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Dyadic Similarity of the Superintendent-Principal Interpersonal Relationship, Principal's Job Satisfaction, and Subordinate's Performance Evaluation

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**DYADIC SIMILARITY OF THE SUPERINTENDENT-PRINCIPAL
INTERPERSONAL RELATIONSHIP, PRINCIPAL'S JOB
SATISFACTION, AND SUBORDINATE'S
PERFORMANCE EVALUATION**

by

Richard William Drury

**A Dissertation
Submitted to the
Faculty of The Graduate College
in partial fulfillment of the
requirements for the
Degree of Doctor of Education
Department of Educational Leadership**

**Western Michigan University
Kalamazoo, Michigan
August 1993**

**DYADIC SIMILARITY OF THE SUPERINTENDENT-PRINCIPAL
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Richard William Drury, Ed.D.

Western Michigan University, 1993

Due to mounting school improvement demands, the role of the principal has increasingly received pressure throughout the past decade. Although frequently referred to as the catalyst for effective school change, few empirical studies exist addressing organizational variables influencing this key administrative position. It has strongly been suggested that the interpersonal relationship principals share with their superintendent may affect the principal's job satisfaction and performance evaluation.

The purpose of this study was to examine the situational effect of dyadic similarity on the superintendent-principal interpersonal relationship. Specifically, the study explored the relationship of managerial, dyadic similarity and subordinate outcomes. According to similarity theory, individuals are attracted to and respond more favorably to those most like themselves. Thus, the reasoning that the greater the dyadic similarity, the greater the principal's ratings for job satisfaction and performance evaluation. An additional variable examined by this study was the effect of specific personality characteristics, locus of control, on the primary similarity-outcomes relationship.

The target population was the 525 K-12 Michigan school district administrative dyads, from which a random sample of 104 superintendent-high school principal pairs were taken. A mailed questionnaire was used to collect data from which the independent variable, similarity, was correlated by the Pearson product-moment correlational coefficient, with the dependent variables, job satisfaction-performance evaluations. Results indicated that there was weak support for the relationship of dyadic similarity and subordinate job satisfaction. The results did not substantiate a relationship between similarity and subordinate performance ratings. Further, there was little support for administrative personality characteristics, that is, internality-externality, affecting the similarity subordinate outcomes relationship.

It thus appears that while there may be aspects of the similarity variable that interacts with subordinate outcomes, this study was unable to uncover a relationship of substantial magnitude. However, although not entirely supportive, there is implied the need for further examination of the specific personality characteristics of educational leaders and the potential to "match" dyadic pairs to maximize organizational outcomes.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Background

Leadership Effectiveness

The search for factors influencing leadership effectiveness has fascinated researchers for many decades. Concern for employee and organizational productivity has been a catalyst for a generation of studies in the areas of job satisfaction, leadership style, and human motivation. The successful manipulation of human resources to enhance organizational effectiveness has long been a goal of production managers. Drucker (1974) saw the "task of the manager is to make effective whatever strength there is in [the] resources. . . above all, in the human resources . . . and neutralize whatever there is of weakness" (p. 398). Aldag and Brief (cited in Gillo, 1982/1983) voiced concern for the "effective utilization of human resources via the integration of individual needs with organizational goals" (p. 1). Gillo, in a study of leader behavior and job satisfaction, stated that "organizations have attempted to create motivational situations in the workplace, and thereby increase employee productivity and satisfaction" (p. 2). The present study dealt with one more aspect of leadership effectiveness as it relates to employee job satisfaction and perceived productivity: the interpersonal relationship within managerial superordinate-subordinate dyads.

Specifically, the purpose of this study was to investigate the relationship between interpersonal-attitudinal similarity within the superordinate-subordinate dyad, supervisory perceptions of productivity, and subordinate perceptions of satisfaction with supervision.

A secondary aspect of this research was an examination of the locus of control variable as a mediator of the relationship between attitudinal similarity and satisfaction with supervision.

Early discussion concerned with leadership influencing employee productivity and job satisfaction focused on the individual characteristics of the leader. Physical, motivational, and personality traits were identified as factors in effective leadership in studies by Stogdill (1948). However, this approach to effective management soon lost favor due to inconsistent supportive research and the fact that it ignored the role of the subordinate. Schneider and Bartlett (1968) conceptually argued the strengths of individual traits versus situational variables as factors affecting leadership effectiveness. Throughout the 1960s various authors took positions relative to the "Great Man Doctrine," where a finite group of traits define leadership, and the "Group-Mind Doctrine," proposing that the situation determines leadership effectiveness (Ruda, 1970). Spitzer and McNamara (1964) postulated that the "Interactionist" theory, combining both personal and situational variables, best addressed the leadership issue. In 1945, researchers at Ohio State University began the controversy when they successfully isolated two dimensions of leadership behavior, consideration and initiating structure, thus changing the conceptual foundations of leadership research from a trait based approach to a behavior base. Korman (cited in Ruda, 1970), in review of

Ohio State studies, suggested that there may be other situational variables which would affect consideration and initiating structure such as organizational climate and the wishes and expectancies of subordinates and superiors. Fiedler (1965) further altered views of leadership by proposing a Contingency Model which addressed the relationship between personal and situational variables. He attempted to define the situation where one type of leadership proved best and those situations where the other type was superior. Fiedler proposed that either a relationship-oriented style or a task-oriented style would work best dependent upon three situational variables: (1) the affective relationship between the leader and his subordinate, (2) the structure of the task, and (3) positional power. Later studies by Blake and Mouton (1964), Hersey and Blanchard (1969), and House and Mitchell (1974) expanded the success of situational leadership.

The Path-Goal Theory of leadership described by House and Mitchell (1974) suggested four leadership styles: (1) directive, (2) supportive, (3) participative, and (4) achievement-oriented. The Path-Goal Theory, unlike Fielder's (1965) Contingency Model, suggested that these four styles are used by the same leader in different situations. It also proposed that the leader is the key individual in bringing about improved subordinate motivation, satisfaction, and performance. Stogdill (1974) also suggested that the relationship between leadership styles and performance was dependent upon the interaction of leader behavior with the task of the subordinate's characteristics. Weed, Mitchell, and Moffitt (1976), in a study of leadership style, subordinate personality, and predictors of performance and satisfaction, expressed

the position that "the field of leadership has evolved from a simple analysis of traits that characterize effective leaders to a far more complex view in which effective leadership behavior is seen as dependent on a number of situational factors" (p. 58).

Job Satisfaction

Vroom (1964), in studies of job satisfaction, suggested that personal and situational variables were important for employee job satisfaction. Vroom stated:

Neither of these assumptions . . . one based on situational and the other on personality variables . . . is likely to enable us to proceed very far in our understanding of the causes of job satisfaction. Job satisfaction must be assumed to be the result of the operation of both situational and personality variables. It is only through simultaneous study of these two sets of factors that the complex nature of their interaction can be revealed. (p. 173)

Job satisfaction in America has received much attention beginning with early investigations concerned with improving productivity among lower-level employees. Locke (1969) identified the physical-economic school of thought based on Frederick Taylor's scientific management views which saw satisfaction as a result of the physical and economic factors affecting employees. Early studies were concerned with improving employee satisfaction with the management assumption that satisfied workers would be more productive (Bacharach & Mitchell, 1983; Friesen, Holdaway, & Rice, 1983; Locke, 1976). Lawler (cited in Friesen et al., 1983) argued the opposite position. He believed that more productive workers actually tend to have greater satisfaction. Initially, studies focused on lower order needs, physical and security factors, and

were concerned with meeting these primary needs with the management goal of improved production (Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983). Employees were viewed by management as indolent, unambitious, and dishonest (McGregor, 1960). It was assumed that only Maslow's (1954) lower order needs were necessary to satisfy employees. However, Porter (1961) and Slocum (1971), relating need satisfaction to job performance, found that higher order needs are more closely related to top manager's performance than for lower managerial personnel.

In 1924, Mayo, while conducting productivity studies at the Western Electric Hawthorne plant, discovered alternative concepts of supervision and group processes in relation to job satisfaction. Often referred to as the "Hawthorne Studies" this social school of thought perceived job satisfaction as a function of human relations (Young & Davis, 1983). Hoy and Miskel (1982) viewed job satisfaction as a sum of all the feelings individuals have about their work. "Expectancy Theory" extended these views by interpreting that an individual's expectations of the job are important determinants of job satisfaction (Friesen et al., 1983; Miner, 1980; Vroom, 1964). Vroom (cited in Friesen et al., 1983) identified attitudes toward the following six variables as being common to studies of job satisfaction: (1) supervision, (2) the work group, (3) job content, (4) wages, (5) promotional opportunities, and (6) hours of work.

Herzberg (cited in Hersey & Blanchard, 1969) examined satisfaction along the dimensions of hygiene factors, dissatisfiers, and motivating factors, satisfiers. Herzberg's concept states that job satisfaction may be related to factors within and outside the job, or intrinsic and

extrinsic factors. The factors described as motivators include achievement, recognition, work itself, responsibility, and advancement. Extrinsic or hygiene factors include policy and administration, interpersonal relations, supervision, salary, working conditions, status, possibility of growth, and personal life. However, Young and Davis (1983) cast doubt on Herzberg's dual factor job satisfaction continuum with information from a study of public school superintendents. Results of this study indicate that job satisfaction-dissatisfaction represents bi-polar positions on a single continuum. Schmidt (1976) identified the following seven factors as being relevant to school principal's job satisfaction: (1) work itself, (2) occupational status and prestige, (3) interaction with district administration, (4) interaction with teachers, (5) interaction with students, (6) salary and benefits, and (7) working conditions. Iannone (1973) stated that principals have two dominant needs: achievement and recognition for achievement. One primary area of dissatisfaction was identified as "poor relationships with superintendents or other superordinates" (p. 261).

Leadership Style

Throughout much of the earlier research the prevailing theme is that an intricate combination of factors are necessary to generate employee satisfaction. Simple solutions are not enough to satisfy workers and increase organizational effectiveness. Studies by Halpin and Winer (1957/1982) and Blake and Mouton (1964) suggest that a quadratic leadership model emphasizing high consideration and high task orientation is the most effective method of managing employees. These

theorists further explained that managers displaying low consideration and low task orientation will be less effective. Reddin (cited in Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983) and Hersey and Blanchard (cited in Sergiovanni & Starratt, 1983) expanded the quadratic model and suggested that the best leadership style is dependent upon the maturity and situation of the employee.

Despite the many theories and research studies conducted regarding job satisfaction and leadership styles, very little examination has occurred relative to the impact of leader behavior and attitudes on satisfaction and effectiveness of middle managers. "What work that has been done suggests that positive leader behavior and attitudes predict satisfaction and that negative behavior and attitudes predict dissatisfaction" (Bacharach & Mitchell, 1983, p. 103). Additional research in management theory states that employees with high satisfaction will function better than those with high dissatisfaction (Lazarsfeld, 1963). Stogdill (1974) found that different kinds of behavior by leaders produce different effects on followers.

Of all the people with whom employees interact, certainly one of the most prominent is their supervisor. Satisfaction with supervisor has been a primary dependent variable in many studies. Fewer studies, however, have examined the impact of leader behavior and attitudes on satisfaction. (Bacharach & Mitchell, 1983, p. 103)

Definition of Satisfaction

Part of the difficulty in understanding job satisfaction has been the problem of agreement of a workable definition. Lawler (1973) defined facet satisfaction as, "people's affective reaction to particular aspects of

their jobs and overall job satisfaction as a person's affective to his total work role" (p. 63). Locke (1969) saw job satisfaction and dissatisfaction to be "a function of the perceived relationship between what one wants from one's job and what one perceives it is offering" (p. 316). Asbaugh (1983) identified four approaches to job satisfaction: (1) fulfillment theory, where job satisfaction is seen as varying directly and proportionately with the extent to which those needs of an individual worker satisfiable in a job situation are actually satisfied; (2) discrepancy theory, where satisfaction is determined by the differences between desired outcome levels; (3) equity theory, where either the actual outcomes a person receives and some other under-reward or over-reward can lead to dissatisfaction; and (4) two-factor theory, where job factors can be classified according to whether these factors contribute primarily to satisfaction or to dissatisfaction. How these definitions of job satisfaction relate to superordinate leadership style, subordinate job satisfaction, and organizational effectiveness is the issue for consideration. Argyris (1972) observed that facets such as supervisory style may be so dissatisfying that they can cause an intrinsically satisfied employee to leave an organization.

Statement of the Problem

There has been tremendous research conducted to determine the relationship between a teacher's job satisfaction and the principal's leadership style, but very little information exists relating the effects that the superintendent's leadership style has upon the job satisfaction and performance evaluation of public school principals. "In recent decades,

job satisfaction has been the theme of numerous studies in organizations, although the job satisfaction of leaders has not been studied frequently" (Friesen et al., 1983, p. 36). Interestingly, many articles have addressed teacher satisfaction and have repeatedly suggested that principals employ participatory, high consideration, high task leadership styles. "As Halpin (1966) points out, consideration not initiating structure, should be the dominant leadership style in education" (Knopp, 1981, p. 4). "Principals who are highly considerate have teachers who are also moderately satisfied with their jobs and highly satisfied with their principal's leadership style" (Knopp, 1981, p. 11). Fascinatingly, the research literature displays great concern with how principals need to manage teachers' job satisfaction to improve organizational success, but very little concern is demonstrated regarding the principal's job satisfaction. "Little attention has been paid, however, to the situation confronting educational administrators and their attitudes toward their jobs" (Bacharach & Mitchell, 1983, p. 101).

The need to examine job satisfaction and performance evaluation of administrators in relation to the specific characteristics of their immediate supervisor has certainly been overlooked. "Although a number of studies have been carried out on the need satisfaction connected with various types of workers' jobs, very few have concentrated on management jobs" (Porter, 1961, p. 1). Friesen, Holdaway, and Rice (1984) stated that "further study is still needed to examine the importance of satisfaction for the effectiveness of the principal and more importantly for the effectiveness of the school" (p. 170).

The importance of administrators' job satisfaction may be viewed from two perspectives. The more common perspective relates to the role of administrators increasing job satisfaction for their subordinates. The second relates to the feeling of satisfaction that administrators themselves experience. (Friesen et al., 1983, p. 36)

The absence of research on administrator job satisfaction is becoming increasingly significant as "principals highly dissatisfied with their roles are vacating the position too frequently to maintain educational stability and school effectiveness" (Herlihy & Herlihy, 1980, p. 7).

Schmidt, conducting a study involving administrators in Chicago, found that achievement, recognition, and advancement were perceived to be the major determinants of these subjects' overall satisfaction. Whereas interpersonal relations with subordinates, policy and administration, interpersonal relations with superiors, and interpersonal relations with peers were perceived to be the major determinants of their overall dissatisfaction. (Friesen et al., 1983, p. 40)

Schmidt (1976) in a study of secondary school administrators indicated that boards of education and administrators should give greater consideration to personnel problems within their management teams. Interpersonal relations with subordinates, peers, and superiors were a major force producing job dissatisfaction. Koff, Laffey, Olson, and Cichon (1981), in a study of school administrators, identified disagreement with supervisors and central administration as the greatest causes of stress among principals. English, Francis, and Schmunk (1982), in a study of principals, stated that it was a "rare manager who did not report perceptions that board members and some superintendents viewed them with attitudes ranging from suspicion to downright antagonism" (p. 97). Herlihy and Herlihy (1980), in a study of educational leadership, found that most of the effective principals were not planning to stay in the principalship and that principals felt the pressures were not worth the

rewards. Less than one in three principals viewed the position as a career position. Interaction with district administrators has repeatedly been identified as one of the seven most important factors in overall principal work satisfaction (Friesen et al., 1983).

At a time when local, state, and national leaders are demanding greater accountability and leadership from America's school administrators, greater numbers of principals are abandoning the role for opportunities in less pressure, more satisfying roles (Brown, 1980). Studies show that there has been a steady decline in the autonomy and power of the principal's position and this has led to job dissatisfaction (DeLeonibus & Thomson, 1979; N. A. Johnson & Holdaway, 1991; Johnston, Yeakey, & Winter, 1981). One major factor repeatedly mentioned in declining job satisfaction of administrators has been the interpersonal relationship principals have with central office administration (Beranis, 1981; DeLeonibus & Thomson, 1979; Friesen et al., 1984; Hunt & Liebscher, 1973; Koff et al., 1981; Schmidt, 1977; Valenzi & Dessler, 1978).

Principals have been given excessive duties to care for the maintenance and development of staff satisfaction and in return have received very little consideration from teachers' unions, school boards, or district superintendents (Brimm, 1983; Gmelch & Sharratt, 1990; Johnston et al., 1981; Wiggins, 1988). As a result of relational neglect and task disinvolvement, many administrators are quitting their positions and seeking more satisfying work elsewhere. The decline of the principalship is especially unfortunate as studies have often suggested a positive relationship between effective schools and effective principals (DeLeonibus & Thomson, 1979). Why are effective principals leaving

their positions? Bennis (cited in Friesen et al., 1983) wrote that "principals are viewed as isolated sole boundary persons negotiating between external forces and internal constituents" (p. 36). Principals' higher order needs, self-esteem and self-actualization, are not being met. Porter (1961) found that the highest order needs of self-actualization is the most critically deficient perceived need of middle management. Principals are dissatisfied with relational interaction within the organization and decreasing task significant assignments (Friesen et al., 1983). This attitude is directly related to the principal's dissatisfaction with immediate supervision from the central office (Bacharach & Mitchell, 1983; Dorminy & Brown, 1982).

The role of the principal has repeatedly been identified as the significant catalyst in the development and maintenance of effective schools (Boyer, 1986; Hallinger, Murphy, Weil, Mesa, & Mitman, 1983; Lounsbury, 1983; MacPhail-Wilcox & Guth, 1983; Sapone, 1983; Shoemaker & Fraser, 1981; Weller, 1985). However, there has been a striking absence of research to assist in understanding the motivation and satisfaction of people in the principal's position (Bacharach & Mitchell, 1983; Porter, 1961; Schmidt, 1976). It is especially important during the period of high administrative turnover that identification should begin of the significant aspects of this highly influential position. Current literature related to principal job satisfaction and effectiveness is alarmingly weak, but does suggest the importance of interpersonal relationships. Bacharach and Mitchell (1983) stated that "a study that utilized matched pairs and focused more on the interaction between the superintendent and principal would enhance the understanding of the

dissatisfaction of educational administration" (p. 123).

The importance of this study was its examination of leadership styles and interpersonal similarity of two levels of management, a superordinate-subordinate dyadic relationship, as it related to the job satisfaction and performance evaluation of middle managers. Also within this review was the study of the effects of the personality variable, locus of control, as it mediated the effects of similarity. Obviously, there have been many studies conducted on the effects of both similarity and leadership style; however, most of these investigations have been lab, not field, settings and have not involved the study of multi-levels of management (Nieva, 1976).

Characteristically, studies of employee satisfaction and situational management have focused on the general, large work group subordinate population and have not studied the dyadic relationship of the middle and upper management. Pulakos and Wexley (1983) indicated that "the characteristics of people who are most influenced by perceptual similarity in their ratings of others should be investigated" (p. 138). Wexley, Alexander, Greenawalt, and Couch (1980) added that "moderating effects of such variables as subordinate self-esteem, manager span of control, and managerial style should be investigated" (p. 329). Thus, the importance of studying the locus of control of both superordinate and subordinate as it related to the similarity factor. At this time there seem to be no studies which have examined the actual and perceived similarity of management style, as moderated by the locus of control, within a managerial dyad as a basis for subordinate satisfaction with supervision and effectiveness.

The major objective of the study was to determine the relationship between superordinate-subordinate attitudinal leadership style similarity and the dimensions of job satisfaction and performance evaluations of subordinates as moderated by the personality variable, locus of control. The independent variable, similarity of leadership style, was measured by determining the degree of similarity, both actual and perceived, along the consideration-initiating structure continuum of leadership; the dimensions of the dependent variables, job satisfaction and performance effectiveness, were measured by the aspects of satisfaction with work, satisfaction with supervision, and superordinate perceptions of subordinate effectiveness. The personality variable, locus of control, along the continuum of internality-externality, served as a situational factor which moderated the relationship between the independent variable, leadership style similarity, and the dependent variables, job satisfaction and research performance effectiveness.

Overview of the Study

Throughout current literature relating managerial satisfaction-dissatisfaction to organizational effectiveness, the emphasis has been placed on situational aspects of leadership and the importance of the interpersonal relationship within managerial dyads. The present study attempted to investigate one additional situational variable within the managerial relationship: the degree of similarity between a subordinate manager and his or her superordinate.

Runyon (1973) and Durand and Nord (1976) suggested the need for the renewed study of personality in the leadership process and

especially in relation to management styles. Attitudinal similarity within the management dyad is a powerful, but over-looked, force. Considering the extensive literature relating the importance of employee job satisfaction to overall organizational effectiveness, the importance of interpersonal relationships in middle management satisfaction, and the absence of meaningful research regarding middle manager's satisfaction, it seems obvious that in the study of organizational effectiveness that one must begin examining the interpersonal, relational similarity between subordinate and upper management.

Research has viewed the subordinate manager as the key variable in organizational restructuring, yet very little empirical data exist regarding this highly significant management position. In an attempt to better comprehend the importance of this key managerial position, it was relevant to examine the dyadic, superordinate-subordinate, relationship.

Regarding theoretical and research findings previously cited, it was believed that the greater the attitudinal similarity between the superordinate and the subordinate the more reinforcing and validating the relationship. Thus similarity will lead to reciprocal liking and overall improved employee relations and higher job satisfaction. Therefore, it was hypothesized that increased similarity, with consensual validation and reinforcement occurring, would result in increased subordinate job satisfaction and superordinate performance evaluations. It was further hypothesized that this relationship would be moderated by the personality variable, locus of control. It was reasoned that externality oriented managers, being more dependent upon reinforcement, would be more affected by the similarity effect and thus demonstrate a stronger

relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

In the next chapter the strength of the similarity variable and its relationship and impact on subordinate satisfaction and performance is reviewed. It was predicted that managers increase their effectiveness through (communication, homophily), similarity of leadership styles (attitudinal), personality (locus of control) and physical characteristics. The increase in similarity increases mutual liking (Byrne, 1971; Newcomb, 1956), communication, and overall satisfaction and effectiveness.

Similarity is a situational variable within the managerial dyad. Past studies have focused on the large work group, but managers typically work in dyadic relationships. Thus, the need to examine the interpersonal managerial relationship and its effects on organizational effectiveness. Similarity and dissimilarity have been reported to affect hiring practices, promotions, job satisfaction, and employee turnover. Thus, this study examined the specific characteristics of the individuals who are affected by dyadic similarity in relation to the locus of control variable. The intent was to discern the relationship these variables have on overall satisfaction, performance, and effectiveness of the middle manager.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

The literature reviewed in this chapter pertains to the effects that the similarity variable has on interpersonal relationships, hiring practices, evaluation, job satisfaction, and employee turnover. The chapter concludes with an examination of the moderating effect locus of control has on these dependent variables.

Similarity

Historical Perspective

It is generally accepted that individuals with similar attitudes, personalities, and appearances will be attracted to one another. What is not commonly accepted is how the impact of "liking" relates to success in the workplace. Today, this aspect of promotability is especially important in relation to middle management. Historically, job satisfaction, evaluation, and employment promotions have too frequently relied on "seeing eye to eye" to the superordinate's perspective (Nieva, 1976; Senger, 1971). Similarly, research has evolved from studies generated by ideas like: "absence makes the heart grow fonder"; "love me, love my dog"; "birds of a feather flock together"; and "love is blind" (Byrne, 1971). That one's observable attitudes influence how others evaluate people is not a sudden revelation. This "liking" phenomenon has been studied for centuries (Byrne, 1971). Aristotle (cited in Byrne, 1971)

described attitude similarity among friends 2,000 years ago:

And they are friends who have come to regard the same things as good and the same things as evil, they who are friends of the same people, and they who are enemies of the same people. . . . We like those who resemble us, and are engaged in the same pursuits. . . . We like those who desire the same things as we, if the case is such that we and they can share the things together. (p. 24)

Spinoza (cited in Byrne, 1971), writing in the 17th century, suggested that:

We are motivated to persuade others to adapt to our own views. . . . If we conceive that anyone loves, desires, or hates anything which we ourselves love, desire or hate, we shall thereupon regard the thing in question with more steadfast love, etc. (p. 24)

Johnson (cited in Byrne, 1971), writing in 18th century England, in Boswell, described one basic underlying aspect of similarity reinforcement, consensual validation:

Being angry with one who controverts an opinion which you value, is a necessary consequence of the uneasiness which you feel. Every man who attacks my beliefs, diminishes in some degree my confidence in it, and therefore makes me uneasy. (p. 25)

Since the 18th century most of the studies that have been conducted regarding the similarity phenomena have involved the study of marital pairs, business associates, or other pairs of subjects who have indicated mutual attraction.

Theoretical Sources

In the area of interpersonal attraction much of the basis for the study of similarity centers on the concept of reinforcement theory (Nieva, 1976). Byrne (1971) suggested that "human beings respond to similar attitudes as positive reinforcements . . . [because] similarity

makes one's interpersonal environment more predictable and understandable" (pp. 164-165). Berscheid and Walster (1969) found reinforcement to be the most common predictor of interpersonal attraction. Byrne (1971) described reinforcement as, "the most general explanatory concept in attraction theory" (p. 267). He also saw reciprocal reward and punishment as the key variable in developing a theory of interpersonal attraction. Simply stated, similarity in others is rewarding and reinforcing whereas differences in others is strainful or punishing. Byrne (1971) explained that "attraction was formally described as a positive linear function of the proportion of positive reinforcements received from X" (p. 268).

In 1 B.C. Aristotle wrote, Further, men like those who are able and inclined to benefit them in a pecuniary way, or to promote their personal safety. . . . Further, we like those who praise our good . . . we like those who take us seriously--who admire us, who show us respect, who take pleasure in our society. (Byrne, 1971, p. 274)

Nieva (1976), citing the work of Lott and Lott, stated that "liking is attached to all those who provide rewards, as well as to others who merely happen to be present in the rewarding situation" (p. 16). Lott and Lott (cited in Byrne, 1971) stated: "Attraction will follow if one individual provides another with regard or need satisfaction, is perceived as potentially able to do so, or is otherwise associated with such a state of affairs" (p. 275). Further, "a discriminable neutral-person stimulus who is consistently associated with a reinforcing state of affairs will become able to evoke the implicit anticipatory component of the response made to reward" (A. J. Lott & Lott, 1972, pp. 110-111). Byrne (1971) found that "an overall reinforcement effect was found with

attraction increasing as the amount of direct reinforcement increased" (p. 290). Nieva (1976) determined that "effects of similarity and dissimilarity on attraction can be interpreted as a special case of reward and punishment; in most cases, similarity is experienced as reward while dissimilarity is experienced as punishment" (p. 16). Asking the question, why is similarity rewarding and dissimilarity punishing, Nieva (1976) postulated three areas with the reinforcement principle that warranted additional study: (1) balance, consistency-strain reduction; (2) perceptual accuracy-consensual validation; and (3) anticipated liking.

Balance Theory

Newcomb (1956) is generally recognized for his contribution to developing similarity-balance theory. Newcomb proposed that:

The possession of similar characteristics predisposes individuals to be attracted to each other to the degree that those characteristics are both observable and valued by those who observe them . . . in short insofar as they provide a basis for similarity of attitudes. (p. 577)

In essence, people are attracted to those who share their attitudes (Huber, 1970); and of all kinds of similarity, attitudinal similarity has the strongest effect on attraction (Nieva, 1976).

Newcomb (1961) described the "concept of orientation" (p. 5) as an individual's persistencies in relating themselves to things in their environment. He stated that objects exist as they are perceived not as they really are and explained that the orientation of a person, A, toward some other person, B, is attraction. As individuals develop an orientation toward a nonperson object, X, attitudes emerge. Interpersonal relationships have to do with attitudes as they are affected by behaviors

toward common objects. The relationship between a superordinate and subordinate is affected by their similarities and differences of attitudes toward an object or concept (Newcomb, 1961). Newcomb described the relationship as one of minimal perceived discrepancy or maximal similarity in attitude.

The stronger A's attraction toward B the greater the strength of the force upon A to maintain minimal discrepancy between his own and B's attitude, as he perceives the latter, toward the same X; and if positive attraction remains constant, the greater the perceived discrepancy in attitude the stronger force to reduce it. We shall refer to this force as strain, strain varies with the intensity of attraction between B and A, and the importance attributed to X. (p. 13)

Newcomb (1961) explained that for an individual to adapt comfortably within a social group one must acquire the right attitudes, attitudes similar to one's associates. Socialization, or strain reduction, occurs with the reduction of attitudinal discrepancies.

Either their discrepancy in attitudes will be reduced by changes in A's or B's attitude, or the attraction of one or both of them toward the other will be reduced. Thus, an imbalanced collective system, has via the interpersonal mechanism of communication and the intrapersonal mechanism of strain, led to changes in one or more of the associated systems. (Newcomb, 1961, p. 18)

In a superordinate-subordinate dyadic relationship or marital-interpersonal relationship, greater attitudinal similarity may be seen as reducing strain and restoring balance. It may also be predicted that failure to reduce strain could lead to system imbalance, divorce, job dissatisfaction, and employee turnover.

In many of the studies examined thus far, attitudinal similarity has been the dependent variable that is measured as a result of the interaction of paired groups. However, if attitudinal similarity could be

successfully manipulated as the independent variable and utilized as a situational leadership option, management would have an additional, potent tool with which to improve employee job satisfaction and productivity. Further, much of the similarity research to date has focused on physical and personality characteristics, neglecting to address the potentially robust area of attitudinal similarity as it specifically relates to leadership styles. By examining the degree of attitudinal similarity within the superordinate-subordinate dyad as an independent variable interacting with job satisfaction-employee evaluation, it may be possible to isolate and thus demonstrate the strength of this potent variable. Interestingly, these thoughts raise the question: Is there a relationship between perceived superordinate-subordinate attitudinal similarity and subordinate evaluations and satisfaction with supervision? This concept is developed further in the summary of this chapter.

Perceptual Accuracy-Consensual Validation

As stated earlier, similarity is viewed as rewarding and dissimilarity is perceived as punishing; thus, it is also relevant to ask: What is rewarding-reinforcing about perceptual accuracy-consensual validation? Nieva (1976) explained that dissimilarity is a threat to reality and that similarity reduces subject anxiety. If people mutually agree and share common attitudes, there is comfort and validation in perceiving reality similarity (Nieva, 1976). Byrne (1971) stated:

The expression of similar attitudes by a stranger serves as a positive reinforcement because consensual validation for an individual's attitudes and opinions and beliefs is a major source of reward for the drive to be logical, consistent, and accurate in interpreting the stimulus world. (p. 338)

If the stranger expresses dissimilar attitudes this may cause doubt and frustration; and thus, it is a negative reinforcer (Byrne, 1971). Byrne found that consensual validation relative to attraction has been extensively examined with many possible explanations for the strength it commands:

(Cohen, Stotland & Wolfe, 1955) described the need for cognition or to experience an integrated meaningful world, (Kelly, 1955; Pervin, 1963) the need to be able to know and predict the environment (Brim & Hoff, 1957) the desire for certainty which involves understanding the environment and making it predictable and Festinger (1952) the drive to evaluate one's own opinion and abilities. (p. 338)

Byrne (1971, citing White) collectively describes these various motives as the "effectance motive" (p. 338). He explained that effectance reduction lies in consensual validation. Byrne stated: "This occurs when others agree with or share our outlook and hence, provide satisfaction of the effectance motive, consensual invalidation occurs when others disagree with us, and hence, frustrate the satisfaction of the effectance motive" (p. 338). Byrne went on to explain the concept of consensual validation by citing Newcomb:

The attitude of others are important because human beings depend on one another as sources of information about countless aspects of the environment. People are rewarding to one another as "suppliers of new information and as confirmers or correctors of old." (pp. 340-341)

Heider (cited in Byrne, 1971) added, "The power of similarity of beliefs or attitudes derives from the identity of the environment to which they refer, and from the fact that it is satisfying to find support for one's own views" (p. 341). Further information is found in Festinger's (cited in Byrne, 1971) comments, "If there are other people around who believe the same thing, then his opinion is to him, valid. If there are not others

who believe the same thing, then his opinion is, in the same sense, not valid" (p. 341). Nieva (1976) suggested that similarity is rewarding because it "facilitates interaction with the interpersonal environment" (p. 16) and that unexpected, unconfirmed events threaten one's hold on reality. "Interaction with similar others alleviates these anxieties [and helps] validate one's own interpretation of the stimulus world (Byrne, 1969) making one's environment more predictable and understandable (Brim & Hoff, 1957; Pervin, 1963)" (Nieva, 1976, p. 17).

Festinger (1952) saw in attitude similarity a need for subjects to "evaluate accurately their own opinion" (p. 124) against others who are close to them. He further described the need for people "to reduce discrepancies which exist between himself and others with whom he compares himself" (p. 124). Discrepant opinions tend to threaten our own opinion and our description of reality. Thus, the need to reduce, destroy, or reject divergent opinion through avoidance or withdrawal. Festinger stated:

These selective tendencies to join some and leave other associations, together with the influence process and competitive activity which arise when there is discrepancy in a group, will guarantee that we will find relative similarity in opinions and abilities among persons who associate with one another. (p. 136)

Byrne (1962) explained that perceptual accuracy is rewarding because it provides a subject evidence of one's own correct opinion. Byrne stated: "The consistent finding that the expression of attitudes congruent with those of an S elicits a positive response while discrepant attitudes elicit a negative response may be interpreted as a reward and punishment basis" (p. 165). Byrne, explaining attraction further added, "suggested

that the strong desire to form affiliative relationships indicates a high expectancy of reward in an interpersonal context" (p. 166). Newcomb (1956) saw attraction between two subjects as related to the reciprocal rewards present in the relationship, and Byrne (1961) saw dislike as a function of reciprocal punishments. Byrne (1962) stated, "Attraction toward any given individual at a point in time is probably determined by the relative number and the relative intensity of rewards and punishments associated with him" (p. 164). Kagen (1958) viewed similarity as the need for a subject to model his behavior after some desired goal. Through threat to self-esteem and a desire to master the environment a subject will "copy" an individual perceived to be in possession or command of a desired goal. Thus, the greater the similarity the greater the command of the desired goal. Through this process there will be an increase in similarity as the subject is reinforced and perceives goal gratification.

Rosekrans (1967) found similar imitative results with subjects modeling rewarding behaviors whether the similarity was arbitrarily or accidentally acquired. It is significant that Rosekrans found perceived similarity to be rewarding and a determinant of imitating behavior. Katz and Kahn (1978), addressing "role ambiguity" (p. 197) also explained the need for attitudinal congruency to enhance a rewarding relationship. They explained that with greater similarity, increased communications and rewards result with a willingness to comply to role expectations. Katz and Kahn stated:

The expectations held for and sent to a focal person at a particular time depends to some degree on the quality of the interpersonal relationship already existing between that

person and the members of his or her role-set. The focal person will also interpret differently the sent expectations of the role set, depending on his or her continuing interpersonal relations with the senders. (p. 197)

Perceptual accuracy, based on increased communications as derived from attitudinal similarity, results in understanding of expectations, role accuracy, and perceived rewards. Lack of role accuracy and compliance results in negative reinforcement (Greene, 1972). Greene stated: "Within dyads where the subordinate fails to understand or to comply with the manager's expectations, the manager most likely will evaluate his performance negatively" (p. 208). In other words, at least moderate levels of role accuracy and compliance are necessary if the subordinate's performance is to be evaluated positively. Rizzo, House, and Lirtzman (1970) saw role conflict and role ambiguity as dysfunctional to the individual and the organization. The lack of consensual validation may reduce subject satisfaction and increase personal anxiety thereby resulting in a propensity for dissatisfied employees to leave the organization. Rizzo et al. (1970) added that "according to role theory, ambiguity should increase the probability that a person will be dissatisfied with his role, will experience anxiety, will distort reality, and will thus perform less effectively" (p. 151). Tosi (1971) and Rizzo et al. (1970) saw role conflict as threatening to job satisfaction, effectiveness, and job stress. Role conflict and role ambiguity are related to this study in the sense that the superordinate and subordinate fail to consensually validate a congruent-compatible requirement of the work world. An ambiguous definition of a task and inconsistent direction from the superordinate results in increased anxiety, decreased positive attitudes toward the

superordinate, and a reduction in productivity (Rizzo et al., 1970).

The research considered so far views attitudinal similarity as rewarding. Based on consensual validation, attitudinal similarity increases the person's sense of security and pleasure within the relationship. Simply stated, superordinates and subordinates like other people that express similar ideas and correspondingly respond with greater job satisfaction and evaluations. Relationships based on similarity grow and communication is enhanced. The research reviewed indicates that perceived similarity may be more potent than actual similarity and that proximity, or opportunity to interact, is an important aspect of this variable. Later in this chapter the relationship of propinquity and communications to similarity will be explored at greater length.

Reciprocal Liking

A third area of reinforcement identified by Nieva (1976) is the concept of anticipated reinforcement. Nieva explained that people like those who they expect or perceive like them. A reciprocal response of liking-rewarding is thus expected. Studies by Byrne and Andres (1964) and Byrne and Griffitt (1969) supported the view that similarity not only affects interpersonal attraction but also serves as a positive construct in anticipated liking. It is also noted that the opposite tends to be true. People tend to dislike those who express dissimilar views (Triandis, 1959).

Employment Relationships

In the area of employee relationships, similarity studies have primarily focused on hiring practices, performance appraisals, and job satisfaction variables with the goal of increasing productivity and improving employee morale. According to Huber (1970), most studies cite Newcomb's (1956) attraction theory as the basis for further research in attitudinal similarity. Newcomb's (cited in Huber, 1970) position was:

The possession of similar characteristics predisposes individuals to be attracted to each other to the degree that these characteristics are both observable and valued by those who observe them . . . in short, insofar as they provide a basis for similarity of attitudes. (p. 8)

Nieva (1976), in a comprehensive study of similarity, listed 10 types of similarity but stated that, "attitudinal similarities have shown the most consistent relationships to positive affect" (p. 4). Newcomb (cited in Huber, 1970) found that "similarity of attitudes, while being a necessary rather than a sufficient condition, accounts for more of the variance in interpersonal attraction than does any other single variable" (p. 7). Thus, attitudinal similarity may be viewed as a strong determiner of personal attraction and seen as heavily impacting on the process of hiring, evaluating, and affecting employee job satisfaction. This concept will be expanded upon in the summary of this chapter.

Hiring-Interviewing

Rand and Wexley (1975), in a study of biographical similarity between interviewer and applicant, found that higher similarity led to higher ratings of the candidate's job suitability and other personal

characteristics. The authors concluded that those findings were consistent with Byrne's (1962) reinforcement hypothesis. However, Rand and Wexley also reported that the findings did not support Byrne's view that "need for affiliation" (p. 166) is a key variable in interpersonal attraction.

Golightly, Huffman, and Byrne (1972), in a study of attitudinal similarity between a loan officer and applicant, found that the proportion of similarity influenced the attraction toward the applicant and the amount of the loan approved. These researchers expressed concern regarding hiring and evaluation practices in business that may be biased by the effects of similarity. The study conducted by Golightly et al. involved 53 graduate business students in a lab controlled setting. The students were given relevant financial information concerning a loan applicant and irrelevant attitude information on eight topics; they were asked to indicate the amount of money to be approved for the applicant's loan. They found that the proportion of similar attitudes exhibited did influence the interviewer's attraction toward the applicant and thus concluded that "evaluative decisions have been found to be in part determined by the similarity of the attitudes of the evaluator and the individual being judged" (Golightly et al., 1972, p. 522). As a final notation, the authors added that although increased experience does not eliminate the similarity effect, "individuals low in authoritarianism are least likely to have their evaluative decisions influenced by liking" (p. 523).

Latham, Wexley, and Pursell (1975), in a study observing training to eliminate performance appraisal error due to similarity effect, found that similarity effect accounted for 26% of the variance in the ratings by

control group managers. Rand and Wexley (1975) concluded that similar-to-me effect tendencies on the part of raters cause interviewers to judge more favorably those they perceives as similar to themselves. In a related area, Crosby, Evans, and Cowles (1990) found that a salesperson's similarity related positively to sales effectiveness. Krapfel (1988) found similar results regarding buyer-seller dyads and perceived similarity. Goldsmith, McNeilly, and Russ (1989) also reported a strong relationship between sales representatives and supervisors; similarity and satisfaction and performance.

Anderson and Shackleton (1990), in a study of 38 graduate interviewers, reported that interviewer ratings of perceived personality similarity correlated highly with overall evaluations, and interviewers were recruiting in their own image. They stated that "this clone syndrome almost certainly acts as an additional source of bias in interviewer decision making as the criterion is unspecified, and unvalidated, and, in the longer term, may be self perpetuating" (p. 74).

In a lab simulation, Baskett (1973) asked 51 subjects to assume that they worked for a large company that was interviewing candidates for a vice-presidential position. Baskett examined the effects of consensual validation within this study and reasoned that agreement and liking act as reinforcers and that disagreement provides negative affect. Thus, he predicted that the greater the similarity between the interviewer and the applicant the more favorable the applicant's candidacy for the position. The results indicated that attitudinally dissimilar candidates were evaluated as less competent and were thus more likely to be offered lower starting salaries. Baskett expressed concern that the interview

process should provide the most desirable, competent candidate, but that due to attitudinal similarity biasness the best candidate may not always receive the job.

Frank and Hackman (1975) examined the effects of interviewer-interviewee similarity on college admission officers' liking for and biasness toward applicants. They found questionable, mixed results. In accordance with Byrne's (1969, 1971) interpersonal attraction theory, predicated on the concept that similarity to another person increases the likelihood that one will obtain consensual validation for one's own views from a similar person and that validation is viewed as rewarding, thus leading to positive feelings toward the similar other person, Frank and Hackman had expected confirmation of their similarity study. However, their explanation for their mixed findings was that Byrne's interpersonal attraction theory "assumes that interviewers have strong personal needs to obtain social validation of their own views and opinions" (p. 359). Frank and Hackman concluded that different interviewers have differing needs and that those interviewers especially low in self-esteem or social confidence are particularly susceptible to similarity induced biasness. It is especially important to note that similarity effect may be moderated by personality aspects of both superordinate and subordinate. This aspect of the similarity effect is explored in greater depth later in this review.

Evaluation

Ross and Ferris (1981), in a study of the relationship between physical attractiveness, attitude similarity, and social background to

performance ratings and salaries, found support for physical attractiveness, but did not find support for attitude similarity. However, Senger (1971) examined the rankings managers give subordinates based on similar values and found that subordinates rated the highest had values most similar to their superordinates. Senger added: "The major source of personal rejection or favoritism appears to be the similarities and conflicts in the personal values of managers and their subordinate" (p. 415). This study was an attempt to "address the problem of relating a manager's personal values to his decisions about his subordinates" (Senger, 1971, p. 415). A field study, involving 28 managers and 151 subordinate managers from both middle and large sized corporations, Senger (1971) reported that general managers were more prone than functional managers to favor a subordinate with similar values and reject one with conflicting values. Senger expressed concern over managerial objectivity in evaluative decisions, managerial attrition, and organizational effectiveness. Speculation regarding the similarity effect on different level managers was also addressed.

Managerial attrition could follow a pattern in which those managers with dissimilar and conflicting values would leave the organization and a group with homogeneous values would remain, at least at the upper levels. This homogeneity could result in better communications, higher morale, and less creativity. (Senger, 1971, p. 423)

Enz (1988), in a study of similarity of organizational values, found that those departments that were perceived to have congruent values with top management possessed more power within the company structure. Enz stated: "Top managers strive to communicate their organizational values to employees in order to shape behavior and direct

the firm" (p. 287). Thus, the values of the executive group are a "key factor in understanding what drives intraorganizational power" (p. 288). Meglino, Ravlin, and Adkins (1989) and Marcic, Aiuppa, and Watson (1989) found similar results regarding corporate culture and value congruence between worker and supervisor. Fox, Nahum, and Yinon (1989), in a study of peer similarity and evaluation, found dissimilar others were marked significantly lower. Turbin and Jones (1988) reported that supervisor-subordinate similarity was related to the supervisor's evaluations of the subordinate. Their explanation was that "the quality and frequency of supervisor-subordinate interactions are important influences on subordinate performance" (p. 233). Goldsmith et al. (1989) also reported finding a relationship between subordinate-supervisory similarity and performance-satisfactions involving sales representatives. Zalesny and Kirsch (1989), reporting on similarity of supervisors of correction officers, also found that supervisor-subordinate similarity was significantly related to performance ratings. They suggested that their results indicated that "the factors on which similarity is important may vary according to the rater's organizational position" (p. 92).

Schultz (1955), in a study of group productivity, found that "the dominant reason for a group's productivity depends on the extent to which the members can get along--their compatibility" (p. 429). Compatibility was defined as the orientation of the group members toward interpersonal relations. The results indicate a tendency to link positive feelings toward others with positive competency evaluations. Satisfaction with supervision and perceptions of productivity as early as

1955 are linked to liking or a sense of compatibility.

Triandis (1959) examined the relationship of cognitive similarity and the process of interpersonal communication. He reasoned that "if two people categorize events, objects and concepts in similar ways they should be able to communicate more effectively" (p. 321). Citing Newcomb's model, Triandis tested the concept that stated:

If A and B are cognitively similar and there is an opportunity for communications (Propinquity), the communication will be more effective, the relationship between A & B will be more rewarding, and A & B will therefore like each other more than if A & B are not cognitively similar. (Triandis, 1959, p. 321)

Utilizing an industrial setting involving 150 employees, Triandis (1959) found supporting evidence indicating that cognitive similarity is a significant variable in interpersonal communication and liking. Zenger and Lawrence (1989), in a study of organizational demography, also stated that "people tend to communicate with those who are similar to themselves" (p. 353) and that "dyads of similar individuals communicate more frequently and effectively than dyads of dissimilar individuals" (p. 369).

Landy and Farr (1980), concerned with objectivity in performance ratings as affected by similarity bias, examined the effects of similarity on performance evaluations. Generally, the researchers reported mixed results with similarity interaction with the dependent variables: (a) sex, (b) race, (c) experience, (d) performance level, or (e) leadership style. However, "the data did suggest that ratings are influenced by the interaction of the sex of the ratee and the sex role stereotype of the job or task" (p. 89). Brenner, Tomkiewicz, and Schein (1989) also reported

disparity with sex and the similarity variable. It was noted that rater training does reduce rating errors attributed to the similarity variable. It is important that this study indicates that people may be trained to reduce the effects of the similarity variable.

Labovitz (1972) examined the degree of congruence in management attitudes and socioeconomic background between executive superiors and executive subordinates and the probability for promotion. It is significant for this study that Labovitz was studying two levels of executive management in a dyadic relationship. His findings were that "those subordinates being promoted did not necessarily share common background and attitudes with superiors but, perceptually, were significantly more aware of their superiors' views than were those not considered for promotion" (p. 289). It is important that Labovitz found that performance appraisals are influenced by superordinate perceptions as much or more than actual measurement, and more significantly that "the quality of the relationship between a superior and subordinate is a determinant of the superior's perception of the subordinate's performance" (p. 290). Perceptual similarity and perceptual accuracy are repeatedly found throughout the research to have a stronger relationship to dependent variables, job satisfaction and performance appraisals, than actual similarity.

Miles (1964) did examine the relationship of actual similarity between managers and their subordinates as related to the manager's evaluation of the subordinate's performance. Tested was the concept that successful subordinate managers who receive support and approval from their superordinates will have greater success with their

subordinates than those subordinate managers who do not receive support. Miles questioned which subordinate practices were most likely to receive support and predicted that those who "think as he thinks and acts as he would act" (p. 309) were most likely to be granted influence and approval by their superordinate. Miles stated that managers themselves believe that they will achieve support by imitating the attitudes and behaviors of their superiors. Thus, he hypothesized that high rated subordinate managers will have attitudes toward management concepts and theories more similar to those of their superiors than do their lower rated fellow managers. Utilizing a field study that involved 95 subordinate managers and 27 immediate supervisors from a west coast electronics firm, Miles administered a What's Your Theory questionnaire and found support for his hypothesis. Miles explained that neither age nor educational similarity proved statistically significant, but that there was clear support for the prediction that superiors prefer subordinate managers with attitudes and views similar to their own. Miles was careful to explain that the findings do not suggest whether similarity is a cause or by-product of the superior's support and approval of the manager. He explained that superiors may simply find it easier to communicate with subordinate managers whose attitudes are similar to their own.

Of concern to this study is the obvious effect that superior evaluations of subordinate judgment has on performance appraisals and thus managerial success, job satisfaction, and turnover.

Of further interest is the study by Wexley et al. (1980) of the relationship of both actual similarity and perceptual congruence with the job

satisfaction and performance evaluations of 194 manager-subordinate dyads. Specifically, the researchers examined the hypothesis that the more congruently a subordinate perceives the manager the more satisfied the subordinate will be and the more congruently a manager perceives the subordinate, the higher the subordinate's performance will be evaluated. Utilizing 194 employed Northern Ohio University students in matched dyads, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) (Weiss, Davis, England, & Lofquist, 1967) and two scales of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Smith, Kendall, & Hulin, 1969), the authors' findings indicated that congruence between a subordinate's description of his manager and the manager's self-description is highly correlated with the subordinate's reported satisfaction. There was also a strong consistent relationship between the subordinate's perceptual congruence and the overall measure of satisfaction. However, the correlation of actual similarity with performance was generally insignificant. The researchers reported that the more cognizant a manager was of a subordinate's work related attitudes, the more positively the subordinate was evaluated by the manager; and the more congruently a subordinate perceived the manager's attitudes, the more satisfied the subordinate was with supervision received from the manager.

Wexley et al. (1980) explained that congruent perceptions of another's attitudes is a rewarding experience. Seeing others as they see themselves allows one to understand better their actions and to predict their future behavior. It is significant that the authors concluded by suggesting that actual attitudinal similarity may not be as important to the process of manager-subordinate interpersonal relations as perceptual

congruence. Further, they added that the study of the moderating effects of self-esteem and managerial style on similarity warrants additional study. This aspect of similarity research is of greater interest later in this study when the locus of control variable and its moderating effect upon similarity within the managerial dyad are examined.

In another study of the effects of perceptual congruence on performance appraisals, Pulakos and Wexley (1983) found subordinate perceptual similarity to be significantly related to performance ratings. In fact, in dyads with mutual perceptual dissimilarity between the manager and subordinate, the performance appraisals were found to be significantly lower. Pulakos and Wexley were especially concerned with the effects of perceptual similarity in contrast to actual similarity as a significant variable affecting performance appraisals. Their results show that perceptual similarity accounted for a sizable percentage of performance rating variance in managerial dyads. Pulakos and Wexley stated that "in work settings, actual similarity may not be as important to the process of manager-subordinate interpersonal relations as is perceived similarity of the other person" (p. 130).

Pulakos and Wexley's (1983) findings suggest that:

When subordinates feel that they are similar to their managers, they give uniformly high ratings on support and work facilitation regardless of the level of the manager's perceived similarity. However, when subordinates feel that they are dissimilar to their managers and the managers agree that they are dissimilar, the ratings on these scales are considerably lower. That is, when there is a state of mutual perceptual dissimilarity in the dyad, subordinate evaluations of their managers are the lowest of conditions. (pp. 135-136)

Pulakos and Wexley's (1983) conclusions were that perceived dyadic similarity does result in significantly higher performance appraisals.

These findings thus support early studies by Byrne (1971) regarding perceived similarity as a rewarding affect due to consensual validation. Pulakos and Wexley indicated the need for further study of perceived similarity involving the specific characteristics of the people who are most influenced by perceptual similarity in performance ratings of others. As the locus of control variable is studied later in this chapter, the connection between personality characteristics and the similarity variable will be demonstrated.

In yet another study involving the relationship between subordinate perceptual congruence and sex on subordinate performance appraisals of their immediate supervisors, Wexley and Pulakos (1983) further confirmed the relationship of perceptual congruence and performance evaluations.

The importance of this study is that emphasis is placed on the need to study managerial dyadic relationships from a perceptual not actual similarity aspect and that it is difficult to study this dyadic relationship in a lab setting. Consequently, Wexley and Pulakos (1983) examined subordinate perceptual congruence by involving 286 manager-subordinate dyads in an actual field setting that involved bank, hospital, restaurant, and hotel organizations. Their findings were "that the more cognizant a subordinate is of his or her manager's work-related attitudes, the more favorably the subordinate appraises the manager's leadership performance" (p. 672). The authors suggested that "interventions aimed at improving the quality of manager-subordinate dyadic relationships via subordinate-perceptual congruence, SPC, could produce beneficial outcomes" (p. 673). Conclusions are that the

managerial-subordinate dyadic relationship is a neglected area of performance appraisal research and that studies involving other groups and organizations would be helpful in understanding the effects of perceptual similarity.

Studies examined to this point reveal a fair consistency for perceived similarity demonstrating a stronger effect than actual similarity. Further, similarity influences superordinate performance appraisals and that propinquity moderates communications and perceived similarity. Conceptually, an outgrowth of these findings is the thought that greater opportunity for dyadic contact will result in increased liking and improved appraisals. This thought will be expanded at the conclusion of this chapter.

Job Satisfaction

Petty and Bruning (1980) studied the relationship between the subordinate's perception of supervisory behavior and the measures of subordinate's job satisfaction for male and female leaders. They did not find support for sex-role congruency as it pertains to leaders' consideration or initiating structure. The assumption Petty and Bruning were testing was that leader behavior consistent with sex-role stereotypes should be more positively related to subordinates' satisfaction than inconsistent behaviors. It was expected that considerate leadership behavior would be associated with female leaders and that initiating leadership behavior would be associated with male leaders. To the extent that these expected behaviors existed subordinates would be satisfied with supervision. The results did not support stereotypical

sex-role leadership style congruency, and in fact regardless of gender, satisfaction with supervision was positively correlated with leader consideration.

Miles (1964) found that conditioning variables within the organizational environment, as much as leadership style, affect the management results that a leader achieves. He explained that one of the key conditioning variables is the amount of support and approval that the subordinate receives from his supervisor. Further, that the managers receiving the greatest support are usually those who think and act as the supervisor thinks and acts. This study also supported the idea that similar subordinate attitudes will result in managerial approval and promotion. Of interest to organizational effectiveness is Miles's (1964) conclusion that:

Not only is it difficult to make a manager a better manager than his own superior, but attempts to change attitudes at one level without modifying the attitudes held by those at higher levels may cause serious confusion and conflicts within the management hierarchy. (p. 313)

Greene (1972), in a study of managerial dyadic satisfaction, found that the subordinate's accurate perception of the superordinate's expectations and compliance were related to subordinate job satisfaction and superordinate performance appraisals. Greene explained that Kahn's Model of the Role Episode provided the theoretical basis for this study. In this model managerial expectations are communicated to the subordinate with expectation of compliance. The higher the level of accuracy and understanding between the supervisor and the subordinate the greater the likelihood of agreement and compliance. When there is a lack of role accuracy and compliance the supervisor can be expected to

apply negative reinforcements. With greater accuracy and compliance one might expect rewarding behavior. Greene explained that role inaccuracy and noncompliance have been linked to job tension and employee turnover. However, attitudinal similarity may be viewed as a means of increasing communications clarity and thus role accuracy and compliance. Specifically, Greene (1972) analyzed the relationship between role accuracy, compliance, job satisfaction, and performance evaluations in a managerial dyad and found that:

Within dyads where the subordinate fails to understand or to comply with the manager's expectation, the manager most likely will evaluate his performance negatively. In other words, at least moderate levels of role accuracy and compliance are necessary if the subordinate's performance is to be evaluated positively. (p. 208)

In this study role accuracy and compliance were positively and significantly related to subordinate job satisfaction and positive evaluations. However, the responsibility of attitudinal similarity in reducing role ambiguity, and thereby increasing role accuracy and positive reinforcement, is of special significance.

Tosi (1971), in a similar study of role conflict, also found a significant relationship between role conflict, job satisfaction, and job threat. However, he did not find a relationship to effectiveness. Referencing Kahn's model, Tosi explained that conflicting messages indicate levels of organizational stress and that these organizational factors affect the expectations of individuals regarding the role behaviors of others. Tosi explained that:

It is the individual perception of the role pressures which is the immediate influence on behavior and the immediate source of motivation. The received role may differ from the

sent role as a function of two other sets of variables, personal attributes and interpersonal relationships. (p. 9)

Aspects of subordinate-superordinate personality and attraction affect accurate communications and influence perceptions of role expectancies. Tosi also found that interpersonal dimensions were positively correlated with job satisfaction and that influence was negatively correlated with job threat and anxiety. However, neither role conflict nor role ambiguity were found to correlate significantly with effectiveness.

Rizzo et al. (1970), in a related study of role conflict and ambiguity, found that dysfunctional individual and organizational consequences result from role conflict and ambiguity. They reported that role conflict and ambiguity correlate with organizational and managerial practices and behavior, member satisfaction, anxiety, and propensity to leave the organization. Rizzo et al. explained that "when the behaviors expected of an individual are inconsistent--one kind of role conflict--he will experience stress, become dissatisfied, and perform less effectively" (p. 151). Role conflict may be defined in terms of incongruency or incompatibility. Kahn, Wolfe, Quinn, Snoek, and Rosenthal (1964) spoke of person-role conflict and explained that incongruency may result from various conflicts. For this study attitudinal similarity may be seen as one method of reducing conflict and enhancing accurate communications. Thus, through similarity organizational dysfunctional behaviors may be reduced.

Hatfield and Huseman (1982) also found superordinate-subordinate congruence related to communications and satisfaction with work and general job satisfaction. They too explained that congruence

research fits well with Katz and Kahn's (1978) role episode model. Again, a typical conclusion in the congruence research is that the absence of perceptual congruence is evidence of communications problems between the supervisor and subordinate. Similarity reduces ambiguity and improves communications, thereby increasing job satisfaction. Hatfield and Huseman indicated a significant relationship between perceptual congruence and job satisfaction and that further "perceptual congruence is related to important organizational outcomes" (p. 356). Meglino et al. (1989) also found a significant relationship between value congruence and individual outcomes. They reported:

These relationships included significantly greater overall and facet job satisfaction, greater organizational commitment and a marginally significant reduction in lateness. Worker-supervisor congruence was also associated with significantly lower ratings for the quality of performance and marginally lower ratings for the quantity of performance. (p. 430)

However, Marcic et al. (1989) reported that they did not find correlation between personality type congruence and job satisfaction.

Kirmeyer and Lin (1987) found that supportive relationships between the superordinate and subordinate are important to psychological well-being, physical health, job satisfaction, and organizational outcomes. In this study employee satisfaction with interpersonal relations and perceived openness and trust are also related to interpersonal communications. The emphasis throughout this study and others relating job satisfaction to supervisory behavior is the importance of improved communications. As in other studies Kirmeyer and Lin expressed a need for supervisor-subordinate interaction to improve organizational outcomes. Attitudinal similarity is viewed as an important variable in

improved communications.

Research on job satisfaction in relation to similarity clearly emphasizes the role of similarity in reducing conflict and enhancing communications. Logically this thought may be extended to read that the greater the similarity within a dyad the less ambiguity and the greater the subordinate satisfaction. This concept will be further developed at the end of this chapter.

Interpersonal Relationships

Howard (1968), in a review of supervisor-subordinate similarity, stated that the study of husbands' and wives' and mutual friends' similarity dates back to 1928 for marital pairs and 1898 for friendship groups. Citing an early study by Richardson reviewing the "mental resemblance" of husbands and wives, Howard wrote:

In view of the fact that the present measures of personality traits still leave something to be desired, that the groups measure have differed widely in age and in degree of homogeneity, that the criteria for pairing of friends have not been entirely satisfactory, and that there were different degrees of compatibility among husband and wives, such consistencies as appear among the results of these studies are all the more worthy of note. (p. 5)

Howard (1968) explained that most of the earlier studies addressing the similarity variable dealt with friendship and marital pairs and that only recently have studies been concerned with employer-employee relationships. Citing studies from Bonney (1946) through Miller, Campbell, Twedt, and O'Connell (1966) that examined subject pairs from elementary school children to college age mutual friends, Howard indicated that a large number of interpersonal studies have been conducted with

almost equal number supporting real similarity (Izard, 1960; Precker, 1952; Reader & English, 1947; Rosenfeld & Jackson, 1965) as there are studies that fail to support (Bonney, 1946; Fiedler, Warrington, & Blaisdell, 1952; Maisonneuve, 1954; Miller et al., 1966; Rychlak, 1965; Thorpe, 1955). Howard's (1968) conclusion was that "overall, the evidence for real similarity in friendship is inconsistent" (p. 14).

Examining this inconsistency, Howard (1968) found that studies of perceived similarity were more consistently positive (Beier, Rossi, & Garfield, 1961; Fiedler et al., 1952; Newcomb, 1961; Secord & Backman, 1964). Also, with regard to marital pairs studies, Howard reported: "Like the research on friendship, the marriage literature provides both supportive and non-supportive evidence for the role of similarity and/or complementarity as providing a basis for studying interpersonal relationships" (p. 23). It is important to note that more positive results are reported regarding perceived dyadic similarity than actual similarity.

Locus of Control

Although considerable research within the area of attitudinal similarity has indicated the need for individuals to seek reinforcement through consensual validation (Byrne, 1971), little research has investigated the moderating effects of specific personality characteristics. The similarity concept, based on one's individual needs, assumes that people have equal need for reinforcement. However, it may be that different personalities have varying degrees of reinforcement needs and thus the similarity effect would be moderated depending on the personality traits.

Specifically, this study examines the moderating effects of the locus of control variable operating within the managerial, superordinate-subordinate dyad. Thus, this section of literature review will examine those studies related to the locus construct and managerial relationships.

"Derived from attribution theory (Heider, 1958; Kelley, 1973; Kelley & Michela, 1980), locus of control is both a generalized, fairly stable expectancy, as well as a more specific expectancy arising from a particular situation" (A. L. Johnson, Luthans, & Hennessey, 1984, p. 62). Rooted in social learning theory and principles of reinforcement (Rotter, 1966), an individual, based on past reinforcement experiences, may be expected to develop a consistent attitude toward either an internal or external locus of control as the source of reinforcement (Joe, 1971). When a person believes his reinforcement is based on his own actions he is viewed as being in "internal" control. However, if the individual perceives the reinforcement as being contingent upon outside forces, it is seen as a belief in "external" control (Runyon, 1973).

Internals, believing that they control reinforcements through their behavior, should behave in ways to control the situation, including other persons (i.e., subordinates) in the situation. Externals, by definition, should be less likely to try to control their environment. (A. L. Johnson et al., 1984, p. 62)

Rotter (1971), explaining that locus is a continuum and that persons have varying degrees of internality and externality, stated:

Some persons are confident that they control themselves and their destinies. They tend to be surer of themselves, richer and better educated, and to be more readily able to quit smoking. They are Internals. Other persons feel that their fates are in the hands of powerful others, that they are pawns, and they tend to be docile and suspicious. They cry a lot. They are Externals. (p. 37)

Joe (1971) stated that "externals having experienced more feelings of powerlessness and more frustration via external forces are more prone by manifest aggression and hostility" (p. 622). Chan (1978) added:

The externally controlled child may see no reason to alter his behavior or to try hard because his reinforcements gratifications, or pleasures of success lose much of their potential to strengthen his behaviors, as they are not viewed as resulting from his efforts. (p. 105)

If it is true, that peoples' needs for reinforcement vary depending on their internality-externality locus of control, then it should be possible to predict that the impact of the similarity variable should also vary within the superordinate-subordinate dyad depending on one's position on the locus of control continuum.

A. L. Johnson et al. (1984), in a study that investigated whether the leader's locus of control moderated the relationship between perceived leader influence and certain subordinate outcomes variables, reported that locus of control did significantly moderate the effects of supervisory influence on productivity and subordinate satisfaction with supervision. This study differed from previous research that had primarily focused on the subordinate locus of control. For example, Runyon (1973) and T. R. Mitchell, Smyser, and Weed (1975) had studied the relationship between directive-participative leader style and satisfaction with the leader, as moderated by the subordinate locus of control. They found that internals were more satisfied with participatory style and also with supervision regardless of style (A. L. Johnson et al., 1984). T. R. Mitchell et al. (1975) also reported that internals had higher overall job satisfaction than externals and that the higher the level a person was in the organizational hierarchy, the greater the internal orientation. T. R.

Mitchell et al. found weak support, however, that internal managers use structuring ones. However, these researchers did report that internals and externals are satisfied by different types of supervision and that they show different amounts of satisfaction and involvement depending on the supervision.

A. L. Johnson et al. (1984) reported that previous studies addressing consideration-initiating structure have been inconclusive. Evans (1974) found that for internals there was a higher relationship between supervisory consideration and motivation than for externals. Abdell-Halim (1980) reported contradictory results. Externals were more satisfied with greater supervisory consideration than internals. A. J. Johnson et al. (1984) have suggested the need for additional research on the locus construct with emphasis on the superordinate-subordinate match.

Runyon (1973) also investigated the interaction between management style and the locus construct on workers' satisfaction with supervision and job involvement. Runyon reported that "satisfaction with supervision was found to be a function of the interaction between management style and employee internality" (p. 288). Runyon was concerned that previous studies of management had focused exclusively on participatory versus autocratic leadership styles and employee attitudes with little or no attention to personality variables. Specifically, citing studies by Vroom (1969), Runyon stated that dissatisfaction with supervision has been a contributing factor in organizational turnover and that methods of improving satisfaction with supervision would be advantageous to any organization. He reasoned that the more individuals saw themselves as internals the greater their satisfaction would be with

participative management and vice versa. Runyon felt that internals, believing that they control their own destiny, should enjoy the freedom participatory management permits. Whereas, externals should be frustrated by the lack of structure. Runyon found support for his logic. Internal employees preferred a participative management style and externals a more directive style. Runyon (1973) suggested that "management style alone is insufficient to account for differences in employee satisfaction and that a broader, more comprehensive theoretical model is needed" (p. 293).

Chan (1978), in a study of school children, locus of control, and achievement motivation, felt that externals, characterized by feelings of failure, affected school performance, IQ scores, and achievement motivation. Murray and Staebler (1974), investigating students and teachers relative to locus of control, reported that both male and female students, regardless of their locus, gained more on the achievement measure under internal teachers than under external teachers. In a study of 117 eighth grade children, Shavit and Rabinowitz (1978) found that internals were more effective in coping with failure than externals and were more inclined to attribute failure to insufficient effort than outside forces. Rose and Medway (1981) predicted that internal teachers would produce higher achieving students. They reasoned that internal oriented teachers would assume greater responsibility for classroom events including student performance than external teachers. However, the results did not support their prediction. Rose and Medway stated that internality-externality was not significantly related to general instructional styles or disciplinary actions. Bhagat and Chassie (1978) utilized 137

undergraduate students to test their theory that internals would perform better and be more satisfied with their program of studies and personal lives than external students. These researchers found strong support for their study. Bhagat and Chassie concluded that "practitioners should implement effective selection, classification, and training systems to generate individuals with a relatively higher degree of both self-perceived competence and an internally controlled explanation of the causality of events" (p. 325). Lester and Gentz (1978) examined locus of control as a factor affecting the job satisfaction of police officers. Based on Rotter's (1966) locus of control concepts of internality-externality (I-E), they predicted that job satisfaction should be higher in men who have an internality outlook. Their findings were that experienced officers were more likely to believe in an internal locus of control than recruits and that job satisfaction was related to an internal locus of control.

Butcher and Hebert (1985, citing studies by Lefcourt, 1982, and Phares, 1976) reported that the locus of control variable is linked to numerous personality dimensions including perceived stress, motivation to attain goals, personal adjustments, and problem-solving strategies. Further, the internal I-E expectancy has also been linked to positive psychological adjustments while the external belief has been linked to debilitating anxiety, depression, and schizophrenia (Archer, 1980; Molinari & Khanna, 1981). Examining the locus of control effect by utilizing 27 university students, Butcher and Herbert assessed the interaction of client-counselor matching on I-E expectancy with counseling effectiveness. Results indicated that matched pairs consistently had higher evaluations of counselor performance and overall satisfaction than

dissimilar pairs.

Snyder (1978) reported on the effects of a group leader's I-E orientation on group members. He stated that the results did not indicate an interaction between control orientation of leaders and group members. However, he did find that externals were more likely to change than internals. Kinder and Kilman (1976) actually found that a structured leader role was least effective in developing self-actualization among clients unless it is followed by an unstructured leader role later in the treatment process. Kilman and Sotile (1976) found support for the appropriateness of an unstructured leader role for internals and a structured leader role for externals. Abdell-Halim (1980) also found supportive evidence of the moderating effects of locus of control and personality within management, however, in the opposite direction. Hersch and Scheibe (1967) stated that internality is consistently associated with indexes of social adjustment and personal achievement.

Andrisani and Nestel (1976) examined the role of I-E as a contributor to an outcome of the work experience and found that success results from hard work and that failure is an individual responsibility. They stated that "unfavorable work experiences are thought to increase tendencies toward external control, which in turn reduces the individual's willingness to participate in the institutions of work" (p. 163). It is interesting to note the locus relationship with similarity-reinforcement relative to superordinate-subordinate dyads. One could predict, based on Andrisani and Nestel's findings, that the more supportive-reinforcing the supervisor the more internal the subordinate's outlook due to increasing success in the work world.

Supporting evidence is offered by Durand and Nord (1976). They studied the locus of control variable in relation to the leadership process and found that personality was a major factor in predicting leader behavior as perceived by the subordinates. Durand and Nord believed that subordinate personality characteristics acted as a moderating effect in the relationship of initiating structure to performance. External subordinates perceived their supervisor exhibiting less considerate behavior and internals perceived supervisors exhibiting structuring-considerate behaviors. Durand and Nord suggested that personality factors of both superordinate and subordinate and leadership style need to be studied.

Evans (1974), in a study of how the superior affects the subordinate perceptual expectancies along a path-goal theory of motivation, suggested that leader behavior only relates to subordinate performance and satisfaction to the extent to which subordinates feel that reward and punishments are based on their own behavior. Utilizing 86 MBA students at the University of Toronto and administering, the Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire (Stogdill, 1963), and Rotter's (1966) Internal-External Control Scale, Evans reported that locus of control was found to moderate the superior-subordinate relationship as predicted. The results provided an extension to the path-goal theory and indicated stronger support for internal subjects than for externals. Internals generally had higher motivation and responded to supervisory consideration more than externals. Gemmill and Heisler (1972) also found that managers who believe they can control their environment experience less job stress and greater job satisfaction than those who believe they do not influence their environment.

Dailey (1978) concentrated on the moderating effect of subordinate locus of control in relation to management style and subordinate satisfaction. His findings were that "those with an internal locus of control experienced less satisfaction with co-workers than those with an external locus of control" (p. 314). Dailey stated that this was consistent with previous research which had found that externally oriented individuals are generally more dependent on others as reinforcers. It may also be suggested that internals would be less susceptible to the effects of similarity-reinforcement because they do not rely on others for reinforcement and thus are less likely to be affected by "similar" others.

Richford and Fortune (1984), in a study of locus of control, manipulatives, and job satisfaction of high school principals, reported that internal principals were more satisfied with their jobs than external principals. External locus of control was found to be positively associated with manipulativeness and low job satisfaction and internal locus of control was related to nonmanipulativeness and high job satisfaction. In a similar study involving the locus construct and school principals, Farkas (1983) investigated the degree of occupational stress that school principals perceive in the work setting related to the impact that the locus variable and situational powerlessness have on levels of stress. Farkas reported that the "evidence suggest that principal's locus of control and the perceived degree of situational powerlessness influence the level of occupational stress" (p. 1). The findings did indicate that principals as a group had a high degree of internality and see themselves generally in control. However, principals with a low internal locus do perceive greater job stress. Farkas concluded that "coping strategies

which foster a strong sense of internal control are important for keeping stress levels low. Also helpful, are managerial structures in school districts which provide principals with decision-making power commensurate with job responsibilities" (p. 4).

These findings suggest a general inconsistency with regard to the locus variable and its effect on management outcomes. However, overall internals seem to have greater satisfaction and are less susceptible to outside forces. Further, studies suggest that all individuals do not have an equal need for reinforcement and that internals are less dependent on others for satisfaction. Thus, it is logical to project that internals should be less affected by attitudinal similarity than externals. Objectively, this thought process poses the following question: Is there a moderating relationship between subordinate-superordinate attitudinal similarity and the internality-externality locus of control of the subordinate-superordinate?

Summary and Hypotheses

Summary

Throughout the current literature, similarity has consistently been associated with personal attraction and individual liking. Simply stated, people tend to like people who are like themselves. Whether studying marital, business, or interpersonal partnerships, similarity has proven to be a powerfully influential variable. Although results at times appear inconsistent, it is only when actual similarity is the focus of the study, instead of perceived similarity, that the similarity variable fails to prove

robust. Simplified, similarity in others is viewed as rewarding while differences are seen as punishing. Individuals naturally wishing to continue satisfying relationships and avoid strainful associations seek similar others for companionship.

What is it that is rewarding about similarity? Because similarity reduces strain and restores balance within a relationship, people experience security and comfort. Dissimilarity is seen as a threat to one's reality resulting in role conflict, frustration, and a propensity to discontinue a relationship. Contrastingly, attitudinal similarity is comforting, validating, and confirming of one's thoughts and self-worth. Thus, people seek similar others to restore balance and security in their lives. Attitudinal similarity, more so than other similarity measures, is a means of reducing conflict and enhancing personal communications. Greater attitudinal similarity results in increased communications and improved understanding of expectations. Similar dyadic partners have also been shown to communicate more frequently and effectively thereby leading to increased liking. Thus, a cycle of liking and communicating emerges that leads to greater role accuracy, compliance, and additional reinforcement. A spiraling attraction based on perceived similarity creates positive affect and natural by-products of increased satisfaction and favorable appraisals. Contrastingly, dissimilarity leads to communication breakdown, isolation, distrust, and role conflict. Connected to the similarity-reinforcement concept is the role that propinquity plays. Before individuals can discover similar attitudes, they must be in proximity to one another and have the opportunity to observe like behaviors. This review generates the following question: Will the degree of

relational closeness moderate the effect of the similarity variable; and if so, will attitudinal similarity prove to be more robust than demographic similarity?

In the work world the similarity variable has primarily been studied in lab settings. The focus of much of these studies has been on subordinate job satisfaction and personnel evaluations with the ultimate concern of increasing productivity and employee morale. Perceived and attitudinal similarity have consistently proven to be strong, influential factors in business hiring practices and promotions. Actual and demographic similarity have not demonstrated similar strength with regard to these same employee outcomes. Repeatedly, studies have indicated that perceived similarity has greater effect than actual similarity. Why? Conclusions are that perceiving oneself attitudinally similar to another is actually consensually rewarding and validating. Contrastingly, perhaps due to lack of perceptual reinforcement, actual similarity has not proven to be as potent. Again, this review raises questions regarding the effects of perceived versus actual attitudinal similarity as it relates to the organizational outcomes of job satisfaction and evaluation. Simply stated, is there a relationship between perceived superordinate-subordinate attitudinal similarity and subordinate evaluations and satisfaction with supervision?

Another area of concern identified in this review is the need of different personality types for reinforcement. Throughout the similarity literature there is a basic assumption that all individuals have similar needs. This may be a false assumption. The locus of control studies examined the concept of internality-externality and suggested that

people's needs for reinforcement may actually vary depending on their location on the locus continuum. Internals, less dependent on outside forces for reinforcement may actually be less affected by the similarity phenomenon than externals. However, externals may be more susceptible to the similarity effect due to their dependency on others for reinforcement. Throughout the locus review, there is concern regarding the differing needs of evaluators and the effect of the similarity influence on organizational outcomes. This is especially evident with regard to the self-esteem exhibited by the superordinate in relation to the subordinate. Questions remain regarding the strength of the similarity variable especially as it is moderated by the personality of the superordinate. Stated objectively, is there a moderating relationship between superordinate-subordinate attitudinal similarity and the internal-external locus of control of the superordinate-subordinate?

Thus the present study examined the effects of the similarity variable upon the managerial outcomes of job satisfaction and performance appraisal as moderated by the locus variable. Concerns raised by the literature review included the strength of perceived versus actual similarity and the moderating effects of propinquity on the similarity variable. Also explored were the aspects of attitudinal versus demographic similarity in a dual dyadic managerial relationship. Of special interest throughout this study was the moderating effect of the locus of control variable in relation to similarity.

Hypotheses

Direct Relationships

The research examined in this chapter indicated that attitudinal similarity between a superordinate and subordinate would be related to the level of attraction within the managerial dyad. These studies also implied that personal attraction would manifest itself as improved employee job satisfaction and subordinate performance appraisals. Further, it was suggested that the opportunity to develop similar attitudinal relationships is partially dictated by proximity and degree of communications. Overall, the results of these studies suggest that managerial liking may have an effect on organizational outcomes that may be widely generalizable to a broad population.

Thus, the following was hypothesized:

Hypothesis 1: The degree of attitudinal leadership style similarity between a superintendent and principal is positively related to the level of the principal's job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1A: The degree of demographic similarity between a superintendent and principal is positively related to the level of the principal's job satisfaction.

It is expected that attitudinal similarity will demonstrate a stronger effect than demographic similarity and that overall similarity will display a powerful influence on subordinate outcomes. Throughout the studies reviewed, attitudinal similarity has proven to be robust. Of particular interest in this study was the generalizability of this concept to a

managerial dyadic relationship. It was anticipated that similarity within the dyad would positively affect subordinate job satisfaction.

Moderating Relationships

In a study on similarity, Nieva (1976) differentiated between direct and moderating relationships. A moderating relationship is defined as one that may either dilute or strengthen the primary relationship between the independent and dependent variables.

For purposes of this study, the effects of similarity on subordinate outcomes are expected to be affected by the degree of dyadic interaction and the level of the administrator's externality. It is suggested that as district size diminishes greater communication and interaction will occur. It is proposed that increased interaction will moderate, or strengthen, the similarity-outcomes relationship. Similarly, it is also suggested that administrator personality characteristics (i.e., externality) will strengthen, or moderate, the similarity-outcomes relationship.

A related interest was the concern regarding managerial opportunity to interact within the dyad and thus manifest a similarity relationship. If a dyadic relationship is to develop similarity cognition, there has to be levels of opportunity. Therefore, emerging from the review of propinquity, a corollary hypotheses is proposed:

Hypothesis 1B: The greater the superintendent-principal interaction, the stronger the relationship between attitudinal leadership style similarity and the principal's job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1C: The greater the superintendent-principal interaction, the stronger the relationship between demographic similarity and

the principal's job satisfaction.

It was anticipated that as the opportunity to interact increased within the dyadic relationship, the greater the chances for managerial similarity cognition. Thus it was expected that increased contact would enhance dyadic communication and responding reinforcement and liking.

For this study, it was reasoned that as the size of the school district diminished the opportunity for superintendent-principal interaction would increase. Thus, it was expected that the greatest interaction would occur in Class D size districts and the least interaction would take place in Class A size districts.

Paralleling the first two hypotheses, perceptual, attitudinal similarity and subordinate, personnel evaluations have consistently demonstrated a strong, influential relationship. The literature reviewed in this study suggests that in hiring practices, evaluations, and promotions those individuals most similar to management are frequently more likely to be hired, receive favorable reviews, and quicker promotions. It is suggested that superiors find it easier to communicate with similar subordinates and are more rewarding to employees with like attitudes. The rationale presented is that managers find subordinates with similar attitudes consensually validating and thus emotionally satisfying. Of interest to this study was the generalizability of the similarity-evaluation concept to a dual, dyadic managerial team. Of specific concern was the effect on the dyadic relationship within an educational organization.

Thus, the following was reasoned:

Hypothesis 2: The degree of attitudinal leadership style similarity between a superintendent and principal will be positively related to the

superintendent's evaluation rating of the principal.

Hypothesis 2A: The degree of demographic similarity between a superintendent and principal will be positively related to the superintendent's evaluation rating of the principal.

It was also reasoned that the opportunity for interaction between the superordinate and subordinate would moderate the relationship. Therefore, the following hypotheses were considered:

Hypothesis 2B: The greater the superintendent-principal interaction, the stronger the relationship between attitudinal leadership style similarity and the superintendent's evaluation rating of the principal.

Hypothesis 2C: The greater the superintendent-principal interaction, the stronger the relationship between demographic similarity and the superintendent's evaluation rating of the principal.

Based on the literature reviewed, it was expected that superintendents with perceived leadership styles similar to their principals would respond with higher principal performance ratings. It was anticipated that improved communications and increased liking would occur within similar dyads. It was also expected that within smaller school districts greater opportunity for dyad interaction would exist resulting in increased communications and cognition of similarity.

Of special interest to this study was the moderating effects of self-esteem and management style on the similarity variable. Throughout the literature, internals were identified as self-reliant and in control of reinforcements. Externals were described as dependent on outside rewards. If it could be shown that subordinate and superordinate needs vary depending on internal variables and that these personal needs affect

organizational outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction and employee evaluations), then a significant personnel predictor would be identified.

Thus, a series of hypotheses are proposed:

Hypothesis 3: The greater the superintendent's externality score, the stronger the relationship between attitudinal leadership style similarity and the principal's evaluation rating.

Hypothesis 3A: The greater the superintendent's externality score, the stronger the relationship between demographic similarity and the principal's evaluation rating.

Hypothesis 3B: The greater the principal's externality score, the stronger the relationship between attitudinal leadership style similarity and the principal's job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3C: The greater the principal's externality score, the stronger the relationship between demographic similarity and the principal's job satisfaction.

It is expected that externals, more dependent on outside sources for reinforcement, will be more affected by the similarity phenomenon than internals. Throughout the studies reviewed, internals have been more independent and self-reliant. Thus, there is an expectancy that the degree of internality-externality associated within the dyad will moderate the effect of the similarity variable and organizational outcomes.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

The reinforcement theory of personal attraction provided the conceptual framework for this study. According to the theory, similar attitudes are viewed as rewarding while dissimilar beliefs are seen as punishing. People tend to like and reward similar others because like attitudes are considered consensually validating and strain reducing. In this study, the differential effects of managerial, dyadic similarity on subordinate job satisfaction and performance evaluation, as moderated by the locus of control variable, were examined. The basic study involved an analysis of the main effect of the independent variables, demographic and attitudinal leadership style similarity, and the dependent variables, subordinate job satisfaction and performance evaluation. As a secondary consideration, this study also examined the moderating effect of dyadic proximity and the locus of control variable.

This chapter contains four sections dealing with the implementation of the study. Specifically, the sections are: (1) subject selection; (2) independent measures: leadership style and demographic data; (3) dependent measures: performance evaluation, job satisfaction, and locus of control; and (4) data analysis.

Subjects

The subjects for this study consisted of superintendents and high school principals employed in K-12 public school systems throughout the

state of Michigan. A stratified random sample of superintendent-principal dyads was obtained for the study from the population of all 525 public K-12 school districts in Michigan. The population was stratified to ensure that 25% of the participants would be proportionally allocated from each of four district classifications or strata: Class A, B, C, and D (Hinkle, Wiersma, & Jurs, 1979). These classifications are determined by total student enrollment within the high school of the district: (a) A = 964+, (b) B = 504-963, (c) C = 256-503, and (d) D = 255 or less. It was important to make this class size distinction because it was felt that district size might affect the dyadic relationship between superintendent and principal.

From a list in the Michigan Education Directory (1991) of all 525 K-12 school districts in the state of Michigan, excluding private, parochial, and K-8, and by using a table of random numbers, one-fifth, or 20%, of the districts were selected, thereby producing a sample of 104 managerial dyads.

Having determined that each of the four stratum would be equally represented, 25% of the total sample, 26 dyads, were thus selected for each classification. Subjects were chosen by randomly selecting a number from the strata range and systematically selecting every 20th number until the sample needs were fulfilled for each stratum. In the instance when school districts had multiple high schools, the first listed high school principal was chosen to complete the managerial dyad. The subjects were then arranged into four comparison groups by school district size, Class A, B, C, and D. For study purposes, each group consisted equally of 26 superintendent-principal dyads. Of the 208

mailed questionnaires, 167 were returned, or 80.2%. However, only 67 of the 104 pairs matched for leadership style, 64%; and only 63 of 104 pairs matched for demographic similarity, 61%. Within the return sample there were 128 males and 6 females ranging in age from 32 to 72. Subjects ranged in educational achievement from a master's degree to the doctoral level. The superintendents rated their own leadership style and the principals' job performance. The principals rated their own leadership style and job satisfaction and their perception of the superintendents' leadership style. Measures of demographic and leadership style similarity were then related to superordinate perceptions of subordinate performance and subordinate perceptions of job satisfaction by means of the Pearson correlation coefficient. Further examination of these relationships were conducted by district class size to determine if propinquity affected the magnitude of the relationship. Finally, the sample was split on the locus of control median and differences between high and low locus groups were tested regarding the similarity-subordinate outcomes relationship.

Independent Measures

Leadership Style

Leadership information for both superintendents and principals was obtained by means of the Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) (Fleishman, 1989). This questionnaire, developed by Ohio State University researchers, has been widely used to measure a manager's perception of supervisory style. The instrument provides scores on two

leadership dimensions: consideration and structure. Fleishman (1989)

defined the two dimensions as:

Consideration (C) reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to have job relationships with subordinates characterized by mutual trust, respect for their ideas, consideration of their feelings, and a certain warmth between the individual and them. A high score is indicative of a climate of good rapport and two-way communication. A low score indicates the individual is likely to be more impersonal in relations with group members.

Structure (S) reflects the extent to which an individual is likely to define and structure his or her own role and those of subordinates toward goal attainment. A high score on this dimension characterizes individuals who play a very active role in directing group activities through planning, communicating information, scheduling, criticizing, trying out new ideas, and so forth. A low score indicates the individual is likely to be relatively inactive in giving direction in these ways. (p. 1)

The questionnaire contains a total of 40 items, 20 of which are scored consideration and 20 of which are scored structure. The two dimensions operate independently of one another meaning that a manager can be high on both, low on both, or high on one dimension and low on the other (Hodge, 1976). Fleishman (1989) added:

In general, the pattern that emerges as most undesirable for many situations is the one in which supervisors are low in both Consideration and Structure. At least two studies have shown that such managers are more likely to be bypassed by subordinates and may not even be seen as the functional manager. The high Structure-low Consideration supervisor is more likely to have more turnover, grievances, and stress among subordinates. (p. 8)

Internal consistency reliabilities for the LOQ have been obtained in a number of studies using the split-half method with scores varying from .62 to .89 for consideration and 0.64 to 0.88 for structure. Test-retest reliabilities for a 1-month interval for Air Force NCO sampling was .67 to .77 and for a 3-month interval for first-line supervisors .74 to .80.

The LOQ was developed to maximize construct validity. The test manual urges that research validity studies, correlating these dimensions to independent criteria of effectiveness, be carried out in diverse organizations with different types of supervisory personnel (Fleishman, 1989). Normative data on the LOQ have been obtained and supported by other researchers (Bronneberg, 1988; Duxbury, Armstrong, Drew, & Henly, 1984). The LOQ was utilized in a study by Duxbury et al. (1984) conducted at 14 neonatal intensive care units involving 238 staff nurses. Designed to investigate the relationship between head nurses' leadership style and staff nurses' burnout and job satisfaction, the LOQ was used to evaluate the head nurses' leadership style. This study showed that a head nurse's leadership style can moderate the effects of a demanding work environment on subordinates. Bronneberg (1988) examined the influence of employee gender and sex role on their implicit theories of ideal leader behavior by surveying 488 nonacademic employees of a Midwestern university using the LOQ as the survey instrument.

This study concluded that the amount of Considerate behavior desired from an ideal supervisor was not influenced by an employee's gender or sex role orientation; however, the amount of Structuring desired from an ideal supervisor was. Those employees with congruent sex role and gender (i.e., high feminine females and low feminine males) wanted more Structuring behavior from their ideal supervisor than employees with incongruent sex role and gender (i.e., low feminine females and high feminine males). (Fleishman, 1989, p. 16)

The Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) seemed to be specially well suited for use in this investigation. The directions are easy to follow and provide the necessary information to determine supervisory style for superordinate and subordinate managers.

The Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire-Form XII (LBDQ) was used to determine the subordinate's perception of the superordinate's leadership style. The manual for the LBDQ explains that the questionnaire was developed to obtain descriptions of supervisors and describe behaviors of leaders by supervised group members (Stogdill, 1963). Developed by researchers at Ohio State University, the LBDQ provides scores on 12 subscales. Subordinates are requested to indicate the frequency that their superior engages in certain behavior by checking one of the five adverbs: (1) always, (2) often, (3) occasionally, (4) seldom, or (5) never. The instrument is scored in such a manner as to yield a score for each subordinate on two leadership dimensions (Young, 1983). For the purposes of this study, only the subscales Consideration and Initiation of Structure was employed.

Gillo (1982/1983) pointed out that Halpin and Winer (1957/1982) and Fleishman (1957) in earlier leadership studies identified Consideration and Initiation of Structure as the two factors most responsible for the variance in leader descriptions. Gillo stated that initiating structure referred to the leaders' behavior in getting the job done. Initiating structure is defined in the LBDQ manual (Stogdill, 1963) as how the leader defines his own role and communicates expectations to followers. Young (1983) further explained that this dimension reflects a concern for work, providing direction and completing work tasks. Consideration is viewed as a concern for the relationship between the leader and his followers (Halpin & Winer, 1957/1982). Young (1983) stated that consideration is a concern for people and that administrators perceived by their subordinates as high on this dimension are concerned with

friendship, mutual trust, and warmth.

According to the LBDQ manual (Stogdill, 1963), "the two factorially defined subscales, Consideration and Initiation of Structure, have been widely used in empirical research, particularly in military organizations, industry, and education" (p. 1). Halpin and Winer (cited in Stogdill, 1963) reported:

In several studies where the agreement among respondents in describing their respective leaders has been checked by a "between group vs. within group" analysis of variance, the F ratios all have been found significant at the .01 level. Followers tend to agree in describing the same leader, and the descriptions of different leaders differ significantly. (p. 1)

In this study the entire Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire was administered to subordinate high school principals. All 100 questions were administered to heed a caution by Evans (cited in A. L. Johnson et al., 1984) that responses to subscales administered separately may not be psychometrically equivalent to responses made when the entire instrument is administered. Durand and Nord (1976) stated that generally the LBDQ scores have been averaged to measure supervisory behavior but cautioned that this procedure may be misleading "because it obscures the influence of such things as differential treatment of individuals by the same supervisor" (p. 429). Durand and Nord advised that averaging LBDQ scores across subordinates may obscure the effects of personality differences among subordinates on the perceptions of leadership behavior. Thus, Durand and Nord recommended that each superordinate-subordinate dyad be used independently as the relevant unit of analysis.

The manual for the L.B.D.Q. indicates that the questionnaire was designed for use as a research device. It is not recommended for use in selection, assignment or assessment purposes and there are no norms for the L.B.D.Q. The reliability of the subscales was determined by a modified Kuder-Richardson formula. Each item was correlated with the remainder of the items in its subscale rather than with the sub-scale score including the item. This procedure results in a conservative estimate of subscale reliability. (Hodge, 1976, p. 39)

The reliabilities reported for consideration ranged between .76 and .87.

The reliabilities reported for structure ranged between .70 and .80 (Hodge, 1976).

Demographic Data

Six demographic characteristics were employed to examine similarity: (1) number of years in current position, (2) number of years in district, (3) age, (4) sex, (5) education, and (6) marital status. For the first three variables, the degree of similarity was obtained by direct subtraction of the number of subordinate years from superordinate years. For the last three, dummy variables were created: a score of zero was assigned if the superordinate and subordinate statuses were identical. With regards to sex, if the dyad was different, a 1 was assigned. With the last two variables, a 1 or 2 was assigned dependent on the differences (Nieva, 1976). The collection instrument is presented in Appendix A.

Dependent Measures

Performance

Superintendents evaluated the job performance of their principals

by completing the Minnesota Satisfactoriness Scale (MSS) (Gibson, Weiss, Davis, & Lofquist, 1970).

The 28 item instrument contains five scales: (1) performance (MSSP), (2) conformance (MSSC), (3) dependability (MSSD), (4) personal adjustment (MSSPA) and (5) general satisfactoriness (MSSGS). The MSSP scale concerns the subordinate's promotability and the quality and quantity of work. The MSSC scale reflects how well the subordinate gets along with the supervisor and co-workers as well as the observance of rules and regulations. The MSSD scale assesses the frequency of disciplinary problems created by the subordinate. The MSSPA scale concerns the subordinate's emotional health and well being, and the MSSGS is an overall global measure of performance across all 28 items. For each item, the manager is asked to check a 3 point scale. The possible ranges of scores for the five scales are as follows: MSSP (9-27), MSSC (7-21), MSSD (4-12), MSSPA (7-21), and MSSGS (28-84). (Wexley et al., 1980, pp. 322-323).

Regarding reliability, the manual for the MSS states that the five MSS scales show a medial internal consistency reliability of .87. Median test-retest reliability for several job groups over a 2-year interval was .50. The 2-year study also provided evidence for validity of the MSS (Gibson et al., 1970). The manual explains that in interpreting and scoring one first needs to convert raw scores to percentile scores. Percentile scores of 25 and below may be considered as unsatisfactory, 26 through 49 as somewhat satisfactory, 50 through 74 as satisfactory, and 75 and above as very satisfactory.

Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction information was obtained by using the Job Descriptive Index (JDI) (Smith et al., 1969). Smith (cited in Huber, 1970) explained that the JDI was developed to be useful over a wide range of job classifications and with people of varying job levels; to be short,

easily administered and easily scoreable; to be free from obvious biases, such as acquiescence; to take into consideration the workers' frame of reference; to be reliable and valid; and to generate scores indicative of satisfaction with a number of different aspects of the work situation (Huber, 1970).

The Job Descriptive Index (JDI) is designed to measure five areas of job satisfaction: (1) satisfaction with work, (2) supervision, (3) co-workers, (4) pay, and (5) the opportunity for promotion. Smith et al., (1969) stated that each category of satisfaction should be maintained and measured separately if substantial understanding is to be achieved.

The questionnaire consists of a page of instructions and five additional pages representing the five categories of satisfaction. Respondents are instructed to read the list of adjectives or short phrases concerning job satisfaction and answer by placing the letter Y for yes, N for no, or ? if undecided next to the phrase that describes their attitude toward the job. Two categories, Pay and Promotion, have 9 statements; and three categories, Supervision, People, and Work, have 18 statements. An overall satisfaction score may be obtained by summing the five categories.

However, Balzer and Smith (1990) advised that it is a mistake to compute overall satisfaction by summing the five JDI scales. Primarily, their concern is that by summing the five dimensions an assumption of equal weighting is provided unjustifiably to each facet of job satisfaction. Balzer and Smith thought that some aspects of the job are more important than others and that summing will create a deficient measure of overall satisfaction. To correct this problem with the JDI, the Job in

General (JIG) Scale (Balzer & Smith, 1990) was developed to be administered along with the JDI and it is constructed to measure overall job satisfaction.

Regarding JDI validation, Balzer and Smith (1990) reported that "based on results from both cluster analyses and factor analyses, the J.D.I. measures were found to possess high levels of discriminant and convergent validity" (p. 47). Young (1983) stated that "test-retest reliability coefficients range between .70 and .80 and that in the educational setting, Coley reported an internal consistency measure of 0.90 with teachers" (p. 116). The JIG, designed to be more global and more evaluative was reported to have coefficient alpha reliability estimates exceeding .90. JIG correlation validation ranged from .66 to .80. In summary, Balzer and Smith (1990) reported that JDI "has remained the most popular standardized measure of job satisfaction and has been used by hundreds of organizations" (p. 10).

Locus of Control

To examine the effects of locus of control the Rotter (1966) Internal-External (I-E) Locus of Control Scale was administered. Based on Social Learning Theory, the scale is concerned with a person's belief regarding one's reinforcement received and the degree to which one believes the reinforcement to be contingent upon one's own behavior.

The I-E contains 29 items, 6 of which are filler items. Respondents are offered two choices, A or B, on the 29 items and they are to circle the statement which most strongly describes their belief. One choice is designed to reflect a belief in internal control of reinforcements

and the other choice is designed to determine a belief in external control. The six filler items are intended to mask over the overt intention of the scale. The score is the absolute number of external choices selected.

Rotter (1966) explained:

The items deal exclusively with the subject's belief about the nature of the world. That is, they are concerned with the subject's expectations about how reinforcement is controlled. Consequently, the test is considered to be a measure of a generalized expectancy. Generally, when a person expects or perceives reinforcements to be contingent on one's own behavior a higher internal score would be expected. Conversely, when such reinforcements are perceived to be the results of change, powerful others, or the complexity of the situation, we would expect a higher external score. (p. 10)

Rotter (1966) reported the internal consistency of the I-E scale using split half reliability as .65. Employing the Spearman-Brown method the reliability was .79 and using the Kuder-Richardson method the correlation ranged from .69 to .76. Rotter concluded that item analysis and factor analysis demonstrated reasonably high internal consistency for an additive scale. Test-retest reliability for a 1-month period ranged from .70 to .83, and for a 2-month period the reliability was somewhat lower, .49 to .61. "Rotter determined that the test-retest reliability is satisfactory and that the scale correlates well with other methods of assessing the same variable such as a Likert scale, interview assessment, and ratings from a story completion technique" (Zielke, 1984, p. 27). Zielke reported that the evidence regarding construct validity was extensive and concluded that although new I-E scales have been developed, the Rotter scale remains the instrument of choice for research involving adults.

Propinquity

To examine the intervening effects of propinquity, the population of superintendent-principal dyads within the state of Michigan was stratified by district size into four strata: Class A, B, C, and D. The reasoning was that superintendent-principal dyads in smaller districts, simply on a needs basis, interact-communicate to a greater degree than superintendent-principal dyads in larger districts. In larger districts there are more layers of administration and thus not the need nor opportunity for dyadic interaction. Contrastingly, in smaller districts the superintendent and principal are very reliant upon one another as they are the only administrators in the district.

Newcomb (1956) stated that the opportunity for communications (propinquity) had a direct effect on dyadic relationships and personal liking. Further, Katz and Kahn (1978) explained that the role accuracy through increased communications leads to rewarding behavior and positive reinforcement.

Thus, for this study the measure of superintendent-principal interaction was the size of the school district within which the dyad existed. It was expected that Class D dyads would demonstrate a stronger similarity-subordinate outcomes relationship than Class C, B, or A dyads, respectively.

Analysis of Data

The initial phase in data analysis involved the computation of attitudinal similarity within the 104 management dyads on the

independent variable, leadership style (LOQ and LBDQ) by means of the distance of \underline{D} measure (Cronbach & Gleser, 1953). Cronbach and Gleser explained that the \underline{D} score is a common measure of profile similarity between two persons. They added:

The more similar the measure of two individuals the closer will their points lie in the k-dimensional space, and conversely, the further apart the points the more dissimilar are the corresponding measurements. Accordingly we define the dissimilarity of two individuals as the linear distance between their respective points. (p. 459)

Cronbach and Gleser (1953, p. 459) offered the following formula as a general expression for the dissimilarity between two profiles:

$$D_{12}^2 = \sum_{j=1}^k (X_{j1} - X_{j2})^2$$

They went on to define the formula as:

j = any of the variates a, b, c, . . . which are "k" in number.

i = any one of the persons 1, 2, . . . N.

X_{ji} = the score of person i on variate j.

Considering only two persons, results in the set of X_{ji} (X_{a1} , X_{b1} , . . . X_{k1}) for Person 1, and the set of X_{ji} for Person 2. Without placing any restriction upon the data, the X_{ji} may be regarded as the coordinates of a point P_1 in "k"-dimensional space. The X_{j2} defines a point P_2 .

Huber (1970) defined the \underline{D} score as, "The \underline{D} measure is simply the generalized Pythagorean theorem for the distance between the two points corresponding to the profiles for two persons equals the square root of the sum of the squared differences on the profile variable" (p. 29). Huber added, " \underline{D} is particularly appealing because it considers profile level, shape, and dispersion, whereas other measure of profile similarity, such as correlation coefficient, consider only differences in

profile shape" (p. 29).

Kerlinger (1973) stated that "the usual product-moment correlation coefficient is not considered suitable as a measure of the relation between two concepts, because it does not take absolute distances into account" (p. 574). Thus, Kerlinger recommended the \underline{D} statistic as a measure of relationship of two concepts close together in semantic space. Kerlinger (1973, p. 574) defined \underline{D} as:

$$D_{ij} = \sqrt{\sum d_{ij}^2}$$

and explained that to compute \underline{D} one "simply subtracts the assigned values of one concept, square each of these differences, and sum the squared differences:

$$\sum d_{ij}^2 = \sum (X_i - X_j)^2$$

Then extract the square root of this sum, or

$$D_{ij} = \sqrt{\sum (X_i - X_j)^2}$$

Nieva (1976), explaining the value of the \underline{D} score, stated that "a score of zero represents perfect fit or similarity; that is, no discrepancy exists between the supervisor and subordinate on a particular dimension" (p. 48). In this study, the subordinate's job satisfaction and performance evaluation, dependent variables, are expected to be more favorable when the discrepancy is zero and less favorable as differences increase. Nieva (1976), in a comprehensive report on the use of \underline{D} scores warned of several major concerns with this measurement: problems with the assumption of commensurate and equal measurement units, scores tending to maximize the random error of measurement,

variability of components, regression toward the mean, and confounding of the component subjective measures. However, Nieva concluded by advising that "the advantages of quantifiability and the degree of specificity obtained regarding the type of interaction implied may offset the disadvantages attached to discrepancy scores" (p. 49). Thus, D scores were determined to be the measurement of similarity within the independent variable for this study.

As a representation of similarity, dyadic D scores were obtained for each of the independent variables: LBDQ, LOQ, and demographic data. These similarity scores were then correlated with the dependent measures: MSS and JDI. Defining discrepancy scores, Nieva (1976) stated: "A score of zero represents perfect fit or similarity; that is, no discrepancy exists between the supervisor and subordinate on a particular dimension" (p. 48). The assumption is that as discrepancy scores approach zero there will be greater similarity. It is reasoned that the greater the similarity or lower D scores, the greater the correlation between the independent and dependent variables.

As an example expressed operationally for Dyad 1, LBDQ scores:

$$D_{ij} = \sqrt{\sum (X_i - X_j)^2}$$

$$D_{ij} = \sqrt{\sum (60 - 42)^2 + (35 - 36)^2}$$

$$D_{ij} = \sqrt{325}$$

$$D_{ij} = 18.027$$

In this expression the first two sets of numbers represent the superintendent's and principal's consideration scores and the second set of numbers represent their structure scores on the LBDQ. By this operation

a discrepancy score of 18.027 is determined for Dyad 1. This score represents the distance from zero, or perfect similarity, that these two educational managers are from one another in their leadership style. Similar computations were conducted for the 104 dyads relative to LOQ and demographic data. With demographic data arbitrary assignment of 0 and 1 were given to male-female, married-not married, and doctorate-masters to determine similarity computations.

To test for the main effect, the \underline{D} scores were then related to the subordinate's performance rating (MSS) and the subordinate's job satisfaction (JDI), dependent variables, by means of the Pearson product zero-order correlation coefficient. To test secondary concerns, the dyads were first split on the locus of control median thereby creating a high and low group. Pearson correlations were again computed for the independent-dependent relationship for the two groups. The differences between the two independent correlation coefficients were then examined using z as the test statistic (Hinkle et al., 1979).

The hypotheses presented at the conclusion of Chapter II determined that the data would be analyzed by using the null hypotheses of zero correlation in the population. The hypotheses were tested using zero correlation because of concern with the relationship of the variables without regard for the magnitude of relationship (Hinkle et al., 1979).

Following are the operational hypotheses for each set of correlation coefficients:

Hypothesis 1: The value of the population correlation coefficient between attitudinal leadership style similarity and job satisfaction will be greater than zero. The directionality of this hypothesis indicates that

this study tested whether a relationship existed between attitude similarity and subordinate job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1A: The value of the population correlation coefficient between demographic similarity and job satisfaction will be greater than zero. The directionality of this hypothesis indicates that this study tested whether a relationship existed between demographic similarity and subordinate job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1B: The value of the population correlation coefficient between attitudinal leadership style similarity and job satisfaction will be greater for superintendent-principal dyads with greater interaction than superintendent-principal dyads with less interaction. The directionality of this hypothesis indicates that the study tested whether the correlation between attitudinal leadership style similarity and subordinate job satisfaction was greater for Class D district dyads than the correlation between similarity and job satisfaction for Class C, B, and A dyads, respectively.

Hypothesis 1C: The value of the population correlation coefficient between demographic similarity and job satisfaction will be greater for superintendent-principal dyads with greater interaction than superintendent-principal dyads with less interaction. The directionality of this hypothesis indicates that the study tested whether the correlation between demographic similarity and job satisfaction was greater for Class D district dyads than the correlation between demographic similarity and job satisfaction for Class C, B, and A dyads, respectively.

Hypothesis 2: The value of the population correlation coefficient

between attitudinal leadership style similarity and performance evaluations will be greater than zero. Again, the directionality of this hypothesis anticipates a positive correlation between attitudinal similarity and the superordinate's evaluation of the subordinate.

Hypothesis 2A: The value of the population correlation coefficient between demographic similarity and performance evaluations will be greater than zero. The directionality of this hypothesis indicates that this study tested whether a relationship existed between demographic similarity and subordinate evaluations.

Hypothesis 2B: The value of the population correlation coefficient between attitudinal leadership style similarity and performance evaluation will be greater for superintendent-principal dyads with greater interaction than superintendent-principal dyads with less interaction. The directionality of this hypothesis indicates that the study tested whether the correlation between attitudinal leadership style similarity and subordinate performance evaluations was greater for Class D district dyads than correlation between similarity and performance evaluation for Class C, B, and A dyads, respectively.

Hypothesis 2C: The value of the population correlation coefficient between demographic similarity and performance evaluation will be greater for superintendent-principal dyads with greater interaction than superintendent-principal dyads with less interaction. The directionality of this hypothesis indicates that the study tested whether the correlation between demographic similarity and subordinate performance evaluations was greater for Class D district dyads than correlation between similarity and performance evaluation for Class C, B, and A dyads,

respectively.

Hypothesis 3: The value of the population correlation coefficient between attitudinal leadership style similarity and subordinate performance evaluation will be greater for the externality oriented superintendent's group than for the internality oriented superintendent's group. The directionality of this hypothesis indicates that the study tested whether the correlation between attitudinal leadership style similarity and subordinate performance evaluation for externality oriented superintendents was greater than the correlation between attitudinal leadership style similarity and subordinate performance evaluation for internality oriented superintendents.

Hypothesis 3A: The value of the population correlation coefficient between demographic similarity and subordinate performance evaluation will be greater for the externality oriented superintendent's group than for the internality oriented superintendent's group. The directionality of this hypothesis indicates that the study tested whether the correlation between demographic similarity and subordinate performance evaluation for externality oriented superintendents was greater than the correlation between attitudinal leadership style similarity and subordinate performance evaluation for internality oriented superintendents.

Hypothesis 3B: The value of the population correlation coefficient between attitudinal leadership style similarity and the principal's job satisfaction will be greater for the externality oriented principal's group than for the internality oriented principal's group. The directionality of this hypothesis indicates that the study tested whether the correlation between attitudinal leadership style similarity and principal's job

satisfaction was greater for externality oriented principals than the correlation between attitudinal leadership style similarity and job satisfaction for internality oriented principals.

Hypothesis 3C: The value of the population correlation coefficient between demographic similarity and the principal's job satisfaction will be greater for the externality oriented principal's group than for the internality oriented principal's group. The directionality of this hypothesis indicates that the study tested whether the correlation between demographic similarity and principal's job satisfaction for externality oriented principals was greater than the correlation between demographic similarity and job satisfaction for internality oriented principals.

The hypotheses were tested using a probability of .05 of committing a Type I error. Test procedures for this study were conducted at Northern Michigan University between July 1, 1992, and July 14, 1992, using the Software Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), Release 4.0, computer program for IBM OS/MVS (Norusis, 1986). With regard to Hypotheses 3 through 3C, to test the differences of two population correlation coefficients, the following formula was utilized:

$$Z = \frac{(Z_{r1} - Z_{r2}) - (Z_{p1} - Z_{p2})}{S_{Z_{r1} - Z_{r2}}}$$

where:

$$S_{Z_{r1} - Z_{r2}} = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-3} + \frac{1}{n-3}}$$

In each case, the correlation coefficient obtained for each sample (r) must undergo transformation via Fisher's log to maintain a sampling distribution that is normal. This is necessary due to the increasing skewness of the distribution as the absolute sample correlation coefficient increases.

Fisher's log transformation, represented as z in the formula, corrects this problem, and results in a sampling distribution that is nearly normal for any value of the correlation coefficient (Hinkle et al., 1979, p. 223). (Gillo, 1982/1983, pp. 58-59)

CHAPTER IV

INTERPRETATION OF DATA

The primary purpose of this study was to analyze the relationship between the independent variable of attitudinal-demographic similarity and the dependent variables of subordinate job satisfaction and performance evaluation. Of secondary consideration was the examination of the effects of superordinate-subordinate proximity and personality in the magnitude of this relationship. Specifically, the study compared the Pearson r correlation between the dimension of attitudinal-demographic similarity and job satisfaction as a one-sample case for zero correlation in the population (Hinkle et al., 1979). Similarly, the study also compared the correlation between the dimension of attitudinal-demographic similarity and performance evaluation. Further, this study compared the correlation between attitudinal-demographic similarity and job satisfaction-performance evaluation by district size to observe the effect of proximity on the relationship. Finally, this study compared the correlation between attitudinal-demographic similarity and job satisfaction-evaluation as a two-sample case for internality versus externality locus of control (Hinkle et al., 1979).

To test the hypotheses, \underline{D} scores, discrepancy or distance scores, were computed for six demographic and two attitudinal leadership areas. The \underline{D} scores for each dyad are presented in Appendix C. To statistically test the respective hypotheses, the \underline{D} scores were correlated with each

facet of subordinate outcomes, job satisfaction and evaluation ratings, by means of the Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient. Job satisfaction analysis included the six areas of the Job Descriptive Index (JDI): (1) job, (2) pay, (3) promotion, (4) supervision, (5) co-worker, and (6) satisfaction in general. Evaluation data included all five facets of the Minnesota Satisfactoriness Scale (MSS): (1) performance, (2) conformance, (3) dependability, (4) personal adjustment, and (5) general satisfactoriness. The decision to incorporate demographic similarity data--(a) position years, (b) district years, (c) age, (d) education, (e) marital status, and (f) sex--was based on the desire to broaden the understanding of the interaction of these similarity facets and employee outcomes.

Throughout this study, it is important to realize that the lower the D scores the less distance that exists between the individual scores within the managerial dyad. Thus, the lower the D score the higher the similarity within the pair. Therefore, lower D, similarity scores on attitudinal and demographic data and higher outcome scores, JDI and MSS, will result in a stronger and expected, negative correlation. Due to the directionality of Hypotheses 1 through 1C and 2 through 2C, the probabilities obtained for the comparison of correlation were based on a one-tailed test of the significant differences between correlations. Hypotheses 3 through 3C were nondirectional and, thus, a two-tailed test of significance was employed.

Hypotheses of Relationships

Hypothesis 1: Attitudinal Leadership Style Similarity and Job Satisfaction

The degree of attitudinal leadership style similarity between the superintendent and the principal will be positively related to the level of the principal's job satisfaction.

To test the hypothesis that attitudinal leadership style similarity between the superintendent and principal would be positively related to job satisfaction, the superordinate-subordinate D scores were correlated with the JDI factors by means of the Pearson correlation coefficient. Because of the method of computing the similarity factor, where zero equals maximum similarity and increased positive values mean less similarity, all expected relationships are in the negative direction.

As indicated in Table 1, the hypothesis that attitudinal leadership style similarity would be associated with greater job satisfaction was supported for perceptual similarity of leadership style, as measured by the LBDQ, and the JDI factor of satisfaction with supervision ($r = -.48$). Regarding the other facets of the JDI--(a) job, (b) pay, (c) promotion, (d) co-worker, and (e) general--there was very little relationship indicated between attitudinal leadership style similarity and subordinate job satisfaction. Of special interest is the lack of relationship between actual similarity. Unquestionably, the most significant observation is the correlational relationship of perceptual similarity and satisfaction with supervision. However, overall there is little support for a relationship between actual similarity and subordinate job satisfaction.

Table 1
Correlation Between Superordinate-Subordinate Similarity
Scores and Job Satisfaction (JDI)

Discrepancy <u>D</u> scores	Job satisfaction (JDI)					
	Job		Pay		Promo	
	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>
Leadership style similarity (<u>N</u> = 67)						
LOQ	-.05	.34	.06	.32	-.02	.42
LBDQ	-.00	.49	-.01	.46	-.04	.37
Demographic similarity (<u>N</u> = 63)						
Position years	-.03	.41	-.06	.33	.01	.47
District years	.20	.06	-.09	.25	.10	.22
Age	.01	.45	.02	.44	.09	.25
Education	-.10	.22	.28	.01	.01	.48
Marital	-.03	.40	-.11	.20	.09	.25
Sex	-.12	.17	.14	.14	.01	.48

Table 1--Continued

Discrepancy <u>D</u> scores	Job satisfaction (JDI)					
	Supervision		Co-worker		General	
	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>
Leadership style similarity (<u>N</u> = 67)						
LOQ	.06	.31	.05	.34	-.19	.07
LBDQ	-.48*	.00	.04	.37	-.06	.30
Demographic similarity (<u>N</u> = 63)						
Position years	-.09	.24	-.08	.27	.02	.44
District years	-.04	.37	.12	.17	.12	.18
Age	-.03	.42	-.32*	.00	.02	.44
Education	-.01	.47	-.11	.20	-.06	.33
Marital	-.20*	.05	-.15	.13	.11	.19
Sex	-.27*	.02	.09	.23	-.05	.36

*p < .05, one-tailed.

Hypothesis 1A: Demographic Similarity and Job Satisfaction

The degree of demographic similarity between a superintendent and principal will be positively related to the level of the principal's job satisfaction.

As with attitudinal leadership style similarity, to test this hypothesis superordinate-subordinate D scores for demographic similarity were first computed and the scores then correlated with the JDI factors by means of the Pearson correlation coefficient. As shown in Table 1, three aspects of demographic similarity demonstrated a relationship with job satisfaction. In this table, sex similarity and satisfaction with supervision ($r = -.27$), age similarity and satisfaction with co-worker ($r = -.32$), and marital similarity and satisfaction with supervision ($r = -.20$) are related as predicted. However, generally most facets of demographic similarity and job satisfaction do not demonstrate the hypothesized relationship.

Hypothesis 1B: Propinquity, Attitudinal Leadership Style Similarity, and Job Satisfaction

The greater the superintendent-principal interaction, the stronger the relationship between attitudinal leadership style similarity and the principal's job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 1C: Propinquity, Demographic Similarity, and Job Satisfaction

The greater the superintendent-principal interaction, the stronger the relationship between demographic similarity and the principal's job satisfaction.

To better understand the relationships between attitudinal similarity and subordinate outcomes, additional analysis of the data was conducted. One specific concern was if the size of the organization would affect managerial dyadic closeness and thus moderate the magnitude of

the relationship. With regard to the similarity-job satisfaction relationship, it was anticipated that increased contact or propinquity within the dyadic relationship would strengthen the effects of similarity on subordinate job satisfaction. It was reasoned that the smaller the school system the greater the opportunity and frequency of interaction between the superintendent and the high school principal. Previous research has indicated that increased contact enhances the effects of similarity within relationships. With regard to school management, it was hypothesized that as the district's size diminished superintendent-principal contact would increase and, correspondingly, the correlational effects of similarity and job satisfaction would be stronger.

To test these hypotheses the dyads were systematically stratified by district size and the \underline{D} scores for each of four subgroups were correlated separately by means of the Pearson product-moment correlational coefficient with the six facets of the JDI scale. The results are observable in Tables 2 through 5. As indicated in these tables, increasingly more facets of job satisfaction are related as predicted to similarity scores as the district subgroups decrease by size. In the smallest sized subgroup, Class D, eight similarity factors were related to job satisfaction. In the next larger sized subgroup, Class C, only five areas demonstrated a relationship; and in class B, only two areas were related to job satisfaction. However, this progressive pattern is altered with Class A, with three factors showing a relationship. With regard to attitudinal similarity, and specifically perceptual similarity and satisfaction with supervision, all four subgroups maintain relatively equal levels of relationship: (1) Class A ($r = -.69$), (2) Class B ($r = -.48$), (3) Class C

($r = -.45$), and (4) Class D ($r = -.49$). However, individual category findings are generally consistent with the overall similarity-job satisfaction findings and thus do not demonstrate any relevant differences as a result of district size.

Table 2
Correlation Between Superordinate-Subordinate Similarity
(LOQ and LBDQ) and Job Satisfaction (JDI)
for Class A Districts

Discrepancy D scores	Job satisfaction (JDI)					
	Job		Pay		Promo	
	r	p	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity ($n = 14$)						
LOQ	.24	.21	-.01	.49	.46	.05
LBDQ	-.38	.09	-.00	.50	-.17	.29
Demographic similarity ($n = 12$)						
Position years	-.10	.38	-.20	.26	.02	.47
District years	.03	.46	-.19	.28	-.11	.37
Age	-.01	.48	.02	.48	.03	.46
Education	.21	.26	.51	.05	.23	.23
Marital	-.02	.47	.59	.02	-.20	.27
Sex	-.41	.09	.43	.08	-.38	.11

Table 2--Continued

Discrepancy D scores	Job satisfaction (JDI)					
	Supervision		Co-worker		General	
	r	p	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity (n = 14)						
LOQ	.28	.16	.02	.48	-.18	.29
LBDQ	-.69*	.04	.14	.32	-.09	.38
Demographic similarity (n = 12)						
Position years	-.10	.38	-.10	.38	-.36	.12
District years	-.15	.32	.07	.42	-.09	.39
Age	.19	.28	-.45	.07	-.46	.07
Education	-.19	.27	-.63*	.01	.30	.17
Marital	-.30	.17	.32	.16	.44	.07
Sex	-.81*	.00	.16	.31	.30	.17

* $p < .05$, one-tailed.

Effectively, little may be discerned in support of the hypothesis that propinquity, as a result of district size, has an effect on the relationship of similarity and job satisfaction.

Table 3
Correlation Between Superordinate-Subordinate Similarity
(LOQ and LBDQ) and Job Satisfaction (JDI)
for Class B Districts

Discrepancy D scores	Job satisfaction (JDI)					
	Job		Pay		Promo	
	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>	<i>r</i>	<i>p</i>
Leadership style similarity (<i>n</i> = 17)						
LOQ	-.55*	.01	-.11	.34	-.40	.06
LBDQ	-.02	.48	-.05	.42	-.10	.35
Demographic similarity (<i>n</i> = 16)						
Position years	.01	.49	-.11	.35	.10	.36
District years	.29	.14	.10	.35	.28	.15
Age	.43	.05	.19	.24	.42	.05
Education	-.19	.24	.01	.48	-.22	.21
Marital	----	----	----	----	----	----
Sex	.14	.30	.28	.14	.35	.09

Table 3--Continued

Discrepancy <u>D</u> scores	Job satisfaction (JDI)					
	Supervision		Co-worker		General	
	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>
Leadership style similarity (<u>n</u> = 17)						
LOQ	-.16	.27	-.21	.21	-.35	.08
LBDQ	-.48*	.03	.03	.46	-.25	.16
Demographic similarity (<u>n</u> = 16)						
Position years	.14	.31	-.13	.32	.06	.41
District years	.28	.14	-.16	.28	-.37	.08
Age	.29	.14	.17	.26	.43	.05
Education	.07	.40	.03	.46	-.12	.33
Marital	----	----	----	----	----	----
Sex	-.03	.45	.24	.19	.17	.26

*p < .05, one-tailed.

Hypothesis 2: Attitudinal Leadership Style Similarity and Evaluations

The degree of attitudinal leadership style similarity between superintendent and principal will be positively related to the superintendent's evaluation rating of the principal.

Table 4
Correlation Between Superordinate-Subordinate Similarity
(LOQ and LBDQ) and Job Satisfaction (JDI)
for Class C Districts

Discrepancy D scores	Job satisfaction (JDI)					
	Job		Pay		Promo	
	r	p	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity (n = 17)						
LOQ	.04	.45	.42	.05	-.16	.27
LBDQ	-.03	.45	.04	.44	.00	.50
Demographic similarity (n = 17)						
Position years	-.22	.20	.30	.13	-.28	.14
District years	.15	.28	-.02	.47	-.28	.14
Age	-.04	.43	-.53*	.01	.30	.12
Education	-.12	.33	.08	.38	.30	.12
Marital	-.28	.14	-.64*	.00	.17	.26
Sex	----	----	----	----	----	----

Table 4--Continued

Discrepancy D scores	Job satisfaction (JDI)					
	Supervision		Co-worker		General	
	r	p	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity (<i>n</i> = 17)						
LOQ	.41	.05	.14	.29	-.04	.44
LBDQ	-.45 *	.01	.08	.39	.20	.22
Demographic similarity (<i>n</i> = 17)						
Position years	-.05	.43	-.23	.19	-.27	.15
District years	-.04	.48	.27	.15	-.21	.21
Age	-.16	.26	-.19	.23	-.05	.42
Education	.13	.31	-.51 *	.02	.03	.46
Marital	-.18	.25	-.57 *	.01	.09	.37
Sex	----	----	----	----	----	----

**p* < .05, one tailed.

Hypothesis 2A: Demographic Similarity and Evaluations

The degree of demographic similarity between superintendent and principal will be positively related to the superintendent's evaluation rating of the principal.

Table 5
Correlation Between Superordinate-Subordinate Similarity
(LOQ and LBDQ) and Job Satisfaction (JDI)
for Class D Districts

Discrepancy D scores	Job satisfaction (JDI)					
	Job		Pay		Promo	
	r	p	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity (<u>n</u> = 19)						
LOQ	.25	.15	.19	.22	-.08	.38
LBDQ	.24	.16	-.14	.28	.04	.44
Demographic similarity (<u>n</u> = 18)						
Position years	.11	.33	-.15	.27	.29	.12
District years	.27	.14	-.26	.15	.24	.17
Age	-.38	.06	.53*	.01	-.41*	.04
Education	-.44*	.03	.13	.31	-.41*	.05
Marital	.09	.36	-.35	.08	.23	.18
Sex	-.19	.24	.11	.34	-.01	.48

Table 5--Continued

Discrepancy <u>D</u> scores	Job satisfaction (JDI)					
	Supervision		Co-worker		General	
	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>
Leadership style similarity (<u>n</u> = 19)						
LOQ	-.24	.17	.35	.07	-.14	.29
LBDQ	-.49*	.02	-.08	.37	.04	.43
Demographic similarity (<u>n</u> = 18)						
Position years	-.19	.23	.22	.19	.47	.03
District years	-.22	.19	.25	.15	.08	.38
Age	-.17	.25	-.75*	.00	-.31	.11
Education	-.13	.30	.21	.20	-.47*	.02
Marital	-.21	.21	-.13	.30	.08	.38
Sex	-.12	.33	.17	.25	-.46*	.03

*p < .05, one-tailed.

To test the second major hypothesis, the dyadic D scores were correlated with the five MSS factors by means of the Pearson correlation coefficient. Again, due to D score computation, all expected relationships are in the negative direction. As indicated in Table 6, only one demographic correlational relationship existed, sex-conformance

($r = -.21$). Further, there were no correlational relationships between attitudinal similarity and evaluation rating scores on the MSS. (A correlation of $r = -.21$ for demographic data and $r = -.20$ for attitudinal data was needed for relationship at the .05 level of confidence in a one-tailed test.) Overall, the data were weak and in many instances directionally contradictory. Thus, it is apparent that the hypothesis that attitudinal similarity would affect the superordinate's evaluation ratings of the subordinate is not supported by this study. These findings are fairly consistent with past studies regarding the effects of the similarity factor and evaluation ratings.

Hypothesis 2B: Propinquity, Attitudinal Leadership Style Similarity, and Evaluation

The greater the superintendent-principal interaction, the stronger the relationship between attitudinal leadership style similarity and the superintendent's evaluation rating of the principal.

Hypothesis 2C: Propinquity, Demographic Similarity, and Evaluation

The greater the superintendent-principal interaction, the stronger the relationship between demographic similarity and the superintendent's evaluation rating of the principal. To test these hypotheses, the managerial dyads were again systematically stratified by district size and the four subgroup's \bar{D} scores were correlated by means of the Pearson product-moment correlational coefficient with the five facets of the MSS scale. As indicated in Tables 7 through 10, there is little support for

Table 6
Correlation Between Superordinate-Subordinate Similarity
(LOQ and LBDQ) and Subordinate
Evaluation Rating (MSS)

Discrepancy D variables	Evaluation Ratings (MSS)					
	Performance		Conformance		Dependability	
	r	p	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity (N = 67)						
LOQ	-.13	.15	-.07	.28	.02	.43
LBDQ	-.01	.48	-.03	.39	-.00	.50
Demographic similarity (N = 63)						
Position years	-.03	.40	-.01	.46	-.05	.35
District years	-.02	.44	-.03	.41	.14	.14
Age	.16	.11	.13	.16	-.00	.50
Education	-.01	.48	.02	.44	-.02	.45
Marital	-.04	.38	-.12	.38	.03	.41
Sex	-.18	.08	-.21 *	.05	-.14	.15

Table 6--Continued

Discrepancy D variables	Evaluation ratings (MSS)			
	Personal adjustment		General satisfactoriness	
	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity (<u>N</u> = 67)				
LOQ	.06	.32	-.05	.35
LBDQ	-.03	.42	-.00	.49
Demographic similarity (<u>N</u> = 63)				
Position years	-.02	.45	-.03	.42
District years	.25	.03	.08	.26
Age	.11	.20	.14	.15
Education	.08	.28	.02	.45
Marital	.04	.38	-.04	.37
Sex	-.04	.37	-.17	.09

* $p < .05$, one-tailed.

district class size as a factor in moderating the effects of the similarity-evaluation rating relationship. Again, it had been reasoned that the smaller the school system the greater the opportunity for superintendent-principal interaction and with increased interaction the greater the likelihood for similarity factors to influence principal evaluations. The data

Table 7
Correlation Between Superordinate-Subordinate Similarity
(LOQ and LBDQ) and Subordinate Evaluation
Rating (MSS) for Class A Districts

Discrepancy D variables	Evaluation Ratings (MSS)					
	Performance		Conformance		Dependability	
	r	p	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity (<u>n</u> = 15)						
LOQ	.01	.49	.01	.49	-.03	.46
LBDQ	-.30	.14	-.17	.27	-.48*	.03
Demographic similarity (<u>n</u> = 13)						
Position years	.11	.36	.12	.34	.19	.27
District years	-.14	.32	-.18	.27	-.04	.45
Age	.41	.08	.47	.05	.39	.09
Education	.14	.32	.23	.23	-.04	.45
Marital	-.05	.43	-.09	.38	.32	.15
Sex	-.55*	.03	-.45	.06	-.87*	.00

Table 7--Continued

Discrepancy D variables	Evaluation ratings (MSS)			
	Personal adjustment		General satisfactoriness	
	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity (<u>n</u> = 15)				
LOQ	.28	.15	.14	.32
LBDQ	-.42	.06	.29	.15
Demographic similarity (<u>n</u> = 13)				
Position years	.17	.29	.18	.28
District years	.19	.26	-.05	.44
Age	.36	.12	.52	.04
Education	-.10	.37	.10	.37
Marital	-.24	.21	-.19	.27
Sex	-.64*	.01	-.69*	.01

* $p < .05$, one-tailed.

from this study, however, do not support this reasoning. As observed in Tables 7 through 10, there is little relationship between these variables and no consistent pattern emerges to indicate that district class size, as a propinquity factor, affects the similarity-evaluation rating relationship. There are five factors within Class A that show a relationship, however,

Table 8
Correlation Between Superordinate-Subordinate Similarity
(LOQ and LBDQ) and Subordinate Evaluation
Rating (MSS) for Class B Districts

Discrepancy D variables	Evaluation Ratings (MSS)					
	Performance		Conformance		Dependability	
	r	p	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity (<u>n</u> = 16)						
LOQ	-.29	.14	-.46*	.04	-.29	.14
LBDQ	-.03	.45	.00	.49	.14	.30
Demographic similarity (<u>n</u> = 15)						
Position years	.21	.22	.26	.18	.25	.19
District years	.39	.07	.09	.38	.34	.11
Age	.37	.09	.27	.17	.39	.07
Education	-.07	.40	-.04	.45	-.07	.40
Marital	----	----	----	----	----	----
Sex	.26	.18	.37	.09	.25	.18

Table 8--Continued

Discrepancy D variables	Evaluation ratings (MSS)			
	Personal adjustment		General satisfactoriness	
	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity (<u>n</u> = 16)				
LOQ	-.42*	.05	-.40	.06
LBDQ	.17	.29	-.07	.40
Demographic similarity (<u>n</u> = 15)				
Position years	-.13	.32	.15	.30
District years	.24	.19	.31	.13
Age	.26	.17	.36	.09
Education	.01	.49	-.05	.43
Marital	----	----	----	----
Sex	.34	.11	.34	.11

* $p < .05$, one-tailed.

four of the five factors are within the demographic data area of sex similarity-evaluation ratings. Due to the smallness of the sample size these results are questionable. Also, it is noteworthy that in Class C districts many of the demographic similarities correlate positively instead of the predicted negative direction. Whereas in Class D districts the

Table 9
Correlation Between Superordinate-Subordinate Similarity
(LOQ and LBDQ) and Subordinate Evaluation
Rating (MSS) for Class C Districts

Discrepancy D variables	Evaluation Ratings (MSS)					
	Performance		Conformance		Dependability	
	r	p	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity (<u>n</u> = 17)						
LOQ	-.31	.12	-.23	.17	.05	.42
LBDQ	-.25	.17	-.19	.23	-.04	.44
Demographic similarity (<u>n</u> = 17)						
Position years	-.03	.46	-.04	.44	-.20	.22
District years	-.03	.45	.17	.26	.17	.26
Age	.07	.40	.22	.19	-.13	.31
Education	.27	.15	.08	.38	.08	.38
Marital	.30	.12	.18	.24	-.12	.33
Sex	----	----	----	----	----	----

Table 9--Continued

Discrepancy D variables	Evaluation ratings (MSS)			
	Personal adjustment		General satisfactoriness	
	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity (<i>n</i> = 17)				
LOQ	-.03	.45	-.21	.21
LBDQ	-.09	.37	-.19	.23
Demographic similarity (<i>n</i> = 17)				
Position years	.02	.47	-.05	.43
District years	.18	.24	.13	.32
Age	.17	.26	.11	.34
Education	.12	.33	.18	.24
Marital	.03	.45	.17	.26
Sex	----	----	----	----

**p* < .05, one-tailed.

opposite relationship is observed. Generally, the hypothesis that class size would moderate the similarity-evaluation rating is not supported by this study.

Table 10
Correlation Between Superordinate-Subordinate Similarity
(LOQ and LBDQ) and Subordinate Evaluation
Rating (MSS) for Class D Districts

Discrepancy D variables	Evaluation Ratings (MSS)					
	Performance		Conformance		Dependability	
	r	p	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity (<u>n</u> = 19)						
LOQ	-.05	.42	.32	.09	.35	.07
LBDQ	.41	.04	.22	.19	.25	.15
Demographic similarity (<u>n</u> = 18)						
Position years	-.32	.10	-.26	.15	-.35	.08
District years	-.42*	.04	-.19	.23	-.08	.17
Age	.08	.32	-.13	.38	-.18	.23
Education	-.38	.06	-.44*	.03	-.29	.13
Marital	-.31	.10	-.39	.06	.09	.36
Sex	-.37	.07	-.38	.07	-.15	.28

Table 10--Continued

Discrepancy D variables	Evaluation ratings (MSS)			
	Personal adjustment		General satisfactoriness	
	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity (<i>n</i> = 19)				
LOQ	.46	.02	.24	.16
LBDQ	.08	.37	.34	.08
Demographic similarity (<i>n</i> = 18)				
Position years	-.26	.15	-.36	.07
District years	.28	.13	-.20	.22
Age	-.05	.42	-.04	.43
Education	-.05	.43	-.39*	.05
Marital	.07	.39	-.23	.17
Sex	.09	.37	-.30	.12

**p* < .05, one-tailed.

Hypothesis 3: Locus, Attitudinal Leadership Style Similarity and Evaluation

The greater the superintendent's externality score, the stronger the relationship between attitudinal leadership style similarity and the principal's evaluation rating.

Hypothesis 3A: Locus, Demographic Similarity, and Evaluation

The greater the superintendent's externality score, the stronger the relationship between demographic similarity and the principal's evaluation rating. To test the relationship between externality and the strength of the similarity-evaluation rating relationship, the sample was split on the median for the superintendent's locus scores and separate analyses were conducted for the two subgroups. The lower scoring subgroups represented internality oriented superintendents and the higher scoring group represented greater externality orientation. The D scores for each subgroup were first correlated by means of the Pearson product-moment correlational coefficient with the locus of control scores. This was done to gain additional information regarding the relationship between similarity and the locus variable and specifically the differences in the subgroups. Secondly, the D scores were split on the median and correlated against the five facets of the MSS scale. The effects of the locus variable were examined by observing the differences between the similarity-evaluation correlations obtained in each subgroup. In effect, the study tested the difference between two population coefficients using a two-tailed test of significance (Hinkle et al., 1979).

As indicated in Table 11, correlational scores between similarity and the locus variable for the total superintendent group is mixed and quite low. However, Table 11 also shows that the subgroup that scored lower on the locus scale, indicating greater internality, showed a relationship as predicted in two areas, LOQ ($r = -.41$) and district years ($r = -.45$). Of special interest was the relationship of LOQ, representing

Table 11
Correlation Between Superordinate-Subordinate Similarity
and Superintendent's Locus of Control

Discrepancy D scores	Locus of control							
	Total (N = 67)		Low (n = 29)		High (n = 38)		Difference (N = 67)	
	r	p	r	p	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity								
LOQ	-.10	.21	-.41*	.01	-.10	.12	-.21	.37
LBDQ	.15	.12	.09	.32	-.23	.08	.32	.21
Demographic similarity								
	Total (N = 63)		Low (n = 28)		High (n = 35)		Difference (N = 63)	
Position years	.09	.25	-.02	.46	.18	.15	-.20	.45
District years	-.09	.25	-.45*	.01	-.03	.42	-.41	.09
Age	-.05	.34	.34	.04	-.15	.20	.49†	.05
Education	-.14	.14	-.04	.41	-.18	.16	.14	.60
Marital	.16	.10	-.09	.32	.20	.13	-.29	.27
Sex	.11	.20	-.06	.39	.07	.35	-.13	.33

Note. Two-tailed test applies only to difference scores.

*p < .05, one-tailed. †p < .05, two-tailed.

actual similarity. Conversely, the higher scoring subgroup, more externality oriented, did not have any areas demonstrate a relationship. Overall, the differences between the subgroups was as predicted in only one of the eight categories: age ($r = .49$).

Tables 12 through 16 show the locus scores split on the median and \underline{D} scores correlated with the five facets of the MSS scale. As indicated in these tables, there is little support for the hypothesis that the personality characteristics of the superintendent, that is, internality-externality, will affect the similarity-evaluations relationship. It had been reasoned that the greater the externality orientation of the superintendent, the stronger the similarity-evaluation relationship. Results revealed in Tables 12 through 16 do not support this reasoning. In fact, by comparing each subgroup on the 40 correlational factors, there is a virtual equal split. There are 19 factors that relate more favorably with the low group and 21 factors favoring the high group. However, out of these 40 factors, only four reach levels of prediction: (1) LOQ-performance ($r = -.41$), (2) LOQ-conformance ($r = -.41$), (3) LOQ-general ($r = -.31$), and (4) district years-conformance ($r = -.35$). All four of these factors favor the low group. With regard to differences, support is only demonstrated in two areas: (1) LOQ-conformance ($r = -.51$) and (2) sex-personal adjustment ($r = .56$). (See Tables 13 and 15, respectively.) The remaining areas of performance, dependability, and general evaluation do not show a relationship with similarity as differences between subgroups.

Specifically, regarding attitudinal leadership style similarity, the low group LOQ scores in almost all instances are in the predicted negative

Table 12
Correlation Between Similarity and Evaluation Variables
Compared for Low Versus High Groups--Performance

Discrepancy D scores	Evaluation ratings					
	Low (<u>n</u> = 29)		High (<u>n</u> = 38)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 67)	
	r	p	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity						
LOQ	-.41 *	.01	.02	.46	-.43	.08
LBDQ	.01	.48	.10	.27	-.09	.73
Demographic similarity						
	Low (<u>n</u> = 28)		High (<u>n</u> = 35)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 63)	
Position years	.09	.33	-.10	.29	.19	.50
District years	-.23	.12	.08	.32	-.31	.24
Age	.17	.20	.14	.22	.03	.90
Education	-.04	.41	-.02	.46	-.02	.94
Marital	.03	.43	-.04	.41	.07	.79
Sex	-.03	.45	-.23	.09	.20	.45

Note. Two-tailed test applies only to difference scores.

*p < .05, one tailed. †p < .05, two-tailed.

Table 13
Correlation Between Similarity and Evaluation Variables
Compared for Low Versus High Groups--Conformance

Discrepancy D scores	Evaluation ratings					
	Low (<u>n</u> = 29)		High (<u>n</u> = 38)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 67)	
	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>
Leadership style similarity						
LOQ	-.41 *	.01	.10	.27	-.51 †	.04
LBDQ	-.10	.30	.13	.22	-.23	.37
Demographic similarity						
	Low (<u>n</u> = 28)		High (<u>n</u> = 35)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 63)	
Position years	.02	.46	-.03	.44	.05	.85
District years	-.35 *	.03	.12	.24	-.47	.07
Age	.31	.06	.00	.50	.31	.23
Education	.17	.20	-.14	.21	.31	.24
Marital	-.14	.24	-.07	.34	-.07	.79
Sex	-.07	.36	-.24	.09	.16	.51

Note. Two-tailed test applies only to difference scores.

*p < .05, one tailed. †p < .05, two-tailed.

Table 14
Correlation Between Similarity and Evaluation Variables
Compared for Low Versus High Groups--Dependability

Discrepancy D scores	Evaluation ratings					
	Low (<u>n</u> = 29)		High (<u>n</u> = 38)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 67)	
	r	p	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity						
LOQ	-.03	.44	.07	.35	-.10	.70
LBDQ	.03	.44	.06	.35	-.03	.90
Demographic similarity						
	Low (<u>n</u> = 28)		High (<u>n</u> = 35)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 63)	
Position years	-.03	.44	-.06	.36	.03	.92
District years	.07	.36	.18	.15	-.11	.67
Age	-.10	.31	.07	.35	-.17	.52
Education	.03	.43	-.10	.29	.13	.62
Marital	.05	.40	.05	.39	.00	.99
Sex	.13	.26	-.26	.07	.39	.14

Note. Two-tailed test applies only to difference scores.

* $p < .05$, one tailed. $\dagger p < .05$, two-tailed.

Table 15
Correlation Between Similarity and Evaluation Variables
Compared for Low Versus High Groups--
Personal Adjustment

Discrepancy D scores	Evaluation ratings					
	Low (<u>n</u> = 29)		High (<u>n</u> = 38)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 67)	
	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>
Leadership style similarity						
LOQ	.09	.33	.06	.37	.03	.38
LBDQ	-.12	.27	.09	.29	-.21	.42
Demographic similarity						
	Low (<u>n</u> = 28)		High (<u>n</u> = 35)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 63)	
Position years	-.16	.21	.07	.34	-.23	.38
District years	.15	.23	.30	.04	-.15	.55
Age	.08	.35	.11	.26	-.04	.91
Education	.12	.28	.01	.47	.11	.71
Marital	.16	.21	.01	.49	.15	.57
Sex	.35	.04	-.21	.12	.56†	.03

Note. Two-tailed test applies only to difference scores.

*p < .05, one tailed. †p < .05, two-tailed.

Table 16
Correlation Between Similarity and Evaluation Variables
Compared for Low Versus High Groups--
General Satisfactoriness

Discrepancy D scores	Evaluation ratings					
	Low (<u>n</u> = 29)		High (<u>n</u> = 38)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 67)	
	r	p	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity						
LOQ	-.31 *	.05	.08	.31	-.39	.12
LBDQ	-.04	.41	.14	.20	-.18	.48
Demographic similarity						
	Low (<u>n</u> = 28)		High (<u>n</u> = 35)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 63)	
Position years	-.02	.47	-.03	.43	.01	.97
District years	-.13	.28	.18	.15	-.31	.24
Age	.17	.20	.10	.28	.07	.79
Education	.06	.38	-.05	.38	.11	.68
Marital	.02	.45	-.03	.42	.05	.85
Sex	.12	.27	-.26	.06	.38	.15

Note. Two-tailed test applies only to difference scores.

* $p < .05$, one tailed. + $p < .05$, two-tailed.

direction. Only three areas, performance, conformance, and general reach levels of prediction. Contrastingly, the high group LOQ scores show positive correlation in all five areas. The high group LBDQ scores also show low positive correlation in all five areas, while the low group LBDQ scores are low negative in three out of five areas.

The demographic similarity factors show mixed and inconsequential results. The low group has 11 areas in the predicted negative direction and the high group has 16. More importantly, in only 2 out of 40 instances do the differences between the two sample correlational coefficients reach levels of prediction: (1) district years-conformance ($r = -.35$) and (2) sex-personal adjustment ($r = .56$). Thus, overall there seems to be little and mixed support for the hypothesis that the superintendent's externality orientation will strengthen the similarity-evaluation relationship.

Hypothesis 3B: Locus, Attitudinal Leadership Style Similarity, and Job Satisfaction

The greater the principal's externality score, the stronger the relationship between attitudinal leadership style similarity and the principal's job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3C: Locus, Demographic Similarity, and Job Satisfaction

The greater the principal's externality score, the stronger the relationship between demographic similarity and the principal's job satisfaction.

To test the effects of the locus of control variable on the relationship of similarity and subordinate job satisfaction, the sample was split on the median for the principal's locus scores and separate analyses were conducted for the two subgroups. Again, the lower scoring group represented greater internality orientation and the higher scoring group represented greater externality orientation. The \bar{D} scores were next correlated with the principal's locus of control scores and with the JDI scores by means of the Pearson product-moment correlational coefficient. To test for the differences of two sample correlational coefficients z scores were employed (Hinkle et al., 1979) using a two-tailed test of significance.

As indicated in Table 17, there is very little relationship between similarity-locus of control and internality-externality subgroups. The results are low and mixed in most instances. However, although the data do not show a relationship in the subgroup columns, there is a predicted difference between the groups relative to district years ($r = .55$). Generally, however, there is little overall support for the similarity-locus of control relationship.

Tables 18 through 23 show the locus of control scores split on the median and \bar{D} scores correlated with the six facets of the JDI scale. By comparing subgroup correlations on the 42 similarity-JDI factors, a near split between the two subgroups is found. The low group has 19 areas that relate more favorably than the high group. The high group has 21 areas that relate more favorably than the low group. Further, there is no apparent pattern that emerges with respect to the attitudinal leadership style similarity scores. Overall, the low group has three areas

Table 17
Correlation Between Superordinate-Subordinate Similarity
and Principal's Locus of Control

Discrepancy D scores	Locus of control							
	Total (N = 67)		Low (n = 29)		High (n = 38)		Difference (N = 67)	
	r	p	r	p	r	p	r	p
Leadership style similarity								
LOQ	-.04	.39	-.04	.43	-.04	.41	.08	.73
LBDQ	-.07	.29	.05	.40	-.11	.26	.16	.48
Demographic similarity								
	Total (N = 63)		Low (n = 27)		High (n = 36)		Difference (N = 63)	
Position years	.11	.20	.22	.13	.09	.31	.13	.62
District years	.18	.08	.49	.01	-.06	.36	.55†	.03
Age	.10	.22	.07	.36	-.10	.28	.17	.53
Education	-.06	.33	-.05	.40	-.25	.02	.20	.44
Marital	.00	.49	.19	.18	.03	.43	.16	.55
Sex	.10	.21	----	----	-.34*	.02	----	----

Note. Two-tailed test applies only to difference scores.

*p < .05, one-tailed. †p < .05, two-tailed.

Table 18

Correlation Between Similarity and Job Satisfaction Variables
Compared for Low Versus High Groups--Job

Discrepancy D scores	Job satisfaction					
	Low (<u>n</u> = 29)		High (<u>n</u> = 37)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 66)	
	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>
Leadership style similarity						
LOQ	.13	.25	-.02	.45	.15	.56
LBDQ	.04	.42	-.14	.21	.18	.49
Demographic similarity						
	Low (<u>n</u> = 27)		High (<u>n</u> = 35)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 62)	
Position years	-.12	.28	.04	.41	-.16	.55
District years	-.07	.36	.45	.01	-.52†	.04
Age	.34	.04	-.15	.19	.49	.06
Education	.31	.06	-.34*	.02	.65†	.01
Marital	.23	.13	-.00	.49	-.23	.38
Sex	----	----	-.09	.31	----	----

Note. Two-tailed test applies only to difference scores.

*p < .05, one tailed. †p < .05, two-tailed.

Table 19
Correlation Between Similarity and Job Satisfaction Variables
Compared for Low Versus High Groups--Pay

Discrepancy D scores	Job satisfaction					
	Low (<u>n</u> = 29)		High (<u>n</u> = 37)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 66)	
	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>
Leadership style similarity						
LOQ	.16	.21	-.13	.23	.29	.26
LBDQ	-.20	.15	.20	.12	-.40	.12
Demographic similarity						
	Low (<u>n</u> = 27)		High (<u>n</u> = 35)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 62)	
Position years	-.27	.09	.13	.24	-.40	.13
District years	-.25	.10	.02	.45	-.27	.31
Age	.53	.00	-.26	.06	.79†	.00
Education	.45	.01	.05	.38	.40	.11
Marital	-.20	.16	-.00	.49	-.20	.45
Sex	----	----	.16	.18	----	----

Note. Two-tailed test applies only to difference scores.

*p < .05, one tailed. †p < .05, two-tailed.

Table 20

Correlation Between Similarity and Job Satisfaction Variables
Compared for Low Versus High Groups--Promotion

Discrepancy D scores	Job satisfaction					
	Low (<u>n</u> = 29)		High (<u>n</u> = 37)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 66)	
	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>
Leadership style similarity						
LOQ	-.03	.44	.01	.48	-.04	.30
LBDQ	.03	.43	-.17	.16	.20	.44
Demographic similarity						
	Low (<u>n</u> = 27)		High (<u>n</u> = 35)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 62)	
Position years	.15	.22	-.07	.34	.22	.41
District years	.11	.29	.16	.18	-.05	.85
Age	.18	.18	.12	.24	.06	.82
Education	.26	.09	-.18	.16	.44	.08
Marital	.16	.21	-.01	.48	.17	.53
Sex	----	----	-.17	.17	----	----

Note. Two-tailed test applies only to difference scores.

*p < .05, one tailed. †p < .05, two-tailed.

Table 21

Correlation Between Similarity and Job Satisfaction Variables
Compared for Low Versus High Groups--Supervision

Discrepancy D scores	Job satisfaction					
	Low (<u>n</u> = 29)		High (<u>n</u> = 37)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 66)	
	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>
Leadership style similarity						
LOQ	-.09	.32	.18	.14	-.27	.30
LBDQ	-.50*	.00	-.56*	.00	.04	.75
Demographic similarity						
	Low (<u>n</u> = 27)		High (<u>n</u> = 35)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 62)	
Position years	-.37*	.03	.06	.36	-.43	.11
District years	-.24	.12	.10	.28	-.34	.20
Age	.14	.25	-.02	.49	.16	.55
Education	.21	.15	-.15	.19	.36	.18
Marital	.07	.37	-.40*	.01	.47	.07
Sex	----	----	-.23	.10	----	----

Note. Two-tailed test applies only to difference scores.

*p < .05, one tailed. †p < .05, two-tailed.

Table 22

Correlation Between Similarity and Job Satisfaction Variables
Compared for Low Versus High Groups--Co-worker

Discrepancy D scores	Job satisfaction					
	Low (<u>n</u> = 29)		High (<u>n</u> = 37)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 66)	
	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>
Leadership style similarity						
LOQ	.07	.37	.03	.44	.04	.88
LBDQ	.03	.43	.02	.44	.01	.97
Demographic similarity						
	Low (<u>n</u> = 27)		High (<u>n</u> = 35)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 62)	
Position years	-.02	.46	-.11	.26	.09	.74
District years	-.19	.17	.34	.02	-.53†	.04
Age	-.03	.44	-.38*	.01	.35	.17
Education	-.25	.11	-.02	.46	-.23	.38
Marital	-.41*	.02	-.05	.40	-.36	.15
Sex	----	----	.24	.09	----	----

Note. Two-tailed test applies only to difference scores.

*p < .05, one tailed. †p < .05, two-tailed.

Table 23

Correlation Between Similarity and Job Satisfaction Variables
Compared for Low Versus High Groups--Job in General

Discrepancy D scores	Job satisfaction					
	Low (<u>n</u> = 29)		High (<u>n</u> = 37)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 66)	
	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>	<u>r</u>	<u>p</u>
Leadership style similarity						
LOQ	-.17	.18	-.18	.14	.01	.97
LBDQ	-.16	.20	-.08	.32	-.08	.76
Demographic similarity						
	Low (<u>n</u> = 27)		High (<u>n</u> = 35)		Difference (<u>N</u> = 62)	
Position years	-.07	.36	.08	.32	-.15	.58
District years	-.10	.31	.28	.06	-.38	.15
Age	-.01	.43	.06	.38	-.07	.79
Education	.37	.03	-.28*	.05	.65†	.01
Marital	.12	.27	.07	.34	.05	.75
Sex	----	----	.05	.39	----	----

Note. Two-tailed test applies only to difference scores.

*p < .05, one tailed. †p < .05, two-tailed.

that reach levels of prediction: (1) position years-supervision ($r = -.37$), (2) LBDQ-supervision ($r = -.50$), and (3) marital-co-worker ($r = -.41$). (See Tables 21 and 22, respectively.) Whereas the high group has five areas: (1) education-job ($r = -.34$), (2) marital-supervision ($r = -.40$), (3) LBDQ-supervision ($r = -.56$), (4) age-co-worker ($r = -.38$), and (5) education-general ($r = -.28$). (See Tables 18, 21, 22, and 23, respectively.) Further, the difference correlations between two sample correlation coefficients show only 5 out of 42 factors supporting the proposition: (1) district years-job ($r = -.52$), (2) education-job ($r = .65$), (3) age-pay ($r = .79$), (4) district years-co-worker ($r = -.53$), and (5) education-general ($r = .65$). (See Tables 18, 19, 22, and 23, respectively.)

Thus, in this study there is little support for the hypothesis that externality oriented principals will be more strongly affected by the similarity-job satisfaction relationship than internality oriented principals.

CHAPTER V

FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS, AND IMPLICATIONS

The final chapter of this study is divided into two sections. The first section contains a discussion of the findings of the study and possible explanations for the results are offered. The second section contains an examination of the need for additional research and the implications derived from the findings.

Findings and Conclusions

The purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between attitudinal-demographic similarity and the dimensions of job satisfaction and performance evaluations. Specifically, the study analyzed the interpersonal relationship between school superintendents and high school principals. Of concern was the relationship between superintendent-principal similarity and principal job satisfaction-performance evaluations. Additionally, the study also examined the effects of propinquity and locus of control within the dyadic-similarity relationship. The conceptual foundation for the study was primarily derived from Byrne's (1971) reinforcement-consensual validation theories and Newcomb's (1956) attraction-balance theories. These concepts propose that similarity is rewarding and reinforcing and that people are attracted to and involved in strain reducing-balancing relationships with those most similar to themselves. However, for this study, the overall results were

mixed and did not substantiate the general propositions of the study.

Regarding the first major hypotheses, that similarity would be positively related to subordinate job satisfaction, there was mixed support. Of special interest to this study was the relatively high correlation ($r = -.48$) with perceptual similarity, LBDQ, and satisfaction with Supervision (see Table 1). Contrastingly, except in the area of General satisfaction ($r = -.19$), there was little support for the relationship of actual similarity, LOQ, and job satisfaction. These findings regarding perceptual versus actual similarity are consistent with previous research in this area (Pulakos & Wexley, 1983).

Interestingly, individual factor examination of the demographic data, Table 1, showed a relationship between similarity and three factors: (1) Age-Co-worker ($r = -.32$), (2) Marital-Supervision ($r = -.20$), and (3) Sex-Supervision ($r = -.27$). Table 1 shows that the most consistent overall area of predicted relationship is similarity and job satisfaction with Supervision. Table 1 also demonstrates that similarity and satisfaction with Promotion for demographic data had a positive relationship. These results are contrary to the predicted negative correlation. Actually, only two areas, satisfaction with Supervision and satisfaction with Co-workers, demonstrate a relationship with any similarity factors. Still, although mixed, the results do show some support for the relationship of perceptual similarity and job satisfaction.

Several explanations for similarity showing weak overall relationship to subordinate job satisfaction seem possible. First, addressing the possible correlational data relative to the JDI factors Promotion and Pay, principal responses to the questionnaire indicated that they felt these

questions were not relevant to educational administration. Comments were that regardless of interpersonal relationships educational promotions are rare and usually necessitate organizational transfer. Similarly, Pay in education is not strongly related to positional relationships. However, Table 1 does show weak support for the JDI factors satisfaction with the Job, Supervision, Co-worker, and in General. It is possible that a different measuring instrument better suited to educational administrators would show stronger results. As discussed later in greater depth, with regard to the relationship of similarity and performance evaluation, concern for confidentiality and the homogeneity of the group may have also affected these results. Future studies will need to control for these factors.

Newcomb (1956) stated that similarity predisposes people to be attracted to one another. Rizzo et al. (1970) found that increased attraction and an opportunity for communication leads to reduced role conflict and ambiguity. These results lead to a more rewarding relationship. Hatfield and Huseman (1982), citing Katz and Kahn's (1978) role episode model, explained that superordinate-subordinate congruence improves communications, thus reducing ambiguity and increasing job satisfaction. Thus, it seems logical to assume that attitudinal similarity may be viewed as one method of reducing conflict and enhancing accurate communications.

It follows that attitudinally similar co-workers, who have the opportunity to communicate, will like each other more and be supportive of one another. This logic is consistent with Kirmeyer and Lin (1987) findings that supportive, interactive relationships between the

superordinate and the subordinate are essential for subordinate job satisfaction and improved organizational outcomes. Thus, it reasonably follows that subordinates who are similar to and communicate more with their superordinate will find the job in general more satisfying. Consensually validating-rewarding relationships increase security, comfort, and confidence, thereby leading to increased personal liking. Logically, similar attitudes result in greater overall satisfaction within interpersonal relationships. Thus, although Table 1 does not show overwhelming support, nonetheless the results do show some support for the logic of the similarity-job satisfaction relationship.

Regarding the effects of the relationship between similarity and subordinate performance ratings, this study did not find support for this relationship (see Table 6). In this table only one factor, sex similarity-conformance ($r = -.21$) reaches a level predicted. The remaining results are low and mixed. Based on previous studies by Labovitz (1972), Miles (1964), Pulakos and Wexley (1983), Wexley et al. (1980), and further supported by Byrne's (1971) conceptual findings that perceptual similarity is rewarding because it satisfies the need for consensual validation, it was anticipated that similarity would positively affect performance appraisals. It was also expected that perceptual similarity would have a stronger effect on ratings than actual similarity. However, this study and research by Huber (1970), and Ross and Ferris (1981) failed to find support for either perceptual or actual similarity as factors in performance ratings.

Several reasonable explanations for this lack of apparent relationship seem possible. First, this was a field study involving real subjects.

Unlike many previous similarity studies utilizing artificial lab settings, this study involved real subjects who were asked to evaluate and share confidential information regarding their subordinate managers. Wexley et al. (1980) stated: "Most studies done in lab settings may not be affected by real life consequences" (p. 328). Responses to the questionnaires indicated that there may have been a lack of trust by responding school superintendents. It is possible that superintendents, in very visible and politically sensitive positions, did not respond honestly due to fear of disclosure. In particular, female administrators reported that due to their scarcity, it would be impossible not to reveal their identity and thus this subgroup refused to return the questionnaire. Other reporting respondents may have artificially inflated responses. Consequently, most evaluation scores were rated very high. This guarded response resulted in a restricted range of scores and thus a smaller correlation coefficient than expected. With correlational data, a restricted range due to the homogeneity of the group will result in no apparent relationship when in fact one does exist (Hinkle et al., 1979). It is possible that a similarity-performance rating relationship does exist, but due to the subject's confidentiality concerns, it was not reported. A method of data collection that alleviated confidentiality fears might improve results. Further, a study utilizing more heterogeneous groups might demonstrate stronger results.

A second possible explanation for the seeming nonrelationship may be the concept of complementarity (Secord & Backman, 1964). Complementarity, a subset of similarity, states that personality pairs may have complementary skills that balance each other and result in

reinforcing-rewarding responses. Although the D scores in this study did not measure for complementarity and the correlational findings do not show a substantial relationship, nonetheless there may be a complementary relationship within the dyads. Examining Table 6, it is interesting to note the mixed results and especially several highly, positively correlated demographic variables: age and district years. It may be that these oppositional correlations, not in the predicted negative direction, are a result of a complementary or dissimilarity relationship. Further, in computing D scores, similarity, on the attitudinal measurements, LOQ and LBDQ scales, respondent scores of high consideration and low structure and low consideration and high structure had a tendency to cancel each other and thus appear similar in leadership style. Therefore, dyads appearing attitudinally similar may actually have diverse viewpoints and managerial pairs with a strong complimentary relationship may seem oppositional. The use of D scores may have resulted in dyads appearing more or less similar on leadership styles than the scores indicated. The simplicity of D scores may not have accurately identified the degree of similarity within the dyads. Careful study of this factor needs to be considered in future study.

Another possible explanation for the apparent lack of relationship may have been the inappropriateness of the measuring scales. Comments from respondents, especially in larger districts, indicated concern for the propriety of some questions. This was especially true for the Performance factor of the MSS scale. Note, Table 6, very low and mixed results for this factor. As previously mentioned, female administrators had concern with the measuring tool and frequently failed to

respond. Thus, in Table 9, there is insufficient data to draw conclusion for the variables Sex-evaluation ratings.

A fourth factor may be that there simply is no relationship between attitudinal similarity and subordinate performance ratings. Huber (1970), Nieva (1976), and Wexley et al. (1980) found that the correlation between actual similarity and performance was generally insignificant. Other researchers, most notably Wexley and Pulakos (1983) found perceptual similarity, but not actual similarity to be related to performance appraisals. Perhaps further studies, utilizing more accurate measuring devices, can separate these factors. However, in general, the conclusion from this study is that superordinate-subordinate similarity is unrelated to subordinate performance ratings.

Two secondary hypotheses were also proposed. First, it was hypothesized that increased dyadic interaction through propinquity, or closeness, would improve communications within the dyad and thus enhance the effects of similarity upon the outcome variables. Second, that the locus of control variable, represented as the externality orientation of the administrator, would intensify the similarity-outcomes relationship.

Generally there was no support for the hypothesis that greater dyadic interaction, propinquity, defined in the study as district size, would have a stronger effect on the size of the district diminished. This conclusion was equally true for both job satisfaction and performance appraisal (see Tables 2-5 and 7-10, respectively). It was anticipated that as district size diminished greater superintendent-principal interaction would occur. It was reasoned that with increased interaction and

opportunity for communication, there would be increasing similarity within the managerial dyads. Based on Newcomb's (1956) findings that one is attracted to those who share his or her attitudes and Triandis's (1959) interpretation of Newcomb's theories as follows:

If A and B are cognitively similar and there is an opportunity for communication (propinquity), the communication will be more effective, the relationship between A and B will be more rewarding, and A and B will therefore like each other more than if A and B are not cognitively similar. (p. 321)

It was reasoned that the smaller the school district the greater the opportunity for superintendent-principal communications and thus reciprocal rewards. However, this logic was not supported by the findings of this study (see Tables 2-5 and 7-10).

There may be several possibilities why this reasoning was not supported. First, it may be a fallacy in thinking that there is less communications as district size increases. In fact, there may be greater communications in larger districts than smaller districts. In this study it was never determined that district size increases or diminishes the opportunity for communications. Although the sample was randomly selected and stratified by district size to test the concept of propinquity as an interactive effect in the similarity-outcomes relationship, it was never demonstrated that propinquity would increase dyadic interaction. Thus, it is impossible to project that district size affects communications or the relationship to similarity-outcome variables. It would be important for future studies to carefully define superordinate-subordinate interaction.

A second possible explanation for the lack of support may be that propinquity increases communications, but this closeness may also

accelerate dyadic dissimilarity. There is no evidence that proximity necessarily increases similarity and thus attraction. Actually, Miles (1964) found that similarity causes communications, not communications causes similarity. Senger (1971) also found that homogeneity resulted in better communications and Nieva (1976) stated that it was the quality of the subordinate-supervisor contact, not the quantity. Thus, even if district size could be shown to increase communication opportunity, it would not necessarily increase similarity or liking within the managerial dyad. Finally, it cannot be concluded from this study that increased communications has a moderating effect because of the uncertainty of district size as a function of propinquity.

The second moderating variable examined was locus of control. It was hypothesized that administrators displaying greater externality orientation would be affected to a greater extent by the similarity-outcomes relationship than internality oriented administrators. In this study, small mixed support was found for this hypothesis (see Tables 11-23). Several possible reasons for these findings seem plausible.

Based on Byrne's (1971) theory that similarity is consensually validating and thus rewarding and reinforcing, and Newcomb's (1961) concept that people are attracted to those who are like them because of the reinforcing relationship, Rotter's (1966) locus of control theory seems like a naturally logical extension. Locus, derived from attribution and social learning theory, reasons that, based on past reinforcement experiences, people develop consistent attitudes toward either an internal or external locus of control orientation. Internals believe their reinforcement is based on their own actions and externals believe their

reinforcement is based on some outside force. Thus, for this study, it was reasoned since different personalities have varying degrees of reinforcement needs, and similarity is a type of reinforcement, that the similarity-outcomes relationship would be altered depending on the personality traits of the individuals and their need for reinforcement. Further, it was reasoned that if individual needs for reinforcement vary depending on internality-externality orientation, the impact of similarity should be predictably based on one's locus orientation.

As stated earlier, this study found mixed support for the hypotheses that the externality orientation of the administrator affects the similarity-outcomes relationship. Predicted difference scores are shown in the following seven tables: (1) Table 13, LOQ-conformance ($r = -.51$); (2) Table 15, sex-personal adjustment ($r = .56$); (3) Table 18, district years-job ($r = -.52$); (4) Table 18, education-job ($r = .65$); (5) Table 19, age-pay ($r = .79$); (6) Table 22, district years-co-worker ($r = -.53$); and (7) Table 23, education-general ($r = .65$). By splitting the groups on the median and examining the difference scores, it was demonstrated that substantial differences existed between the internality-externality oriented groups. It is not difficult to find explanations for this finding. Lester and Gentz (1978) found that job satisfaction was related to an internal locus of control. A. L. Johnson et al. (1984) and T. R. Mitchell et al. (1975) found that internals had higher overall job satisfaction and that locus significantly moderated the effects of supervisory influence on productivity and subordinate satisfaction with supervision. Evans (1974) and Dailey (1978) also found support and suggested that externally oriented individuals are generally more

dependent on others as reinforcers. Thus, it is somewhat surprising that greater support was not found for the locus variable as the moderator of the similarity-outcomes relationship. Based on Andrisani and Nestel's (1976) findings that the more supportive-reinforcing the supervisor the more internal the subordinate's outlook due to increasing successes in the work world, and Dailey's (1978) finding that externality oriented individuals are generally more dependent on others as reinforcers, it was reasoned that internals would be less susceptible to the effects of similarity-reinforcement.

Because internals do not rely on others for reinforcement, they should be less likely to be affected by similar others. Contrastingly, externals reliant on external forces for reinforcement, should respond to similar others as a means for rewards. Several possible reasons why this study failed to show strong support for this concept seem plausible. First, the results of the questionnaires returned indicated a limited range of scores on the locus of control scale. Respondent scores revealed a very homogeneous group, primarily internality oriented. Hinkle et al. (1979) warned that as the variance decreases due to the homogeneity of the group and the restriction of scores, the correlation coefficient will be smaller and thus not representative of the relationship. It may be that a relationship does exist, as previous research would indicate, but due to the homogeneity of the sample, educational administrators being primarily internality oriented, a relationship was not allowed to manifest itself.

Another explanation may be attributed to the use of the median score to create separate internality-externality oriented groups. This

method may not have created the distinctly different dichotomous groups desired. Nieva (1976) warned that "the analytical strategy of splitting the sample on the median of proposed moderator variables has been criticized as relatively insensitive" (p. 83). Thus, it may be that the failure of this study to find support for externality orientation as a factor in the similarity-outcomes relationship is due to the sampling design procedure. Perhaps, by utilizing a more sensitive method, a stronger relationship would emerge. However, the results of this study do not support greater externality orientation as a factor in the similarity relationship.

Implications

One of the key issues explored in this study was the situational aspects of the similarity variable. At issue is the manipulateness of the similarity variable as a useful management tool. If similarity is a rewarding and reinforcing factor resulting in greater job satisfaction and performance appraisal, then the manipulation of this variable would be useful in organizational success. Several possibilities come to mind. First, personnel departments could carefully screen potential employment candidates and "match" superordinate-subordinate pairs based on the needs of the organization. Similar, dissimilar, and complementary teams could be structured depending on the organization's need for enhanced communications, dyadic harmony, or group stability. The task or goal of the organization could determine the composition of the work group. Second, recognizing the role of internality-externality orientation relative to outcome variables, personnel managers could develop staff in-services

to improve subordinate internality and superordinate performance review objectivity. Finally, the realization of enhanced communications and propinquity in relation to similarity and attraction could lead to changes in employee structure in the workplace. The overall implications are that through manipulation of this situational variable, organizational productivity and employee job satisfaction may be improved.

The generalizability of these results is limited, and additional studies are needed to demonstrate the replication of these findings to other organizations and different levels of employees. Within education, it would be interesting to study the relationship between principal/teacher and perhaps superintendent/board of education. Additionally, it would be valuable to study the effects of dissimilarity in managerial dyads and further explore the characteristics of people who are most affected by the similarity variable.

APPENDICES

Appendix A
Demographic Data Sheet

DEMOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET

For statistical analysis, please complete the following
Demographic Data Sheet:

1. _____ Number of years in current position.
2. _____ Number of years in district.
3. _____ Age
4. _____ Sex (M,F)
5. _____ Education (M.A., Spec., Ed.D/PhD.)
6. _____ Marital status (S,M,D)

Appendix B
Informed Consent Form

INFORMED CONSENT FORM: SAMPLE

Dear _____:

I currently am a doctoral candidate at Western Michigan University conducting a study of the relationship between superintendent-principal attitudinal leadership style similarity and the dimensions of job satisfaction and performance evaluations of building principals. As part of this study, which is being carried out under the sponsorship of the Michigan Association of Secondary School Principals (MASSP) and the Michigan Association of School Administrators (MASA), I am sending the attached questionnaires to you and to other school administrators in the state of Michigan.

I would very much appreciate it if you would complete and return the questionnaires in the enclosed stamped and self-addressed envelope prior to February 1, 1992.

Your prompt response will permit me to move forward and complete the other phases of my research. Your responses are voluntary and confidential; they will be combined with responses from the other school districts surveyed. No individual organization's responses will be identified in my study.

Comments that you may have concerning any aspect of dyadic leadership similarity, job satisfaction, or performance evaluation not covered in the questionnaires are most welcome.

Thank you for your helpful participation. If you have any questions or concerns regarding this survey, please do not hesitate to call.

Sincerely,

Richard W. Drury

Appendix C
LOQ, LBDQ, and Demographic D Scores

Demographic D Scores

Dyad	Years in position	District years	Age	Education	Marital status	Sex
001	5.0	4.0	4.0	1.0	1.0	0.0
002						
003						
004	5.0	24.0	5.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
005						
006	5.0	2.0	4.0	2.0	1.0	0.0
007	20.0	35.0	13.0	0.0	1.0	0.0
008						
009						
010	13.0	9.0	13.0	2.0	0.0	0.0
011						
012	4.0	4.0	3.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
013	3.5	25.5	3.0	2.0	1.0	1.0
014	2.0	3.0	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
015						
016						
017	0.0	13.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
018	0.4	14.1	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
019						
020						
021						
022						
023	19.0	24.0	4.0	2.0	0.0	0.0
024	13.0	23.0	6.0	2.0	1.0	0.0
025	0.0	5.0	5.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
026						
027	2.0	24.0	10.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
028						
029						
030						
031	6.0	9.0	1.0	2.0	0.0	0.0
032						
033	1.0	3.0	8.0	0.0	0.0	1.0
034	3.0	19.0	16.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
035	1.0	1.0	1.0	2.0	0.0	0.0
036	0.0	0.0	7.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
037						
038						
039						
040	8.0	14.0	7.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
041	3.0	3.0	5.0	2.0	0.0	0.0
042	4.0	32.0	21.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
043	1.0	1.0	6.0	2.0	0.0	0.0
044	20.0	28.0	11.0	2.0	0.0	0.0

Demographic D Scores--Continued

Dyad	Years in position	District years	Age	Education	Marital status	Sex
045	8.0	4.0	6.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
046	1.0	0.0	2.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
047	2.0	18.0	4.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
048						
049	0.0	6.0	3.0	2.0	0.0	0.0
050						
051						
052	0.0	10.0	4.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
053	15.0	14.0	14.0	2.0	0.0	0.0
054	18.0	5.0	4.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
055						
056	19.0	19.0	10.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
057	6.0	13.0	3.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
058						
059	3.0	8.0	2.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
060	1.0	1.0	3.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
061	2.5	9.5	16.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
062	3.0	19.0	9.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
063						
064	10.0	7.0	6.0	2.0	0.0	0.0
065	0.0	0.0	9.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
066	2.0	2.0	4.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
067						
068						
069	17.5	17.5	4.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
070						
071						
072	9.0	24.0	3.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
073						
074	1.0	1.0	22.0	2.0	1.0	0.0
075	1.0	5.0	8.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
076						
077	7.0	9.0	1.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
078	2.0	5.0	1.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
079	6.0	6.0	9.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
080						
081	1.0	1.0	4.0	1.0	0.0	0.0
082	4.0	20.0	8.0	0.0	0.0	1.0
083	0.5	11.0	9.0	0.0	1.0	0.0
084	1.0	9.0	7.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
085	22.0	22.0	1.0	0.0	1.0	0.0
086						
087	7.0	24.0	11.0	2.0	0.0	1.0
088	4.5	19.5	3.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

Demographic D Scores--Continued

Dyad	Years in position	District years	Age	Education	Marital status	Sex
089	12.0	12.0	12.0	0.0	1.0	0.0
090	0.5	4.5	8.0	2.0	0.0	1.0
091						
092						
093	1.0	5.0	1.0	0.0	1.0	0.0
094	11.0	3.0	7.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
095	4.0	18.0	8.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
096	1.0	1.0	22.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
097						
098						
099	1.0	16.0	5.0	0.0	0.0	0.0
100						
101	3.0	3.0	6.0	2.0	0.0	0.0
102	0.0	22.0	5.0	2.0	1.0	1.0
103						
104	15.0	15.0	1.0	0.0	0.0	0.0

LOQ and LBDQ D Scores

Dyad	LOQ	LBDQ	Dyad	LOQ	LBDQ
001	6.403	18.027	046	5.385	17.691
002	26.683	28.600	047	11.000	21.377
003	5.000	15.811	048		
004	19.849	16.124	049	14.142	20.518
005			050		
006	13.601	17.000	051		
007	28.442	50.487	052	2.000	14.142
008			053	8.602	25.632
009			054	10.295	25.553
010	10.816	22.825	055		
011			056	13.000	22.472
012	7.615	21.000	057	2.236	25.961
013	6.324	43.324	058		
014	20.615	37.802	059	12.806	27.856
015			060	13.601	26.248
016			061	5.830	21.587
017	2.236	18.110	062	12.041	21.400
018	12.165	13.416	063		
019			064	8.544	16.492
020			065	18.110	15.652
021			066	12.649	19.104
022			067		
023	15.033	49.091	068		
024	4.472	32.249	069	11.045	20.000
025	4.123	5.099	070		
026			071		
027	15.811	34.132	072	5.830	33.241
028			073		
029			074	6.082	13.038
030			075	12.206	16.552
031	22.135	18.248	076		
032			077	7.071	18.788
033	2.000	27.202	078	10.000	39.051
034	10.049	29.832	079	9.848	14.764
035	12.000	43.324	080		
036	8.485	15.652	081	20.024	17.691
037			082	16.643	21.095
038			083	9.486	23.194
039	10.000	20.248	084	12.369	14.212
040	8.544	19.697	085	8.246	18.027
041	2.236	35.227	086		
042	5.830	24.083	087	8.062	16.763
043	4.123	17.029	088	11.045	31.384
044	13.453	13.601	089	11.401	23.430
045	7.211	14.866	090	8.246	12.041

LOQ and LBDQ D Scores--Continued

Dyad	LOQ	LBDQ	Dyad	LOQ	LBDQ
091			098		
092			099	8.944	21.023
093	7.211	26.907	100		
094	18.248	40.112	101	16.278	14.142
095	18.000	22.135	102	21.633	22.090
096	6.403	31.764	103		
097	8.062	32.249	104	11.401	18.681

Appendix D
Approval Letter From Human Subjects
Institutional Review Board

Human Subjects Institutional Review Board



Kalamazoo, Michigan 49008-3899

WESTERN MICHIGAN UNIVERSITY

Date: February 10 , 1992**To: Richard William Drury****From: Mary Anne Bunda, Chair***Mary Anne Bunda***Re: HSIRB Project Number: 92-02-16**

This letter will serve as confirmation that your research protocol, "An Examination of the Relationship Between Attitudinal Similarity, Job Satisfaction and Performance Within the Superintendent-Principal Dyad as Moderated by the Locus of Control Variable" has been approved under the exempt category of review by the HSIRB. The conditions and duration of this approval are specified in the Policies of Western Michigan University. You may now begin to implement the research as described in the approval application.

You must seek reapproval for any changes in this design. You must also seek reapproval if the project extends beyond the termination date.

The Board wishes you success in the pursuit of your research goals.

xc: Smidchens, EDLD**Approval Termination: February 10, 1993**

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