remembered from our introduction that we were seeking the circumstances and personal characteristics contributing to success in an administrative career in the government service. In conclusion let us look at what we have covered in the writings of others, at our findings, and at the questions that have taken form as we proceeded. We may then see how well we have met our objective and indicate what should rightly follow this study.

Students of successful administration have unnecessarily divided themselves into two groups, according to the objectives they pursued.

The earlier category was system-minded. When Everett¹ expected all vacancies to be filled by promotion, he was undoubtedly logically right; we have seen the promotion plan to have been much less conspicuous where real advancement had taken place. Callard² was very critical of the reclassification procedure, yet it was the very thing that complemented the ordinary promotion methods to allow the Service to keep pace with the richer potential of the more

1 Loc. Cit., page 8.

2 Loc. Cit., page 27.

aggressive employees. The Gordon Report³ echoing earlier studies, thought the promotions too slow, forgetting that a faster tempo would be out of tune with the gradual and sometimes imperceptible development of the mass of civil servants; for the few bright subjects, as we have just seen, the criticism is not valid. Both of these studies were concerned with training and transfers. Had they backed their recommendations with the beneficial effects of such activities on the personality development of individuals subjected to the monotony of routine responsibilities, their recommendations might have had more force. The neglect to keep the employees on their toes by constant stimulation of their adaptive functions was perhaps our most significant finding.

In the same field, but in a huddle by themselves, have stood most of the writers who took stock of the purely personal values. With the exception of Barnard⁴ who stresses the absolute importance of the character of the organization, most of the others took this factor for granted. A whole gamut of traits has been elaborated and the positive value of "intelligence" to success has been established. Like pieces out of the blue sky of an ocean scene in a jig-saw puzzle, they seem removed and rather meaningless; they are

3 Loc. cit., page 17.

4 Chester I. Barnard, op. cit., page 23.

out of context.

Intellectual ability to one is first on the list of traits underlying success; for another, it comes last. Both are probably right depending upon the area of occurrence of such success. The tie-up being clearly drawn, we would know the value, for instance, of a general ability test in the selection and training of Moses' "few and far between". Stonesifer and especially Corson⁵ did not lose sight of the nature of the tasks in which their subjects were engaged, but their findings, like ours, did not reach to the heart of a number of questions we would like to have answered.

Early education held some meaning in the indifference to leadership of some; there was no explanation to the ascent of others. Where and when did the difference between the successful and the unsuccessful within the groups originate? Formal training has given an obvious answer, but not the full answer.

Throughout this study, what might be termed a holistic approach was the guide; it did not extend far enough to uncover the mainsprings of motivation which must, in the final analysis spell the differences. In other words, our technique fell short and we find the reasons for this to be:

5 Loc. cit., pages 75 and 77.

1. The range of administrative functions encompassed was so wide that there was a loss of homogeneity;
2. The samples were too small. In our attempt to reduce the variables of seniority, comparable early appointment, and final achievements, numbers were automatically reduced to statistically insignificant expression; it is not necessary to have 25 years of service to produce differences in achievement;
3. Objectivity was achieved at the expense of complete information. Official files contain valuable data, easily tagged as true or the result of preconceived notions, but there is not enough to fill in the complete picture. The subjective judgments of the individuals and their associates would have to be objectively appraised. Orthodox tests and such devices as the Thematic Apperception Test should be used.

Proposed Research

That we should continue to seek the critical requirements for success in government administration needs no proof; the trend of the times leaves no margin for trial and error methods. And, the selection and proper management of the juniors, by virtue of their numbers is as important as of the seniors. It is a matter of arbitrarily deciding which group should receive attention first. We have chosen to outline

a plan of research for the latter because the group that would lend itself to study has already been determined by past recruitment policy.

In the first chapter were listed 114 employees who entered the Service between 1937 and 1941 under a special recruitment policy to provide administrative assistants destined to higher posts⁶. The advantages of this group can be enumerated as follows:

1. They have enough Service to have placed themselves at different levels in the salary structure above the intermediate clerical level, their point of entrance;

2. The sample is large enough to be submitted to statistical analysis, but not so unwieldy as to rule out such procedures as the interview;

3. Age, level of formal training, economic factors, sex, similarity of examination on entrance constitute easily determined variables;

4. The purpose behind their appointment was simple, ensuring the required degree of homogeneity;

5. As this was an official program to recruit administrative talent, the authorities concerned could be easily interested to permit the cooperation and help necessary to the completion of this research.

6 Loc. cit., page 21.

The detailed program of such a study will not be given. On the strength of the experience here, the following suggestions, however, can be made.

Regardless of opinions expressed of the laymen's views of personality and adjustment, the bibliographic survey should not discount them. Literature commonly qualified as psychological should no doubt form the backbone of the review, but other writings, especially those by experienced administrators with a humanistic bent, should be included.

A rating schedule must be adopted ⁷. Its discipline is necessary to prevent any omissions. The headings could be:

Identifying Data

Sex	Ethnic origin
Age	Department
Religion	Classification
Language	

Early Life (period up to first full-time employment)

Home	Milieu
Education	

Current Family Life

Marital status	Repetition or otherwise of
Number of children	early family pattern
	Problems

⁷ Jeannette G. Friend and Ernest A. Haggard derived very valuable information by following this method in their study of vocational counselling. The plan suggested here is adapted from their publication Work Adjustment in Relation to Family Background, Applied Psychology Monograph No. 16, Stanford University Press, June, 1948, 150 pages.

Prior Experience

Frequency of jobs	Effects of economic conditions
Goal value	Reaction to previous employment

Personality Patterns

Relationship to early orientation	General ability
Interest in present employment	Physical health
Reaction to authority	Frequency of change
Acceptance of tradition	Delinquency
Aggressiveness	Outside activities
Emotional Stability	Military Service

Present Employment (major portion of work history)

Work capacities and aptitudes related to duties	Ethical acceptance of promotion patterns
Parallels among opportunities and goals	Present salary and percentage of increase

The number of subdivisions of the above would vary; the aim would be to obtain not only the characteristics applying to each individual, but also the degree of their presence. Rating items should be submitted to a trial run to discover ambiguities, duplications or omissions.

In treating the data thus acquired, the aim should be twofold:

1. Establish the critical factors in the success of the subjects chosen through the discovery of the presence of common patterns in the successful and unsuccessful;

2. From the validity of the items in the rating schedule devise a predictor of success under similar circumstances of

employment.

To arrive at the first objective a good method would be to list the variables which our observations have revealed most significant and those proposed by Stogdill in his definition⁸. These should be limited in number and could be:

Educational training	Social adjustment
Classification achievement	Organizational opportunities
General ability	

Distinct highs and lows should be segregated for each variable and a χ^2 for each item of the rating schedule calculated from this a priori selection. Significant items will thus appear in meaningful clusters. Further correlations can then be made between the items entering into the composition of the variables chosen.

Contrary to what was done in this research, salary achievement would not be the only criterion and we believe this to be more in conformity with a true evaluation of success; a widespread opinion in the government service wants success to be absolutely measured by remuneration, there is no certainty that it is so.

By the process indicated above, the items have become validated. Dropping those that do not reach a level of significance of .01, a rating scale could be devised, possibly

⁸ Loc. cit., page 64.

combined with a method of weighting, which could be applied to the selection of the contemporary crop of trainees in administration.

There is no doubt, in the light of the hazy state of our knowledge regarding the requisites of personality and circumstances bringing successful administration, that it would be a most welcome addition to the very rudimentary tools at the disposal of the authorities responsible for the selection, training, and management of our career civil servants.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

Appleby, Paul H., Modern Trends in Public Administration with Particular Reference to Personnel Administration, in Personnel Seminars, Staff Training Division, Civil Service Commission, Ottawa, May, 1949, pages 11-19.

Establishes in time the position of the Civil Service movement: "we have consolidated our positions and must strike out to other fields". Deals with security of tenure and studies the good administrator. Emphasizes the importance of synthesis.

Barnard, Chester I., The Nature of Leadership in Human Factors in Management, editor Schuyler Dean Hoslett, Parkville, Missouri, Park College Press, 1946, pages 13-38.

The writer, an experienced executive, speculates on the conditions of leadership in the broad sense. Lists five fundamental qualities in order of importance.

Beatty, E.W., Chairman, Report of the Royal Commission on Technical and Professional Services, Ottawa, 1930, 60 pages.

An analysis of the personnel practices of the Civil Service of Canada centering on the salary structure and promotion opportunities for technical and professional classes.

Callard, K.C., The Career Basis of the Canadian Civil Service, being A Report to the Civil Service Commission, Ottawa, August 16, 1949, 39-7 pages.

Deals frankly with the opportunities for advancement from an administrative point of view. Indicates briefly the encouragement to undesirable practices afforded by the present system and the personality traits which can lead to success without real ability.

Carter, Launor and Mary Nixon, An Investigation of the Relationship Between Four Criteria of Leadership Ability for Three Different Tasks, in Journal of Psychology, Vol. 27, January, 1949, pages 245-261.

Criteria used in assessing the leadership potentialities of 100 high school senior men for intellectual, clerical, and mechanical tasks.

Cleeton, Glen U. and Charles W. Mason, Executive Ability: Its Discovery and Development, Yellow Springs, Ohio, Antioch Press, 1946, 540 pages.

"The information presented on a broad range of topics deals with problems confronting those who are executives, those who aspire to be executives, those who must select and promote men, and those who are training men to assume directive responsibilities". A study by psychologists of the abilities, qualities, functions, traits, attitudes, and training of the successful executives.

Cooper, Alfred M., Supervision of Governmental Employees, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1943, VIII-202 pages.

Deals with the subject of supervision in the civil service using as a base the consensus of opinions of supervisors. Opening chapter on "Winning Promotion under Civil Service" is the summary of general observations and stresses elementary principles to achieve qualities of personal leadership.

Corson, John J., A Case Study in The Selection of Administrative Personnel, in Public Personnel Review, Vol. 1, No. 3, issue of October, 1940, pages 36-42.

An attempt to relate success of administrative personnel with age, education, previous occupation and sources of recruitment. Maturation of data based on efficiency ratings provides success criterion.

Dawe, J.F., Analysis of Efficiency Ratings of Clerks, Grade 3 and Stenographers, Grade 2 Employed in 11 Departments, being Research Study No. 6 of the Civil Service Commission of Canada, Ottawa, July, 1949, 25 pages.

Primarily a statistical study of efficiency ratings to determine whether existing practices are achieving the desired success. Findings were not generally conclusive except for a pronounced negative correlation of age of employees with factors and high scores on all factors and on total rating.

De Grazia, Human Relations in Public Administration, Public Administration Service, Chicago, Illinois, 1949, 53 pages.

An annotated bibliography from the fields of anthropology, industrial management, political science, psychology, public administration and sociology. Its aim is to span the gap between the scientist and the practitioner. 363 items have been listed.

Everett, Frank O., Promotion Principles and Practices, in Technical Bulletin No. 2 of the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada, Chicago,

1929, 20 pages.

Very good discussion of the basic requirements for the instalment of a promotion program and an enumeration of its main points.

Flanagan, John C., A New Approach to Evaluating Personnel, in Personnel, Vol. 26, No. 1, issue of July, 1949, pages 35-42.

Military experience has brought out the weakness of over-emphasizing tests of general intelligence as critical requirement for success. Describes the limited value of efficiency rating and suggests an ideal procedure for collecting situational facts towards the determination of valuable predictors.

Flanagan, John C., Personnel Psychology, in Current Trends in Psychology, Pittsburgh, University of Pittsburgh Press, 1947, pages 138-168.

A paper on the desirable orientation to be given to research for the next 20 years. Brief arbitrary criticism of some existing practices and an interesting division of the field of research in personnel psychology. The author speculates on the requirements of a successful program and the state of the application of psychology to the problems of personnel management. The ideas expressed are fundamental; this paper is to be carefully studied.

Friend, J.G. and E.A. Haggard, Work Adjustment in Relation to Family Background, Stanford University Press, Applied Psychology Monographs No. 16, 1948, 150 pages.

A report of an investigation into the characteristics of counselees who have adjusted well or failed to progress in their employment history. Apart from the importance of the findings, this report is remarkable for the effectiveness of the techniques for assembling and treating data in a field where validation is so difficult.

Gardner, Burleigh B., What Makes Successful and Unsuccessful Executives, in Public Management, Vol. XXXI, No. 2, issue of February, 1949, pages 34-39.

Lists the traits of successful and unsuccessful business executives from the results of the administration of the Thematic Apperception Test.

Ghiselli, Edwin E. and Clarence W. Brown, Personnel and Industrial Psychology, New York, McGraw-Hill, 1948, IX-475 pages.

This book treats primarily of the basic principles, techniques, and findings in the field suggested by its title. It holds special interest in the analysis of tests as means of studying worker characteristics, the effects of monotony on mental activity and the methods of preventing this condition, the motivating factors in a work - situation, the influence of promotion on job - satisfaction and the relationship of intelligence test results with success in clerical occupations.

Gordon, W.L., Report on the Royal Commission on Administrative Classifications in the Public Service, Ottawa, King's Printer, 1946, 37 pages.

Provides an appreciation of the general efficiency of personnel administration in the government service, emphasizing a number of weaknesses and providing radical recommendations for their correction. Refers specifically to the problem of promotions and transfers.

Henry, William E., Executive Personality and Job Success, in American Management Association, Personnel Series No. 120.

Analysis of personality characteristics as related to success and means of testing personality with special reference to the Thematic Apperception Test.

Hoslett, Schuyler Dean, Human Factors in Management, Parkville, Missouri, Park College Press, 1946, pages VI-322.

The editor has brought together the writings of foremost individuals to show the importance to successful management of keeping the personality of the employees as a prime factor in the determination of organizational policy.

Lawson, J. Earl, Chairman, Select Special Committee on Civil Service and Civil Service Act, Minutes of Proceedings, No. 27, Ottawa, 1932, pages IV-927-931.

This committee was the first to consider the results of the operations of the Civil Service Act. Its recommendations were specific and included the retirement of three commissioners then in office. They urged simplification of the promotion routines.

Line, William, commenting on The Assessment of Men, by the OSS Assessment Staff, New York, Rinehart & Coy, 1948, pages XV-541, in The Canadian Journal of Psychology, Vol. 4, No. 2, issue of June, 1940, page 93.

The reviewer is not overly impressed by the conclusions coming out of the voluminous material that has been brought together as a result of this war experience. He feels a definite weakness is evident in psychology where personality is concerned.

Mandell, Milton M., The Selection of Executives and the Supervisory Staff, American Management Association, Production Series No. 179, pages 26-35.

Personality and mental traits essential to success in supervisory and administrative positions, and instruments used in measuring these traits. Describes formal program for selection of five levels of supervisors in field installations of the navy department, administered by the U.S. Civil Service Commission.

Manson, C.E. and G.L. Freeman, A Technique for Evaluating Assembled Evidence of Potential Leadership Ability, in Educational and Psychological Measurement, Vol. 4, No. 1, Spring, 1944, pages 21-33.

Report of method used to select the Austin Scholars, students at Northwestern university subsidized in a special training course, for "executive work in the field of business". Job analysis of executive positions and estimating scale of personal characteristics.

Moore, Herbert, What Makes Industrial Leaders Tick?, in Personnel Journal, Vol. 28, No. 8, issue of January, 1949, pages 302-303.

Gives a summarized account of the study of the career of 150 successful executives. Lists 8 characteristics in order of importance; results correspond to qualities found by general observation.

Moses, Robert, The Civil Service of Great Britain, New York, Longman's Green and Co., 1914, 324 pages.

This is a well documented and interesting history of the British Civil Service. It explains the roots of many civil service problems and is especially enlightening in its treatment of the problems of recruitment at two levels and the problem of classical versus practical training. While not a recent book, the conclusions are just as actual today.

Pond, Millicent and Marion A. Bills, Intelligence and Clerical Jobs, in Personnel Journal, Vol. XII, No. II, issue of June, 1933, pages 41-56.

Two independent researches published together to show similarities in findings. Both point to the validity of test scores in the prediction of success in clerical work and the comparatively negligible value of educational training as a predictor. As a basis of comparison, classification is used in one and a combination with a success criterion following from efficiency rating is used in the other to show established promotion. A period of 6 years plus 2 years for maturation of data is allowed. Clerical work given broad interpretation in both instances and includes administrative duties beyond routine tasks.

Pouliot, J.F., Chairman, Special Committee on the Operation of the Civil Service Act, Minutes of Proceedings, No. 39, Ottawa, 1938, pages VI-1551-1555.

Some of the undesirable practices that had grown up in the application of the Civil Service Act were brought glaringly forth. Greater objectivity in making promotions and some opportunity for airing grievances were among the main recommendations.

Reid, Thomas R., How Do People Become Executives, in Personnel Administration, Vol. 11, No. 5, issue of May, 1949, pages 23-25. As reviewed by Kathryn Humm in Public Personnel Review, Vol. 10, No. 4, issue of October, 1949, pages 233-234.

Establishes a contrast between scientific study of middle and top executives and that already done for labour, job and office supervision. Presents generalities on requirements of an executive summarized as judgment, drive, and vision.

Rohrer, Hibler, and Replogle, What it Takes to be a Good Executive, in Modern Industry, Vol. 16, No. 2, issue of August 15, 1948, pages 100-110.

Results of twenty years of research by Rohrer, Hibler, and Replogle, psychological consultants to top management. Qualities of the successful executive, and some of the pitfalls resulting from administrative weakness. Includes a self-quiz entitled: "How good is your management team?".

Stogdill, R.M., Personal Factors Associated with Leadership, A Survey of the Literature, Journal of Psychology, Vol. 25, 1948, pages 35-71.

This is the study of 124 items published subsequently to 1938 and relating to leadership. It deals with the methods of identifying the various traits and sums up the results into positive evidence of certain characteristics and contradictory and meaningless conclusions.

Stonesifer, Joseph W., Evaluating Success in Terms of Background, in Personnel Administration, Vol. 3, No. 7, issue of March, 1941, pages 10-15.

An attempt to study factors of success for classification personnel in the U.S. Government Service. Meagre results are attributed to methods of rating and heterogeneity of group covered. Illustrates pitfalls to be avoided.

Stott, M.B., What is Occupational Success?, in Occupational Psychology, issue of April, 1950, Vol. XXIV, No. 2, pages 106-112.

Divides the question into occupational progress, occupational competence, occupational fitness, occupational adjustment. Success should not be a word used in psychology unless it means the attainment of a self-chosen goal.

Young, Arthur and Company, Report of Transmission to Accompany the Classification of the Civil Service of Canada, written by E.O. Griffenagen, Ottawa, King's Printer, 1919, 82 pages.

Provides the principles underlying the structure of the present Canadian Civil Service and an explanation for its particular development up to the latter part of the recent war.

APPENDIX 1

OFFICE BOY

Derinition of Class

To perform, under supervision, the simplest kinds of office work as assigned.

Examples - Receiving, sorting, postig, and delivering mail; carrying messages; doing simple filing; addressing envelopes; sharpening pencils; filling ink wells, distriouting stationery and keeping desks in order; filling requisitions for stationery and other supplies; looking up easily obtained information.

Qualifications

Primary school education; alertness.

Lines of Promotion

Promotions may be made according to law from such other classes with lower maximum salaries, and to such other classes with higher maximum salaries, in the same or related services, as may be specified by the Civil Service Commission.

Examples - Doorkeeper, Junior Audit Clerk, Junior Clerk, Junior Clerk-Bookkeeper, Junior Clerk-Stenographer, Junior Clerk-Typist, Junior File Clerk, Junior Statistical Clerk, Junior

Stenographer-Bookkeeper, Messenger-Clerk,
Office Appliance Operator.

Compensation

Salary increases shall be made semi-annually for
efficient services instead of annually the first two years.

APPENDIX 2

SAMPLE EXAMINATION PAPERS¹

Office Boys

Time: 20 minutes

1. The following is a test of accuracy. Mark thus (x) any error you find.

48 + 16 :	54	54 x 12 :	638	84 x 9 :	756
76 - 28 :	48	86 + 37 :	113	86 + 79 :	165
35 x 9 :	315	93 - 18 :	75	97 - 88 :	19
63 + 28 :	81	69 x 8 :	552	85 x 12 :	1020
42 - 17 :	25	29 + 36 :	65	56 + 79 :	145
16 x 11 :	166	74 x 11 :	824	61 - 17 :	44
39 + 14 :	53	49 + 36 :	75	47 x 8 :	376
71 - 36 :	45	91 - 38 :	63	63 + 59 :	102

2. Put a mark thus (x) after each word in the following list that is spelled correctly, and mark thus (-) after each misspelled word.

individual	suitable	obliged
preparation	receiving	committee
dilagent	immediately	reference
aditional	opportunety	punctual
convenient	success	courteous
particular	encrease	noticeable
allowance	address	comunication
telaphone	ammount	separate

3. Find the cost of the following supplies, doing any necessary figuring mentally.

- 5 boxes pens (6 in a box) at 75 cents per dozen pens.
- 6 boxes pencils (12 in a box) at 80 cents per dozen pencils.
- 80 sheets 2-cent stamps, 50 in a sheet.
- 12 bottles ink at 15 cents per bottle

¹ Issued by the Civil Service Commission, King's Printer, 1926.

40 boxes 1-cent post cards (50 in a box).
 350 sheets paper at 40 cents per 100 sheets.

4. Below is a list of names of men followed by the cities in which they live. Write in alphabetical order, in the space under the names of the cities, the names of the men residing there.

Name	City	(Write names here)	
		Toronto	Halifax
King	Toronto		
Douglas	Halifax		
Henderson	Edmonton		
Hill	Winnipeg		
Morrison	Edmonton		
Bruce	Halifax		
James	Toronto		
Davis	Halifax		
Cameron	Winnipeg	Edmonton	Winnipeg
Hughes	Toronto		
Fraser	Edmonton		
Baxter	Halifax		
Jackson	Toronto		
Hamilton	Winnipeg		
Hendrie	Edmonton		
Clarke	Winnipeg		

In addition to the above written examination, candidates are given an oral examination covering personal qualifications such as physical fitness, alertness, willingness, good address, etc., and are required, before their appointment, to furnish satisfactory evidence as to their health, character and habits.

APPENDIX 3

PAY ADVANCEMENT¹

Most employees, especially in the lower grades, are eligible for a given number of annual increments. Appendix D shows that there is no uniformity in the amount and the number of increments for each class. Thus Agricultural Scientists, Grade 1 has two increments, one of \$120, one of \$180; Airport Manager, Grade 1, commencing at the same salary has 5 increments of \$150. If promotion is assumed through a career group, the number of increments that a professional or administrative employee can expect varies from 3 to 29. There are 36 such groups with less than 15 increments as against 42 groups with 15 or over. In other words, for many employees, unless they achieve promotion to an individual position, they will have reached the maximum salary after 15 years or less, so that if a man joined the Service at 22 or 23, he finds himself at the top of his professional career at 37. For the technical career groups, 12 have less than 15 increments, 10 have more, but none has more than 20 increments. It is difficult to assert that even the majority of these career groups offers adequate prospect of advancement on the ground of annual increments of salary. Perhaps of greater importance than the number of increments is the level of final salary. The range of maximum salaries for professional and scientific groups, \$2080 to \$7800 has already been mentioned, but it is interesting to see the degree of increase between initial and final salaries: 214% increase on starting salary for Administrative Officers, 200% for Medical Officers and Finance Officers, 188% for Foreign Service Officers, 150% for Economists, 125% for Chemists, Departmental Accountants, 100% for Minearologists, Forest Engineers, 75% for Astronomists, Biologists, 50% Health Specialists, 37% Nutritionists.

¹ K.C. Callard, The Career Basis of the Canadian Civil Service, Ottawa, August 16, 1949, page 8.

APPENDIX 4

CONTEMPORARY TOPICS¹

Executive Personnel

At the time when the President was initiating this search for outside talent, the executive branch was in the throes of selecting its most important civil service positions for special pay and recognition.

A week later the list of the four hundred positions for the new top salary grades (GS 16, 17, and 18) was announced. The President, who chose the top twenty-five, and the Civil Service Commission, which chose the remainder, selected the four hundred from a total of more than one thousand recommended by the departments and agencies.

As a result of one of the 1949 reorganization plans, the selection of these positions by the Civil Service Commission was the responsibility of its chairman alone. On the other hand, any appeals against the selections are considered by the Commission as a whole. Since the commission cannot increase the total number of positions in the new top grades, appeals are certain to be fruitless, except in the case of recommendations by a department that some of its positions be lowered in exchange for raising others. The Department of the Interior, for example, recommended that four of its positions be changed from GS 16 to 17, and vice versa, and the commission approved the proposal.

The Civil Service Commission has made an analysis of the background of the four hundred. As to education, 24 per cent have Ph.D. degrees, 33 per cent law degrees, 15 per cent master's degrees, 25 per cent bachelor's degree, and 3 per cent are not college graduates.

Contemporary Topics, compiled by Public Administration Clearing House, in Public Administration Review, Volume X, #3, Summer 1950, page 215.

The ages at which they entered the federal service are distributed as follows: 25 per cent at ages 30-34; 24 per cent at ages 25-29; and 24 per cent at age 24 or under.

More than half of the Four Hundred have each worked in only one agency of the federal government.

As for previous experience, about 35 per cent came to the Federal government from private professional or business careers, 28 per cent from college or university faculties, and 12 per cent from state or local governments; 25 per cent began their careers in the federal civil service.

About 40 per cent entered the federal service in grades corresponding to GS5-GS9 (present pay levels: \$3,100-\$4,600). The 35 per cent of the group who entered in GS11-GS13 grades includes 48 per cent of those now in the social science field and 44 per cent of the attorneys. Of those who came into the government in grades GS14 and GS15, engineers, accountants, and businessmen are predominant.

APPENDIX 5

AN ABSTRACT OF

Success in Administrative Employment in The Government Service

Success in the Government Service was studied by reviewing the administrative system for personnel management, including the criticisms that have been made of it, and following from file data the careers of a group of juniors entering at the lowest levels, as well as retracing the careers of senior civil servants now in the upper pay brackets. All subjects chosen have an average of 25 years of service.

It has a twofold aim:

1. Gathering information on traits leading to success;
2. Testing the technique described above.

The literature referring to clerical and administrative or executive success is reviewed and found inconclusive.

In the first group analyzed, the clerks who have made an effort to improve their skills have been more successful, apparently more because they made an effort to keep on their toes than for the inherent value of skills acquired. The war expansion has not favoured the

Success in Administrative Employment
in The Government Service

advancement of the group generally.

A large percentage of the senior administrators were not university graduates and surprisingly enough, 20% had only primary school training.

In comparing the non-graduates of the second group with those of the first sample, it was impossible to say why the former had been more successful, except for the fact that they had started in the Service later in life and at a slightly higher level.

The conclusions showed the present system to be in tune with dynamic human development, although to do this it does not follow the original objectives. Position classification has become a method of promotion more than a technique of organization as it was originally intended to be. The research has strengthened the postulate that criteria of success cannot be found by looking only at the administrative setting or at personal characteristics; both must be given equal attention in any research on this subject. The technique has proven productive of information with reservations concerning the need to narrow it down to a particular area of administrative employment.

Success in Administrative Employment
in The Government Service

A research project is outlined, avoiding the errors of this one and using as subject matter personnel selected between the years 1937-1941 as clerks, grade 4 for training as administrative assistants

Appendices contain a sample class description and examination papers, a statement of the salary opportunities in various classes of employment, and an analysis of a U.S. selection of successful administrators.

INDEX

A

Age, 33, 77, 78, 83, 100
Appeals, 10, 16, 52
Appleby, 74
Arthur Young & Company, 1,
2, 6
Assignment Branch, 3
Associations, 32

B

Barnard, 39, 66, 104
Beatty Report, 15, 19, 30
Bills, 37
British Civil Service, 15
British Columbia, 89
Brown, 33, 37

C

Callard, 21, 32, 103
Carter, 65
Civil Service Act, 1, 2,
12, 20, 53
Civil Service Commission,
3, 4, 7, 9, 13, 15,
16, 19, 20, 90
Class, 2
Classification plan, 2, 3,
4, 22, 37, 75
Cooper, 38, 49, 51
Corson, 77, 78, 84, 105

D

Dawe, 33, 43
De Grazia, ix

E

Education, 38, 44, 46, 47,
52, 59, 77, 78, 84, 85,
100, 105

E

Efficiency Records, xi, 8,
12, 16, 33, 37, 42, 77
Environment, 46, 53, 80,
88, 99
Establishments, 23
Everett, 8, 103
Examinations, 39, 49, 50,
79, 83, 88
Examination Branch, 3, 6
Experience, 48, 77, 83, 87

F

Females, xii
Flanagan, vii, xi
Freeman, 65
Friend, 108

G

Gardner, 70
Ghiselli, 33, 37
Gordon Report, 17, 21, 30,
81, 104

H

Haggard, 108
Henry, 71

I

Inside Service, 12
Intelligence, 36, 38, 39,
40, 51, 63, 64, 65, 68,
84, 104

L

Lawson Report, 16
Line, 69
Lines of promotion, 11, 22

- M
- Mandell, 40, 74
 Manson, 65
 Maritimes, 89, 101
 Merit principle, 6
 Military Service, 49
 Monotony, 33, 52, 59, 104
 Moore, 72
 Morale, 32
 Moses, x, 99, 105
 Motivation, 32, 105
- N
- National Joint Council, 8
 Nixon, 65
- O
- Ontario, 89, 90, 98
 Organization Branch, 3,
 13, 23
 OSS, 69
 Ottawa, 90, 100, 101
 Outside Service, 12
- P
- Patronage, viii
 Pond, 37
 Pouliot Committee, 16
 Prairies, 89
 Pyramidal organization, 22
- Q
- Quebec, 89
- R
- Reclassification, 10, 13,
 22, 23, 50, 56, 92,
 93, 102, 103
 Recruitment
 Generally, 18, 107
 French Speaking, 18
 Source, 77, 78
- R
- References, 54
 Reid, 73
 Retirement, 14, 20
- S
- Schuyler, ix
 Selection, 6, 15, 65, 74,
 82, 14
 Seniority, 10, 39
 Starch, 72
 Stogdill, 61, 62, 64, 80,
 96, 110
 Stonesifer, 75, 84, 105
 Stott, 43
- T
- Thematic Apperception Test,
 70, 106
 Training, 7, 21, 104, 111
 Transfers, 2, 7, 11, 16, 20,
 21, 24, 52, 95, 96, 104
- U
- United States Civil Service,
 38
- W
- West Coast, 89