

A STUDY OF LOCUS OF CONTROL AND ATTITUDES AND  
ROLE PERCEPTIONS OF OKLAHOMA SCHOOL-BOARD  
MEMBERS AND SUPERINTENDENTS

By

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## CHAPTER I

### INTRODUCTION

Boards of education have been in existence for over 200 years and the superintendency for over 140 years. During this period, the relationships between boards of education and superintendents have been as varied as the number of school districts. Few states have statutes clearly defining the relationship between school boards and superintendents. Thus, the superintendent role is left to the personalities and personal competencies of the school-board members and the superintendents. Research by Zeigler and Jennings (1974) indicated that superintendent expertise in rural communities can be a negative factor in relationships with his board. However, in urban areas superintendent expertise is a powerful source of influence.

Theoretically, school boards exist to provide a link between the public and the school. However, Lutz and Iannacone's (1978) research suggested that school boards do not represent their communities but a rather narrow socioeconomic stratum within their communities. If this is true, then the basic premise for the existence of school boards in a pluralistic democracy is not being realized.

School-board members are typically white, male, in their 50's, in the upper socioeconomic stratum of their community, and conservative in political persuasion (Mann, 1975). This profile of the American school-board member does not enhance education's chances of

reflecting the needs of all its constituents without state and federal involvement. It also poses a difficult professional dilemma for superintendents whose professional training has prepared them to provide education for all students regardless of race, sex, socioeconomic background, or ability. Implementation of such egalitarian programs places superintendents in direct conflict with the political realities of school-board/superintendent relationships. Boyd (1976) addressed this issue as follows:

. . . unlike most other public services there is a tradition, however feeble, of citizen participation in school affairs (with ongoing, if much maligned, citizens' organizations for this purpose) and a prevailing ethic among school administrators that they ought to be responsive to citizens if (and this is a big if) they can do so without betraying professional norms (p. 575).

The statistics of high superintendent turnover and public unrest with the quality of public schools (including school boards) have caused many educators to request a more thorough study of the role of board members and of the skills needed to perform their present task.

The long-running school-board/superintendent battle over the division of power and skills necessary for running public schools has recently been joined by teachers, possibly the most powerful group. Since November, 1960, when teachers won the right to strike in New York City, they have become a powerful political lobby that has worked toward more professional autonomy in the teaching profession (Corwin, 1975). This movement threatens to leave superintendents in an even more ambiguous situation than before as boards of education, unskilled in negotiation, relinquish many traditional and legal functions of the school board and administration to powerful teacher groups. The magnitude of this involvement was expressed by Corwin:

The scope of bargaining has been considerably broadened to encompass not only wages, hours, conditions of work, and class size, but also the making of education policy as well. In this latter respect, teachers have gone beyond most other labor groups. For instance, contracts increasingly provide for teacher representation in groups that set curricular policy, select textbooks, and recommend educational programs. From 1966 to 1970 there was significant increase in provisions regarding teacher qualifications, teacher aides, professional growth or in-service training, regular teachers meetings, and leaves of absence for personal and professional reasons. A number of contracts have provided for joint decision-making about the curriculum methodology, textbook selection, promotion to the principalship, screening and recommendation of candidates for openings in any level of the system, methods of achieving pupil and teacher integration in the system and pupil discipline (pp. 132-133).

Clearly, a strained relationship between boards and superintendents speeds this abdication of power to teacher groups. While superintendents and boards have failed to resolve their own struggles and have failed to develop a clear and efficient division of legislative and executive power, they must now defend against politically powerful teacher groups or face the possibility of having nothing to defend. Some educators and political scientists (Corwin, Darkenwald, Luecke) expressed the belief that the traditional dominant role of school boards and superintendents over teachers will pale in light of politically-influential teacher groups (Corwin, 1975).

The governance of local schools by an elected lay citizenry is a uniquely American institution with its roots in an agrarian society. The shift from an agrarian to an industrial to a knowledge or scientific society has induced very limited change in the basic structure of American school boards or schools. The only requirements for school-board membership are age, residency, United States citizenship, and registration as a voter in the district. There are no

requirements regarding values such as in-service training and educational achievement. As early as 1927, Almack expressed the following concern regarding lack of training for school-board members:

No course of training for school board members is offered in any college or university. There are no legal requirements for the position that insure that the most competent individuals will be elected to the office. As a consequence, the people are forced to rely upon each members' initiative and sense of responsibility for his proper training and improvement. It is well to remember that no one is born a good school board member. He becomes one only through close study and sound experience (p. 14).

Policy making, which hypothetically is to be accomplished by board members, is best conceived with a breadth of understanding reaching beyond the local school community (Tuttle, 1963). Board members who possess knowledge about education's role in a free democracy and how that system relates not only to their community but to the state, nation, and world could possibly improve the policy-making function.

The growing conflict occurring in American schools among school boards and superintendents may be an expression of the growing gap in educational training between board members and their professional staffs. The absence of any formal educational training requirement for board members and the growing emphasis on administrator professionalism expressed by increased educational training for certification may bring about stresses which are reason for concern.

Some school boards seem to experience difficulty in approaching their responsibility with wisdom and vision directed toward developing educational programs that will meet the future needs of their students. In some communities, new methods and techniques are slow to be

accepted as the comfort and security of the old and familiar are retained.

Technological advances in transportation and communication have thrust people into a position where the evolution of society is occurring so rapidly that only thoughtful and open-minded individuals will be effectively able to cope. The difficulty that some boards experience in solving problems may be closely associated with their locus of control orientation (personal beliefs) and experiences which relate to their ability to deal effectively with issues and to assimilate and use information from a rapidly-changing environment.

Everyone, in some way, reflects his/her past experiences, training, what he/she has read, workshops attended, environment, etc. Their cumulative personality, in particular one's locus of control, will have a significant effect on his/her decision making and problem-solving styles.

Research by DuCette, Wolk, and Soucar (1972) provided evidence that individuals who perceive themselves in control of outcomes will utilize stimuli from their environment effectively in problem solving. The individual who has resigned himself to having little control over outcomes will show limited interest in using environmental stimuli for better decision making. The differences in problem-solving styles of board members and superintendents may be central to the growing conflict between these groups, which is currently reflected in shorter tenure for superintendents.

#### Statement of the Problem

Frequently, superintendent/board relationships are negative and

unproductive. Tenure for superintendents is usually short, and continuity for goal setting, program development, and implementation may be lost. The superintendent's expertise is frequently neutralized by the board's unwillingness to accept new ideas. Without question, board members' and superintendents' personalities play some role in determining board/superintendent relationships.

In reviewing the literature for board members and superintendents, there was no indication of how either group would score on a locus of control scale. No evidence was found to indicate how positions on a locus of control continuum (internality/externality) would affect certain important attitudes such as: attitudes toward in-service, reading professional literature, superintendent dominance, use of oral and written reports, and influence of special interest groups. To gain insight into the effect of locus of control on board members and superintendents in the State of Oklahoma, a statewide sample was conducted for this study.

#### Purpose of the Study

Specifically, the purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between locus of control orientations (problem-solving styles) of superintendents and board members and their effect on attitudes concerning board-member in-service training and board/superintendent roles.

The demographic factors investigated were: age, sex, occupation, education, length of residence in the community, size of school district, years of service on the board of education or as superintendent, children in school, and reason for running for the school board.

Attitudes toward in-service training for board members and attitudes toward board/superintendent roles were also investigated.

This study has identified personal characteristics of board members such as educational level, internal or external locus of control, willingness to attend in-service, tenure in their district, etc., that enhance their willingness and ability to solve problems effectively. Through such research, both professionals and laymen should be better able to select board members who will provide positive, thoughtful leadership for their schools.

#### Definition of Terms

The following definitions apply only to this study. Good's (1959) Dictionary of Education was used for some of the definitions. The remaining definitions were written by the researcher specifically for this study.

##### Board of Education.

A corporate body, legally constituted and authorized, usually chosen by popular election from the district at large to direct the program of education within the specified territorial limits of the school district (Good, 1959, p. 62).

Decision Making. A conclusion or course of action arrived at after consideration of the implications involved.

External Locus of Control. That characteristic of a person who scores 10 or more on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale; a person who is an external is unresponsive to stimuli from his/her environment and has a fatalistic view of his/her ability to control outcomes in life situations.



Independent School District. Governmental body consisting of a defined geographic area with a board of education endowed with legal authority to levy taxes and set policy and operate schools.

In-service Training. Specific workshops designed for improved board member functioning.

Internal Locus of Control. That characteristic of a person who scores 0-7 on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale; a person who is internal utilizes stimuli from his/her environment and has a strong belief in his/her ability to control outcomes in life situations.

Large School. An independent school district with 51 or more teachers as listed in the Oklahoma Educational Directory, 1983-84, Bulletin 110A, issued by the Oklahoma State Department of Education.

Medium School. An independent school district with 25 to 50 teachers as listed in the Oklahoma Educational Directory, 1983-84, Bulletin 110A, issued by the Oklahoma State Department of Education.

School Board Member (Director, School Committeeman). "A citizen elected or appointed in a manner prescribed by law to serve for a limited number of years on the policy making board of the school district" (Good, 1959, p. 482).

Small School. An independent school district with 1 to 24 teachers as listed in the Oklahoma Educational Directory, 1983-84, Bulletin 110A, issued by the Oklahoma State Department of Education.

Superintendent of Schools. "The chief executive and advisory officer charged with the direction of schools in a local school administrative unit, as in a district, city, town, or township, or in a county or state" (Good, 1959, p. 538).

By describing the effect internal or external locus of control has on board member and superintendent role performances, valuable knowledge should be gained. Identifying characteristics of board members and superintendents which contribute to better performances of their roles should result from this study. The nebulousness of determining a clear division between the roles of board members and superintendents should be enhanced.

## CHAPTER II

### REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

#### Historical Background of School Boards

The uniquely American pattern of directing and controlling schools at the local level derives its status and prestige from state statutes. Historian Stanley Schultz (cited in Callahan, 1975) described the passage of an education act in 1789 by the Massachusetts legislature as "the first comprehensive state school law in the new nation" (p. 19). The law required each town to support an elementary school and larger towns a grammar school; towns were also required to certify teachers. In 1789, Boston passed a school law which established the first school board elected by the people. Twelve members were elected, one from each ward in Boston. This approach was championed by Sam Adams, who feared an elitist influence in schools if board members were elected at large. Eventually, most states adopted this approach.

Though school boards were conceived as an extension of the democratic model, their first major conflict with the general public grew from their tendencies toward corruption. Discontented with political influence and inefficiency evident in the operation of Boston's schools, Horace Mann initiated the real battle for the establishment of a superintendent position in his "Annual Report" of 1843. He was

extremely critical of the administration of Boston schools and recommended that a superintendent be employed to administer the day-to-day school operation. Through the next several years, the establishment of the superintendent position became commonplace throughout the nation. Superintendents, however, had no legal authority except that delegated by boards.

In a move to eliminate political influence and establish more efficient patterns of management, superintendents made a daring attempt in 1895 to develop more autonomy in their positions. The research work of J. M. Rice, an educator-physician, helped pave the way for public sentiment that might have enabled superintendents to shift the balance of power. The Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association (NEA) formed a committee of 15 school administrators to study Rice's research reports and make recommendations for changes in school board/superintendent relations. Such influential committee members as Maxwell, Butler, and Draper from the superintendent ranks openly challenged the traditional role of boards of education. The committee publicly criticized school boards regarding their ability to perform in a leadership role for public education (Callahan, 1975). An example of their strong criticism leveled at school boards follows:

It is not in doubt. All who have had any contact with the subject are familiar with it. It is administration by boards or committees, the members of which are not competent to manage professional matters and develop an expert teaching-force. Yet they assume, and in most cases honestly, the knowledge of the most experienced. They override and degrade a superintendent when they have the power to do so, until he becomes their mere factotum. For the sake of harmony and the continuance of his position he concedes, surrenders, and acquiesces in their acts, while the continually increasing teaching force

becomes weaker and weaker and the work poorer and poorer. If he refuses to do this, they precipitate an open rupture and turn him out of his position. Then they cloud the issues and shift the responsibility from one to another. There are exceptions, of course, but they do not change the rule (p. 30).

This direct attack on school boards was probably a political mistake, though literature suggested it was well founded. William George Bruce (cited in Callahan, 1975), school-board member, founder and editor of The American School Board Journal, led the fight against superintendents. "He was an able and a powerful adversary--powerful because he had a journal at his disposal" (p. 30).

The conflict ended with many jobless superintendents. What was gained was a suggested move to a clearer division between the legislative and executive functions of the two groups. More administrative power in the superintendent's role was established. Boyd (1976) explained the change of the governance of schools as a new model that:

. . . sought both to insulate the schools from the seaminess of politics and to promote efficiency and effectiveness in management through the application of professional administrative expertise. The main components of this model, by which these goals were to be achieved, involved the separation of educational government from municipal government, the election of school board members on a nonpartisan, at-large basis, the selection and promotion of teachers according to strict merit system (rather than by patronage and favoritism), and the employment of professionally trained educational experts to preside over and administer the school system. These structural changes were reinforced by the promulgation and general acceptance of a set of normative propositions which emphasized that a wide range of educational questions were essentially technical matters beyond the capacity of the laity to decide, and that, in any case, 'politics' had no proper place in education (p. 573).

The evolutionary change in school boards gained additional impetus from the country's growing industrialization and the faith placed in Fredrick Taylor's scientific management approach to efficiency in

business. Taylor's approach came at a time when education was under severe attack from the influential industrial community composed of such men as Carnegie, Rockefeller, and Vanderbilt. The subject was given national recognition at "the 1913 Convention of the Department of Superintendent when the main topic for discussion was 'Improving School Systems by Scientific Management'" (Callahan, 1962, p. 23). One assumption made during this period was that the education of students was analogous to the manufacture of material goods. Some educators were in strong opposition to the scientific management approach but were crushed under the current of industrial and community protest for more efficiency in public schools.

There were educators--generally high school teachers or principals and college professors--who opposed the extreme emphasis upon the narrowly practical and utilitarian in education. One of these, Thomas J. McCormack, a high school principal from LaSalle, Illinois, told the Department of Secondary Education of the N.E.A. that a deeper meaning for the word 'practical' must be sought and he reminded them that in their 'inordinate zeal to practicalize and popularize education' they were forgetting that the purpose of education was 'to make men and women as well as engineers and ropestretchers' (Callahan, 1962, p. 11).

The supportive message for scientific management was most effectively conveyed by the Saturday Evening Post and the Ladies Home Journal. Both publications had expressed fierce opposition to earlier attempts by superintendents to make schools more efficient by limiting the interference of school boards (Callahan, 1962). The ultimate outcome of this movement was a stronger position for the superintendent as the professional expert who could make the educational process cost efficient.

The major question debated during the first 70 years of the school board/superintendent relationship was division of legislative and executive functions, not just between these two groups, but within the community at large. As expressed by Peterson (1974):

. . . at any given point in time school board decision making can appear to be closed and autonomous, but over time a school system may nonetheless be responsive to the wants and aspirations of a particular community. No matter how powerful a superintendent may appear, he is still selected by the community whose schools he administers (p. 109).

#### Research Relating Political Pressure to School Board Functioning

There has been considerable research in the area of political pressure groups that affect board/superintendent decisions in conjunction with their technical expertise about issues. The research of Zeigler and Jennings (1974) typified the results of most researchers in the field:

These constraints (or, put another way, the influence of the community and the board) are likely to vary primarily with the type of school district and the type of policy issue that is faced. The local citizenry and the board will tend to have more influence in external, redistributive, and strategic policy decisions, and in smaller and more homogeneous communities where the professionals tend to anticipate or reflect (especially in middle, and upper class communities) community demands. The professionals, on the other hand, will tend to have more influence in internal and routine policy decisions, in larger and more heterogeneous communities. Because of the nature of the distribution in this country of the population and of school districts, this analysis suggests that in the vast majority of school districts, which serve a large majority of Americans, majority interest usually will be served (p. 573).

As expressed by the National School Board Association (NSBA), many fear that strong community pressure, even if by a minority or

misinformed, may influence board decisions contrary to the best interests of students (Dickinson, 1973). This strong link with the notion of political responsiveness makes board decisions less receptive to rational deliberation supported by educational expertise and moral conscience.

This sense of personal control which internals exhibit would help board members resist pressure in making tough decisions for their district. Their decisions should reflect the interests of students, not of particular pressure groups within the community. Research by Rotter, Chance, and Phares (1972) supported the importance of internal/external locus of control as a determinant of the amount of social influence exerted:

Phares concluded that subjects who feel they have control of the situation are likely to exhibit perceptual behavior that will better enable them to cope with potentially threatening situations than subjects who feel chance or other noncontrollable forces determine whether or not their behavior will be successful (p. 269).

This concept has evolved from social learning theory and reflects the degree to which an individual feels he/she has control over the reinforcements that occur relative to his/her actions. Externals feel that forces beyond their control will determine the outcome of life situations. Internals, on the other hand, feel a strong sense of personal control of life events and make strong efforts to control their own destiny.

The general public's understanding of school boards and superintendents and their respective roles was graphically demonstrated by a 10 year old Gallup survey, "The People Look at Their Schools" reported by Cass (1975). The surveyors found that approximately one third of



the adult public knew that boards established overall school policy but did not administer schools on a day-to-day basis. One half of the public surveyed knew there was a difference between the school board and the school administration, and approximately one fourth believed that the terms were synonymous. Most significant was the fact that only 38% of those surveyed knew that school-board members were responsible to the public which elected them. Astute superintendents have a keen perception of community pressure groups. They utilize this perception to avoid open conflict, otherwise their communities would often be in a state of turmoil. Boyd (1976) has maintained:

. . . that while educators tend to dominate local educational policy making, they usually operate within significant, and generally neglected or underestimated constraints imposed by local community and school board--not to mention those imposed by state and national forces (p. 572).

If schools would be made completely responsive to the political process, their purpose and goals would be shifting constantly from one position to another as they receive input from a vocal and pluralistic society.

Internals who feel a strong degree of personal control over their lives are more difficult to pressure into decisions that are contradictory to their personal beliefs. In 1959, Odell conducted one of the first studies which linked locus of control to influence resistance. In his study, externals were much more likely to conform than were internals. A later study by Ritchie and Phares in 1969 did not show internals as consistently resisting influence, but did show a consistent pattern of conformity for externals. Internals' patterns

of conformity were shown to be unaffected by the status of the individual attempting to exert influence.

Individuals who possess the greatest degree of competence through education, status, or occupational level will feel the least threatened by outside pressure. A 1971 study by Palmer supported the theory that the more competent a person, the more internal he/she would score on the Rotter Internal/External Scale (Lefcourt, 1976).

A strong central government or an autonomous educational leader in the form of a superintendent might, in some instances, be worse than the present difficulties with school boards (Nolte, 1974). The problem is not so much deciding who will control public education but determining the most effective relationship for sharing this responsibility between boards and professionals.

Research by Odell (1959) provided supportive evidence to indicate the willingness of externals to be controlled, especially if the person attempting to exert influence is an authority figure. Strong, dominant superintendents might easily control a very external board. This might be accomplished with little documentation or rationale to support the superintendent's position. Odell's research suggested that to be controlled, internals must be convinced with supportive materials such as reports and written documentation. The internal is less affected by persons in positions of authority. His/her support of ideas will be based more often on facts, not on who desires change. This would indicate that a superintendent working with an internal board must use rational, convincing evidence supporting his/her ideas to be influential.

If the professional possessing the most expertise and knowledge concerning issues is subject to termination when in serious conflict with board members, the case for knowledge and progress may be severely hampered. Callahan (1962) expressed strong views on this subject:

I am now convinced that very much of what has happened in American education since 1900 can be explained on the basis of the extreme vulnerability of our schoolmen to public criticism and pressure and that this vulnerability is built into our pattern of local support and control. This has been true in the past and, unless changes are made, will continue to be true in the future. Thus it would respond quickly to the criticism which followed the launching of the first Russian satellite and would begin to place great emphasis upon science and mathematics (p. ii).

The major point to be made regarding school decision making by pressure response from communities is that educational administrators can shift responsibility from themselves to the public. The problem of autonomy for school superintendents may be related to the difficulty in attracting quality people to such an insecure political occupation.

#### Selection of School-Board Members

Political recruitment is the process by which school-board members are selected to serve as the elite of the school community. The ability, even tendency, of the existing board to screen and recruit new members who will perpetuate the existing philosophy is documented in the literature:

Of all the encouragement sources emanating from board personnel, at least three-fifths definitely came from board members still sitting on the board. Thus the more common form of perpetuation is for board members to solicit candidates who will be serving with them. This

behavior tends to place similar minds and allies on the postelection board. To this figure may be added an unknown portion from the ranks of those respondents who cited former board members as the stimulus. Presumably some and probably most of the respondents in this category served at least a year or more with the former members. Estimating conservatively that one-half did meet this condition means that about seven in ten of the board-encouraged candidates later served with one or more of their admirers (Zeigler and Jennings, 1974, p. 34).

School communities which enjoy having their educational institutions viewed as excellent will find the above-described process of board member influence much more successful. School communities which are unhappy with their schools may have a tendency to elect new members that are backed by special interest groups outside the board establishment. Formal citizen groups such as the Chamber of Commerce and Citizens for Good Schools constitute another important method of new board member selection. Occasionally an ad hoc, or informal group, will successfully support a new board member. Professional school personnel such as teachers and superintendents are often instrumental in encouraging candidates who feel they will promote their particular interest. Parent-Teachers Association (PTA) officials can be included with school personnel, since principals and teachers shape much of the policy affecting this organization. A fact that surfaces in the literature on school-board member selection is that a school-board position is a dead end, in many cases, and does not indicate future political aspirations.

It is held that without ambition for reelection and political mobility, the desire of office holders to solve problems, pay attention to their constituents, and in general deport themselves within the norms of democratic leadership will be impaired. Ambitions, in short, determine behavior (Zeigler and Jennings, 1974, p. 40).

That board members, in many cases, do not aspire to future political office may help explain the difficulty experienced in many school districts where special interest groups may influence board members to the exclusion of sound policy. This type of special interest boardmanship has prompted many professionals to question the role of school boards in shaping educational programs.

#### Role of School-Board Members

The present controversy over the defined role of school boards not only has an historical definition but one firmly based in law. Through the United States' Constitution, states were vested with the power to establish and control education. This power is delegated to local school boards by most states and as such provides a strong power base for school boards to determine local school policy. This issue was addressed by Reeves (1954):

It is impossible to list or clarify precisely all of the functions, powers, and responsibilities of school boards. They vary according to state and the several kinds of school districts in each state. Legally, some activities are mandatory; some are permissive at the direction of the board; and some are implied in the general legal provisions for the maintenance of public schools (p. 138).

Laws exist in most states that entrust both legislative and executive power to the school board. The executive authority may, if the board so chooses, be delegated to the superintendent. The process of delegating power to superintendents by boards was expressed by Garber and Edwards (1963) as follows:

A board of education must itself exercise the authority imposed upon it by statute; where the exercise of such authority involves judgment and discretion, it must be taken by the board. The board does, however, have the

authority to delegate to others the performance of a purely ministerial function. A board of education does not have the authority to limit the free exercise of its judgment and discretion by prior announcement of policy, promise, or agreement. When the time comes for a board to act, public policy requires that it be untrammelled by any previous commitments. Those to whom such promises or commitments are made are presumed to know that the board is merely giving expression to its present intent and that it may later change its policy (pp. 4-5).

Oklahoma State law defines the relationship between the school board and superintendent as follows:

The governing board of each school district in Oklahoma is hereby designated and shall hereafter be known as the board of education of such districts. The superintendent of schools appointed and employed by such board shall be the executive officer of said board and shall perform such duties as said board directs (State Board of Education, 1980, p. 49).

What should be understood is that any time the board so chooses it may reclaim its delegated authority from its chief administrator. This action may be justified or can be an irresponsible action triggered by selfishness, fear of pressure groups, or lack of understanding of the issue. Because of the frequency of the latter, many superintendents and others interested in strengthening the chief administrator's role have sought changes in state statutes that would give greater status and power to the chief administrator. Iannaccone and Lutz (1970) explained this effort as:

The basic goals sought by the proponents of strengthening the superintendent's legal power included control over appointments of personnel and control over details of expenditures within a budget established by the board. Following the traditional American governmental model, they suggested that the superintendent be considered the executive of the school district, having a veto power in relations to his legislature, the board. In addition, their agenda called for his appointment by the board for a long term. Some advocates for achieving this strengthening of the office turned to state legislatures as a means of reducing its vulnerability. Naturally, their

drive and the proposed changes in the legal structure of the board's relationship to the superintendent provoked opposition from school board members. The war for legal protection and role specification of superintendent leadership was lost, but a few major battles were won. The conflict and airing of the issues increased the number of boards which, without legislation, delegated power to superintendents (pp. 58-59).

A school board's responsibility and greatest challenge is to provide a communication link between the bureaucratic structure of the school and the citizens of its community. The difficulty of balancing demands with resources is an endless source of community conflict. Since the board member is an elected official, he/she has every reason to act under the assumption of representative democracy. The difficulty for board members is choosing between the loudest voices and the issues which represent the greatest need for students of the school system. A distinction which political scientists too often fail to recognize should be made between organizations whose decisions are supposed to benefit the public at large and organizations which provide a service to a specialized public.

Blau and Scott (1962) classified organizations on the basis of who benefits. They pointed out that the client (student) is vulnerable and is in danger of being overlooked in service organizations which must rely on decisions being made by professionals. The political nature of schools with the elected school board and its pressure from special interest groups increases the danger of teachers and administrators being pressured into making decisions not in the best interests of students.

#### Board Member Training

Newly-elected board members need special training to become

familiar with the general operation of the school system. Since the depth and complexity of school district operations would be unfamiliar to new board members, they should be strongly encouraged to participate in professional development activities. The Oklahoma State School Boards Association provides some appropriate activities, such as training for newly-elected board members and update sessions for law, finance, etc. As early as the 1920's, Mendenhall (1929) stated a firm position that in-service training should be greatly expanded for new board members. It was his belief that board members have a responsibility to become well informed on educational matters which affect their district. Much knowledge could be gained by board members through reading professional documents printed by national and state organizations. New board members often come to their new responsibility with limited exposure and expertise concerning the role of education in a democratic society. Mendenhall believed the only way new and untrained board members could gain the exposure and expertise needed to perform their new role was through planned in-service, reading, and experience in the board member role. To be the most effective, boards of education should be composed of individuals who place a high priority on continued self-education and planning and implementing long range goals and objectives for their districts.

The sense of control expressed by internals relates to their ability to make and follow through with long range goals such as pursuing education or training for some future goal. Locus of control has been correlated to "time-related measures such as future time perspective" (Lefcourt, 1976, p. 76). Because internals feel they can control outcomes, they spend more energy structuring their



environment for the most efficient use of information. Internals would be much more likely to involve themselves in activities that could improve their understanding of a problem. Wolk and DuCette (1974) found internals to be more perceptually sensitive:

Because the intentional task required a quick, efficient scanning strategy, it is suggested that basic, pre-attentive processes differentiate the internal from the external. . . . The more interesting aspect of these studies, of course, was the fact that internals demonstrated higher levels of incidental learning. Incidental learning is a phenomenon dependent on the acquisition of less prominent aspects of a stimulus array, and since such acquisition has been interpreted as the product of a more attentive and organizing system, it follows that the internal differs from the external in the manner in which he organizes and uses information (p. 98).

The most troublesome area for board members and superintendents is the confusion which occurs in policy making and administration. Because new board members are assuming office almost every year and because superintendents continue to report that the ill-defined relationship between policy and operation causes the most serious problems facing board/superintendent relationships, boards should spend more time clearly defining their role in policy making and establishing what constitutes administration.

Boards of education should act as legislative and not as executive bodies, and a clear distinction should be drawn between what are legislative and what are executive functions. The legislative functions belong, by right, to the board, and the legislation should be enacted, after discussion by means of formal and recorded votes. The board's work, as the representative of the people, is to sit in judgment on proposals and to determine the general policy of the school systems.

Once a policy has been decided upon, however, its execution should rest with the executive officer or officers employed by the board, the chief of whom will naturally be the superintendent of schools (Olson, 1926, p. 7).

The relationship of board members to the public for many superintendents may be a troublesome area. The area of school board public relations must be learned. As was emphasized by Tuttle (1963) in School Board Leadership in America, board members must gain insight for handling complaints and requests. The need to balance resources with public demands for services is an area of conflict which board members must learn to deal with effectively.

Mullins (1974) pointed out some critical areas for board member/superintendent conflict in her article "The Ways That School Boards Drive Their Superintendents Up the Wall." Some board members operate under the assumption that, once elected, they are board members 24 hours a day. State and national school board associations should educate board members that they are only board members when in regularly scheduled board meetings. At all other times they are citizens with no board powers and are unauthorized to give orders to professional or nonprofessional staff. Only through the issuance of directives made during convened board meetings are board members able to administer the school.

Except for special and unusual situations, the board should function, therefore, as a committee of the whole. It should require of its superintendent of schools adequate and complete information on every phase of the school system in order that it may have at hand the basis for making intelligent decisions. All decisions of the board should be made only after consideration by the whole board. When the board has determined its policy on the problem in hand, it should leave the execution of it to the employed professional chief executive. It should then require such reports from him that it may know its policy is carried out (Olson, 1926, p. 161).

Due (1982) pointed out, in his discussion of changing patterns of state and local finance, that schools are more and more dependent upon

state revenues for their operation. Since this shift to state funding has occurred, board members need to have a working familiarity with the processes of state government. Legislative actions which affect the local school should also be an area of board member concern. Board members must assume some leadership in affecting laws being considered for public schools. Their support for adequate financing of the school operation is critical and could be pivotal in gaining needed public support for school funding.

Conant (1980), who proposed a stronger centralized educational system, has often debated that inexperienced laymen can hinder the progress of a school system. Minar (cited in Zeigler and Jennings, 1974) cited the tendency of boards to involve themselves in trivial matters while policy making, curriculum, long range program development budgeting, etc. are seldom discussed. This is not so much a fault of laymen who are asked to direct something as complicated as a school system but of the system that entrusts and expects them to deal effectively with complicated organizations with no required training or expertise for the task.

There are numerous references throughout the literature on locus of control to indicate that internals will be more systematic in their use of environmental stimuli to help them make decisions. Research by Platt and Eisenman (1968) provided strong evidence to indicate that internal board members will be more systemic in their utilization of their environment. This research would lead one to believe that internal board members will be more receptive to in-service training and reading educational literature, and more demanding of oral or written reports from school administrators.

In the 50 states there are no educational requirements for board members. The ability to read and write is listed as a requirement in only three states (see Appendix A). The public has, however, overwhelmingly elected board members from upper socioeconomic and higher-educated groups to serve (Underwood, Thomas, and Pace, 1980). In small, rural communities people with advance educational training may not be available to serve on school boards. Zeigler and Jennings (1974) have compiled a great deal of research that addresses this problem:

According to this view, lower status boards [less educated] tend to define their relationship with the superintendent as an employer to an employee. . . . The resulting correlations between this variable and our status indicators were all significant and in the predicted direction. Of the three raw status indicators, education emerged as the most strongly associated with the supervisor function. Similarly, we were led to expect lower status boards to devote relatively more time to routine, internal issues at the expense of the educational program. . . . This finding, in conjunction with the preceding one, results in a picture of lower status school boards being overly concerned with administrative detail, failing to delegate authority over routine matters to the superintendents, and defaulting on their responsibility to oversee the general educational program (p. 186).

Another assumption made by researchers regarding low-status boards is their inability to distinguish between public policy and administrative detail. It is also believed by many researchers that lower-status boards present more of a problem for the superintendent because of their tendency to participate in the daily administrative details of running the school. Minar (cited in Zeigler and Jennings, 1974) contended that:

The differences in decision-making we would suppose to derive from differences in conditions to, understanding of, and outlook on expertise and the division of

labor (are) differences rooted in the experience of status groups. Thus, the better educated and those in professional and managerial occupations are those who respect and understand specialization and delegation, those who see it in their own life routines (p. 186).

In a comprehensive study of school boards in Massachusetts, Gross (1958) examined socioeconomic factors that might affect the professional behavior of boards:

Boards made up of members who have, on the average, higher education are more likely to adhere to professional standards than boards made up of members who are, on the average, less well educated. If voters have to depend on criteria of this kind in electing board members, they are less likely to elect the wrong ones if they select on the basis of education than they are if decided on the basis of occupation or income (p. 98).

Locus of control literature provides evidence that more-educated board members would tend to be more internal than their less-educated counterparts. Research by Palmer (1971) indicated that the more competent a subject seemed on the educational and occupational level, the more internal he/she would score on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale.

Tuttle (1963) believed that a key ingredient to good boardmanship is breadth of view. The legal and political structure of school boards leaves unaddressed the issue of knowledge and expertise that might be a needed prerequisite to successful boardmanship. No high school, college, or university degree is required for election to the school board. One needs only political, civic, or personal motivation to become a participant in school district decision making. In Tuttle's view, decision making based on knowledge gleaned only from the small world around us was to be guarded against.

The education or professional development experiences a board member needs in order to be a constructive influence in the decision making process has been argued for many years. Most states provide some professional development activities for board members through their state school board associations. These workshops are attended on a voluntary basis. Speaking for many of her colleagues, an Illinois superintendent in the August, 1974, issue of The American School Board Journal expressed the following belief: "Too many board members are content to apply their narrow, provincial ideas to their own districts and aren't the least bit interested in what's going on in the great big world of education outside their boundaries" (Mullins, 1974, p. 28). In the continuation of our present statutes regarding school boards we have assumed that citizens can become instant experts on educational affairs and the decision making process in complicated organizations.

As society responds to rapidly occurring technological changes, schools must also respond. The technical nature of today's society may require changes in patterns of government. Learning to deal with the problems of an emerging world society is important to today's children. The exploding body of knowledge and technological advances demand a drastic change in the methods of learning and in the methods of teaching. As society continues its rapid change, the reaction time institutions will have to adjust will become shorter and shorter. This quicker reaction time will require school boards to be more informed and receptive to the positive aspects of the future. Otherwise, students' chances for useful knowledge will be lost. Noted sociologist Peter F. Drucker (1968) believed that:

The most important thing students will have to learn is how to learn. The most important thing, in other words, is not specific skills, but a universal skill--that of using knowledge and its systematic acquisition as the foundation for performance, skill and achievement (p. 320).

The leadership needed from today's school boards must reflect a knowledge of society's technical nature and its implications for society's future. Usdan (1975) expressed the following view:

School boards . . . must be more responsive as institutions to the rapid tempo of a society and world in which change is the only constant. How can this be done? First, there must be a far more realistic and hard-headed assessment of the capacity of local boards of education (p. 270).

Many social scientists have become increasingly interested in the growing influence of technological elites. The complexity of social, political, and economic life presents a major challenge to the concept of democratic governmental control. In a technological age, especially one in which the conservation of scarce resources replaces the distribution of abundant resources as a focus of policy, elected officials are frequently required to deal with issues containing components too sophisticated for their comprehension. Thus, they turn to experts for information. Expert knowledge is easily transformed into a political resource for the acquisition of influence (Zeigler and Jennings, 1974).

Mosher (1975) cited that Kaufman envisions for school boards the evolution of the governmental function into a "search for accommodation among three values: representativeness; technical, nonpartisan competence; and executive leadership" (p. 84).

Board members themselves best express the importance of knowledge required to be an effective board member. They addressed this problem

as early as 1927, in the April issue of The American School Board Journal:

Each board is more or less an isolated unit struggling with its problems as best it may, guided only by a few ill-defined general statute or code provisions of the state laws. New members entering upon the duties of school-board service have little to guide or direct them in the formulation of policies, or the making of decisions. The previous practices of the board of which they become a member are, in general, their only standards. They have little or no way of knowing, or finding out, what boards of education in general have found to be the most satisfactory method of conducting their business or fulfilling the obligations of the public trust which they have accepted (Hart and Peterson, 1927, p. 38).

Though much has been written and stated regarding this critical need, no knowledge requirement for service on school boards has been established. Olson (1926) illustrated a problem between boards and superintendents in 1926 that continues even today:

It is now fully recognized that a board of education cannot itself properly manage the schools under its control. A professionally trained chief executive officer is therefore employed to administer the schools under the direction of the board of education. But the proper relationship between a school board and its superintendent of schools has never been adequately determined (p. 1).

This argument has continued until today, with great variety of legislative and executive functions in the 16,000 school districts of this country. Though much good material has been written on the subject of boardsmanship, little definitive action has been taken by states to insure that board members reflect sound principles of boardsmanship. In 1929, Mendenhall asked board members an important question in his booklet, The City School Board Member and His Task:

Q. 1-Why should the City School Board Member make some study of himself and his task?

(a) Because of the supreme importance of public education in local and national life. The public school is



perhaps the most dominant factor in shaping social and economic attitudes.

(b) There is a direct relationship between education and the level of living, socially and economically. The best educated communities and nations are on a higher plane of living in every respect.

(c) Too many School Board Members fail to see the far reaching importance of public education.

(d) Too many School Board Members do not realize that there have been developed by experience, certain well-defined practices in school administration which secure the best results educationally.

(e) The public, which pays for the schools and is so deeply affected by public education, is entitled to the best service from its school officials.

(f) It is possible for every School Board Member to improve his efficiency within a comparatively brief period of time by conscientious self-analysis and by acquainting himself with the best practice in school administration (p. 1).

Though the debate over who will administer public schools and how this can most efficiently be accomplished has been long in duration, it has produced little clarification of superintendent and board roles. States remain the legal body charged with the responsibility of providing education for their citizens. Until recently, states have transferred most of the responsibility to local school boards. The shift in attitudes of state legislatures to become more active in determining the quality of education in all communities is possibly a result of local districts' unwillingness or inability to develop quality educational programs. Inequity in opportunity for students has forced state legislatures to become involved on their behalf.

#### Parallels Between City Councils/Managers and School Boards/Superintendents

Historically, cities are constructs of the states. After the

Revolutionary War, states granted charters for establishing cities or municipal corporations. Conditions for such charters were carefully designed and supported by legislation and judicial tradition. After being granted a charter, cities remained a unit or subdivision of the state. Rights to tax or elect local officials, which states may curtail, are powers granted from the state. Schools are also constructs of the state. Power to hire staff, levy taxes, and operate as an educational or municipal entity can be revoked at any time by the state legislature.

The governing bodies of cities and school districts share many similarities. Cities are governed by elected councils and school districts by elected boards of education (except in a few cases where boards of education are appointed). The emergence of the council/manager style of city government developed later than the board of education/superintendent approach to operation of schools.

As early as 1843, Horace Mann stressed the need for a trained educator to administer schools in his Annual Report. Superintendents soon became commonplace throughout the country. A similar move to introduce trained professionals into the administration of city government did not appear until around 1915. Urban development between 1860-1910 resulted from migration, the impact of industrialization, and rapid economic growth; all these created increased demand for city functions. The number of urban dwellers increased from 19.8% to 45.7% of the population during this 50 year period (Loveridge, 1971).

Richard Childs was primarily responsible for the introduction of the manager/council form of city government. In 1909, he enlisted the support of Woodrow Wilson and other powerful individuals unhappy with

the spoils system then present (Powers, Brown, and Arnold, 1974). Childs' major thrust in campaigning for the manager/council form of city management was to improve services to all citizens. Both Childs and Horace Mann were proponents of the value of expertise in the administrative office responsible for schools and cities. Qualification based on knowledge rather than ability to poll more votes was at the heart of both men's campaigns for improved school and city functioning. The introduction of Taylorism into the American industrial complex had great impact on both schools and city government:

Richard Childs' contribution was a consistent political philosophy that applied the approaches of Taylor and Weber to municipal governance. He attempted to ascertain principles of good government and to prescribe a legal-rational organizational model to assure their implementation (Powers, Brown, and Arnold, 1974, p. 13).

Both Childs and Mann saw the need for elected boards and councils to remove themselves from the daily administration of schools and city government and to concentrate on policy making to be executed by an appointed administrator. Though nearly 70 years separate the establishment of the manager/council form of city government from the board of education/superintendent arrangement for schools, there are many similarities in the two separate styles:

City managers and superintendents of schools have, over the years, had many common interests and points of contact. With the growth of urbanization these have expanded and multiplied. They run the whole gamut from school safety patrols, policy, common use of school buildings and park areas through more fundamental matters of city and school budgets, urban renewal, juvenile delinquency, housing, health and crime. The similarity of the city manager and the superintendent of schools has long been recognized (Johnson, 1964, p. 319).

Most significant is the basic democratic premise that cities and schools should be controlled by local people, which has resulted in

elected councils and boards of education. Both appoint their chief administrative officer, who serves at their wishes. Theoretically, this relationship establishes control over administration and insures that public policy will be implemented. However, the chief administrative officer may be turned out whenever the council or board of education sees fit. Tenure of managers averages four years or fewer and three or fewer for superintendents. One negative side effect for cities and schools in the appointed executive is the resulting instability and lack of consistency and continuity in program development and implementation (Bollens, 1952). Another potential weakness in this council/manager-board/superintendent relationship is that the level of expertise of superintendents and managers, if they are strong leaders, may well direct policy making to the exclusion of public values and wishes.

The increasing complexity of urban problems, the rapid rate of change in the kinds of services demanded by cities, the growing dependence of government upon 'experts,' the mushrooming growth of electronic data processing and developing impact of federal subsidies and controls on local governments, all require an intensification of the use of the professional in city government (Hessler, 1966, p. 96).

Training for councils and boards of education is at best limited. There are no requirements for expertise or training to serve on either kind of body. In-service is provided by the International City Managers Association and State and National School Boards Associations; however, it is voluntary. Since many council members, as well as board of education members, do not participate in these in-service programs, their levels of expertise are often not commensurate with their elected responsibility.

One significant difference between the training of city managers and superintendents is a greater diversity of city managers' training from such varied backgrounds as engineering, business administration, public administration, and political science (Loveridge, 1971). Superintendents, on the other hand, are almost always exclusively trained in education, as required by state law.

Responsibility of managers and superintendents is quite similar. They both make recommendations to the councils and boards of education for consideration on policy formulation. One powerful tool that managers and superintendents have at their disposal is the power to set agendas. Both will be responsible for initiating much of what is decided by councils and boards of education. Councils and boards are the sole policy setting body for city and school governance. The city manager and superintendent must think and act within the political context of their respective community. If they make suggestions for change, it must be congruent with the values of the constituency of their cities or schools. Their consideration must include social and economic factors as well as political when discussing policy with their councils or boards (Loveridge, 1971).

Both managers and superintendents have responsibility for or delegated authority to administer the following areas:

1. Budgets--Preparation and recommendation for implementation
2. Personnel--Hiring, promoting, staffing, evaluating, training, and dismissing
3. Building Needs--Present maintenance and future needs and projections

4. Legal Considerations--Keeping the council or board informed on all matters that relate to legal liability, etc.

5. Program Planning and Implementing

6. Public Relations--Keeping community informed and supportive of council and board policy

The political pressure felt by councils and boards of education is similar in origin. Both are composed of elected officials who are in daily contact with their constituency. Community pressure groups will continue to exert political pressure on councils and boards of education. These pressures will be brought to bear directly on managers and superintendents through policy decisions which both must administer. The quality of school governance and city governance will depend in large measure on the ability of boards and councils to withstand the political pressure applied by special interest groups and formulate policy in the best interests of their total constituency.

Public school superintendents have inherent in their training a more-defined role than do city managers. The manager's role is loosely structured and provides very different standards of manager performance. This may be due to the diversity of training for managers which brings viewpoints from several disciplines. Superintendents, on the other hand, must typically adhere to state laws which require advanced educational degrees from universities and colleges, thus creating some potential for greater uniformity in their perceptions of roles and responsibilities.

### Conclusions

Educational institutions have provided individuals with knowledge

and skills enabling them to be productive members of society. The importance of education's role cannot be overemphasized as the strengths of economic, political, and social institutions are ultimately dependent upon the quality of education. The most efficient methods of structuring and providing for quality in educational leadership must be sought. Our present system of trained professionals being evaluated and directed by lay citizens in the form of school boards may be sacrificing rational planning for irrational decision making and lack of planning. Research conducted by DuCette, Wolk, and Soucar (1972) indicated that persons with a strong internal locus of control will assimilate information from their environment for better decision making. Externals make less attempt to assimilate available environmental stimuli for decision making (DuCette, Wolk, and Soucar, 1972). Scholars such as Thomas Jefferson, Horace Mann, and James B. Conant have indicated the need for enlightened leadership that can make decisions on the basis of rational thought, not on the basis of traditional norms or irrational beliefs.

References throughout the literature suggested that an internal locus of control was positively related to problem solving skills. The literature supported the thesis that individuals with internal locus of control would be more accepting of new information from their environment. The possibility that a positive relationship exists between internal local of control in board members and advanced education or involvement in in-service training, reading of professional literature, or definition of superintendent/board roles has not been specifically explored in the literature.

## CHAPTER III

### DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

#### Scope of the Study

This research study was designed to examine the relationship between the scores of superintendents and board members on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scales and their attitudes regarding in-service training and board/superintendent roles. The relationship will be studied to determine if there is a significant difference between attitudes toward in-service training and superintendent/board roles among participants whose scores indicate internal or external, as defined by the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale.

#### Assumptions

For the purposes of this study, the following assumptions were made by the researcher:

1. The sample of board members and superintendents was representative of board members and superintendents throughout the State of Oklahoma
2. The responses of all participants in the study reflected a true representation of their attitudes and understanding regarding each question on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale



3. The eight questions in section three of the questionnaire which deal with in-service training, reading of professional literature, and superintendent/board roles gave a clear picture of board member and superintendent attitudes and knowledge concerning in-service training and superintendent board roles

### Research Questions

The selection of the research questions was made in an attempt to gain a clearer understanding of the effect locus of control has on board members' and superintendents' attitudes toward their respective role performances. The following research questions were investigated:

1. Is there a difference between board members' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when board members are grouped by their reported educational level?

2. Is there a difference between superintendents' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by perceived level of autonomy in performing their executive function?

3. Is there a difference between board members' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by level of reported resistance to special interest groups?

4. Is there a difference between superintendents' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by perceived level of board member intervention in daily operation of the school?

5. Is there a difference between board members' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by perceived board member intervention in daily operation of the school?

6. Is there a difference between board members' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when board members are grouped by their reported level of involvement in in-service training?

7. Is there a difference between board members' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when board members are grouped by their reported willingness to read professional literature related to public schools?

8. Is there a difference between board members' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when board members are grouped by their reported use or nonuse of oral or written reports?

9. Is there a difference between superintendents' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when superintendents are grouped by reported level of support for local board member in-service training?

10. Is there a difference between board members' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when board members are grouped by their reported level of willingness to allow superintendents to dominate school policy?

11. Is there a difference between superintendents' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by tenure in their present position?

#### Selection of the Sample

The parameters of this study include all school-board members and superintendents in the State of Oklahoma located in independent school districts. A stratified random sample of 90 superintendents and 450 school board members were selected.

Since a random sample may by chance have an undue proportion of one type of unit in it, an investigator may use stratified random sampling to get a more representative sample. When employing this technique, he divides his population into strata by some characteristic and from each of these smaller homogeneous groups draws at random a predetermined number of units (Van Dalen, 1973, p. 299).

The strata were assigned as follows:

1. Independent schools with 1-24 teachers
2. Independent schools with 25-50 teachers
3. Independent schools with 51 or more teachers

These strata were chosen by the researcher after examining staffing data listed in the Oklahoma Educational Directory for the 1983-84 school year. Selection of participant schools was made using a table of random numbers applied separately to each of the three strata (Table I). A list of schools in each category may be found in Appendix B.

TABLE I  
SUMMARY OF INDEPENDENT SCHOOLS IN THE  
STATE OF OKLAHOMA

Stratified Group	Schools in Population	% of Total Population	Schools in Sample
1-24 teachers	146	32.0	30
25-50 teachers	158	34.7	30
51 or more teachers	152	33.3	30

## Data Collection

Following revision of the survey form, an introductory letter (Appendix C) was mailed to each school superintendent whose school was selected during the random selection process (Appendix B). The letter requested his/her cooperation in the research project. Following the introductory letter to superintendents, complete packets of material for each board member and superintendent were mailed to superintendents, requesting their assistance in distribution. This mailing was completed at least one week prior to the March, 1984, board meeting.

Included in individual packets was an introductory letter stating the purpose of the study and requesting board member and/or superintendent assistance with the research (Appendix C). Also included in the packet was a self-addressed, stamped envelope for ease of return of the questionnaire. The survey was divided into three sections. The first section consisted of demographic data. The second section consisted of the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale. Section three consisted of eight questions related to board member in-service training and board/superintendent roles. In developing the third section, some weight was given to the researcher's personal experience as a superintendent and to personal interviews with practicing superintendents and board members. Discussions with three professors of education at Oklahoma State University were also helpful in designing sections one and three of the questionnaire.

Telephone calls were made to each superintendent prior to the March board meeting, asking for their assistance. Reminder post cards for superintendents were mailed two weeks after the first mailing

(Appendix C). The card simply asked that superintendents encourage board members to respond to the survey. The second mailing was sent in advance of the April, 1984, board meeting. Again, post cards were sent as reminders for superintendents. Table II summarizes the returns received from superintendents and board members from each of the three strata.

TABLE II  
SUMMARY OF RETURNED USABLE QUESTIONNAIRES

Stratified Group	Mailed to Supt.	Returned	%	Mailed to Board Members	Returned	%
1-24 teachers	30	16	53	150	44	29
25-50 teachers	30	18	60	150	62	41
51 or more teachers	<u>30</u>	<u>25</u>	<u>73</u>	<u>150</u>	<u>72</u>	<u>48</u>
Composite Totals	90	56	62	450	178	40

#### Instrumentation

Following selection of participant schools, a trial response to the survey was conducted. Four schools were chosen that did not appear for selection during the random selection procedure. Sample

copies of the complete survey for board members and superintendents were mailed to the superintendents of each of the four schools. Superintendents were asked to distribute the trial survey at their next board meeting. A cover letter explaining the researcher's desire to test the survey instrument for clarity was included. Very few comments were received from board members. Several changes were made in section one from the trial survey. Question four was changed to read "51 or more teachers" from "51-up teachers." Question five was changed to read "highest educational attainment" from "educational attainment." Question seven was changed to read "how long have you lived in this community" from "how long have you lived in your community." Question seven was also changed to read "more than 30 years" from "entire life."

The Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale was developed by Rotter, Liverout, and Seeman (1966) at Ohio State University. The Rotter Scale is adapted from an earlier scale by Phares which included 60 items. Rotter, Liverout, and Seeman's version has 29 questions, six of which are fillers. Each item is a forced choice, A or B, response, with the six filler questions included to make the purpose of the questionnaire more ambiguous.

Rotter, Liverout, and Seeman (1966) were interested in knowing if participants could be divided into two discrete categories based on world views or generalized expectancies concerning reinforcements. The internal participant was one who believed that his/her efforts were responsible for outcomes and the external one who attached less personal responsibility to outcomes which affected them.

The test-retest reliability of the 29 item Internal/External Locus of Control Scale developed by Rotter, Liverout, and Seeman

(1966) is consistent and acceptable, varying between .49 and .83 for varying samples and intervening time periods (Hersch and Schiebe, 1967).

The validity of the Rotter Scale is also consistent with Rotter, Liverout, and Seeman's (1966) belief that internals will be more active, striving, achieving, powerful, independent, and effective. A 1978 study by Roark (cited in Spektor, 1982) stated that among employees she surveyed, internals were more inclined to believe that their own actions were responsible for obtaining their present positions.

An earlier study by Hersch and Schiebe (1967) showed strong correlations between items on the Rotter Internal/External Scale and items on both the California Psychology Inventory (CPI) and the Adjective Check List (ACL). The Rotter Scale should provide useful information for educational research. In particular, in the study of superintendents and school board members, it should help identify characteristics of internals and externals that affect the superintendent/board relationship.

Scoring the Rotter Scale was accomplished by simple addition of all external responses, giving a total score for each respondent. The most internal score was zero, and the most external score was 23. Each question on the scale had a forced choice, A or B response. Therefore, the entire scale provided 23 internal choices and 23 external choices. Six items were fillers and were not analyzed for this study.

For this study, scores of 0-7 were considered internal, and scores of 10-23 were considered external. Indeterminate scores of

8 and 9 were eliminated from the study in an attempt to more clearly distinguish internals from externals.

Section III of the instrument consists of eight questions designed to gather information about attitudes of superintendents and board members in the areas of in-service training, reading of professional literature, and superintendent/board roles.

Questions three through eight were analyzed by simply dividing the total responses into two discrete categories, as determined by the researcher. Questions one and two each have four parts: A, B, C, and D. For the purposes of this study, the five possible responses to each of the four parts were added, then divided by four to achieve a composite score. Because fractional scores were obtained, the researcher developed the following categories: (0-4), (0.5-1.4), (1.5-2.4), (2.5-3.4), (3.5-4.4), and (4.5-5.0). This enabled composite scores to be tallied and then divided into two discrete categories.

### Research Design

The design of a descriptive study determines if the collected data can be analyzed to establish significance of differences between groups being studied. The two-way chi square statistic is a convenient technique for determining the significance of the difference between the frequencies of occurrence in two or more categories with two or more groups (Bartz, 1981). The two-way chi square is a frequently-used statistic in descriptive educational research. Treatment of collected data is descriptive of what exists at the time the survey is conducted.



After sufficient data relating to particular groups has been collected, the researcher may isolate particular characteristics about each group to gain new insights that were not obvious before the study.

The instrument and questionnaire employed in this study were developed to help isolate specific characteristics of superintendents and board members. The isolation of specific characteristics then enabled the researcher to make observations which may prove useful in predicting attitudes toward in-service training and board/superintendent roles.

## CHAPTER IV

### DATA ANALYSIS

Selecting a research instrument that will gather desired information and determining the proper test to analyze the data is critical to the researcher. The research instrument must identify specific variables so a specific test may be applied. The major task remaining for the researcher is to explain the results. Before a test for analysis of data is selected, the researcher must determine the method of data collection, the probability level, and the nature and level of data measurement.

Researchers may be interested in determining the numbers of responses which occur in specific groups or categories. Respondents may be grouped by a variety of human characteristics such as tall/short, educational level, etc. As Bartz (1981) has stated:

A technique that can be used to determine whether there is a significant difference between some theoretical or expected frequencies and the corresponding observed frequencies in two or more categories is the chi square test (p. 320).

The chi square two-way classification is an appropriate technique for determining the significance of the difference between the frequencies of occurrence in two or more categories with two or more groups (p. 324).

The two-way chi square test is appropriate for analysis of data from the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale. Respondents to the scale can be divided into discrete categories according to test

scores. By application of the two-way chi square to determine the number of expected responses versus the observed responses, the significant differences between groups categorized on another variable can be tested.

The Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale enabled the researcher to categorize school board members and superintendents into two discrete categories: internal and external. A score of 0-7 placed the respondent into the internal category; scores of 10-23 placed the respondent into the external category. The indeterminate middle group, which consisted of scores 8 and 9, was eliminated from the study to distinguish more accurately internals from externals.

The 90 independent school districts which were involved in this study were divided into three strata. The first stratum had 1-24 teachers, the second stratum had 25-50 teachers, and the third stratum had more than 50 teachers. Five hundred and forty copies of the questionnaire were mailed during the first mailing. The second mailing consisted of an additional 350 copies. Several attempts were made to elicit responses from all board members and superintendents selected for the study. Two post card reminders were mailed to superintendents where responses were slow or nonexistent. Telephone calls were made to all 90 school superintendents, encouraging responses to the questionnaire. Fifty-six usable returns were received from the 90 school superintendents. One hundred and seventy-eight usable returns were received from the 450 board members. The range of scores for superintendents on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale was from 0-16 and for board members was from 0-18 (Table III).

TABLE III  
SUMMARY OF RETURNS BY STRATUM

	<u>1-24 Teachers</u>		<u>25-50 Teachers</u>		<u>51+ Teachers</u>	
	<u>% Returned</u>	<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>% Returned</u>	<u>Mean Score</u>	<u>% Returned</u>	<u>Mean Score</u>
Boards	29	7.65	41	7.44	48	6.29
Supts.	53	4.75	60	6.22	73	6.54

### Research Questions

The first research question to be tested for differences was the number of school board members whose scores indicated internal or external on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by educational level. The total responses of 178 school-board members minus 24 scores of 8 or 9 which were eliminated from the study left 154 usable scores. Of the 154 board members, 104 were internal and 50 were external. (See Appendix D for the distribution of raw scores.)

### Findings

The following are findings of this study:

1. Research question: "Is there a difference between board members' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when board members are grouped by their reported educational level?"

The computed chi square yielded a value of 17.53. With one degree of freedom, a value equal to or greater than 3.84 was required to reject the research question at the .05 level of significance. As a result of the chi square score, it was noted that there was a significant difference between board members' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by reported educational level. Those respondents holding college degrees tended to be internal in their locus of control (Table IV).

TABLE IV  
INTERNAL/EXTERNAL POSITIONS OF SCHOOL-BOARD  
MEMBERS WHEN GROUPED BY THEIR REPORTED  
EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

	<u>No College Degree</u>		<u>College Degree</u>		Total Observed
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Internal	49	61	55	43	104
External	<u>41</u>	29	<u>9</u>	21	50
Total	90		64		N=154
Chi square--17.53, d.f. 1					Significant at .05

2. Research question: "Is there a difference between superintendents' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by perceived level of autonomy in performing their executive function?"

The computed chi square yielded a value of .59. With one degree of freedom, a value equal to or greater than 3.84 is required to reject the research question at the .05 level of significance. As a result of the low chi square value, it was noted that there was no significant difference between superintendents' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by their perceived autonomy in performing their executive function (Table V).

TABLE V  
PERCEIVED LEVELS OF AUTONOMY OF SUPERINTENDENTS  
WHEN GROUPED BY THEIR SCORES ON THE ROTTER  
INTERNAL/EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE

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To what extent does your board of education delegate the executive function of running the school district to the superintendent?

Responses

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	<u>Less than 100%</u>		<u>100%</u>		Total Observed
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Internal	31	32	12	11	43
External	<u>8</u>	7	<u>2</u>	3	10
Total	39		14		N=53
Chi square--0.53, d.f. 1			Not significant at .05		

---

3. Research question: "Is there a difference between board members' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by level of reported resistance to special interest groups?"

Since there was not sufficient dispersion of responses to allow formation of categories, no analysis was attempted. Of all respondents, 86% reported that they were influenced by special interest groups 0 to 25% of the time. Clearly board members in the State of Oklahoma feel their decision making is not strongly influenced by special interest groups.

4. Research question: "Is there a difference between superintendents' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by perceived level of board member intervention in daily operation of the school?"

Since there was not sufficient dispersion of responses to allow formation of categories, no analysis was attempted. Of all respondents, 82% reported board members became involved in the daily operation of the school 0 to 25% of the time. Therefore, it is apparent that superintendents in the State of Oklahoma feel board members seldom intervene in the daily operation of the school.

5. Research question: "Is there a difference between board members scores' on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by perceived board member intervention in daily operation of the school?"

The computed chi square yielded a value of 4.56. With one degree of freedom, a value of 3.84 or larger is required to reject the research question at the .05 level of significance. As a result, it

was noted that there was a significant difference between board members' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by their perceived level of intervention in the daily operation of the school (Table VI).

TABLE VI  
PERCEIVED LEVELS OF BOARD MEMBER INTERVENTION  
WHEN GROUPED BY THEIR SCORES ON THE ROTTER  
INTERNAL/EXTERNAL LOCUS OF CONTROL SCALE

---

To what extent do board members become involved in the daily operation of the school?

Responses

---

	<u>Board Member Intervention</u> 0-25%		<u>Board Member Intervention</u> 26-100%		Total Observed
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Internal	87	82	17	22	104
External	<u>35</u>	40	<u>15</u>	10	50
Total	122		32		N=154
Chi square--4.56, d.f. 1	Not significant at .05				

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6. Research question: "Is there a difference between board members' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when board members are grouped by their reported level of involvement in in-service training?"

The computed chi square yielded a value of 4.63. With one degree of freedom, a value equal to or greater than 3.84 was required to reject the research question at the .05 level of significance. As a result, it was noted that there was a significant difference between board members' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by their reported level of involvement in in-service training.

Table VII was developed from composite scores of board members who responded to all four parts of question one in Section III of the questionnaire which dealt with board member participation in in-service training. Because fractional scores were obtained in securing a composite score for question one, the researcher developed the following categories: (0-0.4), (0.5-1.4), (1.5-2.4), (2.5-3.4), (3.5-4.4), and (4.5-5.0). (For more clarification of question one, refer to Appendix D.)

7. Research question: "Is there a difference between board members' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when board members are grouped by their reported willingness to read professional literature related to public schools?"

The computed chi square yielded a value of 8.95. With one degree of freedom, a value of 3.84 or greater was required to reject the research questions at the .05 level. As a result, it was noted that there was a significant difference between board members' scores on the

Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by their reported willingness to read professional literature relating to public schools. The more internal the board members' scores, the more they expressed an interest in reading professional literature.

TABLE VII  
INTERNAL/EXTERNAL POSITIONS OF SCHOOL-BOARD  
MEMBERS WHEN GROUPED BY THEIR REPORTED  
WILLINGNESS TO BE INVOLVED IN  
IN-SERVICE TRAINING

	Weak Commitment to to In-service		Stronger Commitment to In-service		Total Observed
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Internal	61	67	43	37	104
External	<u>38</u>	32	<u>12</u>	18	50
Total	99		55		N=154
Chi square--4.63, d.f. 1			Significant at .05		

Table VIII was developed from composite scores of board members who responded to all four parts of question two in Section III of the questionnaire which dealt with board member involvement in reading professional literature. Because fractional scores were obtained in securing a composite score for question one, the researcher developed

the following categories: (0-0.4), (0.5-1.4), (1.5-2.4), (2.5-3.4), (3.5-4.4), and (4.5-5.01). (For more clarification of question two, refer to Appendix D.)

TABLE VIII  
INTERNAL/EXTERNAL POSITIONS OF SCHOOL-BOARD  
MEMBERS WHEN GROUPED BY THEIR REPORTED  
WILLINGNESS TO READ PROFESSIONAL  
LITERATURE RELATING TO  
PUBLIC SCHOOLS

	<u>Weak Commitment to Reading Professional Literature</u> 0-1.4		<u>Stronger Commitment to Reading Professional Literature</u> 1.5-5.0		Total Observed
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Internal	75	82	29	22	104
External	<u>47</u>	40	<u>3</u>	10	50
Total	122		32		N=154
Chi square--8.95, d.f. 1			Significant at .05		

8. Research question: "Is there a difference between board members' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when board members are grouped by their reported use or nonuse of oral or written reports?"

The computed chi square yielded a value of 9.66. With one degree of freedom, a value equal to or greater than 3.84 was required to reject the research questions at the .05 level. As a result, it was noted that there was a significant difference between board members' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by their use or nonuse of oral or written reports (Table IX).

TABLE IX  
INTERNAL/EXTERNAL POSITIONS OF SCHOOL-BOARD  
MEMBERS WHEN GROUPED BY THEIR REPORTED  
USE OR NONUSE OF ORAL OR  
WRITTEN REPORTS

---

To what extent does information used by board members to make policy decisions come from board-requested oral or written reports prepared by the superintendent or other administrative officers?

	Less Emphasis Responses Ranging From 0-75%		More Emphasis Responses Ranging From 76-100%		Total Observed
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Internal	38	47	66	57	104
External	<u>32</u>	23	<u>18</u>	27	50
Total	70		84		N=154
Chi square--9.66, d.f. 1			Significant at .05		

---

9. Research question: "Is there a difference between superintendents' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when superintendents are grouped by reported level of support for local board member in-service training?"

The computed chi square yielded a value of 0.96. With one degree of freedom, a value of 3.84 or greater is required to reject the research question at the .05 level. As a result, it was noted that there was no significant difference between superintendents' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by their reported level of support for board member in-service training (Table X).

TABLE X  
INTERNAL/EXTERNAL POSITIONS OF SUPERINTENDENTS  
WHEN GROUPED BY REPORTED LEVELS OF SUPPORT  
FOR BOARD MEMBER IN-SERVICE TRAINING

	<u>Weak Support for In-service</u>		<u>Stronger Support for In-service</u>		Total Observed
	(0-1)		(2-5)		
Number of times per year that superintendents felt their district should provide in-service for board members:	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Internal	20	21	22	21	42
External	<u>6</u>	5	<u>5</u>	6	11
Total	26		27		N=53
Chi square--0.96, d.f. 1					Not significant at .05

10. Research question: "Is there a difference between board members' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when board members are grouped by their reported level of willingness to allow superintendents to dominate school policy?"

The computed chi square yielded a value of 7.58. With one degree of freedom, a value of 3.84 or greater was required to reject the research question at the .05 level. As a result, it was noted that there was a significant difference between board members' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by their reported level of willingness to allow superintendents to dominate school policy (Table XI).

TABLE XI

INTERNAL/EXTERNAL POSITIONS OF SCHOOL-BOARD  
MEMBERS WHEN GROUPED BY THEIR REPORTED  
WILLINGNESS TO ALLOW SUPERINTENDENTS  
TO DOMINATE SCHOOL POLICY

---

To what extent do board members implement the superintendent's policy recommendations in the absence of oral or written reports?

	<u>Not Willing</u>		<u>Willing</u>		Total Observed
	Responses Ranging From 0-75%	Observed	Responses Ranging From 76-100%	Expected	
Internal	60	52	44	52	104
External	<u>17</u>	25	<u>33</u>	25	50
Total	77		77		N=154
Chi square--7.58, d.f. 1					Significant at .05

---

11. Research question: "Is there a difference between superintendents' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by tenure in their present position?"

The computed chi square yielded a value of 0.49. With one degree of freedom, a value of 3.84 or greater was required to reject the research question at the .05 level. As a result, it was noted that there was no significant difference between superintendents' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by their level of tenure in present positions (Table XII).

TABLE XII  
INTERNAL/EXTERNAL POSITIONS OF SCHOOL  
SUPERINTENDENTS WHEN GROUPED BY  
TENURE IN PRESENT POSITION

	<u>Less Than 10 Years</u>		<u>More Than 10 Years</u>		Total Observed
	Observed	Expected	Observed	Expected	
Internal	20	21	23	22	43
External	<u>6</u>	5	<u>4</u>	5	10
Total	26		27		N=53
Chi square--0.49, d.f. 1					Not significant at .05

The data-gathering instrument consisted of three sections. In the first section, questions were asked about the social and economic status of respondents. The social and economic factors investigated were: sex, age, size of school district, education, occupation, tenure in community, reason for running for the board, tenure as a board member or superintendent, frequency of the district's board meetings, number of superintendents employed by the district in the last 10 years, and the number of children enrolled in their district. Ten tables follow, representing selected findings of the first section of the survey instrument.

Gender for board membership in Oklahoma as indicated by this study is divided into the same percentages (90% male to 10% female) as was reported by Zeigler and Jennings (1974) in Governing American Schools. They found the ratio of males to females in the general population to be 48% male to 52% female. Clearly, the school board ratio of 90% male to 10% female represents a societal bias favoring men for school board service (Table XIII).

Gender of superintendents in Oklahoma is clearly shown by this study to favor males. In a profession dominated in numbers by females, Table XIV, showing a 100% to 0% ratio of male to female superintendents makes a very strong statement supporting board member bias toward hiring male superintendents.

Educational levels of board members in Oklahoma as indicated by this study reflect a clear tendency to elect board members with higher levels of education; 72.73% have at least some college experience. This finding is consistent with research by Zeigler and Jennings (1974), which found that 72% of school-board members have at least



some college experience. Since, in the general population, only 27% have at least some college experience, the high incidence of board members having college experience indicates a strong bias toward electing better-educated board members (Zeigler and Jennings, 1974) (Table XV).

TABLE XIII  
BOARD-MEMBER GENDER

Gender	Respondents	% of Sample
Male	139	90
Female	<u>15</u>	<u>10</u>
Total	154	100

TABLE XIV  
SUPERINTENDENT GENDER

Gender	Respondents	% of Sample
Male	53	100
Female	<u>0</u>	<u>0</u>
Total	53	100

TABLE XV  
BOARD-MEMBER EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Level Attained	Respondents	% of Sample
Elementary	3	1.95
High School	39	25.32
Some College	47	30.52
College Degree	45	29.22
Some Graduate Work	9	5.84
Graduate Degree	<u>11</u>	<u>7.15</u>
Total	154	100.00

Oklahoma state law requires specific educational requirements for certification to become a superintendent. Therefore, homogeneity of educational level is assured (Table XVI).

TABLE XVI  
SUPERINTENDENT EDUCATIONAL LEVEL

Level Attained	Respondents	% of Sample
Elementary	0	0
High School	0	0
Some College	0	0
College Degree	0	0
Some Graduate Work	0	0
Graduate Degree	<u>53</u>	<u>100</u>
Total	53	100

In Oklahoma, success in election to a school board is strongly related to long tenure in a community. This study found that 69.47% of all board members included in the study had lived 16 or more years in their community. This compared to Zeigler and Jennings' (1974) study, which found that 80% of board members had lived 16 or more years in their community. In the general population, the percentage of people who have lived 16 or more years in their community is 52% (Zeigler and Jennings, 1974). When compared to the 69.47% found in this study, a strong societal bias favoring board members with long tenure in the community is evident (Table XVII).

TABLE XVII  
BOARD-MEMBER TENURE IN COMMUNITY

Years in Community	Respondents	% of Sample
More than 30	63	40.90
16 to 29	44	28.57
11 to 15	25	16.23
6 to 10	20	12.99
0 to 5	<u>2</u>	<u>1.31</u>
Total	154	100.00

The trend in Oklahoma, as indicated in Table XVIII, shows a strong difference in superintendents' tenures in the community when compared to board members. Most noticeable is the "0 to 5" year category, with only 1.31 of board members falling into this category, compared to 41.5% of superintendents. Board members showed a clear pattern toward being insiders in the community, while superintendents showed a strong tendency toward being newcomers or outsiders.

TABLE XVIII  
SUPERINTENDENT TENURE IN COMMUNITY

Years in Community	Respondents	% of Sample
More than 30	4	7.50
16 to 29	9	17.00
11 to 15	7	13.20
6 to 10	11	20.80
0 to 5	<u>22</u>	<u>41.50</u>
Total	53	100.00

The percentage of board members with children in school was 68.83% for this study and 79.01% for an earlier study conducted in Oklahoma by Sullivan (1968). The findings indicated that approximately one in every three board members have no children in school. This result is not surprising, since board members may tend to serve

multiple terms and may remain on the board after their children graduate from school (Table XIX).

TABLE XIX  
BOARD MEMBERS WITH CHILDREN IN SCHOOL

Children in School	Respondents	% of Sample
Yes	106	68.83
No	<u>48</u>	<u>31.17</u>
Total	154	100.00

The percentage of superintendents with children in school was 45.30%, compared to 68.83% for board members. This difference may be attributable to several factors. Experience typically required to become a superintendent includes teaching and some form of administrative experience. It was found in this study that the average age of superintendents was 48.64. This age is generally beyond the period when superintendents would have school-age children (Table XX).

Clearly, board members perceived their intentions as good, since 64.40% indicated that they ran for the school board to improve the quality of educational programs in the district. Only 2.5% indicated that they would be motivated or influenced by a special interest group, and 1.90% indicated that they wanted to remove specific school personnel (Table XXI).

TABLE XX  
SUPERINTENDENTS WITH CHILDREN IN SCHOOL

Children in School	Respondents	% of Sample
Yes	24	45.30
No	<u>29</u>	<u>54.70</u>
Total	53	100.00

TABLE XXI  
SCHOOL-BOARD MEMBERS' REASONS FOR RUNNING  
FOR THE SCHOOL BOARD

Reason	Respondents	% of Sample
Improve child's education	25	16.20
Unhappy with school priorities	23	15.00
Want to remove school personnel	3	1.90
Improve quality of educational programs in district	99	64.40
Provide representation for particular interest group	<u>4</u>	<u>2.50</u>
Total	154	100.00

Superintendents' perceptions of why board members run for the board differed markedly from those of board members. Specifically, superintendents perceived 35.80% of board members ran to provide representation for a particular interest group, whereas only 2.5% of the board members indicated this category as their reason for running for the school board (Table XXII).

TABLE XXII  
SUPERINTENDENTS' REASONS FOR RUNNING FOR  
THE SCHOOL BOARD

Reason	Respondents	% of Sample
Improve child's education	9	17.00
Unhappy with school priorities	7	13.20
Want to remove school personnel	4	7.50
Improve quality of educational programs in district	14	26.50
Provide representation for particular interest group	<u>19</u>	<u>35.80</u>
Total	53	100.00

Six of the research questions studied were found to be significant at the .05 level. Research questions one, five, six, seven, eight, and ten were significant, while research questions two, three, four, nine, and eleven were not significant. Some of the unanswered

questions raised during the analysis of data of this study are discussed in Chapter V.

The social and economic information from this study which showed the most promise for future research was: (1) tenure for board member and superintendent selection and (2) board member and superintendent perceptions of why board members ran for the school board. Both the aforementioned factors reflected strong differences of perception or expectation for school-board members and superintendents.



## CHAPTER V

### SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

#### Summary

This study was designed to describe and aid in the improved understanding of the complex relationships between superintendents and board members. In particular, it was initiated by a desire to determine if the attitudes of school board members and superintendents on specific topics were related to internal or external locus of control. Specifically, this study was designed to determine board members' and superintendents' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale. The researcher then examined board members' and superintendents' attitudes concerning in-service training, reading of professional literature, and attitudes affecting superintendent/board roles. Respondents were divided into two groups (internal and external) to determine differences in their responses to the areas listed above. Also described in this study was the observed relationship between educational levels of school-board members and their scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale.

The Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale contained 29 items. Each item had a forced choice, A or B response; there were six filler items which were not scored. Each external response scored 1 and each internal response scored 0. The possible range of scores was

0-23. External responses were summed; hence, higher scores indicated that the respondent was more external. For purposes of this study, scores of 0-7 were considered internal and scores of 10-23 were considered external. Indeterminate scores of 8 and 9 were eliminated in an attempt to distinguish more accurately internals from externals. Following the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale was a section consisting of eight questions designed by the researcher to aid in describing board member and superintendent attitudes toward in-service training, attitudes toward reading of professional literature, and attitudes affecting superintendent/board roles.

The respondents were surveyed from three distinct strata of independent school districts in the State of Oklahoma. The strata were designed to provide a representative sampling of all independent school districts in the state during the school year 1983-84. The strata were assigned as follows:

1. Independent schools with 1-24 teachers
2. Independent schools with 25-50 teachers
3. Independent schools with 51 or more teachers

A number of research questions were stated which allowed examination of the difference between the attitudes of superintendents and the attitudes of board members which might affect the operation of their schools when grouped by their scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale. A test for significant differences was made by use of the two-way classification chi square statistic to determine significant differences. The probability level for the study was set at the .05 level (Table XXIII).

TABLE XXIII  
SUMMARY OF RESEARCH QUESTIONS

Research Questions	Computed Chi Square*	.05 Level of Significance
Q1. Is there a difference between board-members' scores on the <u>Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale</u> when board members are grouped by their reported educational level?	17.53	Significant
Q2. Is there a difference between superintendents' scores on the <u>Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale</u> when grouped by perceived level of autonomy in performing their executive function?	.59	Not Significant
Q3. Is there a difference between board members' scores on the <u>Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale</u> when grouped by reported level of resistance to special interest groups?	<u>No analysis attempted because responses were not sufficiently dispersed.</u>	
Q4. Is there a difference between superintendents' scores on the <u>Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale</u> when grouped by perceived level of board member intervention in daily operation of the school?	<u>No analysis attempted because responses were not sufficiently dispersed.</u>	
Q5. Is there a difference between board members' scores on the <u>Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale</u> when grouped by perceived board member intervention in daily operation of the school?	4.56	Significant
Q6. Is there a difference between board members' scores on the <u>Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale</u> when board members are grouped by their reported level of involvement in in-service training?	4.63	Significant
Q7. Is there a difference between board members' scores on the <u>Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale</u> when board members are grouped by their reported willingness to read professional literature related to public schools?	8.95	Significant

TABLE XXIII (Continued)

Research Questions	Computed Chi Square*	.05 Level of Significance
Q8. Is there a difference between board members' scores on the <u>Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale</u> when board members are grouped by their reported use of nonuse or oral or written reports?	9.66	Significant
Q9. Is there a difference between superintendents' scores on the <u>Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale</u> when superintendents are grouped by reported level of support for local board member in-service training?	.96	Not Significant
Q10. Is there a difference between board members' scores on the <u>Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale</u> when board members are grouped by their reported level of willingness to allow superintendents to dominate school policy?	7.58	Significant
Q11. Is there a difference between superintendents' scores on the <u>Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale</u> when grouped by tenure in their present position?	.49	Not Significant

\*A chi square of 3.84 was required for significance at the .05 level with 1 degree of freedom.

### Conclusions

The data collected in this study gave support to the following conclusions by the researcher:

1. Board members with higher levels of education scored significantly more internal
2. Superintendents showed no difference in perceptions of superintendent autonomy when grouped by internal or external scores
3. Board members do not vary in their perceived intervention in the daily operation of the schools when grouped by internal or external scores.
4. Board members who scored internal showed significantly more involvement in in-service training than externals
5. Board members who scored internal were significantly more willing to read professional literature than externals
6. Board members who scored internal were significantly more likely to require oral or written reports from superintendents than externals
7. Superintendents showed no difference in support for in-service training for board members when grouped by internal or external scores
8. Board members who scored internal were significantly less willing to be dominated by the superintendent than board members who scored external
9. Superintendents showed no difference in internal or external scores when grouped by tenure

Results of the research question which asked if there would be a difference in the scores of board members on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by educational level revealed a strong difference between educational levels of board members and their scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of

Control Scale. Board members with college degrees scored significantly more internal than their counterparts without college degrees. The two-way chi square test for significance yielded a chi square of 17.53, which was significant at the .05 level. The study identified a larger number of board members without college degrees (41% with, 59% without).

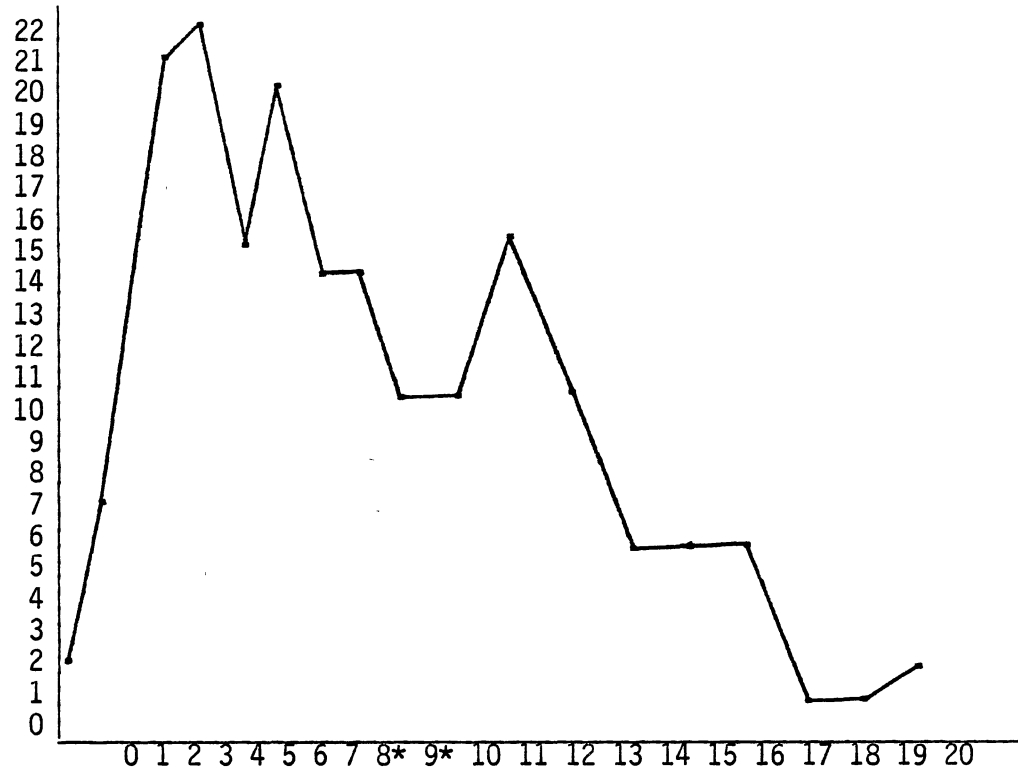
This finding should be of particular interest to educators in view of the locus of control research which supports the research question that internals are more able to make meaningful decisions through their use of environmental stimuli than externals. Research by Wolk and DuCette (1974) confirmed that internals were more able to utilize their environment for incidental learning. Since board members, in most instances, function in an area for which they are not specifically trained, it would seem imperative that they be receptive to incidental learning in their new roles. Conflict between superintendents and boards is almost certain if board members see little value to the superintendent's expertise and make no attempt to utilize his knowledge. It was found in this study that superintendents as a group were very internal. The return for superintendents for all three strata combined was 62%, with a mean score on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale of 5.93. Of the 53 superintendents in the study, 43 were internal and 10 were external. The return for board members for all three strata combined was 40%, with a mean score on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale of 7.02. Externals, as supported in the literature, place a low priority on activities such as research. They are more inclined to believe that fate and luck will control outcomes. This attitude probably

skewed the responses toward the internal side, since internals would be more likely to respond. It was found in this study that there were more internal board members than external. Of the 154 respondents, 104 were internal and 50 were external. This is approximately a 2 to 1 internal/external ratio for board members, as opposed to a 4 to 1 internal/external ratio for superintendents.

A significant difference was found in board members' scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale when grouped by perceived board member intervention in the daily operation of the school (Figure 1). Internals showed a stronger tendency toward less daily intervention. The two-way chi square test for significance yielded a chi square of 4.56, which was significant at the .05 level. Research conducted by Minar (cited in Zeigler and Jennings, 1974) supported the finding that internals would be less inclined to interfere in the daily operation of the school. Respondents were asked to indicate a percentage of time that they became involved in the daily operation of the school. Response selections were: 0%, 1-25%, 26-50%, 51-75%, 76-99%, or 100%. Of the 154 respondents, 122 indicated 0-25% and 32 indicated 26-100%. Board members who are internal and come from the better-educated group may demand their information and input during board meetings. They may tend to allow the superintendent more autonomy to run the school without daily interference. Board members who are external tend to view their relationship with the superintendent as an employer/employee relationship and, as a result, present more of a problem in terms of daily interference.

When examining board member in-service training, the researcher found a significant difference in board members' attitudes when

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Frequency

\*Scores of 8 and 9 were excluded from the analysis of data to more accurately distinguish internals from externals.

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Figure 1. Frequency of Board Members' Scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale



grouped by internal or external locus of control. Internals showed a significantly more positive attitude regarding in-service training for board members. The two-way chi square test for significance yielded a chi square of 4.63, which was significant at the .05 level. This finding is supported by research conducted by Platt and Eisenman (1968). Platt and Eisenman's research pointed out that internals feel they can control their environments. Because of this belief, they will spend greater amounts of time engaged in activities designed to provide increased knowledge or problem-solving skills. Since most board members enter the educational field with little or no knowledge or experience in education, it would seem imperative that they be receptive to learning for their new roles. The results of this study, however, do not reflect such an attitude on the part of a majority of the board members surveyed. The question pertaining to in-service training involved a scale ranging from 0-5, with the number chosen indicating board member attendance at in-service training during the last five years. Of the 154 respondents, 99 indicated that they had attended 0 or 1 in-service training session and 55 indicated that they had attended 2-5 in-service training sessions during a five-year period. With this low level of commitment to in-service training, assumptions can be made that board members place a low priority on their need to gain knowledge for their new roles. This could present a problem to superintendents who must secure board member support for policy and program matters. This would indicate a need for the superintendents to approach problems from the political as well as the rational or factual position.

It was also found in this study that there was a significant difference in board-member attitudes concerning the reading of professional literature when grouped by internal or external locus of control scores. The two-way chi square test for significance yielded a chi square of 8.95, which was significant at the .05 level. Research by Wolk and DuCette (1974) indicated that internals are more organized and deliberate in their use of information, whether it be in written or oral form. It would be difficult to envision a board member, newly elected and unfamiliar with the operation of public schools, able to acquire needed knowledge without a desire and willingness to read professional literature. The overall response of board members to the question of reading professional literature revealed very weak commitment in this critical area. The question pertaining to professional literature involved a scale ranging from 0-5 hours spent reading per month. Of the 154 usable responses, 122 board members indicated that they read 0 or 1 hour per month, while 32 board members indicated that they read 2-4 hours per month, with no responses indicating 5 hours per month. One observation that can be made from this finding is that board members in this study have a low commitment to learning through the reading of professional literature. Either they consider the quality of material of little value or they feel no need to acquire knowledge about the operation of schools.

Since we accept the democratic principle that citizens should control their government, we must consider their abilities to provide leadership. Education has become a complex maze of federal, state, and local laws. Board members are now faced with complex legal, moral, and academic questions which tax even the well-trained

individual. Board members who show no inclination for learning have little hope of understanding the complex issues they will face. Superintendents are expected to have expertise, but in their delicate relationship with boards of education, they find that knowledge can occasionally be a liability rather than an asset.

A significant difference was found in the use or nonuse of oral or written reports when board members were grouped by internal or external scores on the Rotter Internal/External Locus of Control Scale. Internals showed a significantly greater emphasis on the use of oral or written reports. The two-way chi square test for significance yielded a chi square of 9.66, which was significant at the .05 level. Research cited by Wolk and DuCette (1974) supported the findings that internals will be more inclined to structure their environment for improved understanding of a problem. Respondents were asked to indicate a percentage of time that they made decisions based on oral or written reports. Response selections were: 0%, 1-25%, 26-50%, 51-75%, 76-99%, or 100%. Of the 154 respondents, 70 indicated 0-75% and 84 indicated 76-100%. Board members who do not require explanations through written or oral reports may be willing to abdicate control to the superintendent. Those who require such reports attempt to justify decisions with logic and understanding. The latter seems more likely to insure that good decisions are made when they must stand the test of logic and rationality. The internal board member may be considered a troublemaker by the superintendent who prefers his/her recommendations unquestioned. It is, however, the probing, questioning board member who offers the greatest contribution to sound decision making, not the external passive follower.

In examining board member willingness or nonwillingness to allow the superintendent to dominate school policy, a significant difference was found in board members' attitudes when grouped by internal or external locus of control. Internals showed a much stronger tendency toward resistance to superintendent domination than did externals. The two-way chi square test for significance yielded a chi square of 7.58, which was significant at the .05 level. Support for this finding can also be found in the locus of control research by Odell (1959). Odell's research cited supportive evidence that externals are more willing to be dominated than internals, especially if the person attempting to influence them is an authority figure, such as a superintendent. The board's primary function--providing representation and expression of community views--could be lost if a strong superintendent were able to control the majority of the board members. In light of this finding, communities would be better represented if board members were internal rather than external.

The effectiveness of board members cannot be attributed solely to in-service training, educational level, reading of professional literature, use or nonuse of oral or written reports, or willingness or nonwillingness to allow the superintendent to dominate school policy, though each may be a contributing factor to board member effectiveness. Many additional factors are responsible for board member effectiveness, such as: experiences of board members, the reason they ran for the board, their perceptions of the superintendent/board roles, and board member basic personality types. By separating board members into two distinct personality groups (by perceived locus of control), internal or external, and analyzing their responses to specific

questions relating to board members' roles, certain inferences were drawn from this study.

When separating board members by college and noncollege degrees, internals were more likely to have college degrees and externals were less likely to have college degrees. This finding, considered in light of current research evolving around perceived locus of control, would imply that college-educated board members would be more aggressive in their attempts to learn their new roles and to expend energy attempting to solve problems. This could be a mixed blessing, as internals tend to be more demanding of superintendents and less willing to defer decision making to the superintendent.

The superintendent, to work successfully with internal board members, must be well organized and able to rationally defend his/her programs and proposals. One inference that might be drawn from this study is that the tension which exists between superintendents and boards will continue unless superintendents realize the personality types of their board members and structure their managerial styles accordingly. The present and past tension between superintendents and boards is well documented in the literature discussing superintendent tenure and superintendent/board roles. Long range planning and program development is very difficult for schools when the average tenure of the superintendent is less than three years. If schools are to benefit from the advantages of long range planning, stability must exist in the superintendent position.

#### Recommendations

The importance of education to the success of our society makes

it imperative that we utilize research to improve and stabilize the relationship between superintendents and boards. We cannot afford to have schools derive their leadership and direction singularly from the traditions or norms of an isolated community or from a strong superintendent. The school's responsibility is to prepare students for the twenty-first century. Inherent in this responsibility is the need for superintendents and board members to frame their decisions with an understanding and vision of the future, not just the past. More research, therefore, is needed into the internal/external personality types of board members and the ways in which this may affect board-member attitudes toward the many aspects of the board-member role.

If superintendents were better able to distinguish the personality types of board members, strategies could be developed for more harmonious working relationships. Community members might make better decisions when electing new board members if they were aware of the personality types that would approach board responsibility with the most thoughtful and positive attitudes. Additional research into the internal or external personalities of board members and the relationship to board functioning could eliminate some of the risk or guessing that occurs when choosing new board members. If board members with more internal personalities are elected, then boards should be more deliberate, positive, and long range in their planning. Internals tend to be more positive in their view of the world and their ability to change it, therefore, they bring to their new position a confidence and willingness to plan for the future that externals seldom exhibit.

Less than half of the school-board members who responded to this study were college graduates, though college degree as a factor was

highly related to internal personalities for board members. It could be concluded from the study that a college degree would tend to make a board member more able to cope with complex problem-solving and maintaining a positive attitude about his/her ability to effect constructive change. Additional study is needed to define the effect of educational levels of board members as a factor of internality or externality. This could have far-reaching effects for selection of new board members, for the personality of boards of education, and for the strategies employed by superintendents to work successfully with internal board members.

Public education might be greatly improved if the public began to realize that certain members of their community are better qualified to set policy for public schools. The public would be best served by selecting individuals who exhibit certain personality characteristics associated with the internals described in this study. Additional research into the internal/external personalities of board members and their respective attitudes toward in-service training, attitudes toward the reading of professional literature, the use of oral or written reports, and the superintendent/board roles would be helpful. Internal board members who tend to educate themselves about school matters may require the superintendent to be more structured and systematic in his/her operation of the school or in relations with the board. It would also help gain a clearer understanding of the attitudes of internals versus externals if additional research utilized an interview technique to improve the low survey response rate from externals.

There can be little doubt as to the serious need for improving the relationship between superintendents and boards of education. Stability in this relationship is essential if constructive, long-range planning and implementation of program and policy matters are to be realized. The average citizen has little knowledge or concern for the complexity of school district problems faced by the superintendent. The plethora of local, state, and federal laws which must be adhered to often places the superintendent in direct conflict with special interest pressures within the community, the staff, and the board of education. The problems discussed above are but a fraction of those faced by superintendents; they may contribute to the low level of tenure for superintendents throughout the United States. This lack of stability and job insecurity can be translated into the present difficulty which exists in attracting high quality applicants into the position.

With society changing more and more rapidly, it becomes extremely difficult for board members to provide effective leadership without a positive attitude toward continuing education. Elected board members must now provide direction to a school very different from the schools they attended a generation before. To improve the odds that strong board leadership will occur, we must identify characteristics of board members which will insure a positive attitude toward continued learning. As was pointed out in Toffler's (1971) book, Future Shock, many people in our generation will be overwhelmed by the rapid change which is inevitable. Boards of education must be composed of individuals who look to the future with optimism and are not overwhelmed by the problems created by a rapidly changing society. Internals best exemplify



the characteristics needed to deal with the complex problems faced by education and by society.

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## APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A

BOARD MEMBER QUALIFICATIONS

TABLE XXIV  
BOARD MEMBER QUALIFICATIONS\*

State	Age	Qualified Voter Registered Elector	Residency in District	U.S. Citizen	Analysis of State Qualifica- tions for Board of Education Candidate (Other Qualifica- tions as Stated in Law)
Alabama	--	--	--	--	
Alaska	18	NS	30 days	NS	
Arizona	18	Y	30 days	Y	
Arkansas	18	Y	Y	Y	
California	18	Y	Y	Y	
Colorado	18	Y	Y	Y	
Connecticut	18	Y	3 months*	Y	*Individual town charter-- May be less than 3 months
Delaware	18	Y	Y	Y	
Florida	No min.	NS	NS	NS	
Georgia	No min.	NS	NS	NS*	*Individual district require- ment
Hawaii	18	Y	Y	Y	
Idaho	18	Y	Y	Y	
Illinois	18	Y	1 year	Y	
Indiana	--	--	--	--	
Iowa	18	NS	Y	Y	
Kansas	18	NS	Y	NS	
Kentucky	24	Y	Y	Y	Three year citizen, able to read and write
Louisiana	18	Y	Y	Y	
Maine	18	NS	Y	NS	



TABLE XXIV (Continued)

State	Age	Qualified Voter Registered Elector	Residency in District	U.S. Citizen	Analysis of State Qualifications for Board of Education Candidate (Other Qualifications as Stated in Law)
Maryland	18	Y	Y	Y	
Massachusetts	28	Y	NS	Y	
Michigan	18	Y	21 days*	Y	*6 months in state
Minnesota	No min.	NS	30 days	Y	
Mississippi	18	Y	6 months*	Y	*1 year in state
Missouri	30	Y	Y*	Y	*Urban, 3 years; rural, 1 year
Montana	--	--	--	--	
Nebraska	18	Y	Y	Y	
Nevada	18	Y	Y	Y	
New Hampshire	18	Y	Y	Y	
New Jersey	18	NS	2 years	Y	Able to read and write
New Mexico	18	Y	Y	Y	
New York	No min.	NS	30 days	Y	
North Carolina	18	NS	NS	NS	Intelligent, good moral character, good business qualifications, in favor of education
North Dakota	18	NS	30 days	NS	
Ohio	18	Y	1 year	Y	
Oklahoma	18	Y	Y	Y	Able to read and write
Oregon	18	Y	1 year	Y	
Pennsylvania	21	NS	1 year	NS	
Rhode Island	--	--	--	--	
South Carolina	18	Y	Y	Y	Belief in God

TABLE XXIV (Continued)

State	Age	Qualified Voter Registered Elector	Residency in District	U.S. Citizen	Analysis of State Qualifications for Board of Education Candidate (Other Qualifications as Stated in Law)
South Dakota	No min.	NS	Y	NS	
Tennessee	No min.	Y	Y	Y	
Texas	18	Y	Y*	Y	*6 months in district, 1 year in state
Utah	18	Y	Y	Y	
Vermont	No min.	NS	NS	NS	
Virginia	No min.	NS	Y	NS	
Washington	18	Y	Y	Y	Citizen of Washington
West Virginia	18	Y	Y	Y	
Wisconsin	18	NS	10 days*	Y	*6 months in state
Wyoming	18	Y	30 days	Y	
Virgin Islands	25	Y	3 years	Y	

\*Source: "For Your Information," Texas School Board Journal (1976), p. 21.

Note: NS = Not Stated in law; Y = Yes

APPENDIX B

LIST OF SCHOOLS BY STRATUM

Selected Schools With 1 to 24 Teachers  
1983-84

Altus Navajo	Freedom
Apache Broxton	Gotebo
Atoka Tushka	Hendrix
Balko	Hollis
Bokchito	McCurtain
Burlington	Red Rock
Cyril	Sasakwa
Delaware	Stuart
Durant Blue	Tallahassee
Forgan	Wewoka

Selected Schools 25 to 50 Teachers  
1983-84

Ada Vanoss	Hulbert
Apache	Kingston
Arapaho	Lamont
Boise City	Medford
Buffalo	Mutual
Caddo	Ringwood
Canute	Ripley
Claremore Verdrigis	Vici
Fox	Warner
Garber	Washington
Hammon	Welch

Selected Schools 51 or More Teachers  
1983-84

Antlers	Mustang
Ardmore	Noble
Ardmore Dickson	Okemah
Bristow	Okmulgee
Comanche	Prague
Commerce	Pryor
Eufala	Ringling
Glenpool	Sallisaw
Healdton	Sayre
Hennessey	Sulphur
Kingfisher	Tulsa Union
Marietta	Weatherford
Midwest City	Wewoka

APPENDIX C  
CORRESPONDENCE

Trial Survey Letter to Board Members

Dear Board Member:

I am engaged in graduate study at Oklahoma State University in Educational Administration. I am studying the crucial areas of board-superintendent relations and board member in-service training. From personal experience in the superintendency, I share a deep concern for the improved working relations between boards and superintendents. I see this as a prerequisite for educational improvement and efficiency. Your assistance in this research project would be greatly appreciated.

Enclosed is a questionnaire which consists of three sections. It is concise, and the time required to respond is minimal. The three sections of the questionnaire should be completed in thirty minutes or less. A self-addressed, stamped envelope is enclosed in your packet. It would be very helpful to this study if you could reply as soon as possible. Feel free to request a copy of the completed study for your district as indicated on the questionnaire. No attempt will be made to identify respondents, and all information gathered will be used only for academic purposes.

Your assistance in field testing this questionnaire is greatly appreciated. Please write comments by any question that is unclear. Your recommendations and suggestions will be considered in preparing the final draft for this study.

I sincerely hope you find the time to respond to this questionnaire. As you are aware, time is critical in such a study. Your completion and return of this instrument would be of great benefit to the study.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Jerry W. Hill  
Elementary Principal  
Catoosa, Oklahoma

## Introductory Letter to Superintendents

Dear Superintendent:

I am engaged in graduate study at Oklahoma State University in Educational Administration. I am studying the crucial areas of board-superintendent relations and board member in-service training. From personal experience in the superintendency, I share a deep concern for the improved working relations between boards and superintendents. I see this as a prerequisite for educational improvement and efficiency. Your assistance in this research project would be greatly appreciated.

Enclosed you will find six copies of a questionnaire consisting of three sections. It is concise, and the time required to respond is minimal. The three sections of the questionnaire should be completed in thirty minutes or less. I hope to receive a reply from you and from each of your board members.

I would appreciate your giving one packet to each board member. Please encourage them to reply as their input is essential for a valid study. A self-addressed, stamped envelope will be enclosed in each packet. It would be most helpful if the questionnaire could be completed at your next regularly scheduled board meeting.

Feel free to inform board members that results of the study will be made available to your district if requested. No attempt will be made to identify respondents, and all information gathered will be used only for academic purposes.

I sincerely hope that you and your board members will have time to respond to this questionnaire. As you are aware, time is critical in such a study. Your immediate return of this instrument would be of great benefit to the study.

Thank you for your time and consideration.

Sincerely,

Jerry W. Hill  
Elementary Principal  
Catoosa, Oklahoma

Kenneth St. Clair  
Professor, Oklahoma State University



Cover Letter to Board Members

Dear Board Members:

I am sure you share, as I do, a deep concern for the strengthened relationship between board members and superintendents. It is the quality of their relationship that most directly affects the quality of our students' education.

This research study is an attempt by Mr. Hill to identify some of the critical superintendent/board characteristics and how they affect the superintendent/board relationship.

Hopefully, you will be able to take 20 to 30 minutes of your time to aid in this worthwhile study.

Sincerely,

Bob Mooneyham  
Executive Director  
State School Board Association

### Introductory Letter to Board Members

Dear Board Members:

I am engaged in graduate study at Oklahoma State University in Educational Administration. I am studying the crucial areas of board-superintendent relations and board member in-service training. From personal experience in the superintendency, I share a deep concern for the improved working relations between boards and superintendents. I see this as a prerequisite for educational improvement and efficiency. Your assistance in this research project would be greatly appreciated.

Enclosed is a questionnaire which consists of three sections. It is concise, and the time required to respond is minimal. The three sections of the questionnaire should be completed in thirty minutes or less. A self-addressed, stamped envelope is enclosed in your packet. It would be very helpful to this study if you could reply as soon as possible. Feel free to request a copy of the completed study for your district as indicated on the questionnaire. No attempt will be made to identify respondents, and all information gathered will be used only for academic purposes.

I sincerely hope you find the time to respond to this questionnaire. As you are aware, time is critical in such a study. Your immediate return of this instrument would be of great benefit to the study.

Thank you for your time and cooperation.

Sincerely,

Jerry W. Hill  
Elementary Principal  
Catoosa, Oklahoma

Kenneth St. Clair  
Professor, Oklahoma State University

## Reminder Post Card Sent After First Mailing

Dear Superintendent:

I recently mailed six questionnaires to your district. They dealt with superintendent/board relations. I am grateful for the good response from superintendents. However, board member response has been low. As you are aware, a valid study requires a good response.

If you could assist me by encouraging board members to respond to the questionnaire, I would be most appreciative. It would be invaluable to my study.

Sincerely,

Jerry W. Hill

## Follow-up Letter for Second Mailing

Dear Superintendent,

Thanks for your support and response to my study dealing with superintendent/board relations. A high percent of superintendents throughout the state have responded.

To insure a quality study, I need a better response from board members. If you could take a few minutes at your next board meeting and encourage board members to respond, I would be most grateful.

Thank you for your time and assistance.

Sincerely,

Jerry W. Hill

## State Department of Education

Associate  
Deputy Superintendents  
JACK STRATHORN  
TOM CAMPBELL  
JOHN FOLKS

LESLIE FISHER, Superintendent  
LOYD GRAHAM, Deputy Superintendent  
2500 North Lincoln Boulevard  
Oklahoma City, Oklahoma 73105

Assistant Superintendents  
FRANK VETLARD, Finance  
J. D. HODGES, Instruction  
R. E. ... ..

March 8, 1984

Mr. Jerry W. Hill  
Principal  
Catoosa Elementary School  
Catoosa, Oklahoma 74015

Dear Jerry:

I have enjoyed reading your research proposal. I feel it is a very worthwhile project.

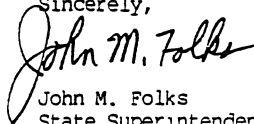
The last sentence in the section "Significance of the Study" which states: "The difficulty that some Boards experience in initiating change is closely associated with their personal beliefs and experiences which relate to their ability to deal rationally with issues," is very good. In my opinion, this summarizes the intent of your paper.

Your study is timely and well documented. You have defended your hypothesis extremely well. You, also established some data to indicate that as society continues to change so rapidly--quicker reaction time will require school boards to be "more informed and receptive to the positive aspects of the future." As you indicated, leadership is needed from our school boards of today that reflect an understanding of technology and its implications for the future. In your review of literature, the sociologist, Peter Drucker, stated it succinctly when he said, "The most important thing students will have to learn is how to learn."

I would recommend that you share your paper with Dr. Cecil Yarbrough, Administrator, Administrative Development, State Department of Education. Dr. Yarbrough's section is sponsoring a project with the Oklahoma Commission for Future Educational Leadership in a special area of study entitled, "Board of Education--Superintendent Working Relationships." Mrs. Theo Smith is chairing this particular study. Your research project could provide some excellent insight for future proposals and/or recommendations. With your permission, I will forward your project to Dr. Yarbrough.

Jerry, I appreciate you sharing your paper with me. I wish you continued success in the completion of your doctoral program.

Sincerely,



John M. Folks  
State Superintendent-designee

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APPENDIX D  
QUESTIONNAIRE

QUESTIONNAIRE  
(BOARD-MEMBER RESPONSES)

Section I

Please provide the following information about yourself and your school district. It is not essential for you to identify yourself or your school district.

1. Your relationship to the school is

\_\_\_\_\_ superintendent                      (154) board member

2. Your gender is

(139) male                                      (15) female

3. Your age in years \_\_\_\_\_

4. Size of your school district

(41) 1-24 teachers  
(51) 25-50 teachers  
(62) more than 50 teachers

5. Educational attainment (check highest level of completed)

(3) elementary  
(39) high school  
(47) some college  
(45) college degree  
(9) some graduate work  
(11) graduate degree

6. Your occupation is \_\_\_\_\_

7. How long have you lived in this community?

(63) more than 30 years  
(44) 16-30 years  
(25) 11-15 years  
(20) 6-10 years  
(2) 0-5 years

8. (Board Members Only) Which one of the following represents the most important reason why you ran for the school board? (check one box only)

(25) improve your child's education  
(23) unhappy with school priorities  
(3) wanted to remove school personnel (ex: superintendent)  
(99) improve quality of educational programs in district  
(4) provide representation for a particular interest group in the community

Write any reason you feel more important than those listed:

\_\_\_\_\_

9. (Superintendents only) Which one of the following statements do you feel is the most frequent reason why individuals run for the school board? (check one box only)

improve your child's education  
 unhappy with school priorities  
 wanted to remove school personnel (ex: superintendent)  
 improve quality of educational programs in district  
 provide representation for a particular interest group in the community

Write any reason you feel more important than those listed:

-----

10. How long have you served as a board member or superintendent?

(27) 1-2 years  
(19) 2-3 years  
(17) 3-4 years  
(16) 4-5 years  
(43) 5-10 years  
(32) 10 or more years

11. How frequent are your regularly scheduled board meetings?

(147) once per month  
(7) twice per month  
(0) once per week  
(0) twice per week

12. How many superintendents has your district had during the last ten years?

(49) one  
(49) two  
(41) three  
(14) four  
(1) five or more

13. Do you have children in this school?

(106) yes (49) no

If you wish an abstract of this study when completed, please send an address (under separate cover) to:

Jerry W. Hill  
 8247 N. 116 E. Ave.  
 Owasso, OK 74055

## Section II

## THE ROTTER BELIEF SCALE

Julian B. Rotter, University of Connecticut

This is a questionnaire to find out the way in which certain important events in our society affect different people. Each item consists of a pair of alternatives lettered "a" or "b". Please select the one statement of each pair (and only one) which you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you're concerned. Be sure to select the one you actually believe to be more true rather than the one you think you should choose or the one you would like to be true. This is a measure of personal belief; obviously there are no right or wrong answers.

Your answer, either "a" or "b" to each question on this inventory, is to be reported beside the question. Please answer these items carefully but do not spend too much time on any one item. Be sure to find an answer for every choice. For each numbered question make an X on the line beside either the "a" or "b", whichever you choose as the statement most true.

In some instances you may discover that you believe both statements or neither one. In such cases, be sure to select the one you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you're concerned. Also try to respond to each item independently when making your choice; do not be influenced by your previous choices.

Remember

Select that alternative which you personally believe to be more true.

I more strongly believe that:

1. (22) a. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much. (F)
- (132) b. The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them. (F)
2. (28) a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck. (E)
- (126) b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make. (I)
3. (36) a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics. (I)
- (118) b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them. (E)
4. (90) a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world. (I)
- (64) b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries. (E)
5. (93) a. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense. (I)
- (61) b. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings. (E)
6. (29) a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader. (E)
- (125) b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities. (I)
7. (72) a. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you. (E)
- (82) b. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others. (I)
8. (42) a. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality. (F)
- (112) b. It is one's experiences in life which determine what they're like. (F)



- 9.(25) a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen. (E)  
(129) b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action. (I)
- 10.(126) a. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test. (I)  
(28) b. Many times exam questions tend to be so unrelated to course work that studying is really useless. (E)
- 11.(114) a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it. (I)  
(40) b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time. (E)
- 12.(109) a. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions. (I)  
(45) b. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it. (E)
- 13.(130) a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work. (I)  
(24) b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow. (E)
- 14.(42) a. There are certain people who are just no good. (F)  
(112) b. There is some good in everybody. (F)
- 15.(134) a. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck. (I)  
(20) b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin. (E)
- 16.(28) a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first. (E)  
(126) b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability; luck has little or nothing to do with it. (I)
- 17.(53) a. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand, nor control. (E)  
(101) b. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events. (I)
- 18.(82) a. Most people can't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings. (E)  
(72) b. There really is no such thing as "luck". (I)

- 19.(141) a. One should always be willing to admit his mistakes. (F)  
(13) b. It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes. (F)
- 20.(49) a. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you. (E)  
(105) b. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are. (I)
- 21.(68) a. In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones. (E)  
(86) b. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three. (I)
- 22.(96) a. With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption. (I)  
(58) b. It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office. (E)
- 23.(19) a. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give. (E)  
(135) b. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get. (I)
- 24.(39) a. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do. (F)  
(115) b. A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are. (F)
- 25.(54) a. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me. (E)  
(100) b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life. (I)
- 26.(116) a. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly. (I)  
(38) b. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people, if they like you, they like you. (E)
- 27.(74) a. There is too much emphasis on athletics in high school. (F)  
(80) b. Team sports are an excellent way to build character. (F)
- 28.(118) a. What happens to me is my own doing. (I)  
(36) b. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking. (E)

29. (33) a. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do. (E)  
 (121) b. In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level. (I)

(I) Internal  
 (E) External  
 (F) Filler  
 (Not indicated on Board Member's copy)

### Section III

Please circle the appropriate number.

1. During the past five years, how many times have you attended:

A. The National School Board Convention (NSBA)

$\frac{(86)}{0}$      $\frac{(38)}{1}$      $\frac{(17)}{2}$      $\frac{(7)}{3}$      $\frac{(3)}{4}$      $\frac{(2)}{5}$

B. The Oklahoma School Board Convention (OSSBA)

$\frac{(33)}{0}$      $\frac{(36)}{1}$      $\frac{(38)}{2}$      $\frac{(19)}{3}$      $\frac{(10)}{4}$      $\frac{(18)}{5}$

C. Special workshops conducted by the National (NSBA) or the State (OSSBA) Associations

$\frac{(54)}{0}$      $\frac{(55)}{1}$      $\frac{(18)}{2}$      $\frac{(14)}{3}$      $\frac{(3)}{4}$      $\frac{(10)}{5}$

D. Special workshops provided by your district

$\frac{(67)}{0}$      $\frac{(44)}{1}$      $\frac{(19)}{2}$      $\frac{(11)}{3}$      $\frac{(2)}{4}$      $\frac{(11)}{5}$

2. How many hours per month do you spend reading:

A. The Oklahoma School Board Journal

$\frac{(28)}{0}$      $\frac{(90)}{1}$      $\frac{(30)}{2}$      $\frac{(2)}{3}$      $\frac{(2)}{4}$      $\frac{(2)}{5}$

B. The American School Board Journal

$\frac{(68)}{0}$      $\frac{(50)}{1}$      $\frac{(28)}{2}$      $\frac{(7)}{3}$      $\frac{(1)}{4}$      $\frac{(0)}{5}$

## C. Phi Delta Kappan or other education-related materials

$\frac{(113)}{0}$	$\frac{(17)}{1}$	$\frac{(15)}{2}$	$\frac{(8)}{3}$	$\frac{(0)}{4}$	$\frac{(1)}{5}$
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## D. Textbooks related to the operation of schools

$\frac{(86)}{0}$	$\frac{(36)}{1}$	$\frac{(15)}{2}$	$\frac{(11)}{3}$	$\frac{(3)}{4}$	$\frac{(3)}{5}$
------------------	------------------	------------------	------------------	-----------------	-----------------

3. How many times each year do you feel your school district should provide workshops for board members?

$\frac{(28)}{0}$	$\frac{(45)}{1}$	$\frac{(49)}{2}$	$\frac{(22)}{3}$	$\frac{(6)}{4}$	$\frac{(4)}{5}$
------------------	------------------	------------------	------------------	-----------------	-----------------

Please check the percentage that most clearly represents the amount of time the following activities occur within your district.

4. To what extent does your board of education delegate the executive function of running the school district to the superintendent?

$\frac{(3)}{0\%}$	$\frac{(6)}{1-25\%}$	$\frac{(8)}{26-50\%}$	$\frac{(22)}{51-75\%}$	$\frac{(79)}{76-99\%}$	$\frac{(36)}{100\%}$
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5. How often does information used by board members to make policy decisions come from board-requested oral or written reports prepared by the superintendent or other administrative officers?

$\frac{(1)}{0\%}$	$\frac{(12)}{1-25\%}$	$\frac{(21)}{26-50\%}$	$\frac{(38)}{51-75\%}$	$\frac{(70)}{76-99\%}$	$\frac{(13)}{100\%}$
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6. To what extent do your board members become involved in the daily operation of the school?

$\frac{(37)}{0\%}$	$\frac{(86)}{1-25\%}$	$\frac{(20)}{26-50\%}$	$\frac{(5)}{51-75\%}$	$\frac{(3)}{76-99\%}$	$\frac{(3)}{100\%}$
--------------------	-----------------------	------------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	---------------------

7. How often do board members implement the superintendent's policy recommendations in the absence of oral or written reports?

$\frac{(20)}{0\%}$	$\frac{(16)}{1-25\%}$	$\frac{(14)}{26-50\%}$	$\frac{(29)}{51-75\%}$	$\frac{(68)}{76-99\%}$	$\frac{(7)}{100\%}$
--------------------	-----------------------	------------------------	------------------------	------------------------	---------------------

8. How often do board members vote against the superintendent's policy recommendations in favor of special interest groups?

$\frac{(49)}{0\%}$	$\frac{(86)}{1-25\%}$	$\frac{(8)}{26-50\%}$	$\frac{(3)}{51-75\%}$	$\frac{(4)}{76-99\%}$	$\frac{(4)}{100\%}$
--------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	-----------------------	---------------------

QUESTIONNAIRE  
(SUPERINTENDENTS' RESPONSES)

Section I

Please provide the following information about yourself and your school district. It is not essential for you to identify yourself or your school district.

1. Your relationship to the school is

(53) superintendent                      \_\_\_\_\_ board member

2. Your gender is

(53) male                                      (0) female

3. Your age in years                      \_\_\_\_\_

4. Size of your school district

(15) 1-24 teachers  
(17) 25-50 teachers  
(21) more than 50 teachers

5. Educational attainment (check highest level of completed)

(0) elementary  
(0) high school  
(0) some college  
(0) college degree  
(0) some graduate work  
(53) graduate degree

6. Your occupation is                      \_\_\_\_\_

7. How long have you lived in this community?

(4) more than 30 years  
(9) 16-30 years  
(7) 11-15 years  
(11) 6-10 years  
(22) 0-5 years

8. (Board Members Only) Which one of the following represents the most important reason why you ran for the school board? (check one box only)

\_\_\_\_\_ improve your child's education  
\_\_\_\_\_ unhappy with school priorities  
\_\_\_\_\_ wanted to remove school personnel (ex: superintendent)  
\_\_\_\_\_ improve quality of educational programs in district  
\_\_\_\_\_ provide representation for a particular interest group in the community

Write any reason you feel more important than those listed:

\_\_\_\_\_

9. (Superintendents only) Which one of the following statements do you feel is the most frequent reason why individuals run for the school board? (check one box only)

- (9) improve your child's education  
(7) unhappy with school priorities  
(3) wanted to remove school personnel (ex: superintendent)  
(14) improve quality of educational programs in district  
(18) provide representation for a particular interest group in the community

Write any reason you feel more important than those listed:

- 10. How long have you served as a board member or superintendent?

- (5) 1-2 years  
(1) 2-3 years  
(2) 3-4 years  
(6) 4-5 years  
(12) 5-10 years  
(27) 10 or more years

11. How frequent are your regularly scheduled board meetings?

- (52) once per month  
(1) twice per month  
(0) once per week  
(0) twice per week

12. How many superintendents has your district had during the last ten years?

- (16) one  
(15) two  
(14) three  
(6) four  
(2) five or more

13. Do you have children in this school?

- (24) yes (29) no

If you wish an abstract of this study when completed, please send an address (under separate cover) to:

Jerry W. Hill  
 8247 N. 116 E. Ave.  
 Owasso, OK 74055

## Section II

## THE ROTTER BELIEF SCALE

Julian B. Rotter, University of Connecticut

This is a questionnaire to find out the way in which certain important events in our society affect different people. Each item consists of a pair of alternatives lettered "a" or "b". Please select the one statement of each pair (and only one) which you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you're concerned. Be sure to select the one you actually believe to be more true rather than the one you think you should choose or the one you would like to be true. This is a measure of personal belief; obviously there are no right or wrong answers.

Your answer, either "a" or "b" to each question on this inventory, is to be reported beside the question. Please answer these items carefully but do not spend too much time on any one item. Be sure to find an answer for every choice. For each numbered question make an X on the line beside either the "a" or "b", whichever you choose as the statement most true.

In some instances you may discover that you believe both statements or neither one. In such cases, be sure to select the one you more strongly believe to be the case as far as you're concerned. Also try to respond to each item independently when making your choice; do not be influenced by your previous choices.

Remember

Select that alternative which you personally believe to be more true.

I more strongly believe that:

1. (1) a. Children get into trouble because their parents punish them too much. (F)  
(52) b. The trouble with most children nowadays is that their parents are too easy with them. (F)
2. (3) a. Many of the unhappy things in people's lives are partly due to bad luck. (E)  
(50) b. People's misfortunes result from the mistakes they make. (I)
3. (13) a. One of the major reasons why we have wars is because people don't take enough interest in politics. (I)  
(40) b. There will always be wars, no matter how hard people try to prevent them. (E)
4. (31) a. In the long run people get the respect they deserve in this world. (I)  
(22) b. Unfortunately, an individual's worth often passes unrecognized no matter how hard he tries. (E)
5. (35) a. The idea that teachers are unfair to students is nonsense. (I)  
(18) b. Most students don't realize the extent to which their grades are influenced by accidental happenings. (E)
6. (6) a. Without the right breaks one cannot be an effective leader. (E)  
(47) b. Capable people who fail to become leaders have not taken advantage of their opportunities. (I)
7. (25) a. No matter how hard you try some people just don't like you. (E)  
(28) b. People who can't get others to like them don't understand how to get along with others. (I)
8. (5) a. Heredity plays the major role in determining one's personality. (F)  
(48) b. It is one's experiences in life which determine what they're like. (F)

7. (7) a. I have often found that what is going to happen will happen. (E)  
(46) b. Trusting to fate has never turned out as well for me as making a decision to take a definite course of action. (I)
- 10.(41) a. In the case of the well prepared student there is rarely if ever such a thing as an unfair test. (I)  
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- 11.(34) a. Becoming a success is a matter of hard work, luck has little or nothing to do with it. (I)  
(19) b. Getting a good job depends mainly on being in the right place at the right time. (E)
- 12.(43) a. The average citizen can have an influence in government decisions. (I)  
(10) b. This world is run by the few people in power, and there is not much the little guy can do about it. (E)
- 13.(50) a. When I make plans, I am almost certain that I can make them work. (I)  
(3) b. It is not always wise to plan too far ahead because many things turn out to be a matter of good or bad fortune anyhow. (E)
14. (5) a. There are certain people who are just no good. (F)  
(48) b. There is some good in everybody. (F)
- 15.(49) a. In my case getting what I want has little or nothing to do with luck. (I)  
(4) b. Many times we might just as well decide what to do by flipping a coin. (E)
16. (7) a. Who gets to be the boss often depends on who was lucky enough to be in the right place first. (E)  
(46) b. Getting people to do the right thing depends upon ability; luck has little or nothing to do with it. (I)
- 17.(16) a. As far as world affairs are concerned, most of us are the victims of forces we can neither understand, nor control. (E)  
(37) b. By taking an active part in political and social affairs the people can control world events. (I)
- 18.(25) a. Most people can't realize the extent to which their lives are controlled by accidental happenings. (E)  
(28) b. There really is no such thing as "luck". (I)



- 19.(53) a. One should always be willing to admit his mistakes. (F)  
(0) b. It is usually best to cover up one's mistakes. (F)
- 20.(21) a. It is hard to know whether or not a person really likes you. (E)  
(32) b. How many friends you have depends upon how nice a person you are. (I)
- 21.(21) a. In the long run the bad things that happen to us are balanced by the good ones. (E)  
(32) b. Most misfortunes are the result of lack of ability, ignorance, laziness, or all three. (I)
- 22.(41) a. With enough effort we can wipe out political corruption. (I)  
(12) b. It is difficult for people to have much control over the things politicians do in office. (E)
23. (4) a. Sometimes I can't understand how teachers arrive at the grades they give. (E)  
(49) b. There is a direct connection between how hard I study and the grades I get. (I)
- 24.(11) a. A good leader expects people to decide for themselves what they should do. (F)  
(42) b. A good leader makes it clear to everybody what their jobs are. (F)
- 25.(11) a. Many times I feel that I have little influence over the things that happen to me. (E)  
(42) b. It is impossible for me to believe that chance or luck plays an important role in my life. (I)
- 26.(43) a. People are lonely because they don't try to be friendly. (I)  
(10) b. There's not much use in trying too hard to please people, if they like you, they like you. (E)
- 27.(13) a. There is too much emphasis on athletics in high school. (F)  
(40) b. Team sports are an excellent way to build character. (F)
- 28.(42) a. What happens to me is my own doing. (I)  
(11) b. Sometimes I feel that I don't have enough control over the direction my life is taking. (E)

29. (5) a. Most of the time I can't understand why politicians behave the way they do. (E)  
 (48) b. In the long run the people are responsible for bad government on a national as well as on a local level. (I)

(I) Internal  
 (E) External  
 (F) Filler  
 (Not indicated on Board Member's copy)

## Section III

Please circle the appropriate number.

1. During the past five years, how many times have you attended:

## A. The National School Board Convention (NSBA)

$\frac{(30)}{0}$        $\frac{(11)}{1}$        $\frac{(7)}{2}$        $\frac{(4)}{3}$        $\frac{(1)}{4}$        $\frac{(0)}{5}$

## B. The Oklahoma School Board Convention (OSSBA)

$\frac{(5)}{0}$        $\frac{(6)}{1}$        $\frac{(8)}{2}$        $\frac{(3)}{3}$        $\frac{(11)}{4}$        $\frac{(20)}{5}$

## C. Special workshops conducted by the National (NSBA) or the State (OSSBA) Associations

$\frac{(4)}{0}$        $\frac{(6)}{1}$        $\frac{(7)}{2}$        $\frac{(14)}{3}$        $\frac{(3)}{4}$        $\frac{(19)}{5}$

## D. Special workshops provided by your district

$\frac{(8)}{0}$        $\frac{(1)}{1}$        $\frac{(6)}{2}$        $\frac{(6)}{3}$        $\frac{(5)}{4}$        $\frac{(27)}{5}$

2. How many hours per month do you spend reading:

## A. The Oklahoma School Board Journal

$\frac{(1)}{0}$        $\frac{(37)}{1}$        $\frac{(7)}{2}$        $\frac{(5)}{3}$        $\frac{(1)}{4}$        $\frac{(2)}{5}$

## B. The American School Board Journal

$\frac{(13)}{0}$        $\frac{(25)}{1}$        $\frac{(10)}{2}$        $\frac{(3)}{3}$        $\frac{(0)}{4}$        $\frac{(2)}{5}$

## C. Phi Delta Kappan or other education-related materials

$\frac{(12)}{0}$	$\frac{(13)}{1}$	$\frac{(10)}{2}$	$\frac{(4)}{3}$	$\frac{(2)}{4}$	$\frac{(13)}{5}$
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## D. Textbooks related to the operation of schools

$\frac{(7)}{0}$	$\frac{(11)}{1}$	$\frac{(15)}{2}$	$\frac{(2)}{3}$	$\frac{(4)}{4}$	$\frac{(14)}{5}$
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3. How many times each year do you feel your school district should provide workshops for board members?

$\frac{(11)}{0}$	$\frac{(15)}{1}$	$\frac{(19)}{2}$	$\frac{(4)}{3}$	$\frac{(2)}{4}$	$\frac{(2)}{5}$
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Please check the percentage that most clearly represents the amount of time the following activities occur within your district.

4. To what extent does your board of education delegate the executive function of running the school district to the superintendent?

$\frac{(0)}{0\%}$	$\frac{(0)}{1-25\%}$	$\frac{(1)}{26-50\%}$	$\frac{(2)}{51-75\%}$	$\frac{(39)}{76-99\%}$	$\frac{(14)}{100\%}$
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5. How often does information used by board members to make policy decisions come from board-requested oral or written reports prepared by the superintendent or other administrative officers?

$\frac{(0)}{0\%}$	$\frac{(9)}{1-25\%}$	$\frac{(4)}{26-50\%}$	$\frac{(7)}{51-75\%}$	$\frac{(30)}{76-99\%}$	$\frac{(2)}{100\%}$
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6. To what extent do your board members become involved in the daily operation of the school?

$\frac{(12)}{0\%}$	$\frac{(36)}{1-25\%}$	$\frac{(4)}{26-50\%}$	$\frac{(0)}{51-75\%}$	$\frac{(1)}{76-99\%}$	$\frac{(0)}{100\%}$
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7. How often do board members implement the superintendent's policy recommendations in the absence of oral or written reports?

$\frac{(6)}{0\%}$	$\frac{(9)}{1-25\%}$	$\frac{(7)}{26-50\%}$	$\frac{(5)}{51-75\%}$	$\frac{(23)}{76-99\%}$	$\frac{(3)}{100\%}$
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8. How often do board members vote against the superintendent's policy recommendations in favor of special interest groups?

$\frac{(13)}{0\%}$	$\frac{(38)}{1-25\%}$	$\frac{(0)}{26-50\%}$	$\frac{(0)}{51-75\%}$	$\frac{(2)}{76-99\%}$	$\frac{(0)}{100\%}$
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VITA 2

Jerry Wayne Hill

Candidate for the Degree of  
Doctor of Education

Thesis: A STUDY OF LOCUS OF CONTROL AND ATTITUDES AND ROLE PERCEPTIONS OF OKLAHOMA SCHOOL-BOARD MEMBERS AND SUPERINTENDENTS

Major Field: Educational Administration

Biographical:

Personal Data: Born in Stigler, Oklahoma, January 6, 1941, the son of Dorthy L. and William N. Hill. Married to Barbara L. Norman on February 22, 1980.

Education: Graduated from Stigler High School, Stigler, Oklahoma, in May, 1959; received Bachelor of Science in Education degree from Northeastern State College, Tahlequah, Oklahoma, in May, 1963; received Master of Arts degree from University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, New Mexico, in May, 1969; completed requirements for the Doctor of Education degree at Oklahoma State University in May, 1985.

Professional Experience: Classroom Teacher, Lovington Public Schools, Lovington, New Mexico, August, 1963 to June, 1967; Classroom Teacher, Albuquerque Public Schools, Albuquerque, New Mexico, August, 1967 to June, 1969; Teacher of Environmental Education, Albuquerque Public Schools, August, 1969 to June, 1970; Clinical Supervisor, University of New Mexico, Albuquerque, New Mexico, August, 1970 to June, 1971; Elementary Principal, Albuquerque Public Schools, August, 1971 to June, 1973; Assistant Junior High School Principal, Miami Public Schools, Miami, Oklahoma, August, 1973 to June, 1977; Elementary Principal, Commerce Public Schools, Commerce, Oklahoma, August, 1977 to June, 1981; Superintendent, Marland Public Schools, Marland, Oklahoma, July, 1981 to June, 1983; Elementary Principal, Catoosa Public Schools, Catoosa, Oklahoma, July, 1983 to June, 1984; Elementary Principal, Union Public Schools, Tulsa, Oklahoma, July, 1984 to present.