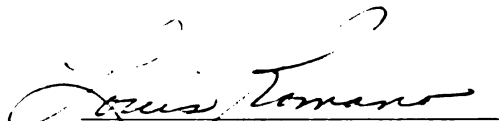This is to certify that the

dissertation entitled

A Study to Determine If Superintendents
of Schools Have Manifest Needs and Think-
ing Styles that are Identical in the
Principals They Hire.

presented by

Jacqueline Jaaskelainen

has been accepted towards fulfillment
of the requirements for

Ph.D. degree in Education

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Major professor

March 1984

Date_____

A STUDY TO DETERMINE IF SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS

HAVE MANIFEST NEEDS AND THINKING STYLES THAT ARE

IDENTICAL IN THE PRINCIPALS THEY HIRE

By

Jacqueline Jaaskelainen

A DISSERTATION

Submitted to
Michigan State University
in partial fulfillment of the requirements
for the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Administration and Curriculum

1984

ABSTRACT

A STUDY TO DETERMINE IF SUPERINTENDENTS OF SCHOOLS
HAVE MANIFEST NEEDS AND THINKING STYLES THAT ARE
IDENTICAL IN THE PRINCIPALS THEY HIRE

By

Jacqueline Jaaskelainen

The purpose of this study was to determine if superintendents tend to hire principals with similar manifest needs and thinking styles. The five characteristics tested for manifest needs were achievement, autonomy, affiliation, dominance, and abasement. The five characteristics tested for thinking styles were pragmatist, idealist, realist, synthesist, and analyst. A demographic checklist consisted of six biographical characteristics.

Procedure

To determine and measure similarities and differences among the variables of this study, two instruments were used. The Personal Preference Schedule measured the manifest needs, and the Inquiry Mode Questionnaire measured the thinking styles. Both superintendents and the principals they had hired completed these two tests along with a demographic checklist. Administrators in the Michigan Middle Cities Association were participants.

Major Findings

Manifest Needs and Thinking Styles

1. The superintendents' and principals' manifest needs of achievement, autonomy, affiliation, dominance, and abasement showed no significant difference.

2. The superintendents' and principals' thinking styles, pragmatist, idealist, synthesist, and analyst, showed no significant difference.

3. The superintendents' and principals' thinking style, realist, showed a significant difference.

Demographics

1. There was no significant difference between superintendents and principals in demographic characteristics of age, marital status, racial group, level of education, years as a classroom teacher, and years of administrative experience.

Suggestions for Further Study

1. A comparison study should be made of a school district in which the superintendent hires his/her principals and a school district where a personnel director is involved in the hiring process.

2. A study be made in smaller school districts and in larger school districts where the superintendent does the hiring of principals.

3. A study be made of a larger sample, specifically a national sample of small school districts, middle-sized school districts, and large school districts.

4. A study be conducted in industry to determine if there is a match in manifest needs and thinking styles between the interviewer and the interviewee.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

It is with deep appreciation that I acknowledge the guidance, support, and encouragement given to me by my chairman, Dr. Louis Romano. His constant counsel made a difficult task a more tolerable one and, may I add, enjoyable.

I wish to thank Dr. Keith Groty, whose kind support has been invaluable to me. Additionally, I wish to thank Dr. Norman Weinheimer and Dr. Lonnie McIntyre for serving on my dissertation committee and providing me with encouragement and assistance whenever it was needed.

To my loving parents, whose respect for further education has given me direction and inspiration to reach for higher goals.

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CHAPTER I

THE PROBLEM

Introduction

The selection of principals is a vital aspect of the system of personnel selection in a school organization. The initial decision on hiring an executive is an extremely critical one (Wendell, 1970). The responsibility for the interviewing in most cases rests with the superintendent because it is his/her responsibility to recommend for employment principals who will perform at a level that will result in meeting the goals of the organization. The success of the superintendent will be determined by the administrative efforts of his/her subordinates, namely the principals, in an attempt to meet the goals of the organization. To meet these goals, do superintendents tend to hire principals who have manifest needs and thinking styles similar to the superintendent?

In this study, there was an attempt to determine if the superintendent of schools has the same manifest needs and/or thinking styles that are identical to the principals he/she hires. This investigation looked at five manifest needs: namely, affiliation, autonomy, achievement, dominance, and abasement (Edwards, 1959). Also, the thinking styles, which include pragmatist, analyst, synthesist, idealist, and realist (Bramson, Palette, & Harrison, 1977).

Examining the manifest needs and the thinking style places a different perspective on the employment interview process. If this investigation determines that the manifest needs and thinking styles are identical, it may be a factor that determines who are hired and what salary they receive. Basket (1973) stated, "the less similar targets (applicants) received a substantially lower salary than the high similar targets."

Other organizational problems could arise in a school setting when there is a need for a disciplinarian type of principal, but there is an easy-going superintendent, or the school may need some innovative and creative person in contrast to a superintendent who is a traditionalist.

This study does not attempt to suggest that an organization hire people with different manifest needs and thinking styles. It may be good for an organization to have people with the same manifest needs and thinking styles to aid in teamwork and cooperation. If this study does find that the cloning process does take place, it will not be for the purpose of determining if it is good or bad, but only to determine if it does exist at all. Should this investigation indicate that manifest needs and thinking styles are identical in the superintendent and principal, then the superintendent should become more aware of these similarities. The superintendent should seriously consider if he/she needs a principal who is like him/herself or whether the school needs someone who has a different perspective to develop a better balance and possibly give the school a new direction.

The hiring decision is a crucial one and should be approached with the utmost care. No other single activity of an administrator is as important to operating an efficient and effective school as the selection of quality personnel (Engel & Frederichs, 1980).

Purpose of the Study

This study was designed to investigate if superintendents tend to hire principals with similar manifest needs and thinking styles as measured by the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule and the Inquiry Mode Questionnaire by Bramson, Parlette, and Harrison. The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule includes the five manifest needs of achievement, autonomy, affiliation, dominance, and abasement. The Inquiry Mode Questionnaire tested for the five thinking styles of pragmatism, idealism, realism, synthesism, and analysm.

Definition of Terms

Manifest needs is the overall term used in the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule that includes achievement, autonomy, affiliation, dominance, and abasement (Edwards, 1959).

Achievement--To do one's best, to be successful, to accomplish something of great significance, to do a difficult job well, to solve difficult problems and puzzles, to be able to do things better than others, to write a great novel or play (Edwards, 1959).

Autonomy--To be able to come and go as desired, to say what one thinks about things, to be independent of others in making decisions, to feel free to do what one wants, to do things that are

unconventional, to avoid situations where one is expected to conform, to do things without regard to what others may think, to criticize those in positions of authority, to avoid responsibilities and obligations (Edwards, 1959).

Affiliation--To be loyal to friends, to participate in friendly groups, to do things for friends, to form new friendships, to make as many friends as possible, to share things with friends, to do things with friends rather than alone, to form strong attachments, to write letters to friends (Edwards, 1959).

Dominance--To argue for one's point of view, to be a leader in groups to which one belongs, to be regarded by others as a leader, to be elected or appointed chairman of committees, to make group decisions, to settle arguments and disputes between others, to persuade and influence others to do what one wants, to supervise and direct the actions of others, to tell others how to do their jobs (Edwards, 1959).

Abasement--To feel guilty when one does something wrong, to accept blame when things do not go right, to feel that personal pain and misery suffered does more good than harm, to feel the need for punishment for wrong doing, to feel better when giving in and avoiding a fight than when having one's own way, to feel the need for confession of errors, to feel depressed by inability to handle situations, to feel timid in the presence of superiors, to feel inferior to others in most respects (Edwards, 1959).

Thinking styles is the overall term used in the Inquiry Mode Questionnaire that includes synthesism, idealism, pragmatism, analysm, and realism (Bramson et al., 1977).

Synthesist--Integrative approach, sees likeness in apparent unlikes, seeks conflict and synthesis, is interested in change.

Idealist--Assimilative approach, broad range of views welcomed, ideal solutions sought.

Pragmatist--Eclectic approach, "whatever works," seeks shortest route to payoff, interested in innovation.

Analyst--Logical approach, seeks "one best way," seeks models and formulas, interested in "scientific" solutions.

Realist--Empirical approach, relies on facts and expert opinion, seeks solutions that meet current needs, interested in concrete results.

Superintendent of schools--Chief executive and advisory officer charged with direction of schools in a local school administrative unit, as in a district, city, town, or township, or in a county or state.

Principal--The administrative head and professional leader of a school division or unit, such as a high school, junior high school, or elementary school.

Assumptions

This dissertation is based on two assumptions:

1. The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule does test for achievement, autonomy, affiliation, dominance, and abasement.

2. The Inquiry Mode Questionnaire does test for pragmatist, idealist, realist, synthesist, and analyst.

Delimitations

1. The data collected were based only on the responses received from the consortium of Middle Cities schools in Michigan.

2. The data of the study were affected by the degree of sincerity of response to the test administered.

3. The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule and the Inquiry Mode Questionnaire provided the data needed.

4. The findings of the relationship between factors cited in the previous statements were viewed as correlational and limited only to the categories cited.

Research Question

This study was an attempt to investigate if superintendents tend to hire principals with the same manifest needs and thinking styles as measured by the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule and by the Inquiry Mode Questionnaire by Bramson et al.

The general research question is as follows: "Do superintendents hire principals who are similar to themselves in manifest needs and thinking styles? Specific research questions include the following:

1. Do superintendents select principals similar to themselves in achievement?

2. Do superintendents select principals similar to themselves in autonomy?

3. Do superintendents select principals similar to themselves in affiliation?

4. Do superintendents select principals similar to themselves in dominance?

5. Do superintendents select principals similar to themselves in abasement?

6. Do superintendents select principals similar to themselves in thinking style, synthesist?

7. Do superintendents select principals similar to themselves in thinking style, idealist?

8. Do superintendents select principals similar to themselves in thinking style, pragmatist?

9. Do superintendents select principals similar to themselves in thinking style, analyst?

10. Do superintendents select principals similar to themselves in thinking style, realist?

Population/Sample

All of the Michigan schools in the Middle Cities Association were included in this study, but the sample comprised only the superintendents and their principals in those school districts that do the hiring of the principals rather than those school districts in which the personnel directors are involved in the hiring process.

The Middle Cities Association serves Michigan's middle-sized urban centers. The smallest is Muskegon Heights with 3,000 students, and the largest is Flint with more than 30,000. Together, MCA

districts have a membership of students larger than Detroit and the fifth largest in the country.

Procedures Used

The data collected for the study were analyzed to determine if superintendents and principals have similar manifest needs and thinking styles. The first analysis was descriptive, using percentages and frequencies, and is illustrated in tabular fashion. Also, the data are illustrated by inferential statistics using chi-square for demographic characteristics to determine similarities or differences.

The analysis of variance was used to know whether the difference or similarity between the two groups of superintendents and principals in manifest needs and/or thinking styles is significant or whether it can be attributed to chance. The scores were compiled, punched, and verified on IBM cards and processed by the computer center at Michigan State University.

Overview of the Study

This study consists of five chapters, a selected bibliography, and appendices.

Chapter I included the rationale for the study, purposes of the study, research questions, assumptions, definition of terms, and the organization of the study.

Chapter II contains a review of the literature related to the topic. This includes a search of pertinent ERIC files, review

of psychological abstracts, review of periodicals index, business management abstracts, and dissertation abstracts.

Chapter III describes and explains the methods and procedures of the study. Included in this chapter are the population, sample, instrumentation, collection, and treatment of the data.

Chapter IV is an analysis of data from the instruments.

Chapter V presents the summary, findings, and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The review of the literature is organized under three major
headings: (1) perceived similarity, (2) attraction and self-
disclosure, and (3) similar-to-me effect. All of these subheadings
are related to the belief that there is a tendency for one to relate
to another whom he/she believes to be similar to him/herself.

Perceived Similarity

The relationship between perceived similarity to self and
interpersonal attraction has been well documented (Byrne, 1961,
1965, 1969; Bowditch, 1969; Byrne, Clore, & Worchel, 1966; Byrne &
Griffitt, 1969; Byrne, London, & Reeves, 1968). The evidence is
clear and unequivocal: the greater the degree of perceived simi-
larity between two persons, the greater their attraction for each
other.

There seems to be a fair amount of evidence to suggest that
raters tend to attribute a number of their own characteristics to
the persons they rate. Learly (1957) found that hostile people
tended to attribute more hostility to other people than nonhostile
persons attributed to others. The same relationship was obtained
for ratings of friendliness by friendly and nonfriendly raters.

Edwards (1959) demonstrated that persons with positive self-descriptions were more positive in their evaluation of others than persons with negative self-descriptions.

In experimental investigations of interpersonal attraction, various stimulus characteristics associated with an individual have been manipulated and found to exert an effect on attraction toward the individual. The theory of social-comparison processes suggests that individuals are attracted to each other on the basis of similarity in opinions, abilities, emotional state, and economic status (Byrne et al., 1966). Byrne stated that friendship choices within a group tend to be between members of the same general socioeconomic status. In his methodology, his subjects were asked to evaluate a stranger about whom information concerning both attitude and economic status were provided. It was hypothesized that attraction is a positive function of similarity of economic status. The derived attraction formula found positive similarity responses concerning economic status.

The central figure in the investigations of similarity and attraction relationship has been Donald Byrne. He and his associates have attempted to develop a theoretical explanation of the similarity-attraction relationship. Byrne and Clore (1968) developed a reinforcement model of evaluative responses that they use to explain the consistent research findings. Attitude statements are conceptualized as having evaluative or affective meaning and hence reinforcement properties. Attitudes may then serve as reinforcers in learning

other evaluative responses. Byrne and Clore maintained that the
evaluative meaning of any given stimulus is a positive linear function
of the proportion of positive reinforcements associated with it.
Positive and negative reinforcements act as unconditioned stimuli
which then have the power to elicit the implicit affective responses
without the necessity of the original unconditioned stimulus being
present. In support of their model, the authors cited a variety of
studies showing that evaluations of other people are a function of
the association of a person with some positive reinforcement (Byrne
& Clore, 1968). A similar model of similarity-attraction that empha-
sizes perceived instrumentality of similarity-dissimilarity was
proposed by Simons, Moyer, and Berkowitz (1972).

Some studies have indicated that interviewers' decisions are
based on personality characteristics, and the favored applicant is
seen as having congruent or similar beliefs to those of the inter-
viewer (Baskett, 1973; Wexley & Numeroff, 1974).

Perhaps the most overlooked variables in studies of inter-
viewer decision-making behaviors are the self-perceptions that
interviewers hold of themselves. Fortunately, the effects of self-
perception on behavior have been studied in other contexts, and
some generalizations to the interview setting may be justified.
Bem (1967) was one of the first psychologists to recognize the role
of self-perception in determining behavior. Korman (1970) developed
a model of work behavior with self-perception as its focal point.
Korman believed that a person behaves in such a way as to be

consistent with a given person's self-image. Korman used the person's chronic self-esteem as a measure of his/her self-concept and related differences in self-esteem to vocational choice (1966, 1967a, 1967b). These investigations led Korman to the conclusion that persons high in self-esteem make vocational choices that are consistent with their needs, goals, and self-concepts, whereas persons low in self-esteem are more influenced in their choices by external factors such as social desirability, family pressure, and so on.

Korman (1966, 1967a, 1967b, 1970) had previously indicated that he perceived self-esteem to be a relatively stable characteristic, built up over years of reinforcement history, and thus not likely to change much. However, recently both Korman (1971) and a study by Raben and Klimoski (1972) have provided evidence to suggest that self-esteem can be changed by altering the expectations that significant others (i.e., a supervisor, friend, spouse, etc.) have regarding the person's performance. While the results of these studies are merely suggestive, they do give hope that eventually we may be able to help individuals who are not realizing their full human potential because of faulty self-concepts. As usual, further research is needed.

Attraction and Self-Disclosure

Originally, Jourard (1964) stated that high disclosure is the trademark of a healthy, self-actualized person, implying that he should be liked and admired by his peers for his honesty in communicating information about himself. Research by several

investigators (Jourard, 1959; Jourard & Landsman, 1960; Jourard & Friedman, 1970; Jourard & Jaffee, 1970; Johnson & Noonan, 1972) agreed with this position by finding that a person who discloses intimate information is more liked and trusted than if he discloses superficial information. On the other hand, other investigators (Ehrlich & Graeven, 1971; Derlega, Walmer, & Furman, 1973; Kohen, 1975) have found no relationship between intimacy of the disclosure and liking for the discloser, while Cozby (1972) reported a curvilinear relationship between intimacy of the disclosure and liking for the discloser. In their review of research, Chaikin and Derlega (1976) concluded that a simple relationship does not exist between the level of disclosure and the evaluation of the discloser. They further proposed that the task thus becomes one of specifying the factors that affect the nature of the relationship.

One line of research that has suggested a key variable in determining the relationship between self-disclosure and liking is the perceived "appropriateness" of the disclosure rather than the level of disclosure (Kiesler, Kiesler, & Pollak, 1967; Derlega, Harris, & Chaikin, 1973; Chelune, 1976; Gilbert, 1977). Derlega et al. (1973) predicted that persons should like a conformer to a norm of disclosure more than a person who does not adhere to a disclosure norm, regardless of whether the norm-breaker talks too intimately or not intimately enough. In this study, observers watched videotapes of two girls conversing. The first girl revealed either nonintimate or intimate information about herself. The

second girl revealed either nonintimate or intimate information about herself in return. The results showed that the norm-breaker was less liked than the girl who observed the reciprocity norm, regardless of the level of intimacy. Responses to other impression ratings indicated that the nonintimate norm-breaker was rated as "cold," whereas the intimate norm-breaker was seen as "maladjusted," "unusual," and "inappropriate" in her behavior. There was also an overall tendency to evaluate high disclosure as more unusual and inappropriate than low disclosure. The authors suggested that if a reciprocity norm does account for the dyadic effect, it is probably that liking for the discloser will depend on the perceived appropriateness as determined by the preceding disclosure by either individual.

Similarly, Gilbert (1977) added further support that attraction to a high discloser depends on the perceived appropriateness of disclosures. In her study, appropriateness was varied according to which task subjects expected to participate in with an applicant. Subjects met with an applicant who communicated either a high or a low set number of personal statements and were told the task was either a problem-solving or a personal-growth-orientation task. Although a significant difference was not found between tasks, the results indicated that subjects exposed to a high-disclosing applicant expressed less attraction, perceived her as behaving inappropriately, were generally uncomfortable with her, and perceived the chance of successful task completion with her to be minimal.

As noted by Cozby (1973), one methodological problem with research on the relationship between social attraction or liking

and self-disclosure is that the intimacy of self-disclosure has not been separated from the content of disclosure. In most studies, subjects received from another content about a topic that varied in intimacy value. Thus, it is difficult to determine whether the subjects' liking rating was due to the intimacy value of the topic or their own feelings about that particular topic. Therefore, to study the actual effect of intimacy, topic content must be controlled or treated separately in the valuative ratings.

In summary, reciprocity of self-disclosure in social inter- actions has been given much empirical support. Many investigators (e.g., Chaikin & Derlega, 1976; Chelune, 1976; Gilbert, 1977) have suggested that the perceived appropriateness of self-disclosure as determined by a number of variables, including the target of self- disclosure as well as situational norms and expectations, is a critical variable affecting disclosure reciprocity. Likewise, the relationship between social attraction and self-disclosure may also depend on the judged appropriateness of the disclosure. Either too high to too low self-disclosure by one member of the dyad may result in a decrease in reciprocity as well as less attraction to the dis- closer. Reciprocity of self-disclosure also tended to be strongest when the dyad consisted of strangers, who may depend more on prin- ciples of equity and modeling rather than trust in establishing reciprocity (Altman, 1973; Rubin, 1975).

The investigation of the therapist-client or experimenter- subject relationship within the psychological interview merits

special consideration within the context of interpersonal relation-
ships (Cozby, 1973). Self-disclosure within the psychological inter-
view is different from other dyadic social interactions in that there
are given differences in status (professional versus client) as well
as in the nature of the task. The therapist or interviewer seeks
information about another person's private self. Thus, research on
self-disclosure within the psychological interview may have a number
of practical as well as methodological implications.

Several theorists (Rogers, 1961; Jourard, 1971; Mowrer, 1964)
have emphasized the importance of self-disclosure or self-exploration
as a goal in traditional psychotherapy. Truax and Carkhuff (1965)
suggested that in successful psychotherapy the client is involved in
a process of self-disclosure or self-exploration; that is, a process
of coming to verbalize and know one's beliefs, values, motives, etc.
However, most research has focused on the effects of the therapist
or interviewer behavior on client or interviewee behavior in facili-
tating this process.

One research strategy in experimentally facilitating client
self-disclosure has been the comparison of self-disclosing versus
other verbal interview techniques (Powell, 1968; Vondracek, 1969;
Feijenbaum, 1977). For example, Powell (1968) explored the effects
of approval-supportive, reflection-restatement, or open disclosure
statements on the conditioning of subjects' verbal behavior in an
experimental interview. The interview was divided into two ten-
minute periods: operant level and acquisition. During the second

period, the interviewer responded to the subject's positive or
negative self-references with one of the three above interventions.
The results indicated that the three types of interviewing styles
were differentially effective in influencing subjects' self-references.
In general, subjects disclosed more when an interviewer corresponded
to subjects' self-references with open disclosure than when he used
approval-supportive or reflection-statement styles.

On the other hand, Vondracek (1969) reported that a "probing"
technique was more effective in eliciting high amounts of interviewee
self-disclosure (extent of verbalization time) than when the inter-
viewer was either "reflecting" or "revealing," although none of the
interviewing techniques produced differences in the rated intimacy
of self-disclosure. More recently, Feijenbaum (1977) investigated
the intimacy of subjects' self-disclosure in relation to a reflect-
ing versus disclosing interviewing style. Results showed a signifi-
cant correlation of interviewee intimate self-disclosure, as measured
by judges' content ratings of the interviews and by subjects' use of
self-referent words, when the interviewer was both reflecting and
self-disclosing. Feijenbaum (1977) concluded that in relatively
brief interviews, interviewer self-disclosure as a technique in
facilitating intimate disclosure is no more effective than the reflec-
tion technique.

Overall, the relationship between self-disclosing and other
verbal techniques remains unclear because of the use of different
parameters and measures of self-disclosure. For example, different

dependent measures of the amount of disclosure have included the extent of verbalization time (Vondracek, 1969) or the number of self-references (Feijenbaum, 1977). In addition, since the above studies have not consistently employed the same parameter, such as amount or intimacy of self-disclosure, the comparison of results is difficult.

However, the foremost area of research on self-disclosure within the psychological interview has been the investigation of Jourard's (1960) dyadic effect. As previously mentioned, the implication of the dyadic effect is that high therapist self-disclosure should lead to high levels of disclosure by the client. Jourard also assumed that the reciprocity of self-disclosure proceeded in a linear manner and that more self-disclosure by the therapist should elicit more self-disclosure by the client. Thus, the typical research procedure in the investigation of self-disclosure within the psychological interview has been through the manipulation of different levels of therapist or interviewer self-disclosure in facilitating interviewee or client self-disclosure (Bundza & Simonson, 1973; Simonson & Bahr, 1974; Simonson, 1976). For example, Bundza and Simonson (1973) presented subjects with transcripts of one of three simulated psychotherapy sessions. Client responses were held constant while the therapist's behavior consisted of three levels of disclosure (nondisclosure, warm support, and self-disclosure). Although the dependent measure was the subjects' willingness to disclose rather than actual self-disclosing behavior, results indicated that the therapist who made warm-accepting remarks to the client elicited the greatest willingness to self-disclose.

Additional support for the facilitating effect of intermediate levels of therapist disclosure has come from a number of studies examining the frequency and similarity of interviewer self-disclosure (Giannandra & Murphy, 1973; Mann & Murphy, 1975; Murphy & Strong, 1972). For example, Giannandra and Murphy (1973) had interviewers disclose experiences, attitudes, and feelings similar to those revealed by subjects 0, 2, 4, 8, and 12 times during a 20-minute interview on college life. The interviewer's disclosure consisted of short and honest positive comments about the interviewer's own experience, beliefs, and attitudes, and were inserted on a random basis following an unobtrusive light signal. In general, a moderate number of interviewer's self-disclosures, rather than a few or many, resulted in significantly more students returning for a second interview and increasing the subjects' reciprocal disclosure. Additionally, an intermediate number of similar disclosures by the interviewer led to the interviewer being described as significantly more empathetic, warm, and genuine (Mann & Murphy, 1975). Murphy et al. concluded that the use of a moderate number of interviewer self-disclosures may be an effective means of increasing the attractiveness of the therapist and of increasing client approach response to the therapist.

Simonson and Bahr (1974) examined the effect of therapist disclosure on subject disclosure and attraction during the first interview. Three levels of therapist disclosure (personal, demographic, and none), in addition to two levels of professional

affiliation (professional and paraprofessional), were manipulated. Simonson and Bahr reasoned that the perceived "psychological distance" between the subject and a professional therapist or interviewer is so great that the disclosure of personal material by a figure so far removed from the subject is simply too unusual to be accepted. The results supported the predicted hypothesis that personal disclosure by a paraprofessional would elicit greater attraction and reciprocal disclosure by subjects than exposure to a professional therapist. Personal self-disclosure by a professional therapist resulted in lower levels of attraction and disclosure than were obtained by exposure to a therapist who offered only demographic self-disclosure. However, demographic self-disclosure for both professional and paraprofessional therapists resulted in greater self-disclosure and attraction than exposure to a therapist who offered no self-disclosing statements. Simonson and Bahr (1974) concluded that intermediate therapist self-disclosure appears to be a helpful technique for both professional and paraprofessional therapists, but that personal self-disclosure by a professional therapist may be viewed by subjects as inappropriate.

Within the psychological interview, the development of trust and social attraction is considered essential for an effective counseling relationship (Rogers, 1961; Jourard, 1971). Strong (1968) conceptualized therapy as an interpersonal influence process and proposed that the counselor's ability to influence the client can be enhanced by possessing characteristics of expertness, attractiveness,

and trustworthiness. Thus, one implication of previous research on self-disclosure is that counselors who disclose personal information may be rated as more attractive and trustworthy. However, the specific relationship between counselor self-disclosure and social attraction within the psychological interview has been studied by only a few investigators.

Similar-to-Me Effect

The similarity effect has been a consistent finding that a favorable evaluation of a job applicant is significantly related to the degree of similarity of that applicant to the rater. Golightly, Huffman, and Byrne (1972) reported that the proportion of similar attitudes held in common between a simulated loan officer and a bogus loan applicant influenced the attraction toward the applicant and the magnitude of the loan approval. Baskett (1973) found that attitudinally dissimilar applicants in a simulated employment interview were perceived as being less competent and were offered lower starting salaries. In another simulated-interview study, Wexley and Nemeroff (1974) examined the influence of applicant race and biographical similarity on subjects' evaluations of job candidates. Although applicant race did not have a substantial effect on the evaluations, biographical similarity accounted for 12 percent of the interviewers' total decision variance. Rand and Wexley (1975), employing simulated videotaped employment interviews, also found that biographical similarity of interviewer and applicant led to substantially higher ratings of the candidate's job suitability. In

fact, their "similar-to-me" effect accounted for 11.3 percent of the hiring-recommendation variance. In the course of training experienced managers to minimize various rating errors, it was found that the similarity effect accounted for 26 percent of the variance in the ratings by control-group managers (Latham, Wexley, & Pursell, 1975). Pulakos and Wexley (1982) found that perceptual similarity is certainly related to managers' evaluations of their subordinates and the subordinates' evaluations of their managers. The managers continue to provide support and work facilitation as long as at least one individual within the manager-subordinate dyad perceives similarity. Presumably, the vertical dyadic linkage remains fairly high whenever the manager, the subordinates, or both parties believe that there is some degree of similarity between them (Pulakos & Wexley, 1982).

Summary

This chapter reviewed research related to perceived similarity theory, attraction, self-disclosure, and similarity between interviewer and interviewee. Perceived similarity theory suggests that individuals are attracted to each other on the basis of similarity in opinions, abilities, emotional state, and economic status. Also that hostile people tend to attribute more hostility to other people and friendly people tend to attribute more friendliness to other people.

Attraction and self-disclosure indicates that high disclosure reveals healthy self-actualized people who should be liked and admired

for their honesty in communication of information about themselves. Therefore, the more intimate the disclosures, the more they are liked and trusted than if they had disclosed superficial information. Some studies showed a falling off of attraction when the disclosures were viewed as inappropriate.

Similar-to-me effect was studied in job ratings and employment interviews. It was found that a favorable evaluation of a job applicant was significantly related to the degree of similarity of that applicant to the rater. Biographical similarity of interviewer and applicant led to substantially higher ratings of the candidate's job suitability. It was found that these factors do influence the ratings of on-the-job performance and preference given in an interview situation. Interpersonal judgments manifest themselves in the interview process and may help to explain why certain candidates are chosen over others of equal ability. It is certainly understandable that individuals will relate and evaluate others more favorably whom they perceive as being similar to themselves. The research of the literature thus far does indicate that similarity between interviewers and interviewees leads to favorable interviewer judgments.

CHAPTER III

DESIGN AND PROCEDURES OF THE STUDY

The purpose of this investigation was to determine if superintendents of schools tend to hire principals with similar manifest needs and thinking styles. The question posed is: "Do superintendents tend to hire people exactly like themselves in manifest needs and thinking styles?"

The purpose of this research was only to determine if a match does, in fact, exist. If it is found to be identical in some areas, then the conscious awareness of it is sufficient in that it may have an effect on the interview process. Included in this chapter on research methodology is the definition of the population, sample selection, instruments employed, demographics, scoring procedures, and procedures for analyzing data.

Sample Selection

The Middle Cities Association (MCA) is a consortium of 20 urban school districts in Michigan formed out of a common need and committed to cooperative, constructive action. MCA's major goal is to help improve educational service to nearly 300,000 students. No other formal organization like MCA exists in this country. The MCA districts form a composite school district that is larger than

Detroit and the fifth largest in the country. The Middle City schools were selected as the population because they represent the middle-sized districts as opposed to the very few large school districts and the numerous small-sized school districts.

The introductory letter explained the project and asked the superintendent if he/she had hired his/her present principals. Letters were sent to the following districts: Ann Arbor, Battle Creek, Bay City, Benton Harbor, Flint, Grand Rapids, Jackson, Kalamazoo, Lansing, Marquette, Midland, Monroe, Muskegon, Muskegon Heights, Niles, Pontiac, Saginaw, Southfield, Willow Run, and Ypsilanti. The reply from these schools indicated that ten superintendents had hired their present principals. Within these ten superintendents, they had hired a total of 15 principals.

Instruments Employed

The three instruments used to collect the data were the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, the Inquiry Mode Questionnaire, and a demographic questionnaire.

Edwards Personal Preference Schedule

The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule (EPPS) was used to test the following areas: achievement, affiliation, autonomy, abasement, and dominance. This test was a forced choice between two statements, one of which would indicate a preference for the specific basic need.

Reliability of EPPS.--Split-half reliability coefficients or coefficients of internal consistency were determined for the 15

personality variables in the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule.
These coefficients were obtained by correlating the row and column
scores for each variable over the 1,509 subjects in the college nor-
mative group. The internal consistency coefficients, corrected by
the Spearman-Brown formula, are given in Table 1.

Table 1.--Coefficients of internal consistency and stability for the
EPPS variables.

Variable	Internal Consistency		Stability	
			Mean	SD
1. Achievement	0.74	0.74	14.46	4.09
2. Autonomy	0.76	0.83	13.62	4.48
3. Affiliation	0.70	0.77	15.40	4.09
4. Dominance	0.81	0.87	15.72	5.28
5. Abasement	0.84	0.88	14.10	4.96

Test-retest reliability coefficients or stability coeffi-
cients are also given in Table 1.

Validity.--Various studies have been made comparing ratings
and scores on the variables of the EPPS. In one study, subjects
were asked to rank themselves on the 15 personality variables without
knowledge of their corresponding scores on the EPPS. Definitions of
the variables were provided in terms of the statements appearing in
the EPPS. This was necessary because it was believed that the names
of some of the more familiar variables, such as "dominance," would
probably evoke many different connotations.

The self-rankings of some subjects agreed perfectly with their rankings based upon the EPPS. In other cases, the two sets of rankings showed little agreement. The subjects, in general, reported the self-rankings difficult to make. Some complained of being unable to evaluate the individual statements in order to obtain a single ranking. Others placed undue stress on a single statement involved in the definition of a variable and neglected the remaining statements. Some of the subjects also undoubtedly tended to evaluate the variables in terms of standards of social desirability.

Inquiry Mode Questionnaire

The Inquiry Mode Questionnaire (InQ) tested the five areas of pragmatist, idealist, realist, analyst, and synthesist. Each of these variables was answered on a five-point scale: (1) least like them, (2) a little like them, (3) moderately like them, (4) more like them, and (5) the most like them. Scores in each area were tabulated for a total score of 270 points for the test.

Reliability.--The reliability of the subtests of the InQ inventory was investigated by the test-retest procedure, which is essentially a measure of temporal stability. Data were obtained from 700 respondents late in 1980 and again six weeks to two months later, early in 1981. The data for reliability assessment are based on a totally different group of respondents, whose responses formed the basis of the item analyses reported above. Test-retest coefficients for the five subtests of the InQ inventory are presented along the main diagonal of Table 2.

Table 2.--Test-retest reliability and subtest intercorrelation
coefficients.

	Synthesist	Idealist	Pragmatist	Analyst	Realist
Synthesist	(0.75)	-0.05	-0.32	-0.30	-0.40
Idealist	-0.24	(0.52)	-0.12	-0.36	-0.49
Pragmatist	-0.24	-0.02	(0.65)	-0.41	-0.14
Analyst	-0.16	-0.16	-0.50	(0.70)	-0.10
Realist	-0.43	-0.43	-0.03	-0.18	(0.61)

Validity.--Two approaches to validity were taken by the

current research. First, the factorial structure of the 90 items

composing the InQ inventory was investigated; second, the subtest

score profiles of various occupational groups taking the InQ were

analyzed. Standard factor-analytic procedures were used, followed

by the quartimax rotation procedures designed to simplify rows of

a factor matrix. If an analytical procedure is used requiring five

factors, then for an array as shown in Table 3, all 18 synthesist

items should have their major positive loading on one factor, all

18 idealist items should have their major positive loading on a

different single factor, and so on. As a corollary for an array as

shown in Table 4, all factor loadings for the synthesist factor

should be positive, as should be the case for the remaining four

factors associated with the remaining four subtests of the InQ

inventory.

Table 3.--Highest positive factor loadings of InQ items.

Factors	Synthesist	Idealist	Pragmatist	Analyst	Realist
1	0	(8)[a]	(8)	3	3
2	2	1	0	(9)	5
3	1	1	5	4	(6)
4	(13)	6	0	1	0
5	2	2	5	1	4

[a]Bracketed entries represent most frequent positive factor loadings.

Table 4.--All positive factor loadings of InQ items.

Factors	Synthesist	Idealist	Pragmatist	Analyst	Realist
1	1	(13)	10	13	8
2	9	8	3	(16)	6
3	2	3	11	14	(12)
4	(14)	12	4	9	1
5	9	11	(12)	6	10

Tables 3 and 4 present the summary of results from the five-factor quartimax rotation analytic procedure here employed. It may be seen from Table 3 that Factor 4 clearly represents a synthesist factor with 13 of the 18 items having here their major positive loading.

Analyst items are clearly represented by Factor 2, and realist items seem most predominantly represented by Factor 3.

Idealist and pragmatist items seem to both be well represented by Factor 1. However, this may be somewhat of an artifact of the quartimax rotation since there is a tendency for the first rotated factor to be a general factor. In this circumstance, the results of Table 4 indicate that idealist items are the major representation in Factor 1, and pragmatist forms the fifth factor, if somewhat indistinctly (Bramson, Parlette, & Harrison Manual, 1977).

Demographic Questionnaire

Review procedure.--The following steps were developed to facilitate the implementation of the demographic-instrument review procedure:

Step 1: At the first mailing, a panel of three superintendents and six principals who were not participating in the study were asked to complete the survey instrument and submit comments on (a) layout and general design, (b) number and arrangement of questions, (c) general instructions to the subjects, and (d) ambiguity and sensitivity of the questions.

Step 2: The panel members' responses were noted and changes implemented.

Step 3: The panel members were again requested to respond to the revised survey instrument, and their responses were noted.

Step 4: The final survey instrument reflected the changes as indicated by the reviewers.

Scoring procedures.--Before the tests were sent out, they were coded with a number or a letter to protect the anonymity of the participants. Participation at all times was voluntary.

This is a relationship study and requires that variables be identified for proper analysis. All instruments were scored and tabulated, becoming variables that would possibly identify significant relationships. Precoding of the instruments was accomplished through consulting with the Michigan State University Research Consultation Center.

The five manifest needs of achievement, affiliation, autonomy, abasement, and dominance of the superintendents were matched with the scores of the principals they had hired. Then the five areas of thinking styles--pragmatist, idealist, realist, synthesist, and analyst--of the superintendents were matched with the five same areas of the principals they had hired.

Data Gathering

The following procedures were designed to gather the data for this study. In April 1982, the superintendents of the 20 Middle City schools were sent a cover letter explaining the purpose of this study and how the tabulated data were to be used. Most important, they were asked if they had hired any of the principals in their school district at any time during their tenure. Within two weeks, another mailing was sent out to the superintendents so as to receive returns from all the superintendents.

The returned letters were examined to note which superintendents had hired one or more principals within their school district. Another letter was sent to these superintendents asking for the names and addresses of the principals they had hired. They were

also provided with a form letter for their principals, asking them to cooperate with this project by completing the instruments which they would receive in the near future.

In June 1982, a packet of materials, which included a cover letter explaining the purpose of the study and asking the participants to complete the three instruments, namely the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, the Inquiry Mode Questionnaire, and the demographics questionnaire was sent to each potential respondent. If no reply was received two weeks after the initial mailing, a second letter was sent to the nonrespondents. If no response was received two weeks after the second mailing, a telephone call was made to the nonrespondents. All of the respondents had turned in the required materials by August 1982.

Procedure for Analyzing Data

Data for this study consisted of the responses to the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, the Inquiry Mode Questionnaire, and the demographic questionnaire.

Upon return, these instruments required handscoring and tabulation. These scores were compiled and transferred to data sheets. Scores were punched and verified on IBM cards processed by the Computer Center at Michigan State University. The results were illustrated by inferential statistics using chi-square for demographic characteristics to determine similarities or differences. The analysis of variance was used for the manifest needs and thinking styles.

Summary

Ten superintendents and 15 principals were subjects in this study to help determine if there were matches in manifest needs, thinking styles, and/or demographics.

The superintendents and principals completed the identical testing program. The scores were compared to determine if there were matches in the areas of achievement, affiliation, autonomy, dominance, abasement, pragmatist, idealist, realist, synthesist, and analyst.

All participants filled out the general background demographic questionnaire consisting of the following: age, marital status, degree, teaching experience, administrative experience, racial group, and administrative position.

All information was posted on data sheets, and the statistics were generated by the use of the computer at Michigan State University.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS OF THE DATA

This chapter presents the data that related specifically to
the primary purpose of this study, namely, to determine if a rela-
tionship exists among the manifest needs, thinking styles, and demo-
graphics between the superintendent and the principal whom he/she
has hired. The manifest needs were obtained through the completion
of the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule, which tested the areas
of achievement, autonomy, affiliation, dominance, and abasement.
Data on thinking styles were obtained through the completion of the
Inquiry Mode Questionnaire and tested for pragmatist, idealist, realist,
synthesist, and analyst. Certain demographic data were also obtained
from the superintendents and the principals for comparison purposes.

The analysis of the data is presented in the following
manner:

1. Each of the original hypotheses of the study is restated,
and appropriate data and an explanation are provided.

2. Data related to demographics are presented in tabular
form.

The chapter concludes with a summary of the findings.

Manifest Needs

Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in manifest need of achievement.

In this hypothesis, the purpose was to determine whether both administrators attempted to do their best, to be successful, to accomplish the tasks requiring skill and effort, to do a difficult job well, and to solve difficult problems (Edwards, 1959).

Based on the data, there was no significant difference between the superintendents' and principals' manifest need of achievement (F [1,25] = 0.20, p < 0.59). Thus, the absence of any significant difference between superintendents and principals is not surprising since achievement is necessary to attain this level of competency. It usually requires advance degrees and a desire to be a leader with supervisor responsibilities over others. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Table 5.--ANOVA--Comparison of superintendents and principals in manifest need for achievement.

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p	Significant
Between groups	2.5885	1	2.5885	0.2901	0.5901	No
Within groups	223.0412	25	8.9216			
Total	225.6297					

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in manifest need for autonomy.

In this hypothesis, the purpose was to determine whether both administrators desired to come and go as they pleased, to say openly what they think about things, to be independent of others in making decisions, to feel free to do what one wants, to do things that are unconventional, to avoid situations where one is expected to conform, to do things without regard to what others may think, to criticize those in positions of authority, and to avoid responsibilities and obligations (Edwards, 1959).

Based on the data, there was no significant difference between the superintendents' and the principals' manifest need of autonomy (F [1,25] = 0.22, p < 0.63). The absence of any significant difference between superintendents and principals is accepted since the occupation oftentimes requires working alone as there is usually only one principal in a school building and one superintendent for many schools. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Table 6.--ANOVA--Comparison of superintendents and principals in manifest need for autonomy.

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p	Significant
Between groups	3.5139	1	3.5139	0.2295	0.6361	No
Within groups	382.7824	25	15.3113			
Total	386.2963					

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference between super-intendents and principals in manifest need of affiliation.

In this hypothesis, the purpose was to determine whether
both administrators attempted to be loyal to friends, to partici-
pate in friendly groups, to do things for friends, to form new friend-
ships, to make as many friends as possible, to share things with
friends, to do things with friends rather than alone, to form strong
attachments, and to write letters to friends (Edwards, 1959). Based
on the data, there was no significant difference between the superin-
tendents' and principals' manifest need of affiliation ($F_{[1,25]}$ =
0.01, $p < 0.91$). The absence of any significant difference between
superintendents and principals is accepted as the administrators are
required to be loyal to their school and to be supportive of staff
and students. They must be open to all members of their staff, stu-
dent body, the parent groups, and even the general public. Therefore,
the null hypothesis is accepted.

Table 7.--ANOVA--Comparison of superintendents and principals in
manifest need for affiliation.

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p	Significant
Between groups	0.3314	1	0.3314	0.0132	0.9095	No
Within groups	628.3353	25	25.1334			
Total	628.6667					

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference between super-
intendents and principals in the manifest need of dominance.

In this hypothesis, the purpose was to determine whether both
administrators attempted to argue for their point of view, to be a

leader in groups to which one belongs, to be regarded by others as a leader, to be elected or appointed chairman of committees, to make group decisions, to settle arguments and disputes between others, to persuade and influence others to do what one wants, to supervise and direct the actions of others, and to tell others how to do their jobs (Edwards, 1959).

Based on the data, there was no significant difference between the superintendents' and principals' manifest need of dominance (F [1,25] = 0.47, p < 0.49). The absence of any significant difference between superintendent and principal is accepted since one must be a leader to function in either capacity of superintendent or principal, and have others view them as a leader. The administrators have the duty to make decisions that affect the organization. They have the responsibility to settle disputes, persuade, influence, supervise, and direct the actions of others. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Table 8.--ANOVA--Comparison of superintendents and principals in manifest need for dominance.

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p	Significant
Between groups	11.1277	1	11.1277	0.4781	0.4981	No
Within groups	581.8353	25	23.2734			
Total	592.9630					

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference between super-intendent and principal in the manifest need of abasement.

In this hypothesis, the purpose was to determine whether both administrators felt guilty when doing something wrong, to accept blame when things do not go right, to feel that personal pain and misery suffered does more good than harm, to feel the need for punishment for wrong doing, to feel better when giving in and avoiding a fight than when having one's own way, to feel the need for confession of errors, to feel depressed by inability to handle situations, to feel timid in the presence of superiors, to feel inferior to others in most respects (Edwards, 1959).

Based on the data, there was no significant difference between the superintendents' and principals' manifest need of abasement (F [1,25] = 0.41, p < 0.52). The absence of any significant difference between superintendent and principal is accepted since they both have to make a decision and live with it. They are ineffective if they lament or keep reversing their decisions. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Table 9.--ANOVA--Comparison of superintendents and principals in manifest need for abasement.

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p	Significant
Between groups	8.8024	1	8.8020	0.4106	0.5275	No
Within groups	535.8647	25	21.4346			
Total	544.6671					

Thinking Styles

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in thinking style, pragmatist.

In this hypothesis, the purpose was to determine whether both administrators take an eclectic approach, "whatever works." They seek the shortest route to the payoff and are interested in innovation (Bramson et al., 1977).

Based on the data, there was no significant difference between the superintendents' and principals' thinking style, pragmatist (F [1,25] = 0.16, p < 0.68). The absence of any significant difference between superintendents and principals is accepted as they must act now and do whatever works for the moment to keep the organization running as smoothly as possible. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Table 10.--ANOVA--Comparison of superintendents and principals in thinking style, pragmatist.

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p	Significant
Between groups	4.0891	1	4.0891	0.1637	0.6892	No
Within groups	624.4294	25	24.9772			
Total	628.5185					

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in thinking style, idealist.

In this hypothesis, the purpose was to determine whether both administrators attempted to take an assimilative approach and

welcomed a broad range of views to seek ideal solutions (Bramson et al., 1977).

Based on the data, there was no significant difference between the superintendents' and principals' thinking style, idealist (F [1,25] = 0.41, p < 0.52). The absence of any significant difference between superintendents and principals is accepted as the ideal solution can be achieved in most situations if the leader can work effectively with all publics. Assuming that the superintendents and principals can work effectively with teachers, parents, and nonparents, then proper solutions to problems can be achieved. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Table 11.--ANOVA--Comparison of superintendents and principals in thinking style, idealist.

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p	Signifi-cant
Between groups	26.8412	1	26.8412	0.4196	0.5230	No
Within groups	1599.1588	25	63.9664			
Total	1626.0000					

Hypothesis 8: There is no significant difference between super-intendents and principals in thinking style, realist.

In this hypothesis, the purpose was to determine whether both administrators attempted to take an empirical approach, relying on facts and expert opinion, seeking solutions that meet current needs, and interested in concrete results (Bramson et al., 1977).

Based on the data, there was a significant difference between the superintendents' and principals' thinking style, realist (F [2,25] = 13.52, p < 0.00). The presence of a significant difference between superintendents and principals is surprising since both would be expected to rely on facts and expert opinions. It appears they are taking an approach to solutions that is not based on empirical evidence. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected.

Table 12.--ANOVA--Comparison of superintendents and principals in thinking style, realist.

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p	Significant
Between groups	1331.7983	2	665.8992	13.5229	0.0001	No
Within groups	1231.0588	24	49.2424			
Total	2562.8571					

Hypothesis 9: There is no significant difference between super- intendents and principals in thinking style, synthesist.

In this hypothesis, the purpose was to determine whether both administrators attempted to take an integrative approach, seeing likeness in apparent unlikes, seeing conflict and synthesis, and interested in change (Bramson et al., 1977).

Based on the data, there was no significant difference between the superintendents' and principals' thinking style, synthesist (F [1,25] = 0.91, p < 0.34). The absence of any significant difference between superintendents and principals is accepted since an integrated approach is part of the school philosophy. The

superintendent and principal must act as mediators to resolve problems that arise. Also, if schools are to meet the challenges of a changing society, it is imperative that they welcome change into the organization. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Table 13.--ANOVA--Comparison of superintendents and principals in thinking style, synthesist.

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p	Signifi-cant
Between groups	91.2002	1	91.2002	0.9177	0.2372	No
Within groups	2484.4292	25	99.3772			
Total	2575.6296					

Hypothesis 10: There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in thinking style, analyst.

In this hypothesis, the purpose was to determine whether both administrators attempted the logical approach, seeking "one best way," using models and formulas, and interested in "scientific" solutions (Bramson et al., 1977).

Based on the data, there was no significant difference between the superintendents' and principals' thinking style, analyst (F [1,24] = 1.80, p < 0.19). The absence of any significant difference between superintendent and principal is accepted since most situations must be thought through and one best way to proceed decided upon. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Table 14.--ANOVA--Comparison of superintendents and principals in
thinking style, analyst.

Source of Variation	SS	df	MS	F	p	Significant
Between groups	81.4240	1	81.4240	1.8035	0.1919	No
Within groups	1083.5375	24	45.1474			
Total	1164.9615					

Demographics

Hypothesis 11: There is no significant difference between
superintendents and principals in demographic characteristic
of age.

A chi-square test was performed to determine whether there

is a significant relationship between the ages of superintendents

and their principals. According to these data, superintendents and

principals seem to be close in age. Six superintendents were over

50 years of age, and 10 principals were over 50. In the 40 to 49

age group, there were three superintendents and two principals.

Table 15.--Frequency distribution of superintendents and principals
in the demographic characteristic of age.

Age	Superintendent		Principal	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
20-29	0	0	0	0
30-39	1	10	5	29
40-49	3	30	2	12
50+	6	60	10	59
Total	10	100	17	100

The chi-square value of 0.1625 with one degree of freedom was not significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore, there is no significant difference between the superintendents' and principals' demographic characteristic of age.

Table 16.--Test of significance of demographic characteristic of age between superintendents and principals.

	Superintendent	Principal	Row Total	Chi-Square
Match	6 (46%)	7 (53%)	13	0.1625
No match	4 (31%)	9 (69%)	13	
Column match	10	16	26	

Hypothesis 12: There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in demographic characteristics of marital status.

A chi-square test was performed to determine whether there is a significant relationship between the marital status of superintendents and the marital status of their principals. Superintendents, according to these data, were all married, whereas 14 principals were married, 1 single, 1 widowed, and 1 separated (Table 17).

The chi-square value of 0.0 with one degree of freedom was significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted (Table 18).

Table 17.--Frequency distribution of superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of marital status.

Marital Status	Superintendent		Principal	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Single	0	0	1	6
Married	10	100	14	82
Widowed	0	0	1	6
Separated	0	0	1	6
Total	10	100	17	100

Table 18.--Test of significance of demographic characteristic of marital status between superintendents and principals.

	Superintendent		Principal		Row Total	Chi-Square
Match	8	(40%)	12	(60%)	20	1.0
No match	2	(33%)	4	(67%)	6	
Column total	10		16		26	

Hypothesis 13: There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristics of racial group.

A chi-square test was performed to determine whether there is a significant relationship between the racial group of superintendents and the racial group of their principals. According to the data, there was a difference in racial groups. Seven superintendents and 16 principals were Caucasian. One superintendent was Native American, whereas two superintendents and one principal were Black.

Table 19.--Frequency distribution of superintendents and principals
in the demographic characteristic of racial group.

Racial Group	Superintendent		Principal	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Native American	1	10	0	0
Black	2	20	1	6
Asian	0	0	0	0
Caucasian	7	70	16	94
Latino	0	0	0	0
Other	0	0	0	0
Total	10	100	17	100

The chi-square value of 0.0 with one degree of freedom was
significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is
rejected.

Table 20.--Test of significance of demographic characteristic of
racial group between superintendents and principals.

	Superintendent		Principal		Row Total	Chi-Square
Match	8	(36%)	14	(64%)	22	1.0
No match	2	(50%)	2	(50%)	4	
Column total	10		16		26	

Hypothesis 14: There is no significant difference between super-
intendents and principals in the demographic characteristics of
level of education.

A chi-square test was performed to determine whether there is
a significant relationship between the level of education of

superintendents and the level of education of their principals. Six
superintendents, according to these data, had doctorate degrees, as
compared to only three principals. Three superintendents and two
principals had education specialists degrees. Twelve principals had
master's degrees, compared to only one superintendent.

Table 21.--Frequency distribution of superintendents and principals
in the demographic characteristic of level of education.

Level of Education	Superintendent		Principal	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
Doctorate	6	60	3	18
Education specialist	3	30	2	12
Master's degree	1	10	12	70
Bachelor's degree	0	0	0	0
Total	10	100	10	100

The chi-square value of 0.03 was significant at the 0.05 level.
Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Table 22.--Test of significance of demographic characteristic of
level of education between superintendents and principals.

	Superintendent		Principal		Row Total	Chi-Square
Match	3	(50%)	3	(50%)	6	0.03385
No match	7	(35%)	13	(56%)	20	
Column total	10		16		26	

Hypothesis 15: There is no significant difference between super-intendents and principals in demographic characteristics of years as a classroom teacher.

A chi-square test was performed to determine the number of years spent in the classroom by the superintendent and his/her principal. According to these data, superintendents and principals had similar years in the classroom. Four superintendents had spent one to five years in the classroom, as had the same number of principals. Three superintendents had spent six to ten years in the classroom, as had two principals. Three superintendents had 11 to 15 years of classroom experience, as did five principals.

Table 23.--Frequency distribution of superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of years in the classroom.

Years in Classroom	Superintendent		Principal	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
0	0	0	0	0
1- 5	4	40	4	24
6-10	3	30	2	23
11-15	3	30	5	29
16+	0	0	6	35
Total	10	100	17	100

The chi-square value of 0.14 with one degree of freedom was not significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is accepted.

Table 24.--Test of significance of demographic characteristic of years as classroom teacher between superintendents and principals.

	Superintendent	Principal	Row Total	Chi-Square
Match	4 (50%)	4 (50%)	8	0.13655
No match	6 (33%)	12 (67%)	18	
Column total	10	16	26	

Hypothesis 16: There is no significant difference between super-intendents and principals in demographic characteristics of years as a classroom teacher.

A chi-square test was performed to determine whether there was a significant relationship between years of administrative experience of the superintendent and the years of administrative experience of his/her principal.

Superintendents, according to these data, seem to have more years of experience as compared to the principals. The data show that six superintendents had six or more years of experience, whereas only three principals were in this category. At the other extreme, three superintendents had one to five years of experience, while more than twice as many principals (seven) had limited experience (Table 25).

The chi-square value of 0.04 with one degree of freedom was significant at the 0.05 level. Therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected (Table 26).

Table 25.--Frequency distribution of superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of administrative experience.

Years of Administrative Experience	Superintendent		Principal	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
0	0	0	1	6
1- 5	3	30	7	41
6-10	0	0	2	12
11-15	1	10	4	23
16+	6	60	3	18
Total	10	100	17	100

Table 26.--Test of significance of demographic characteristic of administrative experience between superintendents and principals.

	Superintendent	Principal	Row Total	Chi-Square
Match	5 (46%)	6 (55%)	11	0.04826
No match	5 (33%)	10 (67%)	15	
Column total	10	16	26	

Summary

This study proposed to examine the similarity between superintendents and principals with regard to their thinking styles and common manifest needs. The categories of manifest needs were the following: achievement, autonomy, affiliation, dominance, and abasement. The thinking styles examined were pragmatist, idealist, realist, synthesist, and analyst.

Table 27.--Frequency table of match versus no match for the demographic variables of superintendents and principals.

Demographic Variable	Match		No Match	
	Superintendent	Principal	Superintendent	Principal
Age	6	7	4	9
Marital status	8	12	2	4
Racial group	8	14	2	2
Level of education	3	3	7	13
Years as classroom teacher	4	4	6	12
Years of administrative experience	5	6	5	10

A sample of ten school systems was selected for the study from the Michigan Middle Cities Association. Superintendents and principals were requested to complete the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule and the Inquiry Mode Questionnaire by Bramson, Parlette, and Harrison. A biographical and school information checklist was also furnished by the 27 participants.

Data were obtained by matching the ten characteristics of principals with the ten characteristics of superintendents who hired them. To determine whether a relationship existed between the variables, the data were submitted to the Michigan State University Computer Center.

Those research questions answered through statistical inference became the operational hypotheses and were tested by being cast into null hypotheses as follows:

1. There was no significant difference between superintendents' and principals' manifest need of achievement.

2. There was no significant difference between superintendents' and principals' manifest need of autonomy.

3. There was no significant difference between superintendents' and principals' manifest need of affiliation.

4. There was no significant difference between superintendents' and principals' manifest need of dominance.

5. There was no significant difference between superintendents' and principals' manifest need of abasement.

6. There was no significant difference in thinking style, pragmatist.

7. There was no significant difference in thinking style, idealist.

8. There was a significant difference in thinking style, realist.

9. There was no significant difference in thinking style, synthesist.

10. There was no significant difference in thinking style, analyst.

Conclusions Related to the Demographics

1. There was no significant difference between superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of age.

2. There was a significant difference between superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of marital status.

3. There was a significant difference between superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of racial group.

4. There was a significant difference between superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of level of education.

5. There was no significant difference between superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of years as a classroom teacher.

6. There was no significant difference between superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of years of administrative experience.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

This final chapter is devoted to a summary of the study, followed by a discussion of the conclusions generated from the analysis of the data, and concluded with recommendations for further research.

Summary

This study was planned to investigate if superintendents tend to hire principals with similar manifest needs and thinking styles as measured by the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule and the Inquiry Mode Questionnaire by Bramson, Parlette, and Harrison. The Edwards Personal Preference Schedule includes the five manifest needs of achievement, autonomy, affiliation, dominance, and abasement. The Inquiry Mode Questionnaire tested for the five thinking styles of pragmatist, idealist, realist, synthesist, and analyst.

Allied with this purpose was the desire to ascertain a match between superintendents and principals in demographic characteristics.

The literature was reviewed to include the following topics: (1) perceived similarity, (2) attraction and self-disclosure, and (3) similar-to-me effect.

The limitations of the study included: (1) responses received were limited to the consortium of Middle Cities schools in Michigan; (2) the data were affected by the degree of sincerity of response to the test administered; (3) the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule and the Inquiry Mode Questionnaire provided the data needed; and (4) the findings of the relationship between factors cited were viewed as correlational and limited to the categories cited.

Design of the Study

A sample of ten school systems from Michigan's Middle Cities qualified for the study. Superintendents and principals were requested to complete the Edwards Personal Preference Schedule and the Inquiry Mode Questionnaire. A biographical and school information checklist were used for the demographics. Demographic data obtained included degree earned, marital status, age, racial group, years in the classroom, and years of administrative experience.

Findings

Manifest Needs

> Hypothesis 1: There is no significant difference between super-intendents and principals in manifest need of achievement.

The absence of any significant difference in achievement may be due to the similarity of professional goals between superintendent and principal. Both by the very nature of their positions desire to achieve in their administrative role. Success in their positions is measured by successful achievement. Superintendents want to satisfy not only their board of education but also the professional and

nonprofessional staff, while principals attempt to satisfy their superintendents and their respective staffs. Therefore, it would seem logical that both the superintendent and principal have a strong desire to achieve.

Hypothesis 2: There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in manifest need of autonomy.

The absence of any significant difference between superintendent and principal in autonomy need is a result of a tendency of administrative personnel to be able to work independently. They are on their own for the most part. They can arrange their own schedule and work at their own pace. They do not have to be at a certain place every morning and do not have to answer to the bell schedule of the school.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in manifest need of affiliation.

The absence of any significant difference between superintendent and principal in affiliation implies that there is a desire to participate in friendly groups. The school staff can be classified as a friendly group as contrasted with professions that encounter unfriendly groups such as lawyers. In affiliation, loyalty is expected to the group. Administrators are loyal to their school, as demonstrated by their efforts to provide an effective teaching-learning environment for children to grow and learn. They share the schools' progress with people in the community and invite the community leaders and public into their schools. Educational administrators must affiliate with as many groups as possible. They know they

serve at the will of the public and they must be available to them. Affiliation with all people is an integral part of their duties as an administrator because their school must rely on the public for support.

Hypothesis 4: There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in the manifest need of dominance.

The absence of any significant difference between superintendent and principal in dominance refers to standing up for one's point of view. The school's priorities need to be argued for and defended in the community. Also, the administrators must justify their position in negotiations with their staff. The administrators are the spokespersons for their cause with the responsibility of convincing others of their programs. The administrators are at the management level of operation where they are expected to settle disputes between others and make decisions that affect the entire group. The administrator's dominances can be seen as they persuade and influence others. Furthermore, administrators are expected to supervise and direct the actions of their staff to meet the goals of their organization. They are entrusted with the authority to supervise others in their jobs.

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in the manifest need of abasement.

The absence of any significant difference between superintendent and principal in abasement need refers to the acceptance of blame when things do not go right. The success or failure of the

school rests with the administrative ability of superintendents and principals. This may be considered an occupational hazard as demonstrated by the movement of superintendents from one school system to another. The administrator will be asked to leave if he becomes disfranchised from the group that has the most influence. Administrators may go to great lengths to avoid a confrontation on a controversial issue and may give in to avoid problems. The position is a public one, and the administrator must take the consequences if he is viewed as a failure.

Thinking Styles

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in thinking style, pragmatist.

Administrators are men and women who are people of action. When something must be done it is up to them to see that it does happen. It is their decisions, as leaders of the organization, that translate into results. Whatever works to solve a problem, even if it is temporary, must be done. It may be a quick fix, but they are expected to come up with answers. They are also expected to know the latest research to give way to new ideas and innovative solutions to problems. A pragmatic approach may be forced upon superintendents and principals by a community that demands action. School systems are today plagued with problems related to declining enrollments, fiscal needs, and teacher strikes. These and many more problems demand administrators who can identify and resolve problems at the building level and the total school system level.

Hypothesis 7: There is no significant difference between super-
intendents and principals in thinking style, idealist.

An idealist administrator should be attentive and accepting

of a broad range of views and coming up with the workable solutions.

The administrator must be attentive to the views of various groups

in the community, and the professional staff. Having contact with

such a variety of people, the administrator is exposed to a broad

spectrum of ideas. Hopefully, these ideas represent plausible solu-

tions. Furthermore, the schools do belong to the people, and it

behooves both the superintendent and the principal to listen carefully

to the thinking shared by parents, nonparents, and other professionals.

Hypothesis 8: There is no significant difference between super-
intendents and principals in thinking style, realist.

Of all of the variables tested, realism was found to lack

a match between the superintendent and the principal. When one

examines the definition of realist, one must question why a super-

intendent or a principal does not rely on facts and expert opinion

to seek solutions that meet current needs. It seems important that

any administrator who is faced with an important problem would use

any source of reliable expertise and facts that would be used to find

a suitable solution to a pressing problem. What makes this finding

perplexing is that one does not, from the data, know whether it is

the superintendent or the principal who does not use the empirical

approach or concrete data to solve problems. The literature on the

role of the administrator, regardless of position, calls for men and

women who can define a problem, collect the necessary data, and

suggest alternative solutions to meet current needs.

According to these data, the cloning process would not occur in terms of realism, a thinking style. In other words, a superintendent who uses this style of thinking may not necessarily choose a principal with this style of thinking.

Hypothesis 9: There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in thinking style, synthesist.

The absence of any significant difference between superintendent and principal may be due to the fact that administrators, regardless of position, are concerned about the good of the whole school system. They must synthesize the viewpoints of various groups and make a workable solution. Administrators must be concerned with the good of the whole because the school's atmosphere is influenced positively by the degree to which it functions as a coherent whole (Rutter, 1979).

Hypothesis 10: There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in thinking style, analyst.

The administrators, in attempting to function effectively, need to resolve most problems in a logical or step-by-step procedure. Such action assures all who may be affected by a decision that careful thinking was manifested by both superintendent and principal. Such thinking gives the impression that administrators are in control of the situation. Strong administrators were found to be one of the key elements in rating a school a success (Edmonds, 1982). The administrator must make decisions that are sound and respected to create an atmosphere that is orderly without being rigid or oppressive.

Demographics

Hypothesis 11: There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of age.

As seen by the data, there were over half of the superintendents and principals over the age of 50. This evidence may indicate that the superintendents tend to hire principals who are close to their age, or it may be due to declining enrollment and resources resulting in less movement among administrators. However, it was found that biographical similarity of interviewer and applicant led to much higher ratings of the candidate's job suitability (Rand & Wexley, 1975).

Hypothesis 12: There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of marital status.

It seems that boards of education tend to favor candidates who are married for these administrative positions, or it may be that most candidates are older and are generally married by the time they apply for an administrative position.

Hypothesis 13: There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of racial group.

The absence of any significant difference in superintendent and principal in racial group may be due to the number of Caucasians seeking a position, while the number of minorities applying for a position is usually small. A superintendent may identify more with the candidate of the same race, believing that he/she will be in tune with his/her thinking. Discrimination laws were enacted to

guard against bias and to provide for equal opportunity. However, it still seems to persist in our schools according to these data. Other studies found that race does have an effect on the evaluations of job applicants (Wexley & Nemeroff, 1974).

Hypothesis 14: There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of level of education.

In most education job specifications there is the requirement that administrators hold at least the master's degree, while many school districts are asking for additional professional training, especially for the superintendency. Candidates realize that an additional degree will aid them in obtaining an administrative position.

Hypothesis 15: There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of years as a classroom teacher.

As seen from the data, the absence of any significant difference between superintendent and principal in years as a classroom teacher indicates that both administrators have similar backgrounds of teaching experience. School systems may require a certain number of years in the classroom before a candidate may become an administrator. It is believed that this requirement would aid the administrator in his/her understanding of the classroom and help him/her become an educational leader. This classroom experience may be important in developing rapport with their respective teaching staffs.

Hypothesis 16: There is no significant difference between superintendent and principal in the demographic characteristic of administrative experience.

Superintendents, according to these data, seem to have more years of administrative experience as compared to the principals. Usually superintendents obtain this role through spending a number of years in the principalship. It is the rare case that a teacher moves directly into the superintendency. Therefore, a man or a woman who desires a superintendency will have spent a few years in some form of administration: at the building level or in a central-office position.

Conclusions Related to the Variables

1. The superintendents' and principals' manifest need of achievement showed no significant difference.

2. The superintendents' and principals' manifest need of autonomy showed no significant difference.

3. The superintendents' and principals' manifest need of affiliation showed no significant difference.

4. The superintendents' and principals' manifest need of dominance showed no significant difference.

5. The superintendents' and principals' manifest need of abasement showed no significant difference.

6. The superintendents' and principals' thinking style, pragmatist, did not show a significant difference.

7. The superintendents' and principals' thinking style, idealist, did not show a significant difference.

8. The superintendents' and principals' thinking style, realist, did show a significant difference.

9. The superintendents' and principals' thinking style, synthesist, did not show a significant difference.

10. The superitendents' and principals' thinking style, analyst, did not show a significant difference.

Conclusions Related to the Demographics

1. There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of age.

2. There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of marital status.

3. There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of racial group.

4. There is a significant difference between superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of level of education.

5. There is no significant difference between superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of years as a classroom teacher.

6. There is a significant difference between superintendents and principals in the demographic characteristic of years of administrative experience.

Summary of Findings

In all of the variables of manifest needs and in thinking styles except for realist there were no significant differences between the superintendents and the principals whom they hired.

Table 28.—Summary of tests of significance for each of the variables of manifest needs and thinking style.

Variable Manifest Needs	Test of Significance	Variable Thinking Style	Test of Significance
Achievement	NS	Pragmatist	NS
Autonomy	NS	Idealist	NS
Affiliation	NS	Realist	S
Dominance	NS	Synthesist	NS
Abasement	NS	Analyst	NS

In the tests of significance for each of the variables of demographics there was no significant difference between the superintendents and principals whom they hired in the variables of age, years as a classroom teacher, and years of administrative experience. There was a significant difference in the following demographics: marital status, racial group, and levels of education (Table 29).

Recommendations

Based on the findings of this study and the conclusions reached as a result of these findings, the following recommendations are presented for consideration.

Table 29.—Summary of tests of significance for each of the demographic variables.

Demographic Variable	Test of Significance
Age	NS
Marital status	NS
Racial group	NS
Level of education	S
Years as a classroom teacher	NS
Years of administrative experience	S

1. The literature on effective schools points out that the principal is an important person in the process of developing a strong educational program (Edmonds, 1982). As the data show, there is a cloning process in the hiring of principals; that is, superintendents tend to hire principals who have similar manifest needs and thinking styles as they do. Therefore, it is recommended that boards of education be aware of the findings of this study and that they hire superintendents who are highly qualified for this important position with the manifest needs and thinking styles that would result in the hiring of principals who will perform at the highest level. If we are going to have schools that maximize learning for boys and girls, superintendents must hire principals who know how to work cooperatively with teachers, parents, and students to achieve effective schools.

2. It is recommended that superintendents be trained in the techniques of interviewing, which is not an easy task. Does a

superintendent desire to perpetuate the cloning process, or will a principal with differing manifest needs and thinking styles bring about more effective results for a particular school? If so, then it is important that the superintendent understand his/her manifest needs and thinking styles and know what questions to ask within the interview to gain a knowledge of the candidate's manifest needs and thinking styles, and to understand how the candidate's qualifications fit into the particular position.

3. It is recommended that each superintendent take the time to determine what his/her manifest needs and thinking styles are, and to determine the comparability of these attributes in terms of success in the attainment of the organizational goals. A superintendent may have certain thinking styles or manifest needs that might within a particular school district hinder his/her ability to function successfully; therefore, such knowledge and change in behavior could mean success for the superintendent. Also, with a change in his/her behavior he/she will hire only principals whose manifest needs and thinking styles are compatible with the needs of the particular school and community.

4. It is recommended that boards of education be aware of the findings of this study and take the time to determine their manifest needs and thinking styles that might be influencing the type of superintendent they hire. Does the cloning process begin with the boards of education?

5. It is recommended that superintendents who desire to have a team approach be aware of these findings as it may aid in

the selection of people who are cooperative and can identify with others in the group who are selected to work together.

6. It is recommended that the education profession develop a means of measuring one's ability to be an effective leader and identify those traits to be cloned in other administrators who are hired. More definitive research could be undertaken to establish the underlying causes that contribute to effective leadership selection. If critical thinkers and problem solvers are a prerequisite to the survival of society and social injustice, then a massive effort must be made to generate high-quality professionals who react with manifest needs and thinking styles that are educationally grounded.

Suggestions for Further Study

1. It is recommended that a comparison study be made of a school district in which the superintendent hires his/her principals and a school district in which a personnel director is involved in the hiring process. Is the cloning process broken down when a third party is involved in the selection process of principals?

2. It is recommended that a study be made in smaller school districts and in larger school districts where the superintendents do the hiring of principals. Is there a greater tendency for the cloning process to occur in the smaller school districts than in the larger ones?

3. It is recommended that a study be made of a larger sample, specifically a national sample of small school districts,

middle-sized school districts, and large school districts. Is there a change in the cloning process in varying sizes of school districts?

4. It is recommended that a study be made of the manifest needs and thinking styles of superintendents and principals, but also to examine the length of service of principals to ascertain if there is a relationship between manifest needs and thinking styles and length of service of principals. Specifically, do principals with similar manifest needs and thinking styles as their superintendents tend to remain as principals for a longer period of time than principals with dissimilar manifest needs and thinking styles?

5. It is recommended that a study be done in industry to determine if there is a match in manifest needs and thinking styles between the interviewer and interviewee. Is the cloning process unique to educational administration, or does the cloning process also take place in industry?

6. It is recommended that a case study be made of a school district in which there is a significant difference in the manifest needs and thinking style of the superintendent and principal to ascertain if the school district is meeting the organizational goals.

7. It is recommended that those school districts included in this study be studied to determine which are the most effective school districts and those which are not as effective in terms of fulfilling the goals of the organization, namely, the effective schooling of boys and girls. Does the cloning process make any difference in the quality of the schools? Or is there a specific cloning process that spells success in the quality of the school district?

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

EDWARDS PERSONAL PREFERENCE SCHEDULE

Edwards Personal Preference Schedule
Allen L. Edwards, University of Washington

DIRECTIONS

This schedule consists of a number of pairs of statements about things that you may or may not like; about ways in which you may or may not feel. Look at the example below.

    A I like to talk about myself to others.
    B I like to work toward some goal that I have set for myself.

Which of these two statements is more characteristic of what you like? If you like "talking about yourself to others" more than you like "working toward some goal that you have set for yourself," then you should choose A over B. If you like "working toward some goal that you have set for yourself" more than you like "talking about yourself to others," then you should choose B over A.

You may like both A and B. In this case, you would have to choose between the two and you should choose the one that you like better. If you dislike both A and B, then you should choose the one that you dislike less.

Some of the pairs of statements in the schedule have to do with your likes, such as A and B above. Other pairs of statements have to do with how you feel. Look at the example below.

    A I feel depressed when I fail at something.
    B I feel nervous when giving a talk before a group.

Which of these two statements is more characteristic of how you feel? If "being depressed when you fail at something" is more characteristic of you than "being nervous when giving a talk before a group," then you should choose A over B. If B is more characteristic of you than A, then you should choose B over A.

If both statements describe how you feel, then you should choose the one which you think is more characteristic. If neither statement accurately describes how you feel, then you should choose the one which you consider to be less inaccurate.

Your choice, in each instance, should be in terms of what you like and how you feel at the present time, and not in terms of what you think you should like or how you think you should feel. This is not a test. There are no right or wrong answers. Your choices should be a description of your own personal likes and feelings. Make a choice for every pair of statements; do not skip any.

The pairs of statements on the following pages are similar to the examples given above. Read each pair of statements and pick out the one statement that better describes what you like or how you feel. Make no marks in the booklet. On the separate answer sheet are numbers corresponding to the numbers of the pairs of statements. Check to be sure you are marking for the same item number as the item you are reading in the booklet.

If your answer sheet is printed in BLACK ink:	If your answer sheet is printed in OTHER THAN BLACK ink:
For each numbered item draw a circle around the A or B to indicate the statement you have chosen.	For each numbered item fill in the space for A or B as shown in the Directions on the answer sheet.

Do not turn this page until the examiner tells you to start.

The schedule contained in this booklet has been designed for use with answer forms published or authorized by The Psychological Corporation. If other answer forms are used, The Psychological Corporation takes no responsibility for the meaningfulness of scores.

1 **A** I like to help my friends when they are in trouble.
B I like to do my very best in whatever I undertake.

2 **A** I like to find out what great men and women have thought about various problems in which I am interested.
B I would like to accomplish something of great significance.

3 **A** Any written work that I do I like to have precise, neat, and well organized.
B I would like to be a recognized authority in some job, profession, or field of specialization.

4 **A** I like to tell amusing stories and jokes at parties.
B I would like to write a great novel or play.

5 **A** I like to be able to come and go as I want to.
B I like to be able to say that I have done a difficult job well.

6 **A** I like to solve puzzles and problems that other people have difficulty with.
B I like to follow instructions and to do what is expected of me.

7 **A** I like to experience novelty and change in my daily routine.
B I like to tell my superiors that they have done a good job on something, when I think they have.

8 **A** I like to plan and organize the details of any work that I have to undertake.
B I like to follow instructions and to do what is expected of me.

9 **A** I like people to notice and to comment upon my appearance when I am out in public.
B I like to read about the lives of great men and women.

10 **A** I like to avoid situations where I am expected to do things in a conventional way.
B I like to read about the lives of great men and women.

11 **A** I would like to be a recognized authority in some job, profession, or field of specialization.
B I like to have my work organized and planned before beginning it.

12 **A** I like to find out what great men and women have thought about various problems in which I am interested.
B If I have to take a trip, I like to have things planned in advance.

13 **A** I like to finish any job or task that I begin.
B I like to keep my things neat and orderly on my desk or workspace.

14 **A** I like to tell other people about adventures and strange things that have happened to me.
B I like to have my meals organized and a definite time set aside for eating.

15 **A** I like to be independent of others in deciding what I want to do.
B I like to keep my things neat and orderly on my desk or workspace.

16 **A** I like to be able to do things better than other people can.
B I like to tell amusing stories and jokes at parties.

17 **A** I like to conform to custom and to avoid doing things that people I respect might consider unconventional.
B I like to talk about my achievements.

18 **A** I like to have my life so arranged that it runs smoothly and without much change in my plans.
B I like to tell other people about adventures and strange things that have happened to me.

19 **A** I like to read books and plays in which sex plays a major part.
B I like to be the center of attention in a group.

20 **A** I like to criticize people who are in a position of authority.
B I like to use words which other people often do not know the meaning of.

21 **A** I like to accomplish tasks that others recognize as requiring skill and effort.
B I like to be able to come and go as I want to.

22 **A** I like to praise someone I admire.
B I like to feel free to do what I want to do.

23 **A** I like to keep my letters, bills, and other papers neatly arranged and filed according to some system.
B I like to be independent of others in deciding what I want to do.

24 **A** I like to ask questions which I know no one will be able to answer.
B I like to criticize people who are in a position of authority.

25 **A** I get so angry that I feel like throwing and breaking things.
B I like to avoid responsibilities and obligations.

26 **A** I like to be successful in things undertaken.
B I like to form new friendships.

27 **A** I like to follow instructions and to do what is expected of me.
B I like to have strong attachments with my friends.

28 **A** Any written work that I do I like to have precise, neat, and well organized.
B I like to make as many friends as I can.

29 **A** I like to tell amusing stories and jokes at parties.
B I like to write letters to my friends.

30 **A** I like to be able to come and go as I want to.
B I like to share things with my friends.

31 **A** I like to solve puzzles and problems that other people have difficulty with.
B I like to judge people by why they do something—not by what they actually do.

32 **A** I like to accept the leadership of people I admire.
B I like to understand how my friends feel about various problems they have to face.

33 **A** I like to have my meals organized and a definite time set aside for eating.
B I like to study and to analyze the behavior of others.

2

34 A I like to say things that are regarded as witty and clever by other people.

   B I like to put myself in someone else's place and to imagine how I would feel in the same situation.

35 A I like to feel free to do what I want to do.

   B I like to observe how another individual feels in a given situation.

36 A I like to accomplish tasks that others recognize as requiring skill and effort.

   B I like my friends to encourage me when I meet with failure.

37 A When planning something, I like to get suggestions from other people whose opinions I respect.

   B I like my friends to treat me kindly.

38 A I like to have my life so arranged that it runs smoothly and without much change in my plans.

   B I like my friends to feel sorry for me when I am sick.

39 A I like to be the center of attention in a group.

   B I like my friends to make a fuss over me when I am hurt or sick.

40 A I like to avoid situations where I am expected to do things in a conventional way.

   B I like my friends to sympathize with me and to cheer me up when I am depressed.

41 A I would like to write a great novel or play.

   B When serving on a committee, I like to be appointed or elected chairperson.

42 A When I am in a group, I like to accept the leadership of someone else in deciding what the group is going to do.

   B I like to supervise and to direct the actions of other people whenever I can.

43 A I like to keep my letters, bills, and other papers neatly arranged and filed according to some system.

   B I like to be one of the leaders in the organizations and groups to which I belong.

44 A I like to ask questions which I know no one will be able to answer.

   B I like to tell other people how to do their jobs.

45 A I like to avoid responsibilities and obligations.

   B I like to be called upon to settle arguments and disputes between others.

46 A I would like to be a recognized authority in some job, profession, or field of specialization.

   B I feel guilty whenever I have done something I know is wrong.

47 A I like to read about the lives of great men and women.

   B I feel that I should confess the things that I have done that I regard as wrong.

48 A I like to plan and organize the details of any work that I have to undertake.

   B When things go wrong for me, I feel that I am more to blame than anyone else.

49 A I like to use words which other people often do not know the meaning of.

   B I feel that I am inferior to others in most respects.

50 A I like to criticize people who are in a position of authority.

   B I feel timid in the presence of other people I regard as my superiors.

51 A I like to do my very best in whatever I undertake.

   B I like to help other people who are less fortunate than I am.

52 A I like to find out what great men and women have thought about various problems in which I am interested.

   B I like to be generous with my friends.

53 A I like to make a plan before starting in to do something difficult.

   B I like to do small favors for my friends.

54 A I like to tell other people about adventures and strange things that have happened to me.

   B I like my friends to confide in me and to tell me their troubles.

55 A I like to say what I think about things.

   B I like to forgive my friends who may sometimes hurt me.

56 A I like to be able to do things better than other people can.

   B I like to eat in new and strange restaurants.

57 A I like to conform to custom and to avoid doing things that people I respect might consider unconventional.

   B I like to participate in new fads and fashions.

58 A I like to have my work organized and planned before beginning it.

   B I like to travel and to see the country.

59 A I like people to notice and to comment upon my appearance when I am out in public.

   B I like to move about the country and to live in different places.

60 A I like to be independent of others in deciding what I want to do.

   B I like to do new and different things.

61 A I like to be able to say that I have done a difficult job well.

   B I like to work hard at any job I undertake.

62 A I like to tell my superiors that they have done a good job on something, when I think they have.

   B I like to complete a single job or task at a time before taking on others.

63 A If I have to take a trip, I like to have things planned in advance.

   B I like to keep working at a puzzle or problem until it is solved.

64 A I sometimes like to do things just to see what effect it will have on others.

   B I like to stick at a job or problem even when it may seem as if I am not getting anywhere with it.

65 A I like to do things that other people regard as un-
       conventional.
    B I like to put in long hours of work without being
       distracted.

66 A I would like to accomplish something of great signifi-
       cance.
    B I like to kiss attractive persons of the opposite sex.

67 A I like to praise someone I admire.
    B I like to be regarded as physically attractive by those
       of the opposite sex.

68 A I like to keep my things neat and orderly on my desk
       or workspace.
    B I like to be in love with someone of the opposite sex.

69 A I like to talk about my achievements.
    B I like to listen to or to tell jokes in which sex plays
       a major part.

70 A I like to do things in my own way and without regard
       to what others may think.
    B I like to read books and plays in which sex plays a
       major part.

71 A I would like to write a great novel or play.
    B I like to attack points of view that are contrary to
       mine.

72 A When I am in a group, I like to accept the leadership
       of someone else in deciding what the group is going
       to do.
    B I feel like criticizing someone publicly if he or she
       deserves it.

73 A I like to have my life so arranged that it runs smoothly
       and without much change in my plans.
    B I get so angry that I feel like throwing and breaking
       things.

74 A I like to ask questions which I know no one will be
       able to answer.
    B I like to tell other people what I think of them.

75 A I like to avoid responsibilities and obligations.
    B I feel like making fun of people who do things that
       I regard as stupid.

76 A I like to be loyal to my friends.
    B I like to do my very best in whatever I undertake.

77 A I like to observe how another individual feels in a
       given situation.
    B I like to be able to say that I have done a difficult
       job well.

78 A I like my friends to encourage me when I meet with
       failure.
    B I like to be successful in things undertaken.

79 A I like to be one of the leaders in the organizations and
       groups to which I belong.
    B I like to be able to do things better than other people
       can.

80 A When things go wrong for me, I feel that I am more
       to blame than anyone else.
    B I like to solve puzzles and problems that other people
       have difficulty with.

81 A I like to do things for my friends.
    B When planning something, I like to get suggestions
       from other people whose opinions I respect.

82 A I like to put myself in someone else's place and to
       imagine how I would feel in the same situation.
    B I like to tell my superiors that they have done a good
       job on something, when I think they have.

83 A I like my friends to be sympathetic and understanding
       when I have problems.
    B I like to accept the leadership of people I admire.

84 A When serving on a committee, I like to be appointed
       or elected chairperson.
    B When I am in a group, I like to accept the leadership
       of someone else in deciding what the group is go-
       ing to do.

85 A If I do something that is wrong, I feel that I should
       be punished for it.
    B I like to conform to custom and to avoid doing things
       that people I respect might consider unconventional.

86 A I like to share things with my friends.
    B I like to make a plan before starting in to do some-
       thing difficult.

87 A I like to understand how my friends feel about vari-
       ous problems they have to face.
    B If I have to take a trip, I like to have things planned
       in advance.

88 A I like my friends to treat me kindly.
    B I like to have my work organized and planned before
       beginning it.

89 A I like to be regarded by others as a leader.
    B I like to keep my letters, bills, and other papers neatly
       arranged and filed according to some system.

90 A I feel that the pain and misery that I have suffered has
       done me more good than harm.
    B I like to have my life so arranged that it runs smoothly
       and without much change in my plans.

91 A I like to have strong attachments with my friends.
    B I like to say things that are regarded as witty and
       clever by other people.

92 A I like to think about the personalities of my friends
       and to try to figure out what makes them as they are.
    B I sometimes like to do things just to see what effect
       it will have on others.

93 A I like my friends to make a fuss over me when I am
       hurt or sick.
    B I like to talk about my achievements.

94 A I like to tell other people how to do their jobs.
    B I like to be the center of attention in a group.

95 A I feel timid in the presence of other people I regard
       as my superiors.
    B I like to use words which other people often do not
       know the meaning of.

96 A I like to do things with my friends rather than by
       myself.
    B I like to say what I think about things.

97 A I like to study and to analyze the behavior of others.
    B I like to do things that other people regard as unconventional.

98 A I like my friends to feel sorry for me when I am sick.
    B I like to avoid situations where I am expected to do things in a conventional way.

99 A I like to supervise and to direct the actions of other people whenever I can.
    B I like to do things in my own way without regard to what others may think.

100 A I feel that I am inferior to others in most respects.
     B I like to avoid responsibilities and obligations.

101 A I like to be successful in things undertaken.
     B I like to form new friendships.

102 A I like to analyze my own motives and feelings.
     B I like to make as many friends as I can.

103 A I like my friends to help me when I am in trouble.
     B I like to do things for my friends.

104 A I like to argue for my point of view when it is attacked by others.
     B I like to write letters to my friends.

105 A I feel guilty whenever I have done something I know is wrong.
     B I like to have strong attachments with my friends.

106 A I like to share things with my friends.
     B I like to analyze my own motives and feelings.

107 A I like to accept the leadership of people I admire.
     B I like to understand how my friends feel about various problems they have to face.

108 A I like my friends to do many small favors for me cheerfully.
     B I like to judge people by why they do something—not by what they actually do.

109 A When with a group of people, I like to make the decisions about what we are going to do.
     B I like to predict how my friends will act in various situations.

110 A I feel better when I give in and avoid a fight, than I would if I tried to have my own way.
     B I like to analyze the feelings and motives of others.

111 A I like to form new friendships.
     B I like my friends to help me when I am in trouble.

112 A I like to judge people by why they do something—not by what they actually do.
     B I like my friends to show a great deal of affection toward me.

113 A I like to have my life so arranged that it runs smoothly and without much change in my plans.
     B I like my friends to feel sorry for me when I am sick.

114 A I like to be called upon to settle arguments and disputes between others.
     B I like my friends to do many small favors for me cheerfully.

115 A I feel that I should confess the things that I have done that I regard as wrong.
     B I like my friends to sympathize with me and to cheer me up when I am depressed.

116 A I like to do things with my friends rather than by myself.
     B I like to argue for my point of view when it is attacked by others.

117 A I like to think about the personalities of my friends and to try to figure out what makes them as they are.
     B I like to be able to persuade and influence others to do what I want to do.

118 A I like my friends to sympathize with me and to cheer me up when I am depressed.
     B When with a group of people, I like to make the decisions about what we are going to do.

119 A I like to ask questions which I know no one will be able to answer.
     B I like to tell other people how to do their jobs.

120 A I feel timid in the presence of other people I regard as my superiors.
     B I like to supervise and to direct the actions of other people whenever I can.

121 A I like to participate in groups in which the members have warm and friendly feelings toward one another.
     B I feel guilty whenever I have done something I know is wrong.

122 A I like to analyze the feelings and motives of others.
     B I feel depressed by my own inability to handle various situations.

123 A I like my friends to feel sorry for me when I am sick.
     B I feel better when I give in and avoid a fight, than I would if I tried to have my own way.

124 A I like to be able to persuade and influence others to do what I want.
     B I feel depressed by my own inability to handle various situations.

125 A I like to criticize people who are in a position of authority.
     B I feel timid in the presence of other people I regard as my superiors.

126 A I like to participate in groups in which the members have warm and friendly feelings toward one another.
     B I like to help my friends when they are in trouble.

127 A I like to analyze my own motives and feelings.
     B I like to sympathize with my friends when they are hurt or sick.

128 A I like my friends to help me when I am in trouble.
     B I like to treat other people with kindness and sympathy.

129 A I like to be one of the leaders in the organizations and groups to which I belong.
     B I like to sympathize with my friends when they are hurt or sick.

130 A I feel that the pain and misery that I have suffered has done me more good than harm.
B I like to show a great deal of affection toward my friends.

131 A I like to do things with my friends rather than by myself.
B I like to experiment and to try new things.

132 A I like to think about the personalities of my friends and to try to figure out what makes them as they are.
B I like to try new and different jobs—rather than to continue doing the same old things.

133 A I like my friends to be sympathetic and understanding when I have problems.
B I like to meet new people.

134 A I like to argue for my point of view when it is attacked by others.
B I like to experience novelty and change in my daily routine.

135 A I feel better when I give in and avoid a fight, than I would if I tried to have my own way.
B I like to move about the country and to live in different places.

136 A I like to do things for my friends.
B When I have some assignment to do, I like to start in and keep working on it until it is completed.

137 A I like to analyze the feelings and motives of others.
B I like to avoid being interrupted while at my work.

138 A I like my friends to do many small favors for me cheerfully.
B I like to stay up late working in order to get a job done.

139 A I like to be regarded by others as a leader.
B I like to put in long hours of work without being distracted.

140 A If I do something that is wrong, I feel that I should be punished for it.
B I like to stick at a job or problem even when it may seem as if I am not getting anywhere with it.

141 A I like to be loyal to my friends.
B I like to go out with attractive persons of the opposite sex.

142 A I like to predict how my friends will act in various situations.
B I like to participate in discussions about sex and sexual activities.

143 A I like my friends to show a great deal of affection toward me.
B I like to become sexually excited.

144 A When with a group of people, I like to make the decisions about what we are going to do.
B I like to engage in social activities with persons of the opposite sex.

145 A I feel depressed by my own inability to handle various situations.
B I like to read books and plays in which sex plays a major part.

146 A I like to write letters to my friends.
B I like to read newspaper accounts of murders and other forms of violence.

147 A I like to predict how my friends will act in various situations.
B I like to attack points of view that are contrary to mine.

148 A I like my friends to make a fuss over me when I am hurt or sick.
B I feel like blaming others when things go wrong for me.

149 A I like to tell other people how to do their jobs.
B I feel like getting revenge when someone has insulted me.

150 A I feel that I am inferior to others in most respects.
B I feel like telling other people off when I disagree with them.

151 A I like to help my friends when they are in trouble.
B I like to do my very best in whatever I undertake.

152 A I like to travel and to see the country.
B I like to accomplish tasks that others recognize as requiring skill and effort.

153 A I like to work hard at any job I undertake.
B I would like to accomplish something of great significance.

154 A I like to go out with attractive persons of the opposite sex.
B I like to be successful in things undertaken.

155 A I like to read newspaper accounts of murders and other forms of violence.
B I would like to write a great novel or play.

156 A I like to do small favors for my friends.
B When planning something, I like to get suggestions from other people whose opinions I respect.

157 A I like to experience novelty and change in my daily routine.
B I like to tell my superiors that they have done a good job on something, when I think they have.

158 A I like to stay up late working in order to get a job done.
B I like to praise someone I admire.

159 A I like to become sexually excited.
B I like to accept the leadership of people I admire.

160 A I feel like getting revenge when someone has insulted me.
B When I am in a group, I like to accept the leadership of someone else in deciding what the group is going to do.

161 A I like to be generous with my friends.
B I like to make a plan before starting in to do something difficult.

6

162 A I like to meet new people.
   B Any written work that I do I like to have precise, neat, and well organized.

163 A I like to finish any job or task that I begin.
   B I like to keep my things neat and orderly on my desk or workspace.

164 A I like to be regarded as physically attractive by those of the opposite sex.
   B I like to plan and organize the details of any work that I have to undertake.

165 A I like to tell other people what I think of them.
   B I like to have my meals organized and a definite time set aside for eating.

166 A I like to show a great deal of affection toward my friends.
   B I like to say things that are regarded as witty and clever by other people.

167 A I like to try new and different jobs—rather than to continue doing the same old things.
   B I sometimes like to do things just to see what effect it will have on others.

168 A I like to stick at a job or problem even when it may seem as if I am not getting anywhere with it.
   B I like people to notice and to comment upon my appearance when I am out in public.

169 A I like to read books and plays in which sex plays a major part.
   B I like to be the center of attention in a group.

170 A I feel like blaming others when things go wrong for me.
   B I like to ask questions which I know no one will be able to answer.

171 A I like to sympathize with my friends when they are hurt or sick.
   B I like to say what I think about things.

172 A I like to eat in new and strange restaurants.
   B I like to do things that other people regard as unconventional.

173 A I like to complete a single job or task at a time before taking on others.
   B I like to feel free to do what I want to do.

174 A I like to participate in discussions about sex and sexual activities.
   B I like to do things in my own way without regard to what others may think.

175 A I get so angry that I feel like throwing and breaking things.
   B I like to avoid responsibilities and obligations.

176 A I like to help my friends when they are in trouble.
   B I like to be loyal to my friends.

177 A I like to do new and different things.
   B I like to form new friendships.

178 A When I have some assignment to do, I like to start in and keep working on it until it is completed.
   B I like to participate in groups in which the members have warm and friendly feelings toward one another.

179 A I like to go out with attractive persons of the opposite sex.
   B I like to make as many friends as I can.

180 A I like to attack points of view that are contrary to mine.
   B I like to write letters to my friends.

181 A I like to be generous with my friends.
   B I like to observe how another individual feels in a given situation.

182 A I like to eat in new and strange restaurants.
   B I like to put myself in someone else's place and to imagine how I would feel in the same situation.

183 A I like to stay up late working in order to get a job done.
   B I like to understand how my friends feel about various problems they have to face.

184 A I like to become sexually excited.
   B I like to study and to analyze the behavior of others.

185 A I feel like making fun of people who do things that I regard as stupid.
   B I like to predict how my friends will act in various situations.

186 A I like to forgive my friends who may sometimes hurt me.
   B I like my friends to encourage me when I meet with failure.

187 A I like to experiment and to try new things.
   B I like my friends to be sympathetic and understanding when I have problems.

188 A I like to keep working at a puzzle or problem until it is solved.
   B I like my friends to treat me kindly.

189 A I like to be regarded as physically attractive by those of the opposite sex.
   B I like my friends to show a great deal of affection toward me.

190 A I feel like criticizing someone publicly if he or she deserves it.
   B I like my friends to make a fuss over me when I am hurt or sick.

191 A I like to show a great deal of affection toward my friends.
   B I like to be regarded by others as a leader.

192 A I like to try new and different jobs—rather than to continue doing the same old things.
   B When serving on a committee, I like to be appointed or elected chairperson.

193 A I like to finish any job or task that I begin.
   B I like to be able to persuade and influence others to do what I want.

194 A I like to participate in discussions about sex and sexual activities.

   B I like to be called upon to settle arguments and disputes between others.

195 A I get so angry that I feel like throwing and breaking things.

   B I like to tell other people how to do their jobs.

196 A I like to show a great deal of affection toward my friends.

   B When things go wrong for me, I feel that I am more to blame than anyone else.

197 A I like to move about the country and to live in different places.

   B If I do something that is wrong, I feel that I should be punished for it.

198 A I like to stick at a job or problem even when it may seem as if I am not getting anywhere with it.

   B I feel that the pain and misery that I have suffered has done me more good than harm.

199 A I like to read books and plays in which sex plays a major part.

   B I feel that I should confess the things that I have done that I regard as wrong.

200 A I feel like blaming others when things go wrong for me.

   B I feel that I am inferior to others in most respects.

201 A I like to do my very best in whatever I undertake.

   B I like to help other people who are less fortunate than I am.

202 A I like to do new and different things.

   B I like to treat other people with kindness and sympathy.

203 A When I have some assignment to do, I like to start in and keep working on it until it is completed.

   B I like to help other people who are less fortunate than I am.

204 A I like to engage in social activities with persons of the opposite sex.

   B I like to forgive my friends who may sometimes hurt me.

205 A I like to attack points of view that are contrary to mine.

   B I like my friends to confide in me and to tell me their troubles.

206 A I like to treat other people with kindness and sympathy.

   B I like to travel and to see the country.

207 A I like to conform to custom and to avoid doing things that people I respect might consider unconventional.

   B I like to participate in new fads and fashions.

208 A I like to work hard at any job I undertake.

   B I like to experience novelty and change in my daily routine.

209 A I like to kiss attractive persons of the opposite sex.

   B I like to experiment and to try new things.

210 A I feel like telling other people off when I disagree with them.

   B I like to participate in new fads and fashions.

211 A I like to help other people who are less fortunate than I am.

   B I like to finish any job or task that I begin.

212 A I like to move about the country and to live in different places.

   B I like to put in long hours of work without being distracted.

213 A If I have to take a trip, I like to have things planned in advance.

   B I like to keep working at a puzzle or problem until it is solved.

214 A I like to be in love with someone of the opposite sex.

   B I like to complete a single job or task before taking on others.

215 A I like to tell other people what I think of them.

   B I like to avoid being interrupted while at my work.

216 A I like to do small favors for my friends.

   B I like to engage in social activities with persons of the opposite sex.

217 A I like to meet new people.

   B I like to kiss attractive persons of the opposite sex.

218 A I like to keep working at a puzzle or problem until it is solved.

   B I like to be in love with someone of the opposite sex.

219 A I like to talk about my achievements.

   B I like to listen to or to tell jokes in which sex plays a major part.

220 A I feel like making fun of people who do things that I regard as stupid.

   B I like to listen to or to tell jokes in which sex plays a major part.

221 A I like my friends to confide in me and to tell me their troubles.

   B I like to read newspaper accounts of murders and other forms of violence.

222 A I like to participate in new fads and fashions.

   B I feel like criticizing someone publicly if he or she deserves it.

223 A I like to avoid being interrupted while at my work.

   B I feel like telling other people off when I disagree with them.

224 A I like to listen to or to tell jokes in which sex plays a major part.

   B I feel like getting revenge when someone has insulted me.

225 A I like to avoid responsibilities and obligations.

   B I feel like making fun of people who do things that I regard as stupid.

APPENDIX B

INQUIRY MODE QUESTIONNAIRE

i n Q

PREFERENCES IN WAYS OF ASKING QUESTIONS AND MAKING DECISIONS

By Allen F. Harrison, M.P.A. & Robert M. Bramson, Ph.D.

DIRECTIONS

This questionnaire has no right or wrong answers. It is a tool which can help you identify your preferred modes of thinking, asking questions, and making decisions. To be of maximum value to you, it is important that you respond as accurately as possible in terms of the way you believe you actually behave, not as you think you should.

Each item in this questionnaire is made up of a statement followed by five possible endings. Indicate the order in which you believe each ending applies to you. In the blank box to the right of each ending, fill in the number 5, 4, 3, 2 or 1, indicating the degree to which an ending is most like you (5) or least like you (1). Do not use any number more than once for any group of five endings. Even if two or more endings seem equally like you, rank them anyway. Each ending must be ranked, 5, 4, 3, 2 or 1.

EXAMPLE

Please fill in this example:

WHEN I READ A REPORT, I AM MOST LIKELY TO PAY ATTENTION TO:

1. The quality of the writing . . . . [7]

2. The main ideas in the report . . . . [5]

3. The table of contents . . . . [2]

4. The back-up materials and tables . . . . [1]

5. The findings and recommendations . . . . [4]

Once you are sure you understand the directions given above,
please turn the page and proceed.

84

A. WHEN THERE IS CONFLICT BETWEEN PEOPLE OVER IDEAS, I TEND TO FAVOR THE SIDE THAT:

1. Identifies and tries to bring out the conflict................................ □
2. Best expresses the values and ideals involved............................... □
3. Best reflects my personal opinions and experience........................... □
4. Approaches the situation with the most logic and consistency................ □
5. Expresses the argument most forcefully and concisely........................ □

B. WHEN I BEGIN WORK ON A GROUP PROJECT, WHAT IS MOST IMPORTANT TO ME IS:

1. Understanding the purposes and value of the project......................... □
2. Discovering the goals and values of individuals in the group................ □
3. Determining how we are to go about doing the project........................ □
4. Understanding how the project can be of benefit to the group................ □
5. Getting the project organized and under way................................. □

C. GENERALLY SPEAKING, I ABSORB NEW IDEAS BEST BY:

1. Relating them to current or future activities............................... □
2. Applying them to concrete situations.. □
3. Concentration and careful analysis.. □
4. Understanding how they are similar to familiar ideas........................ □
5. Contrasting them to other ideas... □

D. FOR ME, STATISTICAL MATERIAL IN A REPORT IS USUALLY:

1. Very important if it demonstrates the validity of findings.................. □
2. Important in checking on the accuracy of the conclusions.................... □
3. Useful, if supported and explained by the narrative......................... □
4. Important only in terms of the inferences to be made from it................ □
5. No more and no less important than other material........................... □

E. IF I WERE ASKED TO DO A RESEARCH PROJECT, I WOULD PROBABLY START BY:

1. Trying to fit the project into a broad perspective.......................... □
2. Deciding if I can do it alone or will need help............................. □
3. Speculating about what the possible outcomes might be....................... □
4. Determining whether or not the project should be done....................... □
5. Trying to formulate the problem as thoroughly as possible................... □

F. IF I WERE TO GATHER INFORMATION FROM PEOPLE AT WORK, I WOULD PREFER TO:

1. Meet with them individually and ask specific questions...................... □
2. Hold an open meeting and ask them to air their views........................ □
3. Interview them in small groups and ask general questions.................... □
4. Meet informally with key people to get their ideas.......................... □
5. Ask them to bring me all the relevant information that they have............ □

PAGE TWO

G. I AM LIKELY TO BELIEVE THAT SOMETHING IS TRUE IF IT:

1. Has held up against opposition...
2. Fits with other things that I believe..................................
3. Has been shown to hold up in practice.................................
4. Makes sense logically and scientifically..............................
5. Can be personally verified by observable facts........................

H. GIVEN A CHOICE OF ASSIGNMENTS, I WOULD CONTRIBUTE THE MOST IF I WERE TO:

1. Identify the goals and objectives of a project........................
2. Identify priorities between competing projects.......................
3. Identify the costs and time requirements for a project...............
4. Identify the probable impacts of a project...........................
5. Identify and assign resources to carry out a project.................

I. WHEN I READ A REPORT, I AM LIKELY TO PAY THE MOST ATTENTION TO:

1. The relation of the conclusions to my own experience.................
2. Whether or not the recommendations can be accomplished...............
3. The validity of the findings, backed up by data.....................
4. The writer's understanding of goals and objectives..................
5. The inferences that are drawn from the data.........................

J. WHEN I HAVE A TASK TO DO, THE FIRST THING I WANT TO KNOW IS:

1. What the best method is for getting the task done....................
2. Who wants the task done and when....................................
3. Why the task is worth doing...
4. What effect it may have on other tasks that have to be done.........
5. What the immediate benefit is for doing the task....................

K. I USUALLY LEARN THE MOST ABOUT HOW TO DO SOMETHING NEW BY:

1. Understanding how it is related to other things I know...............
2. Starting in to practice it as soon as possible......................
3. Listening to differing views about how it is done...................
4. Having someone show me how to do it.................................
5. Analyzing how to do it the best way.................................

L. IF I WERE TO BE TESTED OR EXAMINED, I WOULD PREFER:

1. An objective, problem-oriented set of questions on the subject............
2. A debate with others who are also being tested..........................
3. An oral-visual presentation covering what I know........................
4. An informal report on how I have applied what I have learned............
5. A written report covering background, theory and method................

PAGE THREE

M. PEOPLE WHOSE ABILITIES I RESPECT THE MOST ARE LIKELY TO BE:

1. Philosophers and statesmen..
2. Writers and teachers...
3. Business and government leaders......................................
4. Economists and engineers...
5. Farmers and journalists..

N. GENERALLY SPEAKING, I FIND A THEORY USEFUL IF IT:

1. Seems related to other theories or ideas that I have learned...........
2. Explains things to me in a new way...................................
3. Can systematically explain a number of related situations.............
4. Serves to clarify my own experience and observations.................
5. Has a practical and concrete application.............................

O. WHEN SOMEONE MAKES A RECOMMENDATION IN A REPORT, I PREFER THAT HE OR SHE:

1. Show clearly what benefits will be realized.........................
2. Show how the recommendation can be implemented......................
3. Back up the recommendation with data and a plan.....................
4. Show how the recommendation will support overall goals..............
5. Take into account the drawbacks as well as the benefits.............

P. IF I READ A BOOK OUTSIDE MY FIELD, I AM MOST LIKELY TO DO SO BECAUSE OF:

1. An interest in improving my professional knowledge...................
2. Having been told it would be useful by someone I respect.............
3. A desire to extend my general knowledge..............................
4. A desire to get outside my field for a change.......................
5. Curiosity to learn more about the specific subject..................

Q. WHEN I FIRST APPROACH A TECHNICAL PROBLEM, I AM MOST LIKELY TO:

1. Try to relate it to a broader problem or theory......................
2. Look for ways to get the problem solved quickly.....................
3. Think of a number of opposing ways to solve it......................
4. Look for ways that others might have solved it......................
5. Try to find the best procedure for solving it.......................

R. GENERALLY SPEAKING, I AM MOST INCLINED TO:

1. Find existing methods that work, and use them as well as possible.......
2. Speculate about how dissimilar methods might work together.............
3. Discover new and better methods.....................................
4. Find ways to make existing methods work in a new and better way.........
5. Figure out how existing methods ought to work.......................

Add box scores horizontally, then vertically
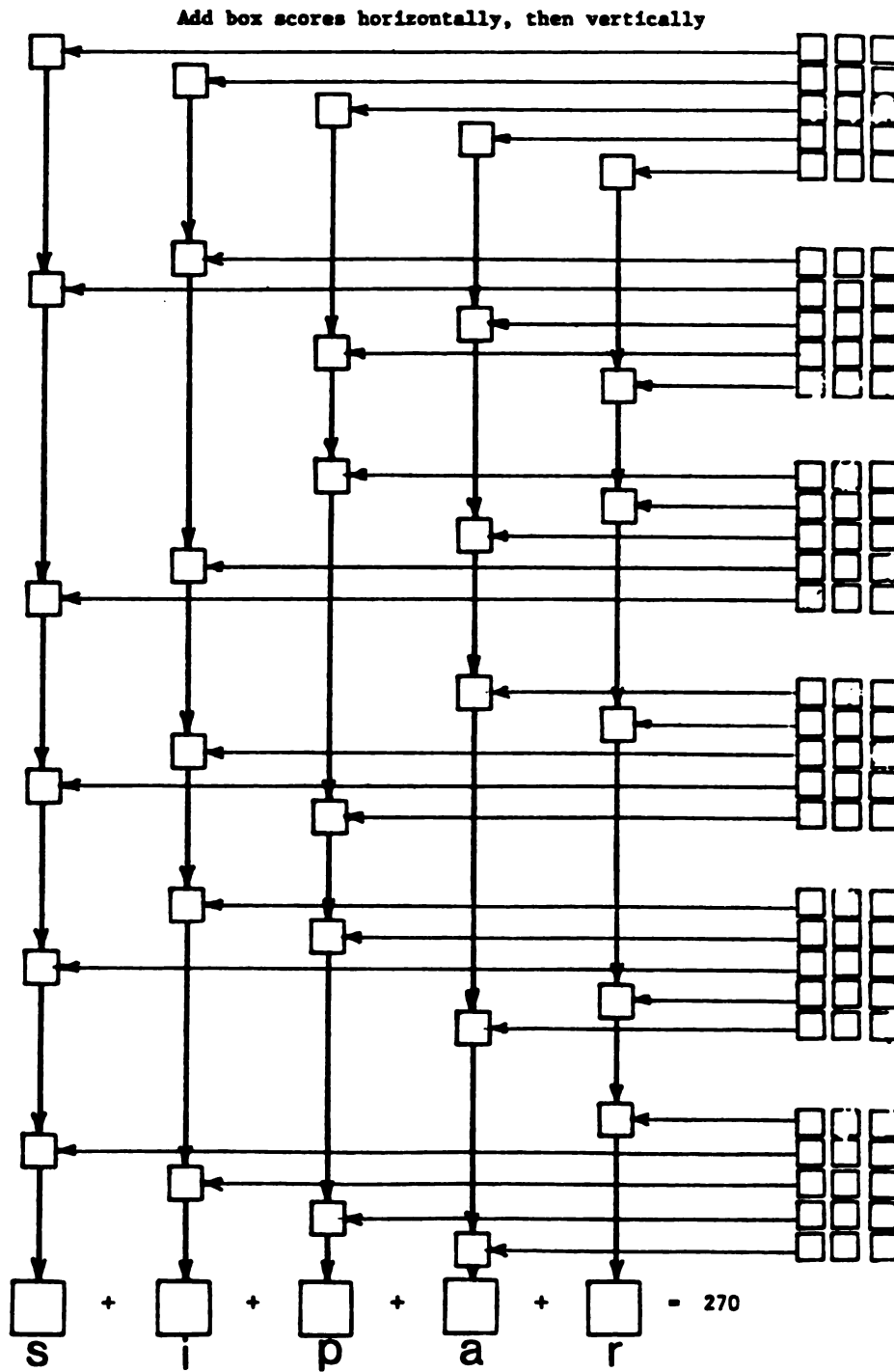
APPENDIX C

DEMOGRAPHIC CHECKLIST

DEMOGRAPHIC CHECKLIST

1. What is your age?

   ( ) a. 20-29
   ( ) b. 30-39
   ( ) c. 40-49
   ( ) d. over 50

2. What is your marital status?

   ( ) a. single
   ( ) b. married
   ( ) c. widowed
   ( ) d. separated

3. What is your present administrative position?

   ( ) a. Assistant Principal
   ( ) b. Principal
   ( ) c. Superintendent
   ( ) d. Other _____

4. What is your racial group?

   ( ) a. Native American
   ( ) b. Black
   ( ) c. Asian
   ( ) d. Caucasian
   ( ) e. Latino
   ( ) f. Other

5. What level of education have you completed?

   ( ) a. Doctorate
   ( ) b. Educational Specialist
   ( ) c. Master's degree
   ( ) d. Bachelor's degree

6. How many years were you a classroom teacher?

   ( ) a. 0
   ( ) b. 1-5
   ( ) c. 6-10
   ( ) d. 11-15
   ( ) e. 15 or more

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