

AN ACTIVE-POSITIVE LEADER: APPLYING JAMES
BARBER TO THEODORE ROOSEVLET'S LIFE

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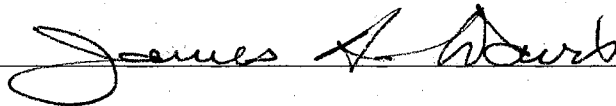
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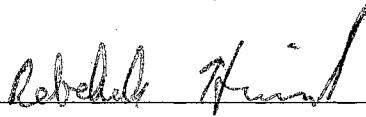
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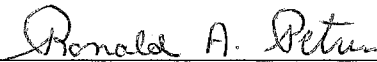
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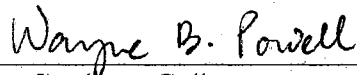


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This dissertation represents a personal quest on my part. I am extremely proud of the fact that I am an educator by trade. I believe that quality education can provide solutions to many social and personal problems. Furthermore, education can be positively uplifting. There is something about being tested and testing one's self that makes the quality of an individual's journey more meaningful. This process has provided this for me and left me with a great deal of respect for those that pushed and pulled me along the road that has brought me to this point.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCION

Presidential Character by James David Barber has received mixed reviews since originally published in 1972. The Barber debate became more prominent when he used his methodology to predict the character of President Richard M. Nixon on the eve of his inauguration. However, one might contend that anyone could have predicted Nixon's demise given his background and how he or anyone else would tend to react in similar situations. Nevertheless, since that time, Barber has been featured in *Time* magazine during every Presidential election cycle, with 1996 being the only exception (Nelson, 1998). Barber contends that one can predict how candidates for the Presidency will behave once elected by analyzing their psychological health and their lives up to being elected President. This case study is not about the prediction of effectiveness, but rather concerns itself with Barber's conceptualizations about the determination of effectiveness and then operationalizing those conceptualizations with Theodore Roosevelt as a test subject. This case study will proceed through these two necessary steps as it examines presidential behavior in light of Barber's conceptualizations as outlined in the body of this research.

The three primary elements in a person's life that determine personality, according to Barber, are *character*, along with *world view*, and *style*. Once identified, these three elements are defined by Barber: *character* is the way the a person orients themselves toward life; *world view* is how a person sees life; and *style* is a person's way of acting in life. Furthermore, Barber designates character as producing four psychological types: "active-positive," "active-negative," "passive-positive," and "passive-negative" (Barber, 1992, p. 8) Each type is designated by characteristics in terms of outlook to identify in the

person occupying the office of the president such as: healthily “ambitious out of exuberance” in an active-positive president; or pathologically “ambitious out of anxiety” for an active-negative; “compliant and other directed” for passive-positive; or “dutiful and self-denying” for a passive-negative (Barber, 1992, p. 9-10). A more detailed definition of these types is necessary when striving to develop a clear understanding of psychological types as they are produced by character. For example, this study’s focus is centered on the active-positive typology. An active-positive president not only displays a healthy ambition out of exuberance, but also a “congruence, between being very active and the enjoyment of it, indicating relatively high self-esteem and relative success in relating to the environment.” Furthermore, an active-positive president “shows an orientation toward productiveness as a value, and an ability to use his style’s flexibility and adaptivity” as well as views himself as “developing over time toward relatively well defined personal goals--growing toward his image of himself as he might yet be. There is an emphasis on rational mastery and on using the brain to move the feet” (Barber, 1992, p. 9). All of this comes into focus under the term character...presidential character more specifically.

The personality of an active-positive president evolves throughout the individual’s lifetime, but Barber specifies that character, world view, and style are developed mostly during the first 25 years of an individual’s life. Character, as it contributes to personality, is developed during childhood. World view, as it contributes to personality, is developed during adolescence. And style, as it contributes to personality, is developed during early adulthood. According to Barber, style tends to manifest itself in rhetoric, homework, and interpersonal relations. Once one understands Barber’s contention of when personality is constituted, a basis for understanding exactly what he means by character, world view, and style can be made. As will be explained, it is important to note that while Barber lists character, world view, and style as elements of personality, he focuses on character as the

primary determiner of an active-positive psychological type and ignores world view and style.

In order to form a basis for a case study that tests Barber's conceptualizations, clear definitions of key terms and how they operate in relation with each other is essential. A good example is Barber's definition of character as defined above. It is important to recognize that character in this context is how a president sees himself in the world, not just for the moment, but enduringly. This definition is crucial because Barber uses it as a primary indicator of personality that he contends ultimately shapes the performance of an individual. It is from this notion of performance that the psychological types are derived.

Although Barber concentrates almost solely on character, he also lists world view and style as personality indicators. However, he fails to link these indicators to an active-positive typology. Therefore, to provide a better understanding of world view and style, I have developed a clearer approach to linking these two modes of expression in the context of the active-positive typology during an individual's formative years. It is important to understand that my approach only helps to make the development of world view and style more clear. It does not find application during the presidential years. However, by better understanding these two modes of expression one can see how they manifest during an individual's adult life better. Barber states that world view makes itself apparent in the presidential years, but does not allow for a way measure for it during this time in an individual's life. Style is described by Barber during the presidential years as being one of three separate distinctions: *interpersonal relations*, *homework*, or *rhetoric*. Again, he does not allow for a way to measure for style during the presidential years. It seems logical that one can assume by a president's actions where he might fit, but there is no prescribed way to measure for style offered by Barber.

In my view, world view and style combine to support character development. These two, along with character, form a foundation that develops by early adulthood. The shaping principles of these indicators are impacted by what the individual is exposed to in terms of behavior. More specifically, world view is impacted by an individual's education and experiences as it serves to expand or restrict the scope of how he/she sees the environment around themselves. Such experiences determine whether the individual is active or passive in their treatment of the world. This is my interpretation of something that Barber lists as an indicator but never explains.

Style is impacted by an individual's capability to act or react positively or negatively to situations in the world that surrounds him/her. Again, it is my interpretation that these two elements constitute the foundations that character-driven psychological types are based upon. Since these elements are determined early in an individual's life, they are relied upon by that person as default behavior modes in different situations. While a change in behavior is rare, Barber asserts that these elements remain consistent throughout life, and therefore serve as reliable benchmarks for determining presidential character. It is my belief that by further explaining world view and style, one can logically accept the assertion that personality as constituted by character with world view and style are indicators of an active-positive president. If world view and style cannot be established as contributors to an active-positive president's personality, Barber's conceptualizations are not substantially valid.

Theodore Roosevelt's character development followed Barber's prescribed pattern of substantial growth early in life. As a child, Roosevelt set the tone for how he would continue to orient himself to the world for the rest of his life by overcoming severe asthma and a long list of debilitating viruses through a self-imposed regiment of physical exercise. The life he led from that point is best described as active. Married twice, Roosevelt was

the father of six children. His career included: experience as a cowboy in the western part of the United States; military success as the Assistant Secretary of the Navy and as a Commander of the Rough Riders; becoming an accomplished politician culminating with his election as President of the United States; and being a well-traveled naturalist/environmentalist from the American to African continents (Degregorio, 1993). If the primary determiner of behavior is individual character, then Theodore Roosevelt has provided the world with plenty of documentation. His life was the personification of an aggressive life philosophy that he referred to as a "strenuous life" (Roosevelt, 1899, p. 319).

As one of the Mt. Rushmore presidents, Theodore Roosevelt was featured by the great sculptor Gutzon Borglum. While he was not included in the original plans which featured only Washington and Lincoln, Roosevelt became a logical addition because he was considered the fourth most influential president of the United States at that time due to his contribution in setting the stage for the progressive political movement and the modern presidency (Smith, 1985).

The perception of Roosevelt has fluctuated with his status as one of the great presidents in the first half of the twentieth century, then slipping to number seven in a 1962 poll of 75 historians by Arthur Schlesinger, and back as the fourth greatest president in a 1982 *Chicago Tribune* poll of 49 historians, Roosevelt is without a doubt a great historical figure (Degregorio, 1993). A major leader of the progressive movement, Roosevelt favored a strong central government to regulate big business and enforce the fair treatment of the labor force in America in the early 1900s. His experience as president apparently created a tendency toward this progressive ideology. However, as a progressive independent candidate (the Progressive party) for president in 1912, he called for his progressive agenda and ultimately set the focus of twentieth century political debate in

America (DiNunzio, 1994). Roosevelt's contribution to history is often overshadowed by his robust and colorful personality. This serves as an asset in studying him as an individual, bringing many aspects about his character to life.

I endeavor to apply James David Barber's conceptualization to Theodore Roosevelt. Because Barber is an apparent authority on presidential character and Roosevelt is a prominent historical figure, it follows that matching one man's theory with another man's life would be an important subject of study. Such a study should expand and enrich our understanding of one of America's more colorful historical figures and how character impacted that distinction. Furthermore, by understanding Roosevelt as he was and in the context of historical significance, one can better understand the presidency. In endeavoring to better understand presidents in general, this study can provide further evidence about the impact of personality on the oval office. If Barber's indicators of character, coupled with his specific methodology are seen to hold, this study will indeed provide a deeper understanding of all presidents.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature review for this body of research requires two forms of information. First, an understanding of *Presidential Character* by James David Barber is essential to form and test an effective hypothesis. Second, a rigorous review of scholarly articles both advocating and critiquing *Presidential Character* and Barber's methodology will allow for a more accurate assessment of the validity of his methodology in determining presidential character.

Presidential Character

As stated, a primary understanding of *Presidential Character* is essential to this case study. Recognized as a scholarly work, Barber's book is currently in its fourth edition. An examination of previous editions discovered minor semantic changes concerning the methodology and no changes concerning the example content. The substantive changes in 1977, 1985 and 1992 included additional information, predictions, and analysis of Presidents Carter, Reagan, and Bush. Satisfied with the consistency of *Presidential Character* over the previous editions, the fourth edition can be relied upon as one searches for methodology characteristics.

Barber's fundamental scheme of study provides a way to move past the complexities of each president and concentrate on the main points of comparison. However, before one can fully understand those main points of comparison, they must satisfy a clearly detailed sequence of study to enable the formulation of a suitable research question. According to Barber, character manifests of the characteristics he identifies as essential. Such characteristics constitute a personality that promotes a dominant or default pattern of

behavior as an adult. Character, along with world view and style, are mostly developed during childhood to young adulthood. As mentioned in the introduction, Barber designates character as a primary determiner of personality and lists world view and style without explaining their role or function as indicators of personality. He merely lists them and never expounds on how they contribute to his methodology. If these three indicators are to be accepted as producers of adult characteristics by which to measure personality and ultimately presidential character, then there must be identifiable differences in experiences during an individual's formative years that constitute where they fit into Barber's methodology. Once identified, these experiences can be found as contributors to adult behavior of that individual. If that individual displays a particular type of personality behavior as president, then Barber's conceptualizations are likely to be applicable.

Once the patterns that direct character are determined, two baseline indicators must be established. These baselines, *activity/passivity* and *positive/negative* are essential to defining presidential typology and identifying the main points of comparison.

Activity/passivity is measured by how much energy the individual invests in being president. All presidents are active at some level, but the activity can generally be assessed at the high- or low-end of the spectrum. The positive/negative baseline is measured by how the individual feels about what they do and whether that individual perceives his/her political life as happy or sad, encouraging or discouraging, or positive or negative, in terms of overall effect (Barber, 1992).

These two baselines are not precise, but according to Barber, they are independent of each other and serve as indicators for character patterns. The four basic quadrants-- active-positive, active-negative, passive-positive, and passive-negative--define discernible differences between presidents by examining the lives and presidencies of each. These character patterns are long familiar to psychological research and are accepted as viable

baseline indicators, which may explain why Barber asserts them as character patterns without any rationale. Furthermore, Barber admits that the patterns are “crude” (Barber, 1992, p. 9). However, it should be noted that his methodology, when properly matched with his prescriptive measures of a climate of expectations and situational power, is one way to attempt to discover character in our nations leaders of past and present. Therefore, his conceptualizations are recognized methodologies for examining presidential character.

Once the baseline indicators are in place, a four-quadrant typology can be created to better understand Barber’s methodology. A president is typed and categorized in a quadrant via analysis of individual character. The element of character constitutes dominant personality traits. Such traits serve as measurable benchmarks upon which research can be based.

Barber describes these traits in basic terms. For example, he refers to the active-positive character type as “looking for results”; active-negative character type as “looking to keep control”, while passive-positive character types are described as “looking for love”; and the passive-negative character type as “acting out of a sense of duty” (Barber, 1992, p. 9-10).

Barber expounds upon the active-positive quadrant further with three individual presidents as stressing *affection*, *combat*, and *commitment*. These three examples are based on the motivations of the individual president. Barber’s examples include: Franklin D. Roosevelt (*affection*) who was clearly striving for the feeling of love and acceptance that he learned to crave from early childhood; Harry S. Truman (*combat*) who believed that he was most alive and shaped by the heat of the battle; and John F. Kennedy (*commitment*) who felt that the duty of the presidency was to achieve a greater level rights for individuals than before he was president. These three designations are best described as individual flavoring. Barber’s designations are intended to be individual examples, not categorical

classifications. They are just ways of better understanding the individual presidents that fit into the active-positive quadrant.

Ultimately, two fundamental questions that constitute a more general research problem concerning Barber's methodology must be answered in the conclusion of this body of research: (1) Was Theodore Roosevelt an active-positive president?; and (2) Does Barber's methodology explain why Theodore Roosevelt was an active-positive president? Recognizing this, and having formed a plausible research problem, I explored the research questions necessary to test my hypothesis more specifically in the research design portion of this case study. Understanding the character types (as described by Barber) lead me to hypothesize the following research question: *If Theodore Roosevelt was an active-positive president, then he must have displayed (1) continual enjoyment as President; (2) a penchant for soaking up facts through study; (3) aggressive informal rhetoric; and (4) decisiveness without a theory-based rationale.* As stated above, it is important to note that Theodore Roosevelt must not only display these characteristics, but also must have life experiences according to Barber, that caused him to behave the way he did as an adult, President and beyond. Simply, character along with world view and style must have caused Roosevelt to behave as an active-positive president.

The Importance of Character

Moving from Barber as a source of primary methodology information, an expansive number of scholarly articles were reviewed and were helpful in assembling and analyzing the typology upon which this body of research is based. As with any significant theory, Barber's methodology, as mentioned above, has had many advocates as well as critics. Both view points were examined to avoid a biased approach. The primary function of this review was to identify ways in which this study could fill in some of the gray areas that Barber is often criticized for leaving without explanation. Furthermore, the importance of

presidential character (as a topic of research) proved to be very important as one endeavors to create a reliable context of study.

In an attempt to identify perimeters for presidential character and Barber's methodology two article classifications were established. First, the importance of character in U.S. presidents is foundational in political psychology as it establishes a relationship between individual behavior and leadership. The second classification is an examination of Barber's methodology regarding individual behavior, as well as how a relationship between the typology in *Presidential Character* has been established to predict success in the Oval Office. These two classifications are necessary to constitute a relative context to this research.

Before one can assess the importance of character, a working definition of the term must be identified. The term character itself can be expressed either normatively or descriptively. While examining the importance of character in this literature review, both modes of expression were employed. Various points made in this research illustrate that the term can be used either way. Understanding this point, one must still identify a working of definition of character. Since *Presidential Character* is the primary methodology source for this body of research, Barber's definition of character is the logical choice for a working definition. Barber defines character as "how one orients themselves toward life" (Barber, 1992, p. 5). Once identified, this definition becomes a benchmark for determining what is meant when the term "character" is employed.

Upon assessing the importance of presidential character, certain issues arise. For example, the personality of the individual president seems to always have an identifiable impact. The problem this presents is that personality is extremely difficult to measure. This information notwithstanding, personality has been accepted as an important part of studying the

importance of presidential character. Alexander George established himself as an authority on the topic of political psychology when he authored *Woodrow Wilson and the Colonel House: A Personality Study* in 1956. In 1919, a political struggle between President Wilson and his opposition in the U.S. Senate was regarding the ratification of The Treaty of Versailles, which would allow the United States to gain membership into the League of Nations. George concluded that Wilson's personal need for self-validation affected his approach to his relationship with members of the Senate caused the United States to not join the League of Nations. This aspect of his character resulted in the death of the initiative that Wilson believed would be his largest contribution to America and the world. By focusing on a president's personality and character as a means to explain his behavior, *Woodrow Wilson and the Colonel House* gave birth to the study of character in U.S. presidents.

An Agenda for Political Psychology: Alexander George as Architect, Engineer and Community-Builder, by Janice Gross Stein in 1994, echoes the statement made above and goes further in stating that "*Woodrow Wilson and the Colonel House*, like other path-breaking studies, set a research agenda for decades and provoked intense controversy" (Stein, 1994, p.3) Her essay outlines the pioneering aspect of George's works about personality. The reoccurring theme is how George used personality and character separately to explain U.S. leaders. The prolific nature of his research and reverence by which Stein speaks of George, illustrates the impact of George in studying the importance of character.

William Friedman also paid respect to the work of George in his 1994 article: *Woodrow Wilson and the Colonel House and Political Psychobiography*. Friedman's use of the term "Psychobiography" is intended to "signal a significant step in the discipline's maturation" (Friedman, 1994, p. 36). The discipline in which he is referring to is the use of

political psychology and methodology that measures character to depict a more realistic view of U.S. leaders in biographical accounts. The significance of this conclusion is that those interested in presidential character can be more informed and accurate in attempting to assess individual behavior in the White House.

Presidents, Advisors, and Foreign Policy: The Effect of Leadership Style on Executive Arrangements by Margaret G. Hermann and Thomas Preston in 1994, outlined the importance of examining the relationship between presidents and their advisors. The portion of this essay, relating directly to this research, is the intonation that presidents who are successful (in this case, making foreign policy decisions) are the ones that balance aspects of their character with advisors that compliment their strengths and weaknesses. This relationship between political psychology and individual behavior illustrates the importance of identifying character in an effort to produce maximum effectiveness.

Taking Account of Individuals in International Political Psychology: Eisenhower, Kennedy and Indochina by Fred I. Greenstein in 1994, took the relationship between political psychology and individual behavior in a different direction. In his essay, he attempts to merge the work by George on political psychology and individual personalities to explain historical occurrences in foreign policy decisions. This does not constitute the use of character for prediction, but rather as a means of explanation for decisions and behavior that until the introduction of political psychology, had to be accepted as not examinable. This work fostered a trend regarding the importance of character in researching U.S. presidents and why they behave as they do in various situations.

Further examination of scholarly research led to very different applications of political psychology and character. For example, *Judging Presidential Character: The Demise of Gary Hart* by Laura Stoker in 1993, examined the importance of character in the context

of one's relationship with the media, people, and partisan politics. Stoker outlines the above mentioned entities as those who identify character in shaping opinions and attitudes of leaders (or aspiring leaders in Hart's case). There are many factors that influence individual decisions about leaders, but Stoker clearly states that character matters and the perception of a leaders' character bears close examination. The only real question that remains is how one can manipulate the subjective process by which voters determine character without uniform methodology or even reason.

Another issue concerning the importance of presidential character is the impact or perceived impact such distinctions have on the relationship between the public and the individual president. In 1992, Stanley A. Renshon established three basic questions concerning the importance of presidential character in his essay titled *Some Observations on Character and Privacy Issues in Presidential Campaigns*. According to Renshon, these questions constitute the relationship between character as an evaluative measure for constituents, and as an indicator of performance. This relationship is compounded by the insertion of the right to privacy that candidates do or do not have. The first question states: "Does a concern with the personal characteristics of candidates have any relevance for presidential performance, and if so, what specifically is it?" The second question states: "Assuming some relevance, what information does the public need to make evaluations of these characteristics; what sources are available; and what lengths should be used to obtain such information?" The final question states: "What limits, if any, are there on the public's need to know such information, and how are these to be balanced against the rights and needs of a candidates privacy?" The answer to the three questions can be summed up easily in the term "character" (Renshon, 1992, p. 565). People expect a president's character to withstand a good deal of scrutiny and only when then will they be willing to give "the consent to be governed" according to Renshon (Renshon, 1992, p. 584). The author makes a good point in that if a leader doesn't withstand character scrutiny, he/she

can expect to govern a partially unwilling constituency. By understanding what is acceptable and not acceptable, in terms of behavior, a leader can endeavor to govern with varying degrees of effectiveness.

In the 1993 book, *Enacting the Presidency: Political Argument, Presidential Debates, and Presidential Character* by Edward A. Hinck, concluded that above character, image matters the most. In doing so, he underscored the importance of an individual president's relationship with the public. He maintains that if a president can appear to be of superior character, then he/she is able to achieve the effectiveness mentioned above, regardless of his/her true character. While Hinck's criteria for character or effectiveness is not clear, his main contention regarding image relates to this body of research in that it expands on the scope of the importance of presidential character. Related Hinck's theory, Bruce Miroff also examined the perception of character in 1993 *Icons of Democracy: American Leaders as Heroes, Aristocrats, Dissenters, and Democrats*. Miroff depicts presidents as heroes, aristocrats, dissenters or democrats in his attempt to classify the relationship between Presidential significance and character. His use of Theodore Roosevelt as an example in his book alone warrants mention, despite the fact that Miroff does not explain his labeling of Roosevelt as an "aristocrat" and his assumption that the 26th President was of inferior character, in contrast with the historical and public perception that painted him as a leader who possessed superior character (Miroff, 1993, p.359). One might assume that Miroff's point is similar to that of Hinck's in that the *perception* of presidential character is more important than actual presidential character.

Returning to personality and its impact on presidential character, one can attempt to find relevance by looking at current examples illustrating the importance of character. In 1991, *The Personalities of Bush and Gorbachev Measured at a Distance: Procedures, Portraits, and Policy* by David G. Winter, Margaret G. Hermann, Walter Weintraub, and

Stephen G. Walker, outlined the relationship between George Bush and Mikhail Gorbachev. More specifically, how their personalities are similar, and whether such knowledge by the two leaders facilitated a good relationship. The relevance of this article to this research is found in the portraits of these leaders and the importance of character in those evaluations. Furthermore, the comparison of the portrait methodology findings to media impressions of the leaders coincide with the conclusions of the two previous articles in that image of character is more important than the actual content of either leaders' character. In all three articles, character is inherently tied to effectiveness.

Written in 1997, *Issues of Character in the Presidential Contest of 1996* by James L. Golden, is an analysis of the 1996 presidential campaign between President Clinton and Bob Dole. Golden assumes that the image of character is important, but concludes that the people were moved more by Clinton's self-defined character in the campaign that included his "choices, sense of history, caring attitude, communication ability and sense of optimism concerning the present and future" (Goldon, 1997, p. 994). This contrasts sharply with Bob Dole's depiction of President Clinton as having inferior character. Clinton's approach to defining the importance of character, unlike Doles, was perceived as the promise of an effective presidency.

Barber's Methodology

Having defined character and then outlining its importance to the study of choosing, evaluating, and understanding a president, the other issue that requires examination is finding a reliable methodology by which to measure presidential character. As stated above, Barber's methodology has met with both advocates and critics. The relevance of original opinions on either side of the Barber argument is essential in determining the validity of his methodology.

One of the principle criticisms of Barber is that his methodology is not specific enough. Understanding this, it was not surprising to find an article by Barber written in 1972, *Candidate on the Couch*, that was critical of verbose and anecdotal methodology in assessing presidential leadership. He concluded that presidential character could be simple. In this article Barber outlined an alternative of a simplified methodology found in *Presidential Character* (Barber, 1972). While Barber might have been critical of those who supply too much subjective information, many are critical of Barber, who is also subjective, for not requiring enough information about his methodology. Written in 1974, *Assessing Presidential Character* by Alexander George put forth the argument that Barber's methodology is too vague and was not necessary in predicting how Richard M. Nixon would behave as President of the United States. George contends that Nixon's behavior had more to do with his political beneficiaries, to which he was beholden to, for his Presidency, rather than his demeanor or personal background (George, 1974). The George article occurred after-the-fact, and serves as a valuable perspective in assessing Barber's methodology. However, because Barber's methodology is designed to predict, one must keep in mind that George had the luxury of hindsight.

Amnesty and Presidential Behavior: A 'Barberian' Test by William Pederson was a study written in 1990 that utilized Barber's methodology to compare the character of 33 presidents and their use of clemency. Pederson was dissatisfied with Barber's methodology, stating that it was not specific enough to produce valid results. However, he did find it useful enough to base a critical part of his study on the methodology. He found that active-positive presidents were more likely to grant amnesty than the other character types. Written in 1995, *Presidential Character and Executive Clemency: A Reexamination* by P.S. Ruckman, Jr., was an extension of Pederson's work, as well as a criticism of Barber. Ruckman concurred with Pederson's opinion and analysis almost completely, specifically when he evaluated Barber's methodology. However, he too

employed the methodology in producing a reexamination of Pederson's work. The utilization of Barber's methodology by these two authors must be recognized, despite their criticisms.

In 1997, *Presidential Character Revisited* by Michael Lyons also quickly pointed out that the problem with Barber's methodology is "its extreme simplicity" (Lyons, 1997, p. 791). However, on the other side of the argument, he not only admits that Barber's methodology is the "most influential study of this type," but also speaks of the above mentioned double standard employed by presidential scholars "caught in the crossfire between the advocates and the adversaries of the personality approach are presidential scholars who see the need for theoretical generalization, yet who remain convinced that personality may simply be too important to exclude from such theories" (Lyons, 1997, p. 793). In the end, Lyons finds middle ground on the subject of Barber.

Leonard P. Stark's *Predicting Presidential Performance from Campaign Conduct: A Character Analysis of the 1988 Election*, written in 1989, offered a different and certainly more gentle criticism of Barber. He contends that Barber's methodology is only flawed because the focus is on the early experiences in life, instead of the later career experiences. Stark contends that Barber's three-part "conception of personality" as well as the four-quadrants of typology are correct, but that it doesn't become relevant until the career experiences test the development of the individual. It is from this pretense that he modifies Barber's methodology with his "Character-Tempered Experience Analysis" (CTEA) (Stark, 1989, p. 295). This article comes closest to fully supporting Barber.

There are those in the less academic, popular press that show their advocacy for Barber not by saying so, but by using Barber's methodology without qualification. Most notably, *Time* magazine's use of his methodology in all of the presidential elections up through

1988. Another publication that used Barber's methodology was a 1974 issue of *US News and World Report* in an article explaining how active-positive presidents don't "brood on defeats and mistakes," Implying that mistakes do not diminish their capacity to remain effective (Barber, 1974, p. 13). *Political Psychology: Classic and Contemporary Readings*, edited in 1997 by Neil J. Kressel, also employed Barber's methodology in the third chapter titled *Personality and Political Leadership*. The book itself is intended to serve political scientists who teach political psychology. The chapter, authored by Lloyd Etheredge, endeavors to explain how personality can help others understand presidential leadership. All three of these examples employ Barber's methodology without accounting for any positive or negative impact that it has, or might have had, in researching Presidential character.

What Do We Know and How Do We Know It? Research on the Presidency by Paul J. Quirk in 1991 was a positive and realistic account of the impact of Barber's methodology. The Quirk article can be summed up by his observation of the research surrounding presidential psychology and leadership: "Researchers seem to have kept their distance from the subject as if to avoid guilt by association with Barber" (Quirk, 1991, p. 52). It is true that literature in this area of study is void of alternative theories or better ideas and thoughts on this topic of research. Quirk's observation is by no means an endorsement of Barber, but it does outline that Barber has blazed a trail that many are not willing to follow.

In 1998, an article titled *Psychological Presidency*, written by Michael Nelson, assessed Barber's methodology in light of its evolution and endurance since Barber's fateful prediction about President Nixon. After a thorough explanation of Barber's methodology, Nelson shed light on his critics with his concluding remark: "Barber's theories may be seriously flawed, but they are serious theories. For all of their limitations, they offer one of

the more significant contributions a scholar can make; an unfamiliar, but useful way of looking at a familiar thing that we no longer see very clearly. In Barber's case, the familiar thing is the American Presidency, and the unfamiliar way of looking at it is through the lenses of psychology" (Nelson, 1998, p.201).

Summary

This literature review outlines a comprehensive understanding of *Presidential Character* by James David Barber, and a rigorous review of scholarly information specifically about the importance of character, as well as the methodology upon which this case study is based. Now that the different forms of methodology information are assembled in a consistent and relevant manner, one can be satisfied with the foundational knowledge and set out to test a related hypothesis.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH DESIGN AND INFORMATION SOURCES

Research Design

Two steps must be taken before a plausible hypothesis for this case study is formed. First, one must outline the causal relationships between character, world view, and style within an active-positive president's background. If one accepts Barber's assertion that these three indicators are present in the early years of a person's life, then there must be certain behavioral indicators that appear in an individual's childhood, adolescence, and early adulthood that would indicate an active-positive classification. For example, Barber states that character is shaped mostly in childhood. A childhood that would indicate an active-positive classification as an adult would contain experiences that displayed a high activity level, enjoyment of that activity, a relatively high level of self-esteem, and success in relating to the environment. As stated before, Barber's primary focus in determining an active-positive president is character. Because he separates world view and style from character in practice, the presidential years of this study are focused solely on character. This is necessitated by the specific research question, which by design only identifies and allows for discussion of character.

Because of this fact, fewer examples of an active-positive classification with respect to world view and style are offered. Furthermore, the examples that do exist are less focused. However, Barber indicates that an active-positive classification with respect to world view can be identified in adolescence as an individual seeing themselves as growing toward "well defined personal goals--not satisfied with where they are, but focused on what they might be in the future." An active-positive classification with respect to style as developed in early adulthood should display "a valuing of productiveness" and "flexibility and

adaptivity” in different life situations (Barber, 1992, p. 9). While Barber simply lists these indicators, I have attempted to further rationalized their causal relationships by linking them together, as well as, to the active-positive typology in the introduction of this case study. This allows for a more holistic view of world view and style as they support character in an active-positive president as outlined by Barber.

The second step in this research is to form a hypothesis that tests the relationships when they are applied to Theodore Roosevelt. By operationalizing the relationships, Barber’s methodology is tested in the context of character, along with world view and style, as manifested in the life and presidency of Roosevelt. This scenario is legitimized in the more general research problem, which consists of two questions: (1) Was Theodore Roosevelt an active-positive president? and (2) Does Barber’s methodology explain why Theodore Roosevelt was an active-positive president?

As stated before, Barber’s fundamental scheme of study realizes a way to move past the complexities of each president and concentrate on the main points of comparison. There are two essential baselines for defining presidential character. The first baseline is activity/passivity. This type is measured by how much energy the individual invests in being president. All presidents are active at some level, but the activity can generally be assessed on the high-end or low-end of the spectrum. The second baseline is whether the individual has a positive or negative affect toward presidential activity in terms of enjoyment. This type is measured by how the individual feels about what he/she does and whether that individual perceives his/her political life as happy or sad, encouraging or discouraging, or positive or negative in terms of overall effect (Barber, 1992).

As stated before, these two baselines are not precise, but they are independent of each other and serve as indicators for character patterns. The four basic quadrants of

active-positive, active-negative, passive-positive, and passive-negative create distinctions between presidents. These character patterns are long familiar to psychological research and are accepted as viable baseline indicators (Barber, 1992). As stated above, Barber himself admits that the patterns are “crude,” but it should be noted that his methodology is the only attempt that I found to explore the character typologies of our nation’s leaders. Therefore, this methodology is a recognized in determining presidential character (Barber, 1992, p. 9).

As also stated before, Barber expounds upon the active-positive quadrant further with three individual presidents as stressing *affection*, *combat*, and *commitment*. Barber’s examples, which were based on the motivations of the individual president. Barber’s examples include: Franklin D. Roosevelt (*affection*) who was clearly striving for the feeling of love and acceptance that he learned to crave from early childhood; Harry S. Truman (*combat*) who believed that he was most alive and shaped by the heat of the battle; and John F. Kennedy (*commitment*) who felt that the duty of the presidency was to achieve a greater level of rights for individuals than before he was president. These three designations are best described as individual flavoring. Barber’s designations are intended to be individual examples, not categorical classifications. Thus they are ways to better understand an individual president that fits into the active-positive quadrant. Barber is also vague in his account of how these motivations make themselves apparent in a president’s behavior. He simply states: “It is not easy to discern in the biographical accounts how these qualities developed dynamically; but that they *had* developed was in each case evident long before the man took the oath of office” (Barber, 1992, p. 11).

Understanding that this aspect of Barber’s conceptualizations are individual, and not categorical, and because Theodore Roosevelt as a subject of study was (in my view) most similar to Harry S. Truman, I chose to focus my attention on the combat flavor of the

active-positive quadrant. This choice determines the character conceptualization indicators that will be employed in the hypothesis of this case study. Like Harry S. Truman, Theodore Roosevelt displayed high self-esteem and a need or want for the thrill of battle. According to Barber, an active-positive president (with Truman as his test subject) has a proclivity to display the following character indicators of behavior: (1) *a continual enjoyment in being president*; (2) *a penchant for soaking up facts through study*; (3) *an aggressive and informal form of rhetoric*; and (4) *the ability to be decisive without much theory-based rationale* (Barber, 1992). These four indicators provide substance to the skeletal framework of the evaluative measures by which to test Roosevelt as prescribed by Barber's test of Truman.

Information Sources

To test my hypothesis, I used secondary and primary sources to obtain biographical information. A historical foundation of Theodore Roosevelt's life must be established to identify consistent patterns in his behavior, as well as perspectives that validate the perceptions and conclusions about his character. In this case, the knowledge of Theodore Roosevelt's life was drawn from biographical literature. To form a balanced compilation of information, I relied upon a historiography of Theodore Roosevelt by authors writing in the 1930s, '50s, '60s, '80s, and '90s, as well as, primary biographical source material in the form of writings by Roosevelt about himself. This strategy allows for a variety of views of Roosevelt over time with the exception of the 1940s and 1970s. Their exclusion is due to the fact that no significant works about Roosevelt were authored during either of those decades. The decades chosen were not significant except in that they show Roosevelt as a subject of study for over 60 years. The chronology was also not necessarily significant except in that it was a logical way to organize the information in the event that the perception of Roosevelt had changed during the 60-year time period.

Because of the scope of Barber's methodology, a complete review of Roosevelt's life is necessary to correctly identifying the main points of comparison in the active-positive category.

Since the early 1960s, Theodore Roosevelt has been in vogue as a subject of historical study. As the leader of the American progressive movement, and a robust modern politician, Roosevelt's life was full of interesting activity. His appeal as a subject of study rivals prominent historical figures to include, Andrew Jackson, Woodrow Wilson, and Franklin D. Roosevelt. His involvement in American progressivism was so complete that it is nearly impossible to study the subject without considering the impact that was made by the 26th President of the United States (Granthem, 1961). As a modern politician, he redefined the presidency as a dynamic position with the capability to create a legacy of power and influence over twentieth-century politics in America and around the world. His use of the bully pulpit, and unabashed quest for dominance in both domestic and foreign policy were testaments of his faith in order and power (Miller, 1992).

Roosevelt's historical value has been enhanced more by the colorful life he led than his accomplishments as a professional politician (A&E, 1996). The definitive historiography by Dewy W. Granthem Jr. in the early 1960s, correctly pointed out that historiographies up to that point had been largely unproductive due to the fact that there were no full-length biographical accounts of Roosevelt's life outside of politics. At the time that Granthem made his assessment, Henry Pringle had written a full-length biography that later received a Pulitzer Prize. Since that time, two other biographical accounts have surfaced as prominent works about Roosevelt. *The Rise of Theodore Roosevelt*, by Edmund Morris and *Theodore Roosevelt: A Life* by Nathan Miller, examine Roosevelt's life holistically. Both biographies are acclaimed as definitive and prize winners, with

Morris earning a Pulitzer Prize as well as “Best Seller” status and Miller earning a Pulitzer Prize nomination.

Two definitive works about Roosevelt as a decision-maker are worthy of inclusion in this chronological look at how historians have depicted Roosevelt. *The Republican Roosevelt*, by John Morton Blum and *Theodore Roosevelt*, by G. Wallace Chessman, were written around the time of the Granthem’s historiography (one before and one after). Both works frame Roosevelt as a decision-maker and capture his character as a leader in the context of the times in which he led. These two works are consistent with each other, as well as with the longer, full-length biographies chosen for this historiography.

Roosevelt believed that the character of an individual was best measured by the actions of that individual and how those actions were perceived by others around him/her (Blum, 1954). Not conversely, Barber defines character as how an individual orients themselves toward life. The consistency between Roosevelt’s beliefs and Barber’s methodology is indicative of the relevance of a study about character in leadership in the White House from 1901-1909.

In creating a chronological perspective of Roosevelt, these five prominent works were examined with an emphasis on the foundations of Roosevelt’s character and how it was shaped by the experiences of his life. Spanning over six decades, the period of time examined was a deliberate attempt to incorporate the best and most definitive works about Roosevelt. In addition to examining such works, the span of time allows for an assessment with a clear historical perspective.

The Pulitzer Prize winning biography by Henry Pringle, *Theodore Roosevelt*, was published in 1931. Granthem referred to Pringle’s work in 1961 as, “remarkable

testimony to the powerful influence and durability” of this “brilliantly written biography” (Grantham, 1961, p. 339). A full-length biography, Pringle covers Roosevelt’s life from his fragile infancy and childhood to his death in 1919. As described by its author, “the book still attempts to tell the whole story of an extraordinarily full life. And within the limits of human fallibility, objectivity has been the goal. In all likelihood, neither the adulatory friend of Roosevelt nor his foes will feel that the goal has been reached. For the storms which swirled around him while he lived have not yet spent their hurricane force in either history or in human memories” (Pringle, 1931, p. vii). The information covered is voluminous and thorough. However, the attitude toward what is covered is focused more on the human fallibility of Roosevelt and the manifestation of such things in his life.

As a comprehensive biography, Pringle presents the President’s life with the facts of events before and after they occurred. It was written to be less of a story and more of a perspective approach towards decisions made by Roosevelt, with an occasional interjection of opinion (usually negative), assumed to be that of the author. The point made many times was that Roosevelt was ego-driven in all aspects of his life and that the reason he enjoyed being president so much was because it fed his ego. His decisiveness without a theory-based rationale, and aggressive informal rhetoric, were results of that ego (according to Pringle). Pringle further described young Teddy’s thirst for knowledge, and the ensuing self-confidence that festered as, “the first green, very green indeed, shoots of a germinating ego” (Pringle, 1931, p. 13).

While the factual foundation that Pringle employed is remarkable, it contrasts markedly with the writing style used by John Blum. *The Republican Roosevelt*, published in 1954, was an attempt to take the “facts of all sorts and kinds” and place them into a context that would capture what drove Roosevelt as an individual and a leader (Blum, 1954, p. vii). The result was an account of Roosevelt’s professional and political career and ending with

his death at Sagamore Hill. Stemming from the afore-mentioned ego, Blum suggests that throughout Roosevelt's career, he never displayed anxiety about his ability to be a leader. In fact, his only insecure thoughts came when he feared not being chosen as a leader. Blum depicts Roosevelt as a man concerned not with happiness, but with "hard work, duty, power, and order." He considered these attributes much more valuable personally, and to the world around him, than happiness (Blum, 1954, p. 106).

Blum's account of Roosevelt states that the President saw these conditions not as prerequisites for an honorable life, but as ends in themselves. With this as his base, the biographer concentrates on the skills of Roosevelt as a leader, and how the use of process defined his achievements.

The drive described above highlights the nature of Roosevelt's methods, his use of aggressive informal rhetoric, and facts acquired from all points in the spectrum of his interests and decisiveness that led him to feel justified as a leader. If he felt just in his actions, he would employ any means necessary to achieve the desired results.

Achievements were not sources of happiness or points of enjoyment, so much as justification, and sometimes, vilification of his methods, as well as his leadership style.

Published in 1961, and written by G. Wallace Chessman, *Theodore Roosevelt and the Politics of Power* is a biographical account, which frames Roosevelt in the context of a masterful politician. It begins with Roosevelt's work ethic that was self-forged as a child, matures to the experience base acquired, and how that foundation served as motivation for ambitions to not just be president of the United States, but to be president during the period of time when America became a world power. Chessman employs his ability as a good story-teller in depicting Roosevelt as a hero in his historical version of the President's political life. Chessman referred to the previous biographies of the 26th

President as “adulterous” because of their less-than-flattering depiction’s of Roosevelt, and establishes his belief that the politician in Roosevelt was what made him so successful (Chessman, 1961, p. 200). A quote about Roosevelt’s laborious effort to keep the Republican party united during his administration illustrates such admiration: “Roosevelt had achieved as much as he had in federal legislation through a wise choice of objectives and a skillful application of power” (Chessman, 1961, p. 156).

Chessman’s focus on the development of Roosevelt’s character traits is what sets his biography apart from the others. For example, he holds that Roosevelt realized the effectiveness of aggressive informal rhetoric and decisiveness as a New York Assemblyman in 1882. He points out that public service was not only something that Roosevelt enjoyed, but fed his insatiable energy level as he gobbled up information about issues that he deemed to be important initiatives. By tracing the development of such traits, Chessman discovers personal and professional motivations, as well as other talents not often discussed about Roosevelt in other biographical accounts.

The second Pulitzer Prize winning biography featured in this research, entitled *The Rise of Theodore Roosevelt* was written by Edmund Morris in 1981. Also a Best Seller, this book outlines the life and times of Roosevelt from infancy up to the day he became President in 1901. The New York Times described this biographical account as “...a sweeping narrative of the outward man and a shrewd examination of his character...It is one of those rare works that is both definitive for the period of time it covers and fascinating to read for sheer entertainment” (Morris, 1981, p. 893). Morris’ detailed accounts of personality-shaping events in the formative years of Roosevelt’s life are excellent. Furthermore, he connects these events with the character traits that the other biographies analyzed confirmed.

Because he focuses on the years from 1853-1900, Morris provides details about Roosevelt's life. For example, how the influence of his father caused him to be decisive in the face of doubters. This was evident in his decision to rid his body of sickness through strenuous physical activity, and later, in aspiring to make something of his life professionally. According to Morris, as a child, Roosevelt derived his trademark confidence from knowing things that others did not. He obtained this knowledge by the relentless study of things that interested him. In an excellent description, the author outlines the process of how the death of Roosevelt's brother caused him to actively pursue enjoyment in everything that he did, not the least of which was being President of the United States. Morris also skillfully uncovers Roosevelt's realization of aggressive informal rhetoric as a Rough Rider. While it was particularly effective on the battlefield, the author reports that Roosevelt used his communication style to convince the President and other important leaders to become involved in the Spanish American War and to let his volunteer cavalry fight on the front lines.

The newest comprehensive biography of Roosevelt was *Theodore Roosevelt: A Life*. Published in 1992, this biographical account earned Nathan Miller a Pulitzer Prize nomination. By far the most entertaining of the five biographies analyzed, this book was the most comprehensive. Thanks to the conditions of time, Miller had access to more information on Roosevelt than any author before him. He put this information to use in his anecdotal style of writing. Miller's approach to Roosevelt is drastically different from Pringle. An excellent storyteller, Miller mixes his facts among entertaining anecdotes that are anchored by the overall message of Roosevelt's thirst to live what he called a "full and vigorous life" (Miller, 1992, p. 166). The result is a more approachable read and less critical assessment of Roosevelt's ego and style.

Miller describes the purpose of his biography as “intended for those readers who wish to know the full story of his life... I have tried to portray a three-dimensional figure of flesh and blood who confronted failures as well as triumphs” (Miller, 1992, p. 10-11). Much like the works of Pringle and Chessman, this biography contains opinions from the author in the writing. As one might expect, Miller falls somewhere between Pringle’s negative depiction’s and Chessman’s romantic portraits of Roosevelt. As the only other full-length biography in this research, this account provides numerous examples of Roosevelt’s character traits as they developed and after they became solidified aspects of his personality.

With a focused look at Roosevelt’s formative years, there are several examples of his penchant for soaking up facts through study, both as a boy determined to be a naturalist, and as a young man studying science, politics, and business at Harvard. His aggressive informal rhetoric, decisiveness, and enjoyment in holding the office of president are just as detailed as the parts of the biography that frame Roosevelt as a professional politician.

Two important issues of consistency emerge from the five works analyzed. First, the facts remain undisturbed as they apparently happened, which provides the factual foundation necessary to analyze the second issue. Roosevelt is portrayed as a charismatic, confident, passionate, and effective leader capable of getting his way in a variety of positions and situations. His ability to employ these skills is present and never contested. Controversy does arise, however, when historians interpret the actions of a man--not unlike any other--held accountable, not just for the times in which he lived, but for the future as well. Could it be that the deciding factor absent from these interpretations is character?

Interpretations withstanding, Theodore Roosevelt remains a fascinating subject of study for historians. His impact on politics and history are only rivaled by his intriguing

character. As the leader of the United States during a pivotally prosperous time of our nation, he is one of the more prominent historical figures worthy of study. His color as an individual in living an amazingly full life, his manipulation of the political process, masterful political skills, and ability to build himself, his confidence, and the nation, all stand as reasonable justification of the sustained interest in Theodore Roosevelt.

Biographical materials published over several decades revealed consistent patterns in Roosevelt's behavior. The different time-bound perspectives of the biographical information surveyed, validates these general character traits by establishing consistent perceptions and conclusions about Roosevelt. His active life provides ample content in making comparisons and conclusions. Furthermore, the methodology used by Barber distinguishes very specific behavioral characteristics. The indications and sources of such characteristics appear throughout Roosevelt's life up to and during the years that he was President. This information is included as an attempt to establish a consistent relationship between Barber's methodology and the life of Theodore Roosevelt.

In addition to the historiography, five works by Roosevelt himself were identified and used as primary data in answering the specific research question and the more general research problem. The five books by Roosevelt were: *Theodore Roosevelt: An Autobiography*, *Theodore Roosevelt: An American Mind*, *American Ideals: The Strenuous Life*, *The Bully Pulpit*, and *African Game Trails*. The five titles identified were very helpful in gaining primary insight into the thoughts and actions of the 26th President. The most recent editor of *Theodore Roosevelt: An Autobiography*, Elting E. Morison, described Roosevelt as the most prolifically published President. The five books examined for this review of literature would testify to that statement on the basis of the quality of Roosevelt's writing. It stands to reason that the quality of any individuals writing is bound to be refined the more they write for publication.

Theodore Roosevelt: An Autobiography, as the title suggests, is Roosevelt's perspective on his life as it passed from his point of view. Written in 1913, he wrote from a perspective of a person that was not yet satisfied with his achievements in public office. Regardless of his motives, the book is entertaining and full of examples of his presidential character as defined in Barber's methodology. *Theodore Roosevelt: An American Mind* is an edited version of Roosevelt's writings of his many interests in life such as politics, nature, conservation, family values, and being President. The publication features 25 written works and speeches by Roosevelt in his life. Similar in style and content, *American Ideals: The Strenuous Life*, is also an edited version of Roosevelt's writings on the varied interests he endeavored to share with the public. This particular work features 33 written works or speeches by Roosevelt. These works are different from the ones featured in *Theodore Roosevelt: An American Mind*. The advantage of reviewing such literature is the obvious exposure to almost 60 original works by Roosevelt himself, as well as the opportunity to see his communications mature and change over the years that he offered his thoughts to the public.

The Bully Pulpit was a book of quotations and excerpts of Roosevelt's writings and speeches that were compiled and broken into subject areas by H. Paul Jeffers. This book supports my personal view that Roosevelt actively sought quotable material. By doing so, Roosevelt could enjoy the maximum effectiveness in his written work and speeches. In reading this material, one gets the impression that Roosevelt loved to write and did so in an effort to share his thoughts with any and all that were willing to listen.

The final book reviewed, *African Game Trails*, was written by Roosevelt (a best-seller) upon his return from a two-year hunting trip in which he collected samples for the Smithsonian Museum. The book is filled with wonderful accounts of his adventures

(exaggerated or not) as he crossed the African continent. Occasionally, he mentioned his opinion on the various topics outlined in the other literature reviewed, but for the most part, Roosevelt escaped politics and America to write about this venture.

In an attempt to strike a more thorough balance of usable information, the following literature was also reviewed: an Arts and Entertainment video about Roosevelt's life; a book outlining abridged biographical accounts of all 42 presidents; and a book describing the comparisons and contrasts between Theodore Roosevelt and Franklin D. Roosevelt. The 60 minute A&E video, *Theodore Roosevelt: Rough Rider to Rushmore*, was originally created for broadcast television, covers the high points of Roosevelt's life and the times in which he lived. In addition to the factual representations of Roosevelt, the video is embellished by historians who are experts at telling small, anecdotal facts about Roosevelt and his life. *The Complete Book of United States Presidents* by William A. Degregorio is a book that lists all 42 American Presidents and provides very condensed biographical information about each. The book is a fantastic reference for any president, including Theodore Roosevelt. *The Roosevelt's: An American Saga*, by Peter Collier is a book that outlines the comparisons, contrasts, and relationships surrounding Theodore Roosevelt and Franklin D. Roosevelt. It underscores the Roosevelt family as extraordinary if for no other reason than that they produced two American presidents. Collier gives a brief biographical account of the rise of both men and then draws comparisons and contrasts about them as they developed into leaders of the United States.

With a credible list of biographical information and indicators by which to measure, one is able to return to the information to search for incidents and situations that confirm or deny the chosen hypothesis on the basis of the four character typology indicators. In examining the life of Theodore Roosevelt, a choice to concentrate on major occurrences of his life

was made. These occurrences were identified in most, if not all, of the biographical information. This decision enabled the findings to have a measure of flow and consistency.

CHAPTER IV

FINDINGS

Before Theodore Roosevelt's Presidential behavior can be examined for the indicators of an active-positive presidency, the early years of his life must be examined for the causal indicators of character, world view, and style. As indicated in the research design, Barber's conceptualizations can only be applied when experiences as a child, adolescent, and young adult serve as a foundation for explaining behavior as it constitutes presidential character. In examining these three periods of life a specific sequence was established to avoid presenting an overly deterministic view or precarious conclusions by the nature of the examples chosen. Theodore Roosevelt's childhood, adolescence, young adulthood, and presidency can best be described as busy. He and his biographers recall the same instances consistently. To be accurate and lend equal weighting to comparable happenings during Roosevelt's life, those instances became the focus of this body of research.

Once the decision to concentrate only on those instances appearing consistently within the writings was made, a clear and patternable sequence of examinable steps became essential. Such steps anchor the research by clarifying how Roosevelt's life should be examined in light of Barber's conceptualizations. Conclusions were made only when a preponderance of evidence was found. Since everyone's life is complex, three relative classifications were employed when examining Roosevelt's life. The classifications include: evidence that supports; evidence that disputes; or evidence that is neutral to Barber.

With these classifications established, the sequence by which Roosevelt's life is examined became a matter of patterned steps. First, an account of each of the three life periods must be presented. Second, each life period must be examined for evidence that supports

Barber. Third, the same life period must be examined for evidence that does not support Barber. Fourth, the evidence that neither supports or disputes Barber was classified as neutral. The final step is a determination of whether the preponderance of evidence indicates a logical assumption that Roosevelt was an active-positive individual. This sequence is a logical approach to applying Barber's (somewhat skeletal) conceptualizations of an individual's childhood, adolescence, and young adulthood to an active-positive characterization.

By establishing such a sequence, the life periods of Theodore Roosevelt can be examined. The evidence produced by this sequence is synergistic with the research question which required very specific information concerning Barber's causal indicators of an active-positive president. That information will be presented in a manner that is structured by the research question in the latter portion of these findings.

A special effort was made to objectively present the facts as they consistently appeared in the writings by and about Roosevelt. The principle reason for this strategy was to avoid any inclination to pick and choose facts that supported Barber's prescribed conclusions about an active-positive individual. Once the facts about the formative years are established, the issue of whether Roosevelt's life coincides with Barber's conceptualizations is examined to determine if a match exists or not and what conclusions can be reached about the methodology.

In creating a foundation with the three life periods and then deliberately exposing the information that appears in Roosevelt's life, this research will either find relevance supporting, or not supporting Barber's conceptualizations. Beginning with Roosevelt's childhood and through his young adulthood there is ample information to be examined at every stage.

Childhood

Wealth provides for many things, however, it does not provide health or happiness to the individual responsible for creating the wealth or for those he or she cares for. Theodore Roosevelt Sr. had enjoyed measured success as a merchant and began his family on the wealthier side of New York City. On October 27, 1858, Theodore Roosevelt Jr. was born as the second child of what would eventually be a family of six that occupied a brownstone townhouse on the upper East side of the city. Theodore Roosevelt Jr. was a sickly child. During the very early years of his life, he was forced to sleep sitting up in a chair or propped up in his bed by pillows because his lungs were not strong enough to draw air into his body when he laid down (Pringle, 1931). Stricken with extreme asthma, allergies that often led to viruses, and digestive complications, he spent most of his early childhood years locked indoors and away from formal education. It was in this environment that he learned of his intellectual ability. Despite his sickly nature, Roosevelt was believed to be hyperactive (Degregorio, 1993). He would fidget and cause accidents if he were not occupied. It was in these situations that Roosevelt was initially encouraged to occupy his mind by reading and writing. As one might expect, with nothing else to do but read and write, he became pretty good at it. Peter Collier described Roosevelt's childhood when he said, "Reading became his prowess" (Collier, 1994, p. 37). Roosevelt confirmed his childhood love for reading when he said, "All this individual morality I was taught by the books I read at home..." (Roosevelt, 1913, p. 16).

Because of his condition, he was forced to watch from the door or window as his siblings participated in outside play. As soon as he learned to read Roosevelt's life changed. Starved for social contact, he would lure members of his family indoors and into his realm by entertaining them with stories and facts he had read. Roosevelt quickly associated such behavior with the positive reinforcement it produced from his parents and siblings.

Because of his mastery of this task, young “Teddy” was showered with attention that built his self-confidence (Collier, 1994, p. 37). That self-confidence not only came from the attention, but also from the belief that he could master something within his realm despite his sickly condition.

The praise showered upon Roosevelt because of his intellectual accomplishments built his self-esteem. The fact that he was the oldest boy and the name sake of this father, Theodore Sr., also contributed to his relatively high level of self confidence. Another contributing factor concerning the praise that was fondly remembered by Roosevelt and his biographers was the fact that intellectual activity was his specialty. The entire family, including Roosevelt’s mother, were constantly vying for Theodore Sr.’s attention. As the patriarch of the family, Theodore Sr. placed a high value on activities in which his family could readily display excellence (Pringle, 1931). Recognizing the value of excellence, Teddy and his siblings prioritized activities according to how well they could perform. The evidence supports the conclusion that the other three Roosevelt children were more interested in the physical activities. His sisters were both relatively talented in the musical arts and his brother was apparently most comfortable in physical play outside (Morris, 1981). Teddy was very valuable to his father, and they bonded because of a direct connection in intellectual activity, of which the other Roosevelt children were not as interested. (Miller, 1992). These factors weighed heavily on the praise that Roosevelt received as a child.

Roosevelt’s childhood sickliness also contributed to the bond between he and his father. The dire nature of some of the illnesses necessitated a great deal of attention from his father. Roosevelt tells of the time when his father held him in his arms and ordered their carriage driver to go as fast as the horses would allow in an effort to force air into his son’s lungs during one of his more serious asthma attacks (Roosevelt, 1913). His sickness

drew a great deal of sympathy from Roosevelt's entire family. While his sickliness was not a memory of happiness, Roosevelt recalls the love and attention that made him feel valuable as an individual to his family, and more specifically, to his father. The second contributing factor about Roosevelt's childhood health problems and his relationship with his father, was how he gained much praise for his efforts to exercise the illness out of his physical body. This approach to healing took hold firmly in the later stages of Roosevelt's childhood and ultimately came to fruition during his adolescent years. His father totally supported this decision and provided young Roosevelt with weights, a trainer, and constant encouragement. That encouragement instilled the value of a strong work ethic and taking action rather than just describing or reading about such things.

Due in part to the physical exercise regiment, as Roosevelt grew older he was not as sickly as when he was very young. Although this enabled him to go outside more often, there were still many instances when he was unable to leave his bed for days due to illness (Miller, 1992). By age ten, Roosevelt combined his prowess in study and examination with a deep interest in natural history. He tells of a seal, when he describes his childhood interest with nature. Roosevelt stumbled onto a dead seal for sale in an open market near his home as a child. He later described his feelings, "that seal filled me with every possible feeling of romance and adventure" (Roosevelt, 1913, p. 14). Somehow he procured the head of that seal and began his own natural history museum. From that point forward Roosevelt was constantly searching for specimens for his museum. After capturing an animal for display in his museum he would study it endlessly, write of his findings and how he felt the animal fit into the scheme of nature. With every new find he became more and more confident in himself and felt that he was destined to be a zoologist.

In Roosevelt's mind, nature was wild and free. He enjoyed the challenge of the natural world that ultimately created his reverent and life-long love affair with nature. That same

reverence was revealed in his description of his experience with the seal. The romantic notion of challenging the wilds of the natural world manifested itself in his drive to capture and understand any and all natural specimens.

Theodore Roosevelt Sr. encouraged young Roosevelt in his endeavor by allowing him to bring his specimens into the house, despite the pleas from his mother and sister that he be forced to take them outside (Morris, 1981). Roosevelt Sr. also gave his son a shot gun so that he might acquire more birds as specimens. Furthermore, he was also allowed to study taxidermy under one of the tutors his father provided (Miller, 1992). As a final example of his childhood behavior in the context of his interest in nature, Roosevelt wrote what presidential historian, William A. Degregorio described as a “precociously learned” paper titled, *The Natural History of Insects* (Degregorio, 1993, p. 376). Young Theodore Roosevelt enjoyed a childhood that allowed him to gain attention for his accomplishments, and develop a passionate interest in nature. That passion provided his (already active) imagination with a clear direction and something to look forward to, and created an individual more inclined to search for opportunities rather than subscribing to pessimism. Supported by his family, he grew up sheltered and confident within the confines of this environment.

Roosevelt’s childhood was very active. Equally important to his intellectual activity as a child, was his passionate interest in nature, more specifically, wildlife and insects. These activities produced a satisfaction which empowered Roosevelt to hope and strive for further success. He enjoyed his successes, whether it was praise from his father or the addition of a new specimen to his wildlife museum, Roosevelt developed a pattern that built his confidence and manifested a high level of self-esteem. His ability to master intellectual aspect of life in order to foster the positive praise he enjoyed, caused him to seek out opportunities to display such activity. This confidence also manifested itself in his

love of nature. This combined two of the three major activities he mastered as a child. There is no doubt that Roosevelt and his biographers recall his childhood with fondness. The writings about this time period of his life are mostly anecdotal and framed by an activity in which Roosevelt he was enjoying himself.

An exception to the assumptions that Roosevelt enjoyed his childhood is the fact that it was during this period of his life that he began the physical training regiment which eventually allowed him to overcome his sickly condition. It is clear that he exercised faithfully, however, this is the only information concerning this very crucial time in his development. No evidence was found to support the assumption that he enjoyed this particular activity, just that he began to do it during this life period. While he might not have enjoyed it, one might hypothesize that he did so to facilitate access and love for nature. Regardless, as one of the three major activities that appears consistently in the biographical literature, Roosevelt's engagement in physical training does not appear to be an activity that he enjoyed. In fairness, it is important to recognize that although he may not have enjoyed this training, it stands to reason that as his body grew stronger, his confidence grew stronger as well. Having said this, there is no evidence that this was the case, but it stands as an assumption. Again, this aspect of his childhood seems to not support Barber's assumptions.

According to Barber, an active-positive childhood requires a child to display "a congruence between being very active and the enjoyment of it." This theory indicates high self-esteem, which would ultimately lead to success in the context of the environment that surrounds the child (Barber, 1992, p. 9). However, Barber's conceptualizations about an active-positive childhood and character are very simplistic. There is much more to Roosevelt's childhood than a congruence between activity and the enjoyment of such activity building his high level of self-esteem. For example, the relationships he had with

members of his family (principally his father), his tutors, and others must have had a great deal of impact on his character development. Another element of his childhood that probably impacted his development was the wealth enjoyed by the Roosevelt family. The family's economic status must have made activities such as travel, homebound education, as well as the purchase of books and a home gymnasium more accessible. In fact, this wealth enabled Roosevelt's high activity level possible in many cases. Not having the burdens and worries that accompany not having wealth would simplify the focus of a young boy's life. Such factors definitely impact an individual's ability to enjoy life and further display a high level of self-esteem.

Although such issues are worth recognition, the spirit of Barber's conceptualizations are to provide a way to move past the complexities of each individual's life and concentrate on the more general characteristics. After refocusing on the general characteristics, one can appreciate the value of employing behavioral indicators while not being mired by the endless reasons such indicators could exist. It is this concept that makes the broad behavioral indicators the only relevant issues to examine. With this conclusion made, and on the basis of a preponderance of evidence, one can logically conclude that Theodore Roosevelt's childhood coincides with what Barber would consider an active-positive childhood indicative of character.

Adolescence

As an adolescent, Theodore Roosevelt described himself as scrawny (Roosevelt, 1913). As mentioned above, he began to build himself physically by undergoing a rigorous training regiment. The thought process Roosevelt employed was that if he made his body stronger he would be less likely to be sick (Pringle, 1931). Based on his descriptions of this time period in his life, Roosevelt despised being sick and relished in the idea that he could improve his health himself (Roosevelt, 1913). By actively visualizing himself

without the threat of illness and pushing his body past its limits, he accomplished his goal of overcoming his inherent sickliness. As mentioned above, he did so with help of a personal trainer, exercise books, and a home gymnasium (including weights) that his father provided (Morris, 1981). Roosevelt recalls this action as helping him take a step toward self reliance (Roosevelt, 1913). To the amazement of most everyone, Roosevelt set into motion a pattern of self-confidence through his ability to accomplish the goals he set for himself.

During the time that he was overcoming the sickliness that marked his childhood, Roosevelt was beat up by two bullies in his neighborhood. After getting punched in the nose, Roosevelt recalls that he decided to take boxing lessons. Although, this decision would ultimately complimented his physical training regiment, he took this action because he saw value in being able to defend himself. He continued to box throughout his adult life until he was blinded in his left eye due to a blow to the head by a national boxing champion with whom he was sparring in the White House (Miller, 1992). Roosevelt's love of boxing was analogous of how he saw himself. The only thing that Roosevelt loved more than a challenge was emerging triumphantly from a good fight.

Roosevelt considered fighting a good fight for something one believes in honorable. Furthermore, he recommended it, saying that everyone would be a better individual by doing so (Roosevelt, 1913). While in college at Harvard he was the runner-up in the campus lightweight boxing championship to C.S. Hanks. Although he did not win, Roosevelt was revered by those watching the fight for his sportsmanship and class after Hanks bloodied Roosevelt's nose with a cheap shot after the bell. When the crowd started to boo the action, Roosevelt quieted down the spectators and explained that he believed Hanks had not heard the bell over the roar of the crowd. He then shook Hanks' hand as a gesture of "no hard feelings". His handling of this situation won him the adoration of the

crowd and serves as an example of his perceptions of fighting honorably (Degregorio, 1993, p. 377).

During his adolescent years, Roosevelt had a number of private tutors that provided him with his educational background. Among those tutors was Anna Minkwitz. She predicted, he would one day become the president of the United States” (Morris, 1981). This must have made a significant impact on Roosevelt, because he remembered it being said and commented after being president that he had always remembered it and thought of it as something to strive toward (Roosevelt, 1913). His early education also afforded Roosevelt a freedom that a more traditional curriculum does not allow for. There is evidence that Roosevelt was able to choose a great deal of the lesson material that he studied as an adolescent (Morris, 1981). Such control is easily habituated by an adolescent. Particularly, for someone from a wealthy family that brings a considerable amount of confidence in their intellectual activity from their childhood. This is another example of how Roosevelt was allowed to shape himself according the world that surrounded him. Such privileges are not without merit, especially from Roosevelt’s perspective (Roosevelt, 1913).

Roosevelt’s only exposure to formal education came when he attended college at Harvard in 1875. He excelled in science, rhetoric and philosophy. He was active around campus and apparently enjoyed the time when one generally develops a clearer focus about the direction of their life. Upon graduating from Harvard with honors, Roosevelt made the decision to give up his intent to be a naturalist and set his sights on Columbia Law School with the new direction of public service in mind (Miller, 1992). He made this decision at the urging of Professor J. Laurence Laughlin and his girlfriend, Alice Lee (Degregorio, 1993). This decision marked the beginning of his career in politics and culminated the lessons of confidence in shaping and controlling his own destiny.

Theodore Roosevelt's adolescence was clearly a series of progressions according to him and those who wrote about his life. It began when Roosevelt overcame his inherent sickliness because he was not satisfied with his personal development physically. In doing so, he developed a value system that ingrained the importance of goals and self-reliance in his personal behavior. Equally, Roosevelt was not content to be a weakling, so he took steps to make himself better by learning to box and by attacking his studies with a great deal of tenacity. This desire served him well when he was no longer threatened by constant sickness or other people, and propelled to graduate from Harvard with honors.

One aspect of adolescence does not seem to follow Barber's prescriptions. Roosevelt's experiential decision to abandon his long-time goal to become a naturalist and pursue a law degree upon graduating from Harvard can easily be interpreted as a break from his predetermined destiny. His decision to pursue a career in public service is an example of a capstone experience that progressive individuals have before reaching a new level in their development. Roosevelt was clearly goal-oriented and driven to better himself during his adolescence, but for some unknown reason chose a much different path in the eleventh hour.

Roosevelt's decision challenges Barber's prescriptions of an active-positive adolescence as the individual seeing themselves as growing toward "well-defined personal goals--not satisfied with where they are, but focused on what they might be in the future" (Barber, 1992, p. 9). On this point, Barber's skeletal indicators for an active-positive adolescence and world view are simplistic and present a problem for this body of research. Barber prescribes well-defined goals, but does not indicate whether those goals must be achieved, or if the individual may change them at will, as long as they are well-defined. There is more to Roosevelt's adolescence than how he saw himself as becoming more than he was already, and focusing on what could be in the future. Roosevelt was an individual who

expected something better naturally. He was also aware that he was the only person responsible for getting him to that better place. There is no way to measure self-awareness and initiative, although one can recognize the indicators when they occur. Furthermore, maturity during adolescence is very environment sensitive. The examples you have to follow, how much you are accepted and praised by those around you, and how much collaboration a person is able to orchestrate between their environment and their inner drive is very important. The strong and favorable presence of Roosevelt's father combined with the means to experience things was key to his adolescent behavior. All of these characteristics are exceptionally individual and can only be examined through behavioral indicators. Which are the only relevant issues worth examining. With this in mind, and based on the preponderance of evidence, one can logically reach the conclusion that Theodore Roosevelt's adolescent years coincide with Barber's description of an active-positive adolescence as it impacts world view.

Young Adulthood

As a young adult, Roosevelt pursued his career with a great deal of intensity. In 1880, at age 21, he entered Columbia Law School only to drop out a year later to run for and ultimately be elected to the New York State Assembly. His intensity earned him the nickname of the "Cyclone Assemblyman." He earned such a name by displaying high energy in his law-making duties and fighting the machine politics of his day (Degregorio, 1993, p. 379). During his second term Roosevelt was elected Minority Leader by the Republicans. His writings about this time period, however, recall the things he accomplished through his work rather than the titles he held. For example, he was most noteworthy for crossing party lines to work with then Governor Grover Cleveland to sponsor a Civil Service Reform Act (Roosevelt, 1913). An assumption can be made that Roosevelt's early attitude about public service was that he actively intended help make

government an organization that dispensed justice. This attitude becomes very apparent in his later, higher-profiled career in public service.

More telling of his young adulthood than his early work as a state assemblyman was the personal tragedies that he faced, and how he reacted to those events. In 1884, after less than four years of marriage, Roosevelt's first wife, Alice, died of Bright's disease and complications during child birth. Strangely, his mother also died in the same house and on the same day of typhoid fever. The compounded loss of the two most important women in his life was an enormous burden that ultimately drove Roosevelt to take the inheritance of his Mother's death and move west to become a cattle rancher. While he mourned his loss during the weeks that followed, upon making his decision to move west he never spoke of his first wife publicly again. The Pulitzer prize winning biographer of Roosevelt, Henry Pringle, surmised that it was too painful for him and that he feared the depression that recalling such memories might bring about.

As a cowboy, Roosevelt enjoyed moderate success as a cattle rancher. His recollections of this period in his life are of a more romantic west than what actually existed during those days. He tells of enjoying the simplicity of ranch life and wholesomeness of hard work. The cattle market at time was not very profitable, so the good times could not have been as plentiful as he described. Roosevelt biographer, Nathan Miller, hypothesized that Roosevelt wanted and needed so much to escape his pain, that he created a romantic existence in his mind to escape the memories that he would otherwise be forced to come to terms with. In the latter part of 1886, Just over two years after beginning his new life out west, Roosevelt sold his cattle business and returned to New York City to run for Mayor. He was defeated handily, but decided to stay in New York, concentrate on his writing, and wait for an opportunity to re-join public life (Morris, 1981). This decision can

be interpreted as evidence that he had decided to begin again in the profession where he had enjoyed success less than three years earlier.

Just a few months after his return, Roosevelt married his second wife, Edith. She was suited for Roosevelt in that she was willing to manage the household budget and create a home that supported and showcased her husband. Roosevelt was apparently very grateful because of his references to his wife were always of love and gratitude for her support. With his home life on track, his career became the focus of his ambition. From 1889 to 1895, Roosevelt served as a member of United States Civil Service Commission. Again, he recalls this time period of his life by accounting his accomplishments in enforcing the civil service laws and strengthening his staff in an effort to stamp out injustices and corruption within the system. Commissioner Roosevelt saw himself in the role of dispensing justice as an extension of the government (Roosevelt, 1913).

In 1895, Roosevelt was “dispensing justice” again. As the President of the New York City Police Board he “vigorously” attempted to stamp-out corruption within the Police department and enforced various policies concerning a ban to sell alcohol on the Sabbath (Degregorio, 1993, p.379). Roosevelt did not personally support the laws, but did not allow his personal belief to stop him from enforcing the law. His perception of the situation was that it was his duty to enforce the laws as efficiently as possible, no matter what his personal feelings were. He explained his point of view, “I do not deal with public sentiment. I deal with the law. How I might act as a legislator, or what kind of legislation I should advise, has no bearing on my conduct as an executive officer charged with administering the law” (Morris, 1981, 497-498). By the time Roosevelt left the Police Board at age 29 to become the Assistant Secretary of the Navy, he had developed a strong reputation as someone who was more interested in doing than analyzing or criticizing. His style of rhetoric was backed up nicely by this reputation which he enjoyed for the

remainder of his adult life. He also seemed to enjoy the reverent attention that such a reputation brought with it. It was easier to believe that the world was good when the bad elements knew to keep their distance.

The diversity of this period in Roosevelt's life is testament to the fact that he always viewed himself as heterogeneous both personally and professionally. Roosevelt spoke fondly of the lessons learned regarding flexibility and adaptivity as a young New York Assemblyman and how it was those experiences that allowed him to become the leader he was as president. The tragic loss of his wife and mother that necessitated his move to the out west (Dakota territory) also impacted how he acted for the rest of his life by illustrating his ability to be multidimensional in his professional and personal life. By relocating, he displayed a blatant attempt to escape his pain and to prove to himself that he could be flexible in adapting to a completely different existence. Equally interesting is how Roosevelt wrote of his positions on the United States Civil Service Commission and the New York Police Board, in which he focused on his accomplishments rather than the titles he held (Roosevelt, 1913). This indicates that the job he did mattered to him more than anything else.

As stated above, Roosevelt's productiveness lent credibility to his rhetoric and served him well for the rest of his life. His social and professional positions as a young adult were viewed by him as vehicles to make a difference in the world. He was very driven as a public servant and clearly enjoyed the attention that such service brought. A Roosevelt observer illustrated this point by describing him as wanting to be "the bride at every wedding and the corpse at every funeral" (Degregorio, 1993, p.373). Roosevelt realized that the only way to gain that attention and still be respected was to be productive. Roosevelt's style of rhetoric as Barber would classify it was supported by his ability to be

flexible and adaptive in his pursuit of productiveness. This is characteristic of Roosevelt's self-determined actions.

Roosevelt's move west after the deaths of his first wife and his mother, not only serve as an example of his ability to adapt to a different lifestyle and trade, but also indicate that he was not able to adapt or cope. This point can be logically seen as not supporting Barber's conceptualizations. One can assume that he ran from his pain because he was not able to be flexible and go on in the world he had known without those two very important people. Although there is no shame in such a decision considering the circumstances, this is an example of how this aspect of Roosevelt's life does not support Barber's prescriptions for an active-positive young adulthood.

Barber describes an active-positive young adulthood as marked by an individual's ability to use "flexibility" and "adaptivity," to adapt to situations while placing value on productiveness (Barber, 1992, p.9). Barber sums up style: "style is his [a president] way of acting" (Barber, 1992, p. 5). Once again, Barber's conceptualizations about an active-positive young adulthood and style are very simplistic. There is much more to Roosevelt's young adulthood than his ability to be flexible and adapt to situations while he actively placed a value on productiveness. This period, in particular, is much more complex. His experiences involved very traumatic losses as well as moderate successes with a fair amount of transition along the way. Such polarization is common in everyone's life, but capturing and measuring such reactions is extremely difficult. His decision to never talk about or acknowledge the death of his wife and mother--in the same house, on the same day--is an excellent example. One can logically assume that such situations have a significant impact on how an individual acts in their life from that point forward. After his loss, Roosevelt lived his life like someone who did not want to waste time, slow down, back down, or play it safe.

Another intangible in examining Roosevelt's life was his timing. Everyone knows that opportunities will favor those that are prepared to take advantage of them, but actually coordinating the right moments, with one's momentum in life is a skill. This is a skill that Roosevelt used with remarkable success to marvel almost everyone in the past and present. These intangibles can only be examined when they produce behavioral indicators. With style for instance, behavioral indicators are invaluable. This fact is what makes the simplistic conceptualizations that Barber prescribes the only relevant issues. Focused on the relevant issues, the preponderance of evidence supports the conclusion that Theodore Roosevelt's young adulthood coincides with Barber's description of an active-positive young adulthood as it is indicative of style.

As a researcher I feel compelled to mention that the issue of avoiding the appearance of picking and choosing evidence in Roosevelt's life that fit with Barber's conceptualizations is exacerbated by the fact that Barber's less-than-specific reference to the three major periods of development are left entirely up to the researcher to determine. However, this issue is best combated by remaining consistent with the major factors that Roosevelt and those that wrote about his life consistently mention as principle happenings during his formative years.

Furthermore, Barber's lack of a more precise description of an active-positive childhood, adolescence, and young adulthood leave a researcher/reader to rationalize for him/herself a more precise meaning of these life periods in the context of the research. Never-the-less, the progression through these periods of life as outlined by Barber is clearly identifiable prior to the establishment of any significant personality traits in the adult Theodore Roosevelt. More specific to this body of research, this sequence must be followed before

Barber's very specific research questions about Roosevelt's Presidency find application in the larger picture of this study's research problem.

Presidency

In contrast to the first portion of these findings that were based upon Barber's vague and skeletal concepts about childhood, adolescence, and young adulthood, the presidential years require a more deliberate set of questions as they relate specifically to the research question. The research question (as it was born out of Barber's conceptualizations about presidential character) is very specific regarding the indicators are necessary to determine an active-positive presidency. The remainder of these finding are constructed around these indicators which include: (1) displaying continual enjoyment as President; (2) displaying a penchant for soaking up facts through study; (3) displaying aggressive informal rhetoric; and (4) displaying decisiveness without a theory-based rationale. These four indicators are addressed separately and in detail with evidence that is supported consistently in the writings of and about Roosevelt. The examples as they appear in these findings are to be pulled from the biographical material in support of Barber's conclusions. The absence of such examples would be a way of not supporting Barber's conclusions. As with the sequence employed in the first part of these findings, some of the examples could also be described as neutral to Barber because they did not apply completely. The examples presented in this portion of the findings have at least some application with one or more of the prescribed indicators of an active-positive presidency.

Continual Enjoyment of Being President

Much has been made about Roosevelt's robust personality and zest for life. He apparently inherited the characteristic of enjoying an active life from his father. In his autobiography, he referred to his father as someone who derived great joy from life (Roosevelt, 1913).

One can be certain that Roosevelt would have been honored to know that he was paid the

same compliment by way of description when John Morton Blum observed, “The special mark of Theodore Roosevelt was joy--joy in everything he did” (Miller, 1992, p.9). Blum went on describing how Roosevelt professed he, and everyone should secure such a way of life. He also described Roosevelt as feeling the “tension created by the skewered relationship between the values of this fathers values and the world of his sons. That anxiety he dispelled by an act of faith not in some particular condition of society, but in one particular process of living, what he called the ‘strenuous life’, a life of strenuous engagement. He described that life most often in masculine metaphors. The explorer, the homesteader, the cowboy, the iron molder, and emphatically the author, the lawyer, and the executive, achieved in this view and equal dignity, so long as each executed his task gladly and manfully, so long as each also discharged his duties as husband, father, and citizen” (Blum, 1954, p. x). Roosevelt accomplished his goal of continual enjoyment by balancing what he believed to be purposeful work with a high activity level as the President of the United States.

In meeting with friends on the eve of his inauguration in 1905, Roosevelt displayed this indicator when he was reported to have said, “Tomorrow I come into my office in my own right, then watch out for me!” (Pringle, 1931, 253). Upon assuming the Presidency three years earlier, Roosevelt had vowed that he would not stray from the path set by the late President McKinley. However, as the statement reflects, he was enthusiastically excited about the opportunity to be president in his own right. He also set an activity pace that reflected his continual enjoyment while holding the office of President. William Bayard Hale, a *New York Times* reporter, painted a vivid picture of the President during his daily meetings with the public: “...always speaking with great animation, gesturing freely, and in fact, talking with his whole being, mouth, eyes, forehead, cheeks, and neck all taking their mobile parts... A hundred times a day the President will laugh, and when he laughs he does it with the same energy with which he talks. It is usually a roar of laughter, and it comes

nearly every five minutes. His face grows red with merriment, his eyes nearly close and his words become choked and sputter... You don't smile with Roosevelt you shout with laughter with him" (Miller, 1992, p.419). This scene would lead most to believe Nathan Miller when he wrote that, "Roosevelt gloried in his office" (Miller, 1992, p.413). In a letter to his son Kermit, Roosevelt wrote, "I was thinking about it just this morning when Mother and I took breakfast on the portico and afterwards walked about the lovely grounds and looked at the stately historic old house. It is a wonderful privilege to have been here and to have been given the chance to do this work..."(Miller, 1992, p. 413).

Roosevelt had anticipated the gravity of the office of president. It was this anticipation that allowed him to enjoy himself fully. He expressed this exact sentiment in an article he wrote while he was the Governor of New York. He concluded the article with a revealing quote concerning his thoughts about the Presidency... "Altogether, there are few harder tasks than that of filling well the office of President of the United States. The labor is immense, the ceaseless worry and harassing anxiety are beyond description. But if the man at the close of his term is able to feel that he had done his duty well... he has the satisfaction of feeling that he has performed one of the great world tasks, and that the mere performance is in itself the greatest of all possible rewards" (Roosevelt, 1899, p. 314-315).

The Pulitzer Prize winning Roosevelt biographer, Edmund Morris, described a scene on New Years day in 1907 when the line to shake the President's hand had stretched to more than a quarter of a mile from where he was receiving people in the Blue Room. Secret Service agents were on tenuous guard as they scrutinized each visitor. A year before someone had entered the White House with a knife intent on killing the President. However, as Morris states, "Roosevelt does not want to leave office a day too soon. 'I enjoy being President,' he says simply." He goes on to describe Roosevelt, "No Chief

Executive, certainly, had ever had so much fun. One of Roosevelt's favorite expressions is 'dee-lighted'--he uses it so often, and with such grinning emphasis, that nobody doubts his sincerity. He indeed delights in every aspect of his job...Ex-President, Grover Cleveland, himself a man of legendary ability, calls Roosevelt 'the most perfectly equipped and most efficient politician thus far seen in the Presidency.' Coming from a Democrat who has known Roosevelt since his early youth, this praise shows admiration of one virtuoso from another" (Morris, 1981, p. 17).

Another testament to Roosevelt's enjoyment of his Presidency was the level and pace at which he did his job. His days began at 7:30am and usually ended around 10:30pm. His daily schedule progressed at a deliberately brisk pace. During the day, the President would answer his mail, read voraciously, meet with the public, other government leaders, and the press (all separately), have lunch with friends, work in his office, enjoy at least two hours of recreation, and finally concluded the day by receiving world leaders at dinner and receptions. His trips as President were also very busy and exciting. One of the best examples of his proclivity to set an active itinerary was when the President wrote of his adventure of being the first Commander and Chief to pilot a submarine while in office: "I've had many a splendid day's fun in my life, but I can't remember ever having crowded so much of it into such a few hours." (Miller, 1992, p. 415) The President was reportedly advised to not pilot the submarine because of the inherent danger and because his activity that day had been particularly exhausting. In fact, he had already traveled over 200 miles, inspected the Navy and enjoyed a few rounds of boxing (Pringle, 1931). Such a high level of activity embodied what Roosevelt called "the strenuous life". He believed that such activity would not only make an individual healthy, but keep them ambitious and happy as well (Roosevelt, 1899, p. 319).

From his children and their friends using the south lawn as a baseball field to the “Tennis Cabinet”, the Roosevelt White House was always alive with activity (Roosevelt, 1913, p. 319). Apparently, it was not uncommon for young children to barge in during meetings to remind the President that he had promised to play baseball. When this occurred the President would excuse himself from the meeting and join the children in play for as many innings of baseball that he could afford before returning to the oval office. His excuse for leaving in the first place was that he had made a promise that he must keep (Miller, 1992). The vision of Roosevelt playing with children on the south lawn illustrates how much he enjoyed his life as President.

Roosevelt’s description of himself and the Tennis Cabinet also exemplifies his continual enjoyment while holding the office of President. “I do not think that I overstate the case when I say that most of the men who did the best work under me felt that ours was a partnership, that we all stood on the same level of purpose and service, and that it mattered not what position any of us held so long as in that position he gave the very best that was in him. We worked very hard, but I made a point of getting a couple of hours of each day for equally vigorous play. The men with whom I played, whom we laughingly called the ‘Tennis Cabinet’ ...”. This approach of allowing being the leader of the country to be fun was apparently effective. Roosevelt went on to say “At the end of my Administration, Mr. Bryce, the British Ambassador, told me that in a long life during which he had studied intimately the government of many different countries, he had never in any country seen a more eager, high-minded, and efficient set of public servants, men more useful and more creditable to their country, than the men then doing the work of the American Government in Washington and the field” (Roosevelt, 1913, p. 369-370). The “Tennis Cabinet” was given its name because the usual meeting place for the group was on the tennis court that President Roosevelt had installed behind the White House during his time in office (Miller, 1992, p. 415).

Presidential biographer William A. Degregorio, summed up Roosevelt's approach to being President, "Unlike many of his predecessors, he delighted in being President and was sorry to see his term end" (Degregorio, 1993, p. 373) Theodore Roosevelt always displayed continual enjoyment not just in fulfilling his purpose of being President, but in leading an active lifestyle as the President.

Penchant for Soaking Up Facts

Roosevelt's formative background impacted his thoughts about study and how it reflected individual character. He believed that the character of an individual was indicated by their study habits. He recalled a story that captured this thoughts regarding this topic in an article he wrote for *The Outlook*. Roosevelt had spoken to a Yale professor about a particular football player that he had known to previously apply to join the Yale team. "I told them not to take him, for he was slack in his studies, and my experience is that, as a rule, the man who is slack in their studies will be slack in his football work; it is character that counts in both" (Roosevelt, 1899, p. 381). In an article he wrote for *The American Boy*, Roosevelt again equated study to character, "I am no advocate of senseless and excessive cramming in studies, but a boy should work, and should work hard at his lessons---in the first place, for the sake of what he will learn, and in the next place, for the sake of the effect upon his own character of resolutely settling down to learn it" (Roosevelt, 1899, p.404).

As stated above, Roosevelt confirmed his penchant for study when writing on the subject after being elected President, "All this individual morality I was taught by the books I read at home..." (Roosevelt, 1913, p. 16). William Roscoe Thayer, who was one of Roosevelt's classmates at Harvard and later wrote a biography about him after he became President, remembered how he would drop into a classmates room looking for conversation, idly

pick up a book, and forgetting all about his host, quickly become immersed in it without any warning. Thayer confirmed that this quality is one that he possessed during his presidency (Miller, 1992).

Edmund Morris sights a quotation by Roosevelt that confirms his habitual study, "Reading for me is like a disease." Morris goes on to describe his receptiveness to information, "He succumbs to it so totally, on the heaving deck of the Presidential yacht in the middle of a cyclone, between whistle stops on a campaign trip, even while waiting for his carriage at the front door, that nothing short of a thump on the back will regain his attention. Asked to summarize the book he has been leafing through with such apparent haste, he will do so in minute detail, often quoting the actual text." (Morris, 1981, p.28).

As President, Roosevelt spent the first portion of his typical work day "sifting through articles from over 350 newspapers, magazines, and journals" (Miller, 1992, p. 418). Edmund Morris described his study while President as "plowing through mountains of state documents, memorizing whole chunks and leaving his desk bare of even a card by lunch time" (Morris, 1981, p. 17). Roosevelt affirmed that the purpose of such activity was to stay apprised of the mood and interests of the nation. As interesting as the total volume of the material Roosevelt studied during a day was how he studied. He would devour information, much in the same way a hungry man eats. He would read a page on both sides and immediately rip the page from the binding, crumple it up noisily, and discard it to the floor, never having interrupted his brisk pace of information consumption (Miller, 1992). Even something as physically passive as reading was made active by President Roosevelt.

In *African Game Trails*, Roosevelt's best selling book authored while on safari in Africa, Roosevelt remarked that he enjoyed the leisurely nights out on the plains because he had

time to read. Several times he passingly lamented that since being President he had not had enough time to read. In one instance, he spoke specifically of his study concerning lions (since he had planned and ultimately did experience lion hunting) in reading “the most thrilling book of true lion stories ever written” titled *The Man Eaters of Tsavo*, by Colonel Paterson (Roosevelt, 1910, p. 12). It must have been useful, since Roosevelt harvested nine lions during his African safari.

Developed as a child, refined as a young adult, habitualized as President, and seen to hold firm in retirement, it is apparent that Roosevelt had a penchant for soaking up facts through study.

Aggressive Informal Rhetoric

The Roosevelt Presidency is often remembered by his mode of communication. Considered a great orator in his time, Roosevelt described a political speech as if it were like a circus painting, to include broad strokes and bright colors. (A&E, 1996). Public political speeches were not only time he used aggressive informal rhetoric. Roosevelt employed such rhetoric in his personal communications as well. The most difficult task in researching examples of how he employed aggressive informal rhetoric is choosing only a few as feature examples of his proclivity to do so. For example, while facing opposition in the claim by Columbia that they maintained sovereignty over what would eventually be the Panama Canal, President Roosevelt referred to the situation: “Those contemptible little creatures in Bogota ought to understand how much they are jeopardizing things and imperiling their own future.” Three days later, Roosevelt commented after learning that the situation had progressed further and away from the directive he had proclaimed to be best: “We may have to give a lesson to those jack rabbits” (Pringle, 1931, p. 219).

Two classic examples of Roosevelt's affection for aggressive and informal rhetoric is found in his referral to the White House as the *bully pulpit* and his foreign policy solution known as *big stick diplomacy*. The "bully pulpit" can be defined as employing the high profile and focused nature of the Presidency to afford an individual the opportunity to voice their particular belief system with the assurance that it will be heard by many (Miller, 1992, p. 412). By setting himself and the Presidency apart from the rest of the U.S. government, as well as other countries, Roosevelt was aggressively and purposefully trying to gain the favor of anyone who was willing to listen. He realized that the key to politically pressuring decision makers was to appeal to the people they served. The fact that he used the bully pulpit so masterfully, reflects the type of charismatic power he possessed. In describing Roosevelt's effectiveness in this regard, G. Wallace Chessman commented, "Roosevelt had achieved as much as he had in federal legislation through a wise choice of objectives and a skillful application of power" (Chessman, 1961, p.156). All of this was made possible by his aggressive and informal rhetoric in effectively impacting those who listened.

Big stick diplomacy came about from a comment that Roosevelt made in reference to the Monroe Doctrine that America should take an active role in fulfilling the responsibility they had in policing the Western Hemisphere. Roosevelt was ardent in saying that "America would act in such a capacity only if it became evident that there was an inability or unwillingness to do justice at home and abroad that violated the rights of the United States or had invited foreign aggression." This position was capsulated when he revealed his philosophy by recalling some sound advice he claimed to have received earlier in life, "Speak softly and carry a big stick; you will go far." (Degregorio, 1993, p. 385). This was a thinly veiled threat not to invite the aggression of the United States and their apparently willing leader who had incorporated such rhetoric in his style as well as his view of the world.

Also war-like was Roosevelt's fight against corruption in the Post Office. He referred to this matter as "an ugly and necessary task" (Roosevelt, 1913, p. 384). The First Assistant Post Master General came to Roosevelt during his Presidency and reported that there was a lot of corruption in the Postal Department. However, he concluded his report by saying he did not think that the President could punish the corrupt people because of their political and business clout. Roosevelt was never one to shy from such a challenge. He appointed Joseph L. Bristol to the investigation that ultimately led to the exposure and punishment of those responsible for the corruption. Roosevelt concluded his description of what happened with a classic example of aggressive informal rhetoric, "A favorite war-cry in American political life has always been, 'turn the rascals out.' We made it evident that, as far as we were concerned, this war-cry was pointless; for we turned our own rascals out" (Roosevelt, 1913, p. 387).

Further examples of Roosevelt's aggressive informal rhetoric exist in the post-presidential era of his life as well. He was certainly not passive in describing the relationship he had experienced with the U.S. Congress. His account of this relationship describes an evolution of concerted effort on his part to include the Congress during the infancy of his Presidency and ultimately culminating in his deliberate exclusion of the legislative branch. This move necessitated that he use the afore mentioned bully pulpit as he went "over the heads of Senate and House leaders, to the people who were the masters of us both" (Roosevelt, 1913, p. 379) However, the real fights came when Congress questioned any Cabinet Secretary or Agency Director with the Roosevelt Administration either before or after confirmation. He took exception to anyone trying to control those he had picked to surround him as President. He described his reaction to such situations as calling for one of two courses of action: A President could either subscribe to the "Jackson-Lincoln" or the "Buchanan" course of action (Roosevelt, 1913, p. 378). In explaining the differences

he exemplified his proclivity for aggressive informal rhetoric and achieved his dual purpose of delivering backhanded commentary about both Congress and his Presidential successor (since he wrote on this topic prolifically after leaving office). "The course I followed, of regarding the executive as subject only to the people, and, under the Constitution, bound to serve the people, affirmatively in cases where the Constitution does not explicitly forbid to render the service, was substantially the course followed by both Andrew Jackson and Abraham Lincoln. Other honorable and well-meaning Presidents, such as James Buchanan, took the opposite and, as it seems to me, narrowly legalistic view that the President is the servant of Congress rather than the people, and can do nothing, no matter how necessary it be to act, unless the Constitution explicitly commands the action. Most able lawyers who are past middle age take this view, and so do large numbers of well-meaning, respectable citizens. My successor in office today took this, the Buchanan view of the President's power and duties" (Roosevelt, 1913, p. 378).

While concluding his thoughts about the presidency and Congress he returned to this subject and provided another example of how he employed aggressive informal rhetoric; "In addition, however, to the men who conscientiously believe in this course (Buchanan) from high although as I hold misguided, there are many men who appear to believe in it merely because it enables them to attack and to try to hamper, for partisan or personal reasons, and execute who they dislike. There are other men in whom, especially when they are themselves in office, practice adherence to the Buchanan principle represents a not well-thought-out devotion to an unwise course, but simple weakness of character and desire to avoid trouble and responsibility...Whether he is high-minded and wrongheaded or merely infirm of purpose, whether he means well feebly or is bound by a mischievous, misconception of powers and duty to the National government and of the President, the effect of his actions is the same. The President's duty is to act so that he himself and his subordinates shall be able to do efficient work for the people, and this efficient work he

and they cannot do if Congress is permitted to undertake the task of making up his mind for him as to how he shall perform what is clearly his sole duty.” (Roosevelt, 1913, p. 380-381).

As mentioned above, immediately after leaving office, Roosevelt went to Africa for over a year to hunt and collect specimens for the natural history portion of the Smithsonian Museum. While his decision to leave so quickly puzzled some of his contemporaries, it was the fact that he was going hunting that brought direct criticism. Roosevelt answered such criticism in the book he wrote about his experience as only Roosevelt would. The quote that appears in *African Game Trails*, serves as a final example of how Roosevelt used aggressive informal rhetoric; “Game butchery is as objectionable as any other form of wanton cruelty or barbary, but to protest against all hunting of game is a sign of softness of head, not soundness of heart” (Roosevelt, 1910, p.15).

Roosevelt’s manner and mode of communication fit perfectly with the use of aggressive informal rhetoric. Furthermore, his confidence in himself and his ability to make decisions as a leader allowed him to be overtly opinionated. This lent itself to language and behavior that a more cautious person would never dream of employing.

Decisiveness Without a Theory-Based Rationale

Roosevelt apparently believed that the key to decisiveness was a self-created absence of fear. He originally received this mode of operation concerning decision making by reading *Midshipman’s Easy* authored by Marryat in his youth. The idea was communicated between a fictional Captain of a British Man-of-War explaining to the hero of the story how to acquire the quality of fearlessness. Roosevelt took the idea to heart and transformed it into a way of making decisions. He summarized his view and philosophy on the matter, “...by acting as if I was not afraid I gradually ceased to be afraid. Most men can have the

same experience if they choose. They will first learn to bear themselves well in trial which they anticipate and which they school themselves in advance to meet. After a while the habit will grow on them, and they will behave well in sudden and unexpected emergencies which come upon them unawares” (Roosevelt, 1913, p. 54). Roosevelt clearly held that the absence of fear coupled with a total resolute to believe in his decisions as the principled or correct thing to do was all anyone needed. A theory-based rationale was not necessary. John Morton Blum confirms this notion in a description of Roosevelt, “...the convictions provided Roosevelt with a purpose distinct from power itself and, more important, with a foundation for the indispensable principles by which he attempted, at least, to behave” (Blum, 1954, p. 25). Roosevelt made decisions in this manner throughout his life. After funding and encouraging the Philippines to develop a self-governed social system, Roosevelt explained how he perceived the situation as requiring a simple decision without any explanation or rationale. “The bare recital of the facts is sufficient to show that we did our duty; what prouder title to honor can a nation have than to have done its duty? We have done our duty to ourselves, and we have done the higher duty of providing the civilization of mankind. The first essential of civilization is law. Anarchy is simply the handmaiden and forerunner of tyranny and despotism. Law and order enforced with justice and by strength lie at the foundations of civilization” (Roosevelt, 1899, p. p. 477). It is clear that in the absence of anyone else to make the decision, Roosevelt would gladly do and do so without any inner need to rationalize his thoughts or actions.

Many historical depiction’s of the impactful decisions made by Roosevelt are portrayed as if he made the decisions on the basis of his personal wanting or that in the absence of anyone else willing to make the decision, he would gladly step up and make the decision that he deemed correct. A classic example of this is recalled by Edmund Morris; Roosevelt had been of the mind to begin initiatives toward setting aside “millions of acres” of federal

lands for the purpose of environmental and wildlife conservation. With a deliberate absence of a theory-based rationale, Roosevelt stated, "Is there any law that will prevent me from declaring Pelican Island a Federal Bird Reservation?... Very well, then I so declare it!" (Morris, 1981, p.17). Fearless and resolute that it was the right thing to do, Roosevelt made his vision for Pelican Island a reality.

This single-minded decisiveness was evidenced shortly after replacing President McKinley in 1901 when Roosevelt initiated a lawsuit testing the legality of large comprehensive manufacturing corporations. Roosevelt held that this constituted a monopoly and was therefore unconstitutional. He further contended that it was not fair to average Americans that these large corporations have so much control over any aspect of their lives. Even though the Supreme Court had held eight years earlier that "a monopoly of manufacture was not a monopoly of commerce," Roosevelt pressed forward with the intention of curtailing the power of such large corporations (Pringle, 1931, p. 178). Such a move went directly against those that had been friends and supporters of President McKinley. As McKinley's successor, Roosevelt had been expected to go along with the policies of his predecessor. Going against convention, Roosevelt decided to act in this particular case, in what most perceived as behavior that proved he was biting the hand that fed him. He consulted with no one except Attorney General Philander Knox as he moved forward. When the case was over and Roosevelt had prevailed, he bragged "This decision, I caused to be annulled by the court that rendered it" (Pringle, 1931, p. 178). Again, he was not interested in anything other than carrying out his decision. This show of decisiveness disconsidered all advice and rejected the conventional theory that a President should always consult his advisors in the area in question.

Another example of Roosevelt's decisiveness concerning domestic policy and large corporations was when he arbitrarily decided to regulate large corporations through the

Interstate Commerce Commission. In Roosevelt's opinion, large corporations like Standard Oil (which he named specifically and often during this time period) were using the rail road system to transport their products across states and not paying any interstate commerce fees to the government. G. Wallace Chessman described the situation facing the President, "The nation's shippers and agrarians, chiefly in the South and West, were up in arms over discriminatory rate practices" (Chessman, 1961, p. 131). Roosevelt deemed this as harmful to the American public, but did not specify why until much later. Ultimately, it is believed, that he felt that by depriving the government of such revenue, these corporations were diminishing the greater public good, as well as creating a double-standard for themselves and the above mentioned industries that depended on the rail system to do business. However, he did not state his rationale for his decision to attack large corporations, he just did it. "On the interstate commerce business, which I regard as a matter of principle... I shall fight" (Chessman, 1961, p. 131). Without another word about the matter, Roosevelt took to doing just that and ultimately raised the fees proportionately and brought both large and small business into compliance with the interstate commerce regulations.

It was in the absence of clearly defined leadership roles that Roosevelt made the decision that would ultimately be regarded as his most notable contribution to the world. That contribution was the oversight and completion of the Panama Canal. His decisiveness was unwavering, even in the face of vocal opposition from the American and world community. At the center of the controversy surrounding the building of a canal to link the western with eastern trade routes was the nation of Columbia. The Colombians attempted to oppose the United States by claiming that they had sovereignty over the canal. A. M. Beaupr'e, the American minister to Colombia, reported that local newspapers contained "bitter hostility toward what they represent as the attempt of a stronger nation to take advantage of Colombia and rob her of one of the most valuable sources of wealth which

the world contains. If the proposed convention were to be submitted to the free opinion of the people it would not pass” (Pringle, 1931, p. 218). The presence of opposition to Roosevelt’s decision to keep America in oversight capacity was not just abroad. Many members of Congress railed against the President, even though they had no real power or authority by which to impact his decisions on the matter. In describing this situation, Henry F. Pringle wrote, “But Roosevelt had no patience with such theoretical objections” (Pringle, 1931, p. 218). Roosevelt handled the situation with decisive actions that enabled the United States to remain in charge. After the canal was completed he described how he made the decisions he did, “By far the most important action I took in foreign affairs was related to the Panama Canal... Here again there was much accusation about my having acted in an unconstitutional manner... and at different stages of the affair, believers in a do-nothing policy denounced me as having ‘usurped authority’--which meant, that when nobody else could or would exercise efficient authority. I exercised it” (Roosevelt, 1913, p. 526).

Decisiveness is tied directly to confidence. The more Roosevelt got his way, the more decisive he became. The more decisive he became, the less he gave thought to theory before making decisions.

As outlined above, these findings clearly indicate that Theodore Roosevelt’s presidency contains many examples of evidence that would support Barber’s prescribed indicators of an active-positive president. Furthermore, Barber’s description of an active-positive President as wanting to “achieve results” is evidenced in each example of how Roosevelt displayed: continual enjoyment in being president; a penchant for soaking up facts through study; an aggressive and informal form of rhetoric; and the ability to be decisive without a theory based rationale (Barber, 1992, p. 10).

There are also some examples of instances that are indicative of Roosevelt's character, but do not necessarily indicate evidence that would support the deterministic notion that he was an active-positive individual as prescribed by Barber. Such examples include: How he resembled his father in his love for life; his ability to confidently self-rationalize his decisions as president; his ability to react with impeccable timing as he let events unfold as he wanted them to according to his prescribed course while he was president; and of course, his drive to do and be better in every situation he encountered as president. It was as if these things were completely natural and unforced. Roosevelt himself counted such attributes as blessings without any explainable origins. Such attributes are not counter to Barber's conceptualizations, but they are also not accounted for by Barber. This point becomes more important as one forms conclusions about this body of research.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSION

In examining Theodore Roosevelt in the context of Barber's conceptualizations of an active-positive president, a sense that Roosevelt is Barber's best chance at application to his methodology is unmistakable. Barber affirms this notion by stating that Roosevelt is an active-positive president in his book, *Presidential Character*. However, after doing so, he does not expound on any conclusions about the 26th President. My interest in Theodore Roosevelt, as well as James David Barber, and the possibility of a application between the two, is what drove a two-part research problem. First, was Theodore Roosevelt an active-positive president? Second, does Barber's methodology explain why Theodore Roosevelt was an active-positive president? In testing this problem, my research was intended to discover if Barber's claim that character, world view, and style is deterministic of an individual's presidential behavior. Evidence was sought from Roosevelt's childhood, adolescence, young adulthood, and presidency, that supported, did not support, and/or appeared to have no bearing on his behavior.

As the study developed, the research evolved into a preponderance of evidence argument. The less-than-specific nature of Barber's conceptualizations and the biographical accounts of Roosevelt's life necessitated such an approach. During the process of determining how well Barber's conceptualizations and Roosevelt's life fit with each other, it becomes clear that a direct application was not possible, hence the preponderance of evidence argument. By accepting this approach, the research evidence can be presented in its entirety without apprehension or temptation to pick and choose examples from Roosevelt's life that apply to Barber's conceptualizations. With the information presented, one must determine if

there is a clear preponderance of evidence that supports Barber or that does not support Barber.

If there is evidence that does not support Barber, one must determine if it is impactful enough to offset any support of Barber, or if there is an alternative explanation. For example, Roosevelt and his biographers made concerted efforts to point out that Theodore Roosevelt Sr. was also someone who enjoyed his life thoroughly. Recognizing this, is it possible that Roosevelt's life-long disposition was genetic in a physical and/or behavioral sense? Another piece of outlying evidence concerned Roosevelt's training regiment during his childhood and adolescent and how there is no indication that he actually enjoyed this regiment. Is it possible that he only exercised out of obligation or because he felt pressure from his family, rather than because he enjoyed the activity? The final example for this point was Roosevelt's behavior when his wife and mother died. Although his loss was unmistakable, his reaction could be perceived as running from his feelings (rather than displaying flexibility and adaptivity). However, one could also argue that he displayed flexibility by changing his profession from a politician to a reasonably successful cowboy.

In addition to the evidence that does not really apply to Barber, a discrepancy also exists in the employment of Barber's conceptualizations in that they are both beneficial and detrimental. For instance, his conceptualizations effectively allow a researcher to move past the idiosyncratic elements of each individual president and permit concentration on the main points of comparison, which center around character as it produces behavior. The recognition of Barber's outlined behaviors is what makes the methodology applicable, yet Barber's methodology is so simple that it creates the paradox of being a benefit and detriment at the same time.

Furthermore, Barber falls woefully short in recognizing intangible characteristics as having a direct bearing on the success of an individual. This research uncovered four such intangible examples that can generally be considered to have an impact on any individual's life. For example, the considerable wealth of the Roosevelt family had a direct bearing on many of the applicable behavioral indicators. Second, each biographer, including Roosevelt himself made multiple mentions of the fate-like timing that his life exhibited. Third, this timing lent a great deal of momentum to accomplish the goals he set for himself and for the United States. Finally, Roosevelt was clearly someone who was self-actualized in his behavior. This characteristic alone was based on an impressive self-confidence. Although Barber's conceptualizations are not responsible for the Roosevelt family wealth, Roosevelt's timing, momentum, or self-actualized confidence, he also does acknowledge that such intangible factors exist.

Moving on, the classic argument against Barber's methodology is that it assumes too much and substantiates too little. Although this is true, when comparing extraordinary individuals (as all presidents are) one must put aside individual characteristics and concentrate on the more general and ultimately more comparable characteristics. The problem with this progression is that in ignoring the less significant characteristics, a connection between such characteristics and the larger, more significant characteristics might be overlooked. Such a point can be implemented positively or negatively in terms of Barber, by either strengthening or diminishing his conceptualizations. Regardless of the application, Barber does not indicate any recognition of this possibility.

One of the most frustrating aspects of this research is Barber's absolute lack of clarity regarding how character originates in relation to world view and style. Barber lists the three personality indicators only to leave the researcher or reader to rationalize their origin in relation to one another. Another shortfall in Barber's conceptualizations is the

ambiguousness of activity/passivity and positive/negative as quadrants that produce character classifications. Again, the researcher is left to find more information in terms of what forms such distinctions. Since these indicators are from the quadrants that constitute character types, they should be more specifically outlined. Finally, the most troubling problem encountered was Barber's failure to give definitive substance to world view and style. He lists them as indicators and never returns to them for further explanation. In relation to this point, Barber again fails to provide definitive substance in the childhood, adolescent, and early adulthood life periods. Once again, the researcher is left to make assumptions, which in turn prevents consistent, unified conclusions.

To easily identify and build a foundation of evidence, the three elements of personality character, world view and style, (as they relate to individual behavior) were separated and explained in accordance with Barber's timeline of childhood, adolescence, and young adulthood. What was not identified, however, was how world view and style manifested in Roosevelt's presidency. Barber's methodology assumes that if the prescribed characteristics existed during the early part of an individual's life, then they exist throughout that person's life. In the introduction I attempted to provide a better understanding of world view and style, by developing a clearer approach to linking these two modes of expression in the context of the active-positive typology during an individual's formative years. However it did not find application during the presidential years. By better understanding these two modes of expression one can see how they manifest during an individual's adult life better.

The error in Barber's logic is that there is no way to test world view and style in the presidential years. As also mentioned in the introduction, he not only does not allow for a way to test world view, but there is no way to even identify it in the presidential years. As for style he does mention that there are three distinctions (interpersonal relations,

homework, and rhetoric), but there is no allowance for a way to measure this mode of expression. I feel that one can assume by a president's actions where he might fit according to the above mentioned distinctions, but again, there is no prescribed way to measure for style offered by Barber. This point further underscores the major flaw in Barber's methodology when he included world view and style as personality elements, but failed to incorporate a way to measure them into what ultimately became his conceptualizations. It is my belief that world view and style are important, and that Barber's specific research question includes them by implication. However, this is not enough to make these two personality elements verifiable in Theodore Roosevelt's presidential years.

Having listed the negative aspects of Barber's conceptualizations (for the sake of reference as they relate to Roosevelt and this research), I am compelled to conclude that the preponderance of evidence produced in this study indicates that Barber finds application in Roosevelt's life.

Based on the preponderance of evidence in the findings, the answer to the first question outlined in the research problem is "yes." Barber requires an active-positive childhood which displayed behavior that shows "a congruence between being very active and the enjoyment of it." This leads to an indication of high self-esteem, which would ultimately lead to success in the context of the environment that surrounds the child (Barber, 1992, p. 9). As shown in the findings, a comprehensive view of Roosevelt's childhood contains a preponderance of evidence of characteristics and examples of behavior indicative of character development as explained by Barber.

Second, Barber requires an active-positive adolescence to display the behavior of an individual seeing themselves as growing toward “well-defined personal goals, not satisfied with where they are, but focused on what they might be in the future” (Barber, 1992, p. 9). Again, as shown in the findings, there are numerous accounts of how Roosevelt’s adolescence contains characteristics and examples of behavior that is indicative of world view as outlined by Barber. Barber also requires an active-positive young adulthood to display behavior that is marked by an individual’s ability to use “flexibility” and “adaptivity,” to adapt to situations while placing value on productiveness (Barber, 1992, p. 9-10). As shown in the findings, Roosevelt’s young adulthood contains many characteristics and examples of behavior that is indicative of style as outlined by Barber.

Finally, an active-positive presidency required a more specific four-part question for this research. Those distinct characteristics were: (1) a continual enjoyment in being president; (2) a penchant for soaking up facts through study; (3) an aggressive and informal form of rhetoric; and (4) the ability to be decisive without much theory-based rationale (Barber, 1992). As indicated in the findings, there is a clear preponderance of evidence that supports the conclusion that Roosevelt’s presidency contained numerous characteristics and examples of such behaviors.

A large portion of the evidence indicates that Theodore Roosevelt’s life supports Barber’s conceptualizations. The preponderance of characteristics and examples that exist through Roosevelt’s childhood, adolescence, young adulthood, and presidency are interpretable as the behavioral indicators that Barber requires for an accurate prediction of an active-positive president. After compiling this research, I conclude that Barber’s methodology fulfilled its promise to explain why Theodore Roosevelt was an active-positive president. However, I am compelled to state that I do not advocate the wholesale application of Barber’s conceptualizations. While Barber finds application with

Roosevelt's life, such conclusions only assert that Barber conceptualizations are applicable to Roosevelt's life, and are not indicative that other applications would exist where any other president is concerned.

Furthermore, this research illustrates that character as a term is both normative and descriptive. The use of the term in this study is employed via both modes of expression. This study has left me intrigued with the idea that not only does everyone possess character, but that character as a description is often associated with what is desirable and righteous. However, a categorical definition in either mode of expression is difficult, if not impossible to ascertain. Whether one attempts to examine the content of an individual's character through psychology, or some by other means, it is a safe conclusion that character is somehow important to the presidency.

Having completed this study my thoughts about the value and limitations of Barber's conceptualizations are mixed. My first inclination is to recall Micheal Nelson's thoughts about Barber: "Barber's theories may be seriously flawed, but they are serious theories. For all of their limitations, they offer one of the more significant contributions a scholar can make; an unfamiliar, but useful way of looking at a familiar thing that we no longer see very clearly. In Barber's case, the familiar thing is the American Presidency, and the unfamiliar way of looking at it is through the lenses of psychology" (Nelson, 1998, p. 201). On the other hand, I have a number of specific concerns. For example, Barber's personality indicators are far too vague to be effective. I would suggest to anyone employing Barber with other presidents to devise a way to measure world view and style during the presidential years. My idea about linking these two indicators in the formative years constitutes a good start, but there is at least one step missing before the concept finds relevance in the methodology. However, once Barber's timeline from childhood

through the presidency is connected I believe that Barber's conceptualizations will be less deterministic and ultimately more effective.

On the same point, I found myself concerned with the fact that Barber completely ignored decision making as it relates to the formative years of an individual's life. I doubt many people would argue against the point that the choices made early in a person's life have a direct bearing on their future. Implicit in decision making is the above mentioned timing. This is not allowed for anywhere in Barber's conceptualizations. Something about decision making and timing during the childhood adolescence, and young adulthood life periods is essential. My final suggestion to anyone employing Barber to other presidents is to compare at least two presidents while applying the methodology. This would allow research to reveal the adaptivity or limitations of Barber's conceptualizations. If indeed someone endeavors to employ Barber's conceptualizations I hope that they choose as interesting a test subject for themselves as Theodore Roosevelt has been for me. The more interesting the president, the more fun the research.

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Doctor of Education

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BARBER TO THEODORE ROOSEVELT'S LIFE

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Education: Graduated from Cibola High School in the spring 1989. Received an Bachelor of Arts degree in Political Science from the University of Central Oklahoma in the spring of 1993. Received a Master of Education degree in community college education with an emphasis in political science from the University of Central Oklahoma in the spring of 1994. Completed the requirements for a Doctor of Education degree in college teaching with an emphasis in political science from Oklahoma State University in May of 1999.

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