A comprehensive bibliography designed to highlight major issues and assist prospective researchers in the field of school board relationships consists of abstracts of seven dissertations from a series of correlated studies sponsored by the Carnegie Foundation and an annotated bibliography of 204 books, articles, chapters, reports, and theses. Dissertations abstracted include "The Board of Education in the 'Great Cities,' 1890-1946," "A Functional-Systems Analysis of School Board Performance," "Consideration in Administrator Contract Terminations," "Social Status and Conflict Management in Local School Districts," "The Recall Election of School Board Members in California, 1945-1965," "Conflict Resolution and California School Board Recall Elections," and "An Exploration of School Board Decisions." Bibliographic items related to school boards, dating from 1869 to 1966, are classified into one or more of 14 categories—(1) relationships with administrators and teachers; (2) individual characteristics of board members; (3) relationships with community; (4) influences on curricula; (5) decisionmaking processes; (6) member selection and orientation; (7) relationships with state and federal governmental agencies; (8) functions, powers, and responsibilities; (9) predicted and recommended structures and functions; (10) legal constraints; (11) relationships of size and location of school district to board structure and function; (12) local control of education; (13) history of school boards; and (14) research on school boards. (JK)
SCHOOL BOARD BIBLIOGRAPHY

H. Thomas James, Director
School Board Studies
School of Education
Stanford University

1967
TABLE OF CONTENTS

Preface ................................................. 1

Introduction ........................................... 3

Abstract of doctoral dissertation by Joseph Marr Cronin, "The
Board of Education in the 'Great Cities', 1890-1964" .... 10

Abstract of doctoral dissertation by Jay Donald Scribner, "A
Functional-Systems Analysis of School Board Performance" .. 16

Abstract of doctoral dissertation by Frank E. Seeley,
"Consideration in Administrator Contract Terminations" .... 23

Abstract of doctoral dissertation by Abram G. Konrad, "Social
Status and Conflict Management in Local School Districts" .... 30

Abstract of doctoral dissertation by F. Armand Magid, "The Recall
Election of School Board Members in California, 1945-1965" .. 38

Abstract of doctoral dissertation by James A. Kelly, "Conflict
Resolution and California School Board Recall Elections" .. 46

Abstract of doctoral dissertation by Irwin Twining Johnson, "An
Exploration of School Board Decisions" .................. 53

Annotated Bibliography ................................. 62

Index .................................................... 128
PREFACE

During the period 1964-67, the Carnegie Corporation sponsored a series of school board studies at the School of Education, Stanford University. Seven dissertations resulted from the data obtained during the course of the inquiries. Because a substantial portion of time was expended in locating literature germane to school boards, it was decided that an annotated bibliography, compiling diverse and available material, would be undertaken as one of our projects.* We selected for inclusion annotations considered most helpful to prospective researchers. The hazards encountered in accomplishing this task were many. However, despite the risks of inadvertently omitting relevant material, of becoming outdated before publication, and of being constrained by the limitations and influences of authors' interests, we proceeded to compile the bibliography in the hope of facilitating further research on school boards. The bibliography, together with abstracts of the dissertations supported by the Carnegie Corporation, is meant to be a reference guide relevant to school boards.

We are indebted to the many people who assisted in the preparation

* Another project of interest to persons studying school boards includes the 1966 Cubberley Conference, "School Boards in an Era of Conflict." The American School Board Journal 154: 5-42; March 1967, carried the Conference papers.
of this guide. We gratefully acknowledge the assistance and encouragement provided by Lloyd N. Morrisett, Vice President of the Carnegie Corporation. Annotations of the references dealing with school boards, from which the entries in this bibliography were selected, were done by the following members of the School Board Studies staff: Cornelius Butler, Tucker Clark, Carolyn Grant, James Guthrie, Joseph Hannon, Diemut Heller, Irwin Johnson, James Kelly, Kellet Min, Donald Spellman, Jack Thomas, and Carolyn Wood. Clerical services were performed by Coralie Novotny and Elinor Yeates. We received valuable suggestions for this guide from a number of our colleagues. We gratefully acknowledge the assistance of Alan Campbell, Joseph Cronin, Luvern Cunningham, Keith Goldhammer, Ralph Kimbrough, John Mantz, Donald McCarty, David Minor, Richard Rosemiller, and Jay Scribner.

After assessing the foregoing contributions, the director alone is responsible for the contents of this guide.

H. Thomas James
Director
INTRODUCTION

Historical data disclose that over four-fifths of the school districts in this country have disappeared since 1932. There were 127,000 school districts then, and there are less than 25,000 now. The number of citizens serving on boards of education declined by approximately half a million, while pupil populations increased by more than 15 million during the same period. Thus, the average ratio of board members to pupils has shifted from one board member per 46 pupils in 1932 to one member per 300 pupils today.

This remarkable reduction in the number of boards has been accompanied by a change in the basic functions of school boards. A century ago school boards in this country exercised considerable executive as well as legislative authority; policies concerning selection of teachers, administrators, school sites, and school supplies and materials were often decided by the board and then administered by members of the board. Often, board members personally interviewed and employed teachers, decided upon pupil promotion, selected contractors and suppliers, and supervised instruction.

As school systems grew in size and complexity, it became necessary to employ professional staffs to perform some of these administrative tasks. In the latter half of the nineteenth century, boards began to hire professional superintendents of schools as their chief administrators. Concurrently, control of the recruitment of teachers and promotion within the system was wrested from patronage-oriented school boards and placed under the purview of the newly-
appointed superintendents, or in the case of some big cities, into the hands of the professional staffs. Boards' executive functions were thus assumed by professional specialists who pressed to restrict the activities of their boards to "policy-making" as distinguished from administration.

During the last half century we have seen a further propensity toward erosion of board of education powers as a growing body of universalistic policy has been generated at state and national levels. There are indications that as the body of universalistic policy has grown the traditional rule-making function of the board of education has gradually evolved to a rule-application and rule-adjudication function, in which boards mediate the terms for applying general policy to local circumstances.

We began our studies of the structure and function of boards of education with the observation that two-thirds to three-fourths of the variation in school expenditures could be accounted for through a community's socio-economic characteristics, excluding any consideration of school boards and school administrators.¹ Our initial activities focused on the possibility that patterns for recruiting and selecting school board members were related to the unexplained portion of the variations in expenditures among districts.

A case study in a community near Stanford permitted us to identify a number of variables related to school board selection. Forty districts in ten states were then selected for more systematic study; half of the districts selected spent considerably more for education than predicted from their wealth and socio-economic characteristics, and the other half spent considerably less than expected. The results of these initial efforts were both instructive, because they resulted in some new hypotheses, and disappointing, because little evidence was found that the recruitment, selection, or personal characteristics of school board members were associated with higher or lower expenditures. This finding was supported by evidence in a parallel study at Stanford that boards of education in large cities make only relatively minor adjustments in the school budget after it is shaped by the superintendent and his staff. Moreover, Thomas found remarkably high correlations between the socio-economic characteristics of a community's population and achievement test scores in school, again without consideration of the board of education.

These findings led us to question the assumption that alternative

---


arrangements for the structuring of boards have important consequences for their functioning. Since important indicators of system productivity did not appear to be decisively influenced by the structure or actions of boards of education, we re-examined the basic question: "What do school boards actually do?" Again, a case-study approach was utilized. A close working relationship was developed with a nearby board, and we observed the operations of this board over a period of several months. This study suggested that the board spent most of its time in one of two activities: first, performing routine actions required by law or custom but having little consequence for operation of schools; and second, interacting with four major reference groups or agencies (superintendent, teachers, community, and state and federal governmental agencies), and serving as a mediating agency among them. These major groups or agencies were not all active on every issue but would trenchantly communicate their points of view when an issue relevant to their interests was proposed.

In one of the first doctoral dissertations to grow out of our project activities, Cronin provided a historical perspective on the struggle between citizens who demand improvement in educational services and those who demand reduction in the tax burden. Cronin’s study is abstracted in this guide.

We were able to utilize a more theoretical approach to the functioning of boards as a result of the dissertation by Scribner, who applied a typology of the functioning of political systems to the demands made on boards of education. Scribner's study is abstracted in this guide.
Thus, we began to examine the functioning of boards as political phenomena, focusing on occasions when the board interacted with one or more of its major reference groups. To study these interactions we needed either a large number of school districts, or symptoms which would assist us to identify districts where the boards were not merely ritualistically approving monthly bills, but were actually involved in an on-going set of interactions. Our search for such symptoms led us to the subject of conflict.

School boards often are in conflict with their superintendents. We have included in this guide an abstract of Seeley's study of school board-superintendent conflict. Seeley examined characteristics of the board, community, and superintendent in districts where superintendents' contracts had been terminated by cash settlement. Another kind of conflict involves boards with teacher organizations. This type of controversy is further complicated because it may encompass conflict within a conflict, such as teachers against board, and teachers against teachers. In his study of school board-teacher conflict, Konrad chose, as a system of such conflict, investigations within local school systems conducted by the California Teachers Association's Personnel Standards Commission. An abstract of Konrad's study is included in this guide.

A frequent observation in school board meetings was boards in conflict with their electors. The symptom we chose to indicate high conflict intensity in this dimension was the recall election. In another doctoral dissertation abstracted herein, Magid identified factors related to both the incidence and the success of school board
member recall elections in California. In a pioneering study of conflict, an abstract of which is also presented in this guide, Kelly developed a theory for predicting levels of conflict intensity and tested the predictions against actual school board member recall situations in California.

Yet a fourth area of conflict involved the board and other agencies of government with which it dealt—county, state, and federal. These involvements typically were matters in which the school board felt its proper control of local affairs was threatened. For example, the threat of the county superintendent of schools to appoint a replacement for a resigning board member, the state auditor's criticism of district bookkeeping procedures, and the federal government's refusal to approve a local district application for federal aid, caused friction between the school board and the agency involved. In a study related to this general area of school board action, Johnson explored the relationship between school board decisions on whether or not to apply for federal aid, and selected characteristics of (1) the districts, (2) individual board members and superintendents, (3) the boards as units, and (4) the decision-making processes. An abstract of Johnson's study is the last of the series of abstracts presented in this guide.

Following the seven abstracts, we have included annotations of 204 books, articles, chapters, reports, or theses. Each entry has been classified as dealing either directly ("A") or indirectly ("B") with school boards. Additionally, each entry has been classified into one or more of 14 categories. The categories are:
1. School board relationships with administrators and teachers.
2. Individual characteristics of school board members.
3. School board relationships with community.
4. School board influences on curricula.
5. School board decision-making processes.
6. School board member selection and orientation.
7. School board relationships with state and federal governmental agencies.
8. Functions, powers, and responsibilities of school boards.
9. Predicted and recommended school board structures and functions.
10. Legal constraints on school board activities.
11. Relationships of size and location of school district to school board structure and function.
12. Local control of education.
13. History of school boards.

Each citation is numbered, according to alphabetical order. Each citation is followed by an annotation. Each annotation is followed by the classification code ("A" or "B") and the category code.

An index has been included at the end of the guide listing each of the 14 categories followed by the identifying numbers of all entries that deal with that category.
The Problem

States and large cities have altered their arrangements for recruiting and selecting city school board members over the past seventy-five years. The changes have often been part of a larger reorganization of city school board structures and functions.

Most educational authorities and groups have advocated an elective school board and the great majority of school boards in the United States are elected. However, the larger the city the greater the possibility that the board will be appointed rather than elected.

This study was designed to:

1. To determine whether the mode of selection to the school board is related to the type of functions assigned to it.
2. To discover the conditions under which the school board structure fails to perform its functions in a way or at a level acceptable to the citizens of the city or to the state.
3. To determine whether the school board reorganizations change the capability or functioning of the structure.
4. To discover to what extent, if at all, the differing school board structures restrict or circumscribe the performance of functions, or whether other variables must be identified in order to explain the variations in the manner or level of performance.

The specific questions studied are -- What structures for the selection of city school board members have emerged in the large city school systems; and have changes in functions been associated with changes in structure? The proposition that changes in structures are accompanied by changes in functions can be stated as a null hypothesis:

The elective and appointive boards, despite variations in the way in which members are selected, do not perform different functions nor do they perform major functions differently in the governing of large city school systems.

The following questions are germane to this inquiry:

1. What different arrangements exist for the selection of city school board members among the various "Great Cities?"

2. Under what circumstances have structures for the selection of board members been unable to perform their prescribed legal functions?

3. Do the number or kinds of functions assigned to the school board vary in the different city school systems?

4. What alterations and innovations in the structure of the school boards have been adopted over time, and to what degree have these survived and persisted?
5. In practice, what individuals or groups in the cities under study assume responsibility for the functioning of the selection process?

The Methodology of the Study

The fourteen "Great Cities" discussed in this study were selected on the basis of membership on the Research Council of the Great Cities Program for School Improvement. The cities are:

Baltimore  Detroit  Philadelphia
Boston      Houston  Pittsburgh
Buffalo     Los Angeles  San Francisco
Chicago     Milwaukee  St. Louis
Cleveland   New York

The approach is historical, augmented by an exploratory analysis of the structures and functions of the school boards of the "Great Cities." The origins of city school boards in the nineteenth century are traced through the 1890's, when a large number of reorganizations took place. Changes in the structure of each city school board are examined as they took place in the late nineteenth and early twentieth centuries. The school board structures, categorized by the mode of board member selection, are matched with selected major financial and personnel functions at three points: 1900, 1920, and 1961.

The data obtained on these cities were collected by members of the staff engaged in the U.S. Office of Education Cooperative Research Project No. 2389 at Stanford University. The author used information from books, dissertations, annual reports and journal articles to trace the history of the city schools, their school boards...
and administrations, from the early nineteenth century to the present. Those data have been supplemented by documents, newspaper reports, school surveys, biographies and general works on the cities and on the history of city school education in the United States. Additional information was obtained through correspondence, visits to several cities, and through personal interviews.

Findings and Conclusions

Regarding structures:

1. School board reorganizations in the "Great Cities" were very much related to the municipal reform movements of the period 1890 to 1915; for the most part they were little affected by the "efficiency" era after 1910, and were hardly influenced at all by the severe criticisms voiced about city school boards in the 1920's.

2. Most of the appointive and elective boards at one time provided for ward or district representation on the boards, which swelled the size of the boards and was often accompanied by graft and corruption. The elective boards are now chosen at large.

3. The appointive boards in this study are now selected either by mayors, with assistance from nominating panels or with ratification by the voters or city councils, or by the judges of the courts. Several other methods have been tried and abandoned.

4. Since 1944, in some cities where the board has been appointive the "nominating panel" has emerged as a device for
assisting the mayor in the selection of candidates. This innovation has been sufficiently well-received that other cities have considered adopting similar arrangements.

5. The majority of cities appear satisfied with the present arrangements for selecting board members, but various citizen groups in five of the cities have proposed further changes. Meanwhile, boards and superintendents in several cities, after evaluating earlier decisions to centralize the school government, have developed several devices aimed at decentralizing the city school administration.

Regarding functions:

Both the elective and appointive school boards in the "Great Cities" perform the same functions. However, several of the major functions are performed in different ways by the different structures:

1. Most appointive boards must submit budgets and construction programs to city officials for approval. Most elective boards do not need approval for their budgets and construction programs, but can spend money only within limits set by the state, or by the voters of the city, or sometimes both.

2. Neither appointive nor elective boards in the "Great Cities" select "outsiders" as often as they select "insiders" to be superintendents of school. But, of the two types of big city boards, the appointive boards more often select an outsider. The elective boards will sometimes promote assistant or
associate superintendents who at one time served as superintendents elsewhere.

3. Certain latent or unintended functions are implicitly served by the selection patterns. In several cities the board appointment process serves the latent purpose of recognizing the political aspirations and claims of minority groups and of balancing the interests of the dominant religious, national and ethnic groups.

4. Most of the board reorganizations have been brought about under the slogan, "remove the schools from politics."

However, school board selection processes do serve certain political functions such as protecting the professional staff from a variety of pressures, while enabling citizen groups or individuals to gain access to the decision-making processes of the city school systems.

Except for the two cities which have added "nominating panels," no major changes in city school board structures have been made since 1923. Citizens dissatisfied with the selection procedures have in some cities used citizen leagues or other reform groups to place candidates on the school board. When citizen groups are apathetic, labor unions and political parties often recruit members to serve on both elective and appointive boards.
A FUNCTIONAL-SYSTEMS ANALYSIS OF SCHOOL BOARD PERFORMANCE

Abstract of Ed. D. Dissertation
Stanford University, 1966

by

Jay Donald Scribner

The Research Problem

The purpose of this study was: (1) to develop a set of concepts for classifying events related to the performance of school boards; (2) to specify properties of the concepts; and (3) to ascertain the applicability and utility of the functional-systems approach presented in the study for future research in the field of educational administration.

The importance of the study was seen as twofold: First, it was an attempt to provide a way of systematically analyzing the performance of the school board as it interacts with its environment during the decision and policy-making processes. Second, it was an attempt to determine the applicability of a theoretically based approach that differs somewhat from the frameworks that are currently being utilized for the scrutiny of administrators and administrative structures.

The Research Questions

The research questions for this study were divided into a conceptual and an empirical question. The conceptual question was: Does the framework proposed in this study adequately encompass the
activites occurring within the subsystem of the school board and between it and other systems? The empirical question was: Can the concepts developed in this study be utilized to examine systematically the performance of the school board?

The Research Procedure

This study employed an exploratory method for collecting and analyzing data. The conceptual classifications that served as a framework for compiling and analyzing the data were derived from a political science framework. Data were provided from public records (the school board minutes, letters to the board, and policy manual) in the school system of the community of Palo Alto, California. The purpose of the first part of the study was to determine the various kinds of factual referents for each concept. The data provided in this phase of the study, however, should not be considered exhaustive. For this reason, the political science framework was adapted and refined as a tentative approach for examining the performance of the school board subsystem.

The procedure of the second part of the study was to denote the occurrence of each specified action appearing in the board minutes of six selected meetings, and to classify and record the frequency of the various actions in accordance with the working definitions presented in the first part of the study. Each sentence in the board minutes was examined and the action or theme was extracted and recorded in sequence of occurrence. Hence, any action performed by a member of the school board subsystem and indicated in the board minutes was classified in terms of the definitions referred to earlier.
The Framework

The focus of this study was on classifying data within the limits of several concepts drawn from a political science framework developed by Professor Gabriel Almond of Stanford University for the comparative study of political systems in developing nations. An attempt was made to refine and adapt this framework to the study of school board performance. Specifically, subclasses of inputs (demands: extractive, symbolic, participative and regulative; supports: material, obedience and deference), outputs (extractions, symbols, regulations and allocations), political functions (articulation and aggregation), and governmental functions (rule making, rule application and rule adjudication) comprised the set of concepts developed in this study. The political and governmental functions were referred to as conversion functions because the performance of these functions by a structure such as the school board was assumed to be necessary for converting demands from the environment into outputs for the environment.

The Conceptual Question: Summary of Findings

1. Extractive, symbolic and regulative demands were indicated in the documentary materials used in this study.

2. Demands for participation in the functions of the school board did not appear in the sources of data.

3. While material supports, appearing in the form of gifts, revenue and the like, were found readily, supports of obedience and deference could not be found in the documentary materials used in this study.
4. Unclassifiable data were found in the form of admiration, appreciation, and praise directed toward the local school board. These data were classified as evaluative supports.

5. Articulated demands (board members stating the demands of others in the environment) and self-initiated demands (board members responding with personal demands within the system) were found in the sources of data.

6. Several demands were expressed for which it could not be determined from the sources of data used in this study as to whether they were articulated or self-initiated.

7. Aggregated demands or demands related to the same issue that are negotiated and combined into a single demand were not found in the documentary materials.

8. Items were found for both rule application and rule making in the board minutes. These were discovered from an examination of the motions passed during the school board meetings.

9. Only one example of rule adjudication could be found in the sources of data used in this study.

10. The communication function occurred in the form of information provided by school board members and information requested by school board members relative to a specific input requiring governmental action.

11. After inferring outputs from governmental acts performed by the school board, it was found that extractions, regulations and symbols were identifiable, but allocations were undetectable in the minutes of the school board meetings.
The Empirical Question: Summary of Findings

1. The sources of demands and supports were the environing society, the subordinate school system and within the school board subsystem.

2. Extractive demands occurred more frequently than did either symbolic or regulative demands. Extractive demands occurred in each of the meetings under study, and symbolic demands occurred in only a few of these meetings.

3. Material and evaluative supports were found in a relatively few cases during the board meetings under study. No attempt was made to break down the yearly budget in terms of the demands and supports implicit in the completed document.

4. Articulated and self-initiated demands were found in comparable frequencies during the board meetings under examination. Approximately twenty percent of the actions transmitting inputs into the system, however, were undeterminable as to which kind of function they performed for the system.

5. The items recorded for rule application outnumbered those corresponding to rule making by eight to one.

6. Communicative actions were performed at a ratio of two-thirds more than all other actions occurring during the board meetings under study.

7. The kinds of outputs corresponded to the different kinds of inputs flowing through the system, but their frequencies differed because a few demands were evidently disposed of or
Concluding Remarks

The concepts and their properties presented in this study resulted in more refined and operational categories for future research into the performance of school boards. A few concepts were unverified in the sources of data used in this study. This implies that a different approach or technique is required for attempting to determine the utility of certain concepts for future research.

In regard to the applicability of the framework, it was found that the amount and kind of data found in the board minutes for the meetings under scrutiny varied considerably. In future studies, it was suggested that some of the concepts be examined closely as to whether they might be more useful if subdivisions or different classes were formed within the large portions of data representing them. An example of this would be the concept of communication, or the transmission of or the request for information regarding a particular demand. The largest proportion of data found in this study corresponded to this latter concept.

Hence, studies need to be conducted in several communities by several investigators or coders to determine the degree of consistency of the framework in producing comparable data for specific concepts. The concepts that remain after some additional exploratory study has been made of school boards in different communities should be valuable in studying administrative structures, similar to the school board, at all levels of the governmental structure of public education.

Ultimately, it is hoped that valuable insights, and indeed
explanations and predictions, will be derived from examining the relationships between variations in performances of school boards in their posture as political and governmental mechanisms and the kinds of outputs and outcomes that are provided by them for school systems and the larger society.
In spite of the need for employment stability among superintendents, most students of educational administration are reluctant to recommend outright tenure. The idea clashes with the principle of democratic responsiveness. Wide agreement exists that the single most important act of a school board is the selection of a superintendent. This selection, and the implicit right of discharge that would logically accompany it, is certainly the most decisive way of influencing what happens in a school district.

California law has mediated between these polar needs by providing a compulsory four-year contract term for city superintendents. This arrangement provides a period of stability for the new employee, but allows the board of education to select a new superintendent following this term. While this provision represents a compromise, it has not operated without conflict. This study dealt with cases of such extreme conflict within this formula that district boards elected to purchase the remaining period of the superintendent's contract in order to reassert their prerogative of selecting another leader for the district.

Section 1534 of the Education Code of California specifies that city school superintendents must be elected for a term of four years.
Non-city superintendents and others in the superintendent category may be elected for four years according to this same statute.

With numerous superintendents in the state being elected for more than single year terms, difficulties arise with the advent of a dispute or a case in which the board of education loses confidence in the person who holds the position. Court interpretations in such cases as *Titus v. Lawndale School District*, (157 C.A.2d 822, 322 P2d 56 (1958)), have led to the belief that it is virtually impossible to discharge a superintendent without gross acts on his part.

It was known that in some of these cases the school district settled the problem in such situations by offering consideration to the superintendent if he would agree to leave his position. The purpose of this study was to discover the extent of this practice and then explore the character of the communities where it took place to determine what commonalities might exist among such districts.

The initial step was to survey county superintendents to ask for information about cases in each of the counties. All but one county superintendent who was asked responded to the request. Most of them reported that no contracts had been purchased over the past decade in their counties. Many of them indicated that legal interpretations of the Education Code in their counties made it illegal to purchase a contract.

Using the data provided in this survey it was possible to identify thirty-seven cases in which consideration was paid over an eleven year period. Other cases were eliminated when they failed to involve a superintendent who fell under at least the permissive
provisions of Section 1534.

Once these cases were identified, it was possible to collect information from census and state reports about both the communities and the school districts themselves. Information about cost per pupil, assessed valuation per pupil, average daily attendance, median family income, educational level of the community, nature of the work force, percent of foreign born, and other detail about the mobility of the population was secured. A second group of school districts was selected by random methods to match with the districts identified above for statistical comparison. They were matched by school district type and average daily attendance in 1949-50.

The California Association of School Administrators agreed to underwrite a survey of all non-city districts in the state over 250 in average daily attendance. The purpose of this post-card study was to determine the effect of Section 1534 on the employment length of superintendents whose employment term was not mandated by the above statute. The 90 percent response to the survey showed that 56 percent of all contracts in these districts of the state were for four years. In districts over 1000 average daily attendance, 66 percent of the contracts were for four years. In districts of 2500 or more students, 82 percent had contracts of that length.

In brief, the usual situation in California districts is to hire a superintendent for more than one year at a time, and most often, for four years even when not required by statute. Thus, it was concluded that the effect of Section 1534, with its mandatory four year term for city superintendents, is to force most other districts that do not
fall within its mandatory provisions to grant multi-year contracts.

Two questionnaires were prepared to gather additional information about the nature of contract purchase. One was to be sent to the districts where these events occurred. The second questionnaire was intended to be sent to the former superintendent who was the central figure of the event in question.

Three of the former questionnaires were sent to each of the districts where a purchase of contract had been reported. The present superintendent was asked to give one to a teacher, one to an administrator, and one to a board member who had been associated with the district at the time of the purchase. A return of 33 percent was received from this survey. Despite assurances of anonymity, many persons were unwilling to commit themselves about the events they had witnessed. They were asked to respond to a series of questions intended to reveal some details about the nature of the operation in the school district such as the way in which the board had conducted its business.

The replies showed numerous indications of operations that would not qualify as good practice. For example, many of them reported that boards had involved themselves in administrative matters in violation of commonly accepted principles. Most of those who returned the questionnaires indicated that the greatest area of failure among superintendents was in human relations. They felt that better public and staff relations, selection of more competent assistants, slower movement toward goals, and cooperation with the board might have made it possible for this event to be avoided. Opinion was divided as to
the long term effect that purchase of contract had upon the school district.

One of the most revealing parts of the study came when an attempt was made to locate the individuals who had made settlements with school districts. Of the thirty-seven cases identified, only twenty could be located. Most unusual was the fact that of the twenty, only six could be found listed in the Directory of Administrative and Supervisory Personnel of California School Districts. All of them had been listed there originally and, since all such personnel in the state of the rank of principal and above are listed, it is indicative of the injurious effect of this experience upon the careers of many of those who were involved. Of those located, only six usable questionnaires were returned. There appeared to be no consistent pattern in these replies. When compared with the responses of others from the same district, the answers to the questions did not differ widely. Several of them reported that they had not suffered professionally from the experience.

The problem of comparing school district costs and resources when they were highly divergent in type, and the events that had occurred over a span of ten years, was handled by computing state and district costs per pupil for the year of the event. The same process was followed in regard to assessed valuation per child. Ratios were computed between the state mean in these categories and the local district statistic.

The following categories showed statistically significant differences between study districts and matched districts of similar
average daily attendance:

1. Higher percent of average daily attendance growth.
2. Higher median family income.
3. Higher percent of industrial workers.
4. Higher percent of children 14 to 17 in school.
5. Higher assessed valuation per child.

Of these characteristics, the author considered the rate of growth in subject districts as the most important single statistical revelation of the study. Subject districts grew approximately two and one half times as much in a decade as the average for the state. Presumably, the stress attending rapid growth was an important factor in many districts where contract purchases occurred. Statistically, this factor of growth was found to be significant at the .001 level.

Consideration of the factors surrounding the cases themselves led to a conclusion that, from the standpoint of the superintendent, there were three categories of contract purchase. There were:

1. Superintendents who were victims of rapid district growth or unification problems.
2. Superintendents who were victims of their own ineptitude or grossly bad human relations.
3. Superintendents who were victims of arbitrary board or community factions that obtained power to force removal from office.

Several conclusions touching school board-superintendent relations are suggested by this study:

1. Better selection procedures for superintendents could often
prevent conflict. The key factor here is that he should be hired for the district as it will be tomorrow, not for the district as it has been to the present time.

2. Holding school board operations to standards of good practice can reduce conflict.

3. A period of employment security, as provided in California law for city superintendents, is a beneficial arrangement.

4. Settlement procedures for board-superintendent conflicts are needed.
School boards encounter conflict as an integral part of managing school systems. Not all systems, however, respond equally well to conflict. When a school board fails to manage conflict, it may become dysfunctional. On the other hand, when conflict is managed successfully, it may lead to an increasing adaptability of the system to the competing expectations of its publics.

This study examined investigations conducted by the California Teachers Association Personnel Standards Commission in terms of conflict management. CTA investigations can be regarded as an indication of unmanaged conflict within the local school system. Such investigations occur only after local efforts to resolve conflict result in deadlock, and the continuous state of unresolved conflict threatens to jeopardize the school system. It was assumed that school boards inviting and receiving CTA investigations lack resources and skills sufficient to manage competing expectations within the school systems, while boards not requesting such assistance possess adequate skills to resolve internal conflict.

The study focused on the utility of social status and selected structural variables of communities, boards, and professional
educators to discriminate between school boards that manage conflict and those that do not. To test the thesis that high-status-board districts possess greater conflict-management skills than do low-status-board districts, a sample of matched conflict and nonconflict California school districts was studied.

METHODOLOGY

An examination of CTA investigation reports yielded a sample of thirty-five conflict districts for 1957-1964. A control sample of thirty-five nonconflict districts was chosen by random procedures. The file reports also were analyzed to determine the nature and initiators of the CTA investigations.

The variables in this study were:

\[ x_1: \text{Social Rank Score of community} \]
\[ x_2: \text{Index of Social Position of school board} \]
\[ x_3: \text{Mean teachers' salary level} \]
\[ x_4: \text{Percent ADA growth during preceding five-year period} \]
\[ x_5: \text{Mean years board service} \]
\[ x_6: \text{Percent teachers' salary increase during preceding five-year period} \]

The first three variables were classified as social status variables, while the last three served as structural variables.

FINDINGS

Preliminary Observations

Thirty-five CTA investigation reports were examined in this
study. While many investigations focused on several problems, fifteen primarily involved interrelationships of the board, including a confusion of roles and/or a lack of policy. Seventeen studies focused on the ethics of teachers, while three cases dealt primarily with conflicting community demands upon the school system. Over 70 percent of the investigations were initiated by teachers, while school boards and citizen groups took the initiative in the remaining instances.

Almost two-thirds of the CTA investigations were held in elementary school districts, only four in unified school districts. The studies occurred significantly more often in school districts above than below the state median size. Although no studies were conducted in the very large Californic districts, only two took place in districts below the state median size for each type of district. Background data of school board members in all seventy districts were obtained with a survey questionnaire.

**Intercorrelations**

Zero-order correlation coefficients for the six variables for both conflict and nonconflict districts were low. Only three reached statistical significance at the .05 level or above. No intercorrelation differences between the two groups were statistically significant. In conflict districts, the strongest relationship of .42 was observed between community and board social status. A somewhat lower and still positive correlation (.33) was found between community social status and percent-ADA growth. For nonconflict districts, this latter was the strongest relationship (.48). A high, but inverse, association between community social status and mean years board service of -.37 suggested a greater community interest in the schools.

Within social status variables, community and board measures
showed a positive relationship (.42 and .21 for conflict and nonconflict districts, respectively), but the teacher variable failed to reflect a significant association with any other variable. None of the structural variables were intercorrelated. Both community (.33 and .48, respectively) and board (.24 and .12, respectively) social status and structural variables were directly associated. But again, no correlation was observed between these variables on the teacher dimension.

Differences of Means

A study of the differences of means of the six variables provided support for the major thesis of this study: conflict occurs most frequently in school districts with lower social status scores and structural characteristics that counteract conflict management. Only two differences, mean years board service and percent ADA growth showed statistical significance at the .01 level. Contrary to expectations, percent teachers' salary increase was higher in conflict districts. Financial matters seem to play an insignificant role in conflict situations, at least in CTA investigations.

Discriminant Analyses

Discriminant analyses of the data were performed to investigate the utility of the social status and structural variables in distinguishing between conflict and nonconflict school districts. Using community, board, and teacher social status variables, the discriminant analysis failed to produce a statistically significant function. But this analysis was significant at the .05 level when
high- and low-status-board-conflict districts were treated separately. The major hypothesis that the ability of the school board to manage conflict relates to its aggregate social status was not confirmed for the total sample in this study.

Several further analyses confirmed the earlier observation that structural variables distinguished effectively between the two groups. So also did combinations of social status and structural variables on both community and board dimensions. On the teacher dimension, however, no significant discrimination was obtained.

All pairs of social status variables failed to discriminate between conflict and nonconflict school districts. On the contrary, however, all pairs of structural variables produced linear functions that were statistically significant.

A stepwise discriminant analysis provided further insight into the importance of different variables in discriminating between the two groups. Variables in order from the most to the least important in distinguishing conflict from nonconflict school districts were: mean years board service, percent ADA growth, community social rank, percent teachers' salary increase, board social position, and mean teachers' salary.

Conflict districts were best discriminated from nonconflict districts with the combination of social status and structural variables, excluding the teacher social status measurement. In conclusion, the findings of this study show that structural variables distinguish much more effectively between conflict and nonconflict school districts than do social status variables.
IMPLICATIONS

Conflict Management

The findings of this study clearly suggest that structural characteristics rather than social status variables discriminate between conflict and nonconflict districts. Social status is not a good indicator of the ability of a governing board to manage conflict within a school system. Conflict management appears to be not so much a function of the incumbents as it is of the structures surrounding them. To identify the sore spots of a system, one should focus upon its structural characteristics.

This is not to suggest, however, that incumbents are resolved of all responsibility for unmanaged conflict. On the contrary, to identify the sore spots of a system itself requires erudite study. It takes time to gain insight into the internal problems of a school system. That the preponderance of CTA investigations involved interrelationships between the board, superintendent, principals, and teachers suggests a need for understanding the dynamics of personnel relations. Boardmanship is more than balancing the budget. Policy formation and the articulation of clear lines of communication lie within the purview of the school board.

This study's findings also imply a need for greater flexibility in conflict management. Rapidly growing districts are potential 'hotbeds' for conflict; school board members, as well as administrators, must apply the dynamics of demographic information to their tasks. Similarly, this study shows that some communities are more prone to conflict than others. Taking community social status
into account, together with the structural characteristics of the community and/or board, might aid considerably in conflict management. In a more heterogeneous community, this variable probably would take on even greater significance.

What are the implications of the finding that only a minority of investigations focused on curriculum matters? Clearly the community-initiated studies suggest that these issues are central to the schools. Are governing boards and professional educators satisfied with the status quo or have they perhaps mutually agreed not to deal with these matters? How much time do governing boards devote to building a philosophy of education?

That CTA investigations predominantly occur in slightly above middle-sized elementary school districts does not imply that small and large districts are without conflict. It might suggest, however, that they possess adequate resources and skills to manage conflict without outside assistance. Another plausible explanation suggests that small districts might successfully resolve their problems with the limited aid of CTA staff members, and not request formal investigations. Large districts, on the other hand, might resolve conflict by obtaining professional counsel directly, rather than through CTA channels.

Finally, an implication grows out of this study that suggests the utility of social conflict. The intercorrelations between community and board social status, community social status and percent salary increase, board social status and both mean years board service and percent ADA growth all were positive and higher in conflict than in
nonconflict districts. To a degree, at least, these findings suggest that conflict districts focused on problems in a positive sense. That is, conflict itself served to rally the incumbents around certain sore spots within the system.

Further Research

The contributions of this study have been noted and some implications of the findings have been outlined. Like most inquiry, however, this study raises several questions for further research.

1. Would results similar to those achieved in this study have been obtained from school districts in small homogeneous communities or in large urban centers? Clearly, most school systems encounter conflict; what combinations of social status and structural variables discriminate best between conflict and nonconflict districts in such areas?

2. Can a technique be devised for measuring conflict intensity in school systems? Or on the other hand, are this study's results replicable by using some other criterion of conflict?

3. Is the degree and nature of specific training for school board membership relevant to conflict management?

4. What is the role of the superintendent of schools in conflict management within a school system? In particular, how do diverse orientations of superintendents affect this role?

5. What is the effect of conflict upon school system goals?
The recall election is a political device utilized to remove elected public officials prior to the completion of their statutory terms of office. Comparatively little research has been done on the recall of elected public officials. While this study traced the general history of recall elections, particular attention was paid to attempts to recall school board members in California during the period 1945 through 1965. Following historical review, the study sought to isolate correlates of both the incidence and success of recall elections during this period. Two general research questions were raised in this study:

I. Did recall elections of school board members in elementary, high school, and unified school districts in California in the period 1945-65 occur in proportions equal to the proportions of districts in the various categories examined?

II. Did recall elections of school board members in elementary, high school, and unified school districts succeed in equal proportions in districts in the various categories examined?

Six research sub-questions were raised for each general research question. These research sub-questions tested the relationship of six
variables to both incidence and success of school board recall elections. The six variables may be classified as four situational and two temporal. The situational variables were district type, district size, district wealth, and district current operating expenditures. The temporal variables were the segments of the 20-year period and the time of year they occurred.

First, the study determined whether school districts in which recall elections had occurred differed from non-recall districts and whether time was related to incidence. The first four research sub-questions dealt with the relationship of incidence of recall elections to the situational variables. The next two research sub-questions were concerned with the relationships between the temporal variables and the incidence of recall elections. Then the study focused on the success of recall elections. Four research sub-questions dealt with the relationship of the success of recall elections to the situational variables. The last two research sub-questions were concerned with the temporal variables and the success of recall elections.

Historical Overview

The history of the recall mechanism begins with the provision, in the Articles of Confederation, for removal of delegates from the Congress. The omission of the recall from the United States Constitution led to efforts to block ratification of the Constitution in several states. It was not until the beginning of the twentieth century that interest in the recall election was revived. Several minor political parties associated with the Progressive Movement
included the initiative, referendum, and recall among their proposals for reform of local and state government.

The recall election in its present form was borrowed from the Swiss Cantonal Constitutions by Dr. John K. Haynes, prominent Los Angeles physician, real estate promoter, and politician. He was instrumental in persuading the voters to incorporate the recall into the Los Angeles City Charter in 1903. In the following year, 1904, Los Angeles held the first recall election in the United States.

The use of the recall elections in California between 1903 and 1911 was restricted to charter cities. The voters incorporated the recall into the California State Constitution in 1911. General law city officials, officers of special districts, and state elected officers, in addition to charter city officers, at that time became subject to being recalled. The recall election was used only seven times against school trustees during the period 1911 through 1945.

Uncertainty as to whether school board members were subject to the recall was resolved by the California Legislature in a 1945 amendment to the Education Code. In the period 1945 through 1965 there were 100 school board recall elections in California. Seventy-eight were in elementary school districts, 11 in high school districts, and 11 in unified school districts.

Data Gathering Procedures and Statistical Techniques

The data on recall elections reported in this study were obtained through correspondence with the 58 county superintendents of schools in California, the California State Department of Education, and professional teacher and administrator organizations. Preliminary
inquiries directed to these individuals and agencies revealed that none maintained a complete listing of all school board recall elections that occurred in California between 1945 and 1965.

After completing the collection of all possible data about the incidence, timing, and success of recall elections, the next phase of the data collection process involved the use of published and unpublished reports prepared by the California State Department of Education. Data on average daily attendance, equalized assessed valuation, and current district operating expenditures per pupil were gathered, for the years in which recall elections occurred, for each district which had undergone one or more recall elections. These districts were then classified either above or below the median, for each variable, for the years in which particular recall elections occurred.

The median was selected for two reasons. First, the median was used to compensate for changes in the numbers of school districts. There were fewer districts in existence in California at the end of the 20-year period than at the beginning of the 20-year period, because of the trend towards consolidation of small elementary and high school districts into fewer unified school districts. Second, the median was used because the accumulated data revealed wide ranges in size, wealth, and expenditures among California school districts. The median eliminated the undue influence that extreme cases might have on the distributions of the recall and non-recall districts if some other measure had been used.

After completing the calculations of the median, Chi-square tests
were applied to the collected data--either the Test of Independence or the Test of Goodness of Fit. The research sub-questions testing the relationships between incidence of recall elections and type of district, size of district, and segments of the 20-year period were examined using the Chi-square Test of Independence. The other three incidence sub-questions and all six success sub-questions were examined using the Chi-square Test of Goodness of Fit. To use the Chi-square tests, contingency tables were constructed, from which the expected frequencies of occurrence and success were calculated.

Findings

Five significant relationships were identified. Incidence was related to district type, district size, the segments (four five-year divisions) of the 20-year period, and time of year (divided into the four calendar quarters); and success was related to time of year. In these five questions in which the null hypothesis was rejected at the .95 level, school recall elections either did not occur in proportions equal to the proportions of districts in each category, or did not succeed in equal proportions in the categories examined.

School board recall elections occurred proportionately more often in unified districts than in elementary and high school districts. Recalls occurred in the greatest proportionate frequency in the largest district size category (over 4,999 A.D.A.), and in the least proportionate frequency in the smallest size category (1-199 A.D.A.). The incidence of school board recall elections in California increased during the 20-year period, although the number of local public school districts in the state decreased. Thirty-eight of the 100 recalls
occurred during the most recent five years of the 20-year period studied. Disproportionately large numbers of recall elections occurred during the second and third calendar quarters of the year -- 40 percent and 36 percent of the 92 recalls for which election dates were reported took place during the Spring and Summer quarters, respectively. School board recall elections did not succeed in equal proportions during the four calendar quarters of the year. Of the 92 elections for which results were reported, 43, or 47 percent, succeeded -- that is, one or more board members were removed from office. Sixty-two percent of Spring recall elections were successful and 50 percent of Winter elections succeeded, but only 33 percent of Summer elections and 30 percent of Autumn elections resulted in the removal from office of one or more board members. Thus, not only did more school board recall elections occur during the Spring quarter than any other quarter of the year, but also Spring quarter elections succeeded proportionately most often.

Neither incidence nor success of recall elections was found to be related to district wealth and district current operating expenditures. In addition, success was not found to be related to district type, district size, and the segments of the 20-year period.

Conclusions Drawn from This Study and Implications for Further Research

The observed unrelatedness to school board recall elections of certain variables studied may be as important as the relationships identified. We have established here that the school district wealth and expenditures variables, which were significant in James's School Finance Studies, were not significantly related to either the
incidence or success of school board recall elections. We did find that size was related to the occurrence of recall elections; however, size was not related to the success of these elections.

One conclusion drawn from the examination of the results of five of the six success questions was that at the present time there is no effective method by which success or failure of school board recall elections can be predicted. There is a need for further study of factors affecting success of recall elections.

Time of year was the only variable to which both incidence and success of school board recall elections were found to be related. We can offer no satisfactory explanation for this dual relationship. There is a need for further research on the timing of recall elections.

The relationships noted between incidence of recall elections and district type, district size, and the segments of the 20-year period should be examined, in future research efforts, in the light of changes that occurred in the organization of California school districts between 1945 and 1965. The consolidation of many smaller districts into fewer, larger districts has been accompanied by an increase in school board recall elections, which have tended to occur in larger districts and in unified districts.

This study did not deal with the concept of community conflict, although the recall election is an obvious symptom of such conflict. In order to increase our understanding of community conflict involving school boards, studies should be undertaken which (1) explore conflict issues upon which school board recall campaigns are based; (2) identify and seek to isolate correlates of other symptoms of school
board-community conflict; (3) examine school board recall elections within the sociological construct of political activism; (4) examine the personal characteristics of individuals actively involved in school board recall elections; and (5) test the effects of not only the incidence of school board recall elections but also the success of such elections upon the educational achievement of children.
The purpose of this study was to examine the California school board recall election as a mechanism for the resolution of conflict. A conflict resolution theory was tested which suggested that the school board recall election campaign intensifies rather than resolves conflict. The study was designed to indicate how well the stipulated theory of conflict resolution accounts for conflict intensity trends observed in a sample of recall cases. Quantitative observations of the level of conflict intensity were examined before, during, and after recall conflicts to indicate whether the recall campaign acted to intensify or resolve conflict. The relationship between recall campaigns and conflict resolution was examined further in the fourth part of the study through interviews with participants in two selected conflict cases.

The Recall Background and Structure

The recall election was one of several governmental reforms advanced by the Progressive movement early in the twentieth century and originally designed as a response to widely publicized scandals in local and state governments in the last decade of the nineteenth century. Supporters of the recall asserted that the scandals eroded
public confidence in the integrity of elected officials and prescribed the recall, initiative, and referendum as remedies. In the original debate surrounding adoption of the recall, neither intensification nor resolution of conflict was used as a major reason for or against its adoption.

Legal provisions for the recall require that 20% of the registered voters must sign a petition to initiate a recall. The form of the recall ballot requires a "yes" or "no" response to the question, "Shall (name of official being challenged) be recalled from the office of school board member?" Analysis of legal provisions indicated that the minimum period of time required to hold a recall is 10 weeks, although the total length of the conflict precipitating the recall could be much longer than the legal minimum.

Conflict Resolution and School Board Recall Elections

A number of theoretical statements about conflict resolution supported propositions that conflict resolution was more likely to occur where institutional arrangements encouraged negotiation andconciliation, and that where institutional arrangements inhibit such activities, the intensification of conflict was the likely result.

The recall situation provides no such provision for bargaining between opponents in the election, but instead requires a no-compromise, either-or choice from the voter. This polarization of electoral choice presumably influences the thinking and behavior of participants in the recall campaign, and by inhibiting bargaining and compromise during the recall campaign, acts to intensify rather than reduce conflict.
Analysis of Conflict Intensity

The study of conflict resolution in the context of school board recall elections required quantitative observations of the level of conflict intensity before, during, and after the recall campaign. Four conflict intensity measures were used: voter dissent at school board elections; cumulative public attendance at school board meetings per calendar quarter (January-March, etc.); cumulative length of school board meetings per calendar quarter; and cumulative frequency of special school board meetings per calendar quarter. Voting and attendance data were direct measures of conflict between a community and its board of education, while meeting length and frequency measures could vary because of conflict or for other reasons.

The general hypothesis of this study required comparison of the level observed prior to the recall. Five specific periods of time were designated and defined. Three identified relatively short periods near the recall: the pre-recall period was defined for all measures except voting dissent as the first calendar quarter prior to the recall election; the recall period was the recall observation (election or quarter); and the post-recall was the first observation (election or quarter) following the recall. The two remaining periods were the base period, defined for voting dissent as all data prior to the recall election and for the other measures as the eleven calendar quarters prior to the pre-recall quarter, and the final period, defined for all measures except voting dissent as all calendar quarters following the post-recall quarter.

Five specific hypotheses were formulated and tested. First, it
was hypothesized that the level of conflict intensity would be significantly higher in the pre-recall period than in the base period; second, that the level of conflict intensity would be significantly higher in the recall period than in the base period; third, that the level of conflict intensity would be significantly higher in the post-recall period than in the base period; fourth, that the level of conflict intensity would be significantly lower in the final period than in the recall period; and fifth, that the level of conflict intensity would be significantly higher in the final period than in the base period.

The 44 school board recall elections held in period 1960-1964 were selected as the population to be studied. From this population a random sample of 22 recalls was drawn. One recall case was dropped from the sample because of the unavailability of data.

The hypotheses were tested by determining the probability that level of conflict intensity in a given period (such as the pre-recall, recall, or post-recall period) was a sample of a comparison population (base period or final period). Tests were run separately for each conflict using voting dissent data to test Hypotheses #2 and #3 and using public attendance data to test each of the five hypotheses. In addition, similar tests were run for all cases collectively using each of the measures.

Treating each recall separately, results for voting dissent data reached significance on Hypothesis #2 in 8 of 16 individual cases, and reached significance on 7 of the 16 cases for Hypothesis #3. The required level of significance was .05 or better. The analysis of
voting dissent data for individual conflict cases was handicapped because data for elections prior to 1955 were seldom available and as a result, the N in the base period was usually quite small. Public attendance data, tested recall by recall, supported Hypothesis #1 in ten of 13 cases; Hypothesis #2 in ten of 13; Hypothesis #3, in three of 13; Hypothesis #4, in nine of 13 cases; and Hypothesis #5, in three of 13 cases.

Data from all conflict cases were tested collectively and except for Hypothesis #5, results were uniformly significant at the .01 level for voting dissent and public attendance data, indicating that conflict intensity was significantly higher during the pre-recall, recall, and post-recall periods than observed in the base period; support for Hypothesis #4 indicated that the high level of conflict intensity observed during the recall did not persist indefinitely but significantly declined in the years following the recall. Failure to find support for Hypothesis #5 indicated that the level of conflict intensity was not significantly higher during the final period than during the base period; the data varied in the expected direction but failed to reach significance.

Similar collective tests using meeting length data failed to reach significance on any of the hypotheses, but meeting frequency data reached significance on Hypotheses #1 and #2. Although boards of education obviously were aware of and involved in these conflicts, the cumulative length of board meetings did not rise enough even during the recall period to achieve significance.
Two Conflict Cases

Two conflict cases were selected for further examination through interviews with conflict participants. The two were selected because conflict intensity rose sharply following the recall in one case but declined in the other. Events during the two conflicts were reviewed in detail.

The recall campaign contributed directly to the observed intensification of conflict in the first case, a medium-sized city in a metropolitan area, in which a bitter and active recall campaign was waged over the issue of racially integrating the community's three junior high schools. The incumbents who had adopted an integration plan were not recalled but their opponents' anti-integration commitment during the recall campaign was not lessened by defeat. The same racial issue was again the major factor at the regular school board election held six months after the recall. Participants indicated that bargaining and negotiation had ceased during the recall campaign and agreed almost unanimously that the school board's racial integration plan would continue to be controversial well into the future.

In the second case, a small agricultural town, the conflict was resolved at the recall election. Three members of the five-man board had met illegally and voted not to renew the superintendent's contract. The superintendent's supporters quickly began recall procedures, and following a low-key campaign the three were recalled. Neither national issues nor extensive publicity reinforced the local issues of this recall, and the absence of such reinforcements
contributed to the likelihood of conflict resolution at this recall. Further, the absence of important political, racial or economic cleavages in the second community is noteworthy. Finally, the face-to-face relationships unavoidable in small towns may lower a community's tolerance for conflict and create a conflict threshold beyond which intensification of the conflict requires too high a psychological price. This type of conflict resolution may account for a number of cases in which recall campaigns did not intensify conflict.
This is a study of school board decisions. Specifically, it explores the relationships between one set of school board decisions in California on whether or not to apply for Federal aid, and selected characteristics of (1) the districts, (2) individual board members and superintendents, (3) the boards as units, and (4) the decision-making processes.

While the decisions made by school boards are limited in scope and substance by the state (the constitution and specific statutes may mandate certain programs and limit personnel choices to those certificated by the state, for example), broad discretion in hiring, spending, and programming remains with the board.

There is an increasing concern with school board behavior, as national aims for education are defined by Congress and by professional associations. It is inescapable that local school board actions can help or hinder the realization of the national aims, whether the statements of the national aims emphasize the need to provide all American children with the optimal education their individual capabilities permit them to obtain, or whether they stress the national manpower needs.

In view of the stated intent of Congress to promote the national interest in elementary and secondary education through the
establishment and execution of aid programs, there is a need for information on proportions and characteristics of eligible school districts that participate in Federal aid programs, and for exploration of reasons why districts participate selectively. The specific decision examined in this study was whether or not to apply under Title III of the National Defense Education Act of 1958 (NDEA) for Federal matching funds to improve reading instruction.

The particular decision upon which this study focuses was selected because it differentiates all California local public school districts into two groups of sufficient size to permit comparison. The existence of reading programs at all grade levels and the central importance of reading in the total process of education makes the decision consequential; and the ready availability of data on NDEA projects made the study feasible.

This study has two phases, since, prior to examining the characteristics of individual board members and superintendents, boards as units, and decision processes in order to isolate possible correlates of governing-body decisions, it was necessary to isolate and control for significant characteristics of local school districts.

In the first phase of the study, the 513 California local public school districts that had applied for NDEA Title III reading funds for 1965-66 were compared with the 951 California local districts that had not applied. The two groups of districts were compared on the bases of (1) average daily attendance; (2) type of organization (elementary, high school, junior college, or unified); (3) type of state aid received; (4) area density of pupil population; and (5) area rate of
growth of pupil population. Data for this first phase of the study were supplied by the California State Department of Education. These data are included in appendices to the study.

On each of the five demographic characteristics, all California local public school districts were divided into discrete classes -- eight size classes, four types of organization, three types of state aid received, four classes of area density, and four classes of area rate of growth. The purpose of these divisions was to enable computation, for each variable, of a statistic (Chi-square) that would measure the discrepancy between a set of observed frequencies and the corresponding frequencies expected under null hypotheses. The number of California districts falling into each category was observed for each variable. This enabled the computation of the proportions of districts in each category, which were then compared with the proportions of districts applying for NDEA Title III reading funds distributed in each category.

Application for NDEA Title III reading funds for 1965-66 was found to be related to all five variables. Application was directly related to district size, but inversely related to district wealth. Elementary districts applied with least proportionate frequency, while unified districts applied with the greatest proportionate frequency. Districts in the most populous California counties applied proportionately more often than did districts in the least populous counties. Finally, districts in counties with fairly rapid rates of increase in public school population applied proportionately most often, and districts in slowest growing counties applied
proportionately least often. Districts that applied in greatest proportions -- that is, large, relatively poor, unified districts in populous, fairly rapidly growing counties -- may be tentatively categorized as suburban districts.

In terms of responsibility, superintendents in suburban districts are the highest paid school executives in California. Assuming that high pay is related to excellence of administration, it is not particularly surprising that suburban districts generate disproportionate numbers of applications for Federal aid. In addition to high pay for the district chief executive, suburban districts generally provide funds for the hiring of staff members to whom can be delegated the preparation of Federal aid project applications. Finally, suburban districts are located in clusters around central cities; thus administrators in a particular suburban district generally have a number of resources -- in the form of their counterparts in neighboring suburban districts -- with which to augment their own experience and ability in project preparation. The combined effect upon district participation in Federal aid projects of (1) high salaries for superintendents, (2) provision of adequate staff assistance, and (3) propinquity of similar districts is an area for fruitful future study.

In the second phase of the study, a random sample of California local school districts that had applied for NDEA Title III reading funds for 1965-66 was compared with a matched sample of California districts that had not applied. The samples were matched on the five variables found to be significant in the first phase of the study. From interviews with 78 local district chief administrative officers,
data on history of participation, existence of organized pressure
groups, board member characteristics, board characteristics, and
decision-making process characteristics were gathered. These data are
also included in appendices to the study.

The two samples were compared on the following specific
variables:

1. History of district participation
   a. Prior, concurrent, or subsequent district
      participation in NDEA Title III programs

2. Characteristic of district community
   a. Existence of organized, vocal pressure groups

3. Characteristics of individual board members
   a. Sex
   b. Political affiliation
   c. Socio-economic status
   d. Tenure

4. Characteristics of boards
   a. Homogeneity with respect to individual
      characteristics listed above

5. Characteristics of process
   a. Informal discussion of participation by
      superintendent and board member(s)
   b. Informal discussion of participation by
      superintendent and staff member(s)
   c. Inclusion on agenda of resolutions or information
      with respect to proposed NDEA Title III applications
d. Discussion of participation at board meeting
   (1) Discussion instituted by superintendent
   (2) Discussion instituted by board member
   (3) Discussion instituted by other

e. Length of discussion

f. Participation in discussion at board meeting by
   staff and public

g. Prolonging of discussion over more than one board
   meeting

h. Approval or rejection of participation at board
   meeting on superintendent's recommendation, with or
      without discussion

i. Unanimity of decision

j. No communication; participation not considered at
   board meeting

k. Regular provision to board members of agenda prior
   to board meeting

l. Length of board meeting

In the second phase of the study, Chi-square statistics were
computed to test the relationship of each independent variable to the
dependent variable; in addition, tests of differences between means
were applied to data on length of discussions and length of board
meetings. Hollingshead's "Two Factor Index of Social Position," which
combines measures of occupation and education, was utilized to measure
individual socio-economic status.

Significant differences noted between the two samples were (1)
more frequent application by participant districts for NDEA Title III
funds for other subjects or in other years, and (2) more communication with respect to 1965-66 NDEA Title III reading application in participant districts. No significant differences on existence of pressure groups, board member characteristics, or board characteristics were noted between the two samples. While the total of 382 school board members in the two samples was distributed fairly evenly among middle and high educational attainment categories, most board members had high-level occupations.

From examination of the decision-making patterns in 78 local school districts, it was found that (1) superintendents institute discussions of Federal aid applications with their staffs and with their board members at regular board meetings, (2) superintendents prepare, or supervise the preparation of, resolutions and information regarding project applications, and (3) boards generally unanimously accept the recommendations of their superintendents. Perhaps more important than the observed activity by superintendents was the observed lack of activity by school boards in the process of applying for Federal grants to augment local educational funds. Through control of agenda, information, and the formal communication process, district superintendents seem to control the authoritative output of local school boards. On the other hand, boards indirectly control their superintendents' activities, through the hiring and firing process.

The study identified two basic patterns of action with respect to application for Federal aid. The two patterns differed as regards (1) coordination of planning and (2) board member awareness of staff activity and proposed district action. In the first pattern, chief
school officers prepared project applications, generally with the assistance of staff, and presented completed project applications to their boards for formal approval. This "one-shot" pattern resulted in a brief consideration of the project application by the local school board at one formal board meeting, and nearly always resulted in board approval. The second pattern of action began with a general discussion at a formal board meeting of various subject-matter needs of the district. At that time, superintendents generally made tentative proposals for an application, or, often, several applications, for Federal aid. Following the board's tentative approval of the superintendent's broad plan for overcoming district weaknesses, the superintendent, with his staff, prepared one or more project applications. When each application was completed, it was presented to the board at another formal board meeting for approval. Generally, this second consideration resulted in an extremely brief discussion relating the application to the broad plan, followed by the board's ratification of the superintendent's action. About half of the respondents indicated that they generally used the "one-shot" pattern, while about half indicated that they favored the "two-shot" pattern of action. Many of the latter group reported that NDEA Title III project applications provided them with a springboard for general discussions of district curricula with their boards.

Respondents indicated that school board member resistance to Federal aid, based upon hypothesized concomitant erosion of local autonomy, has decreased. The decrease in resistance has resulted from the districts' satisfactory experience with various programs of Federal aid.
Since research on school boards has only recently become productive, there still exists considerable confusion as to the function, or functions, of school boards. Three different, perhaps complementary, views of the function of school boards are policy-making, mediation, and communication. Findings from this study indicate that with respect to applications for Federal aid under Title III of the National Defense Education Act, school boards engage in little activity that could be termed policy-making, and they do not appear to be mediating conflicts related to application for Federal aid. Instead, boards are relatively passive. It seems an oversimplification to say, however, that boards merely provide a forum for communications; for this view does not recognize the reviewing or overseeing function, the performance of which is evident in board approval of district application for Federal funds.

From further research on what the functions of various types of boards are can come information on which to base decisions as to what the functions of school boards should be.

In his dual role of being executive officer and advisor to the board, the superintendent must gain the board members' support. Abbott focused on factors which influence that support, seeking to find out if the board's values and the board's perception of superintendent's values are related. He concluded that: (1) errors in the perception of values result from the projection of personal values onto the superintendent; (2) board members who hold the same values as the superintendent express more confidence in him than do board members with values different from those of the superintendent; and (3) board members who think that the superintendent holds their values, even though he does not, have more confidence in him than board members who perceive the superintendent's values to be different from theirs.

A/ 1,2


About one half of all offices in the United States, among which some are school board offices, are filled by means of nonpartisan elections. Adrian gave a history of nonpartisan elections in the United States and then described four types of nonpartisan elections in terms of how much influence political parties and organized groups exerted on them. He concluded that although political parties often try to control the outcome of nonpartisan elections, they usually do not effect such control in most cities. Most nonpartisan elections, he found, have achieved the removal of political party influence from involvement in local, judicial, and state elections, which is what this type of election was designed to do.

B/ 6


Albert investigated the relationship between certain characteristics of school board members, and their attitudes
toward criticisms of public schools, in cities of 30,000 or more. He noted the changes in school boards of these cities during the years 1945 to 1958. Albert based his conclusions on questionnaires sent to board members of cities of this size in forty-eight states. He found that attitudes toward criticism of public school education differed in board members according to their age, sex, and geographical location.

A/2, 6


Almack summarized a wide variety of educational management issues, using the role of the board member as a focus. Topics included desirable traits of the board member, superintendent responsibilities, and effective board meetings.

A/1, 2, 5


The American Association of School Administrators issued a questionnaire to "thousands of rural and city superintendents" which culminated in the 1952 yearbook of data and suggestions regarding the superintendency. Specific references to the School Board (Chapter Five) include discussions of its contributions to American progress, and its expression of popular will. Tabulations of superintendent appraisals of board members relative to leadership qualities and other desirable characteristics, as well as tabulations of regional differences in board elections procedures are included. The heaviest emphasis is on superintendent responsibilities to facilitate board decision making.

B/1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 10, 11


This editorial criticized administrative practices by New York City school and municipal officials in the years prior to 1959. The editorial supported action taken by state officials in 1961 to dismiss the entire New York City Board of Education and replace it with a new board selected through a caucus-nomination
procedure severely restricting the Mayor's influence over the
schools.

A/ 1, 2, 3, 6, 9

School Board Journal 143: 40; December 1961.

This article identified members of the "new" board of education
in New York City. Members were appointed by Mayor Wagner to
succeed the board dismissed by the state legislature because of
inefficiency. Some changes to be initiated by the board were
mentioned, including abolition of old standing committees and
scheduling of regular meetings for evening hours in order that
citizens might attend.

A/ 2, 3, 6, 9

Abolished?" Public Management 16: 17-19; January 1934.

Judd argued in favor of, and Bailey argued against abolishing
school boards. (Other entries in this guide, referring to the
controversy in the 1930's concerning local school boards, are
Engelhardt; Judd; Keyworth.)

A/ 12

9. Baker, John Emerson. The Selection of Superintendents of Schools
by Boards of Education. Doctor's thesis, Chicago: University
of Chicago, 1952.

Baker tried to determine the bases and procedures used by boards
of education to select superintendents. After outlining the
specific duties of the superintendent, Baker investigated three
hypotheses: that procedures of selecting superintendents were
not well-planned, that boards over-emphasized factors unrelated
to the primary goals of schools, and that boards relied too
heavily on outside agencies' information on candidates' merits.
Among twelve other points, Baker found that most boards used a
single, short, unplanned interview to select a superintendent,
and that the smaller the school district, the more reliance was
put on commercial agencies for finding superintendent
candidates. He concluded with fourteen recommendations for
selecting superintendents intelligently.

A/ 1, 2, 3, 5, 11

Bard described the school district's relation to the city and to the state; he further explained the provisions made by the state for the school district's organization and fiscal affairs. The school district is regarded as a municipal body subject to constitutional provisions and legislative enactments. Considering the board of education the most important agency in the school district, Bard described the board in detail in terms of its composition, its duties, its limitations, and its financial powers.

B/ 6, 8, 10


Barnhart evaluated the characteristics of effective school board members. He concluded that the subordination of self-interests to the principle of board unity is the most essential requirement for membership. He urged an application of his findings in the selection and training of board members.

A/ 2, 6


Berg analyzed the responsibilities of school boards and city governments in administering schools. Berg used documentary analysis to arrive at these five conclusions: (1) school boards and municipal governments are subordinate to the state; (2) most school boards are fiscally independent; (3) people administering local schools have much broader areas of responsibility than usually thought; (4) state regulation might reduce conflict between school boards and city governments; and (5) litigation should be undertaken to clarify the responsibilities of school boards and city governments.

A/ 1, 3, 8, 10

Bernstein studied teachers' role expectations and role perceptions of their administrators and the relationship between the morale of principals and school boards and their perception by teachers. Among other findings, she discovered that teachers' role perceptions by the school board strongly correlate with the morale of the school board.

B/1


Binzen examined the problems of choosing a school board through a survey of the school boards of eight large American cities: St. Louis, San Francisco, Chicago, Boston, Philadelphia, New York, Los Angeles, and Detroit. Cities choose school boards in four major ways: (1) by judicial appointment, (2) by election, (3) by mayoral appointment (sometimes according to a religious quota) plus approval of voters, and (4) by selection of candidates for school board by citizens advisory boards and then mayoral appointment from this pool of candidates. What works in one city, Binzen found, does not work in others because of differences between cities. Problems accompanying methods of selecting school board members were: too much control by the mayor, apathy and inefficiency of board members, and powerlessness of the board. He concluded that the problems are perplexing, and that the best answer may be an increase in the power of the states.

A/6,9


In a presentation of the history of public education in New York, Boese documented the organization of the board of education in 1842, its difficulties, and its gradual progress. He traced the growth of the public school system from the 17th century until 1868 and concluded with a description of the organization of schools and the board of education at the time of his study.

B/13

Bortner advocated the utilization of professional advice in the selection of a superintendent. Based on his experience as chairman of a committee of professors hired by two Long Island communities, he enumerated the methods used by his committees and the ways in which their assistance was beneficial to the local boards of education.

A/ 1, 5


Bowman discussed the methods used by boards of education in selecting a superintendent by summarizing the findings of Baker's study at the University of Chicago (1952). After listing Baker's discoveries about methods then employed by school boards, he indicated their weaknesses and presented the suggestions for selection made by Newell and by Baker.

A/ 1, 5


This article concerns the nature and extent of superintendents' participation in school board decision-making. Bowman summarized a study based on a questionnaire asking which method of participation board members would like their superintendent to take in thirty-six problem situations: determining, informing, or advising. He found that superintendents are more like board members than professors in their preferences for certain participation methods. Whereas professors preferred determining, superintendents and board members preferred informing and advising. Bowman interpreted these findings in terms of their causes and their implications for further research and administration.

A/ 1, 2, 5

A general introduction enumerating the powers, duties, and composition of the typical city system is followed by detailed descriptions of the school boards in the 23 largest cities and the state laws which defined their authority and structure.

A/ 1, 6, 7, 8, 10


A comparison of different methods of election and appointment of school board members in major cities is interspersed with a plea for honesty in board politics as the only ultimate safeguard against corruption and indifference in school management. Comparisons of boards' involvement in control of revenues and methods of appointment of superintendents and teachers are included. A tabular appendix lists the nation's 23 largest cities (1897) and indicates the number of board members, method of selection, ward affiliation, and term of office.

A/ 1, 2, 3, 6, 8, 10, 11


Brady proposed that the true function of school boards is not determining all school policy per se, but rather selecting a capable superintendent to run the schools, and thereafter keeping him under surveillance, approving his decisions, explaining the schools' position to the community, and tending to financial affairs.

A/ 1, 3, 5, 8


Brause studied the factors affecting dismissal of school superintendents and identified five major categories, each of which refers to an incompatibility between the superintendent
and the board of education. Failure to carry out board of education instruction was ranked highest in the order of importance.

B/1


Because organized labor has enumerated plans for public education, it is anxious to place its members on school boards where they can effect policy changes. Thus to implement the educational goals which Brodinsky outlined in this article, labor will have to enter local politics and "nominate and elect its friends to boards of education."

A/3, 6


Brubacher tested four hypotheses concerning the interaction between school board members and superintendents at the board of education meetings of seven school systems. The Bales Interaction Process Analysis and a questionnaire were used to collect data. Brubacher found a uniform pattern of decision-making in school boards.

A/5


Brubaker evaluated the extent to which Indiana school boards conform to accepted principles of school board operation. He surveyed also the socio-economic status of school board members and the composition, powers, and duties of Indiana school boards. He included recommendations for improvement, based on his findings, in each of these areas.

A/2, 5, 8, 10

By personally interviewing school board members, Burchfiel found that most board members believe that school personnel and the lay public have a right to communicate directly with the board but that they prefer that administrative channels be used first. He also found that board members initiate communication about curriculum matters with business leaders and professional educators more than with other people.

A/ 1, 3, 5


The school board and the superintendent in San Francisco in 1917 could not work effectively together, this report stated, because the superintendent was a member of the board and because the board had no fiduciary powers. Recommendations concerning the specific duties of board and superintendent were given. These recommendations were based on the opinions of Dr. F. Bobbitt, a professor at the University of Chicago, who compared the functioning of the San Francisco Board of Education with that of other boards of education in the United States.

B/ 1, 3, 5, 8, 9, 10


The authors presented a reconstructed picture of education in the past, primarily to reveal the astounding progress that had occurred during the 75 years which the book considers. In a description of Boston Public Schools in the days of Horace Mann, attention was paid briefly to the composition and duties of the Boston School Committee. The Detroit School System was also discussed in order to indicate the major strides which had been taken in education and in school boards since 1845.

B/ 13

Callahan discussed the increasing application of business values and methods to education, and he argued that the quality of education should never be subordinated to economy or efficiency (as it was from 1910-1929). He reviewed the literature concerning the influence of businessmen and business practices on school boards.

B/3, 8


Campbell identified school board decisions with social and political import and studied the relationship between the socio-economic status of school board members and their votes on the decisions. He found little evidence that socio-economic status of school board members was related to the competence in decision-making of the members.

A/2, 3, 5


After comparing the school board election procedures in 33 states, Campbell found that the two most common procedures are nomination and election at large, and nomination by precinct and election at large. They were considered dissatisfactory only when tied into general political elections.

A/6


In the section entitled "The Board of Control," Campbell described legislative powers of the board of education. Campbell was critical of the board because it has legal control over the processes of teaching and learning, while it is composed of laymen who may even have sought their positions for political ends. A contrast was made to the business world in
which the board of control is usually composed of business experts.

A/ 2, 4, 8, 10


Drawing upon research in psychology, sociology, anthropology, economics, and political science, the authors examined five contexts of school government, from the federal to the attendance unit level. Special attention was directed to the function of the school board and to the board's relationship with the superintendent. The authors recommended that school districts be reorganized, that professional teacher organizations learn to be effective politically, and that distinct lines be drawn between matters for public decision and matters for professional decision.

B/ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 7, 8, 9


The authors described the function of understanding in school-community relations, underlined its importance, and illustrated its role in securing adequate financial support for schools. After predicating that understanding is secured through effective communication, the authors discussed the needs for effective mediating agencies, for intelligent accommodation to the environment, and for exact knowledge of factors entering into the local school-community relationship. School boards in larger districts were said to have greater potential for more effective control over fiscal policies.

B/ 3, 11


Carter sought to determine which voters had favorable attitudes toward the schools, and which voters, under what conditions, participated in school affairs. He stated that school leaders can assist understanding by keeping the public informed, but the voters must commit themselves to participation and accept the

Caughran studied the socio-economic background and the attitudes of board members, much as Counts studied them in the first half of the century. After summarizing this data he concluded that any correlation between socio-economic background and attitudes is impossible.

A/2


After careful observations of school operations, Charters evaluated the argument that members of the dominant class controlled the schools. He agreed with Counts' findings that board members were generally recruited from among persons in the upper middle class. However, he seriously questioned the conclusion that upper middle class board members had basically conservative attitudes. He questioned further whether their attitudes as community citizens affected their decisions as board members; he found no adequate research to support Counts' conclusions.

B/2, 6


Charters reviewed the literature on school boards which had emerged since the 1920's, and pointed out the limitations of the many status studies which presented isolated, unusable data. He urged the adoption of a broadened research perspective and a shift of emphasis from the personal characteristics of the individual board member to a consideration of the board as a composite existing in a social matrix.

A/14

The purpose of this study was to test whether representation by teachers or representation by the superintendent at school board meetings brought about more favorable work conditions for teachers. Ciavarella found that representation by teachers was more effective in bringing high salaries, fringe benefits, small class size, favorable personnel policy, satisfactory grievance procedure, and low teacher-turnover.

A/ 1, 5


This historical study documented the evolution of the Chicago board of education and the enactments which it passed during the formative years of the Chicago public schools. Clark described the board's legal and financial powers and its organization.

B/ 8, 10, 13


Cloves analyzed and evaluated the work of county boards of education in California, utilizing the minutes of board meetings and the opinions of county superintendents and presidents of county boards as to what the county boards actually did. He found that the county boards have no important function in developing policy and recommended that certain functions be eliminated and that other functions be clearly delineated in written policy statements.

A/ 5, 8, 9

After surveying the suggestions of 100 school board presidents and school administrators, Collins described the most desired characteristics of school board members and discussed typical board problems concerning curriculum, budget, committees, public relations, merit pay, building, taxes, personnel, and in-service education of board members. Part II of the thesis is a handbook for orientation of new school board members in New York.

A/ 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8


Combe claimed that, increasingly, teachers intend to bargain in a manner familiar to the industrial union, whereas school boards unrealistically expect teachers to be disinterested in remuneration because of their involvement with children's welfare. This discrepancy in approach leads to conflict. Combe recommended: (1) continuing rapport and discussion apart from collective bargaining; (2) realistic appraisal by teachers of their district's financial position; (3) caution and restraint exercised during public discussion by bargainers; (4) separate bargaining by supervisory (administrative) personnel; (5) reasonable restraint on teachers' demands; (6) respect for mutual legal obligations; and (7) preparation of prospective teachers for collective bargaining.

A/ 1, 5, 9


Condit compared some of the practices of Missouri boards of education with the opinions of the school board presidents and with the opinions of specialists in educational administration. He found that board presidents' opinions were in closer accord with educational specialists' opinions than with actual board practices. He listed recommendations for bringing actual practice into closer accord with desired practice.

A/ 5, 8

By sending questionnaires to local boards of education in ten Southern states, Conley studied the characteristics of board members and their opinions regarding finance, curriculum, methods of selecting board members, board-superintendent relationships, public relations, personnel, and board procedure. Since most board members who had gone through a state orientation program had optimistic attitudes toward board problems, Conley recommended that all new board members be given such a program.

A/ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 9


Cooke and Welch enumerated the characteristics of an effective school board member, referring frequently to the two earlier studies made by Cope and Quill. Among the factors discussed are age, education, length of service, church attendance, and election methods.

A/ 2, 6


The authors briefly outlined the expectations board members hold for superintendents, and the expectations superintendents hold for board members; they stated that a unity could be developed that would enable the participants to function more effectively as a team.

A/ 1, 8


Correll tested the "size-interest" principle, whereby citizens of smaller school districts are purported to have more interest in schools than do citizens of larger districts. He used Shevky
and Bell's Social Area Analysis in California and found that the "size-interest" principle does not seem to operate in metropolitan school districts.

B/ 3


By means of questionnaire responses by specialists in educational administration, Coss found that the agenda is frequently used in California school board meetings and that either outline or comprehensive agenda form was effective. He recommended methods for preparing agenda. He stated his belief that the superintendent should have sole right to make recommendations to the school board.

B/ 1, 5


Counts collected data on the various structural patterns of U. S. boards of education, number of members, lengths of terms, tenure of members, remuneration of members, methods of selection, etc. A chapter is devoted to the socio-economic status of board members, as surveyed in 529 local boards of education. Also included are data regarding state and university governing boards.

A/ 2, 6


Counts examined the social and political forces influencing Chicago's public schools and analyzed the causes of several major conflicts about the schools during the 1920's. He stressed the inseparability of school and society and concluded that major educational policies are "the product of the clash of the organized and articulate minorities that compose modern society."

A/ 1, 3, 5, 6, 8, 9, 13

This study is a description and analysis of the policy-making process in a school district, using the case study method. Data came from unstructured interviews, observation, records, and library sources. Cunningham found that the policy-making process was divided into five stages: (1) initiation stage; (2) definition and statement of policy problem; (3) deliberating, bargaining, collecting and weighing of information, and raising and assaying of policy alternatives; (4) actual selection and enactment of a single policy alternative; and (5) policy implementation--testing and evaluation of action.

A/ 5, 8


Cunningham decried the lack of precise information about school government as an entity at the local level apart from the system of community government. He pointed out that current systems of classification (according to scope of educational program offered--elementary, high, etc.--or according to geographical characteristics--city, county, township, etc.) failed to account for variables such as financial support patterns, methods of school board selection, socio-economic characteristics of the district's population, or leadership style of the chief school officer. He called for the help of social scientists in "intensive field work...to discern the fabric of decision making," and cited as promising beginnings such works as McCarty's study of Wisconsin and Illinois school board members.

B/ 1, 2, 3, 5, 6


The authors discussed the tasks of a school board member, emphasizing the responsibilities, opportunities, and limitations assumed upon becoming a board member. Board members were counseled with respect to the selection and evaluation of curricula, building programs, superintendents, teachers, and
programs of school-community communications.

A/ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 10


Data is presented in this leaflet describing board of education size and method of selection in cities with populations exceeding 30,000.

A/ 6


Deffenbaugh collected data pertinent to boards of education in a majority of cities having a population of 30,000 or more. Deffenbaugh included information on a variety of topics: qualifications, selection, number of members, duties, organization, and administrator relationship of the board.

A/ 1, 2, 6


Dejnozka tested the hypothesis that "willingness" of school board members to support increased costs was positively related to their personal "opinions" of their schools. Data was gathered in the state of New York, exclusive of New York City, by questioning members on "opinions." A positive and significant correlation of .37 between "willingness" and total "opinion" was computed. Low "willingness" was found to be "significantly related to low tax on time valuation."

Dissatisfactions, when occurring, tended to center around curriculum, teachers, administrators, and equipment and plant; by implication "opinions" favorable or unfavorable were fostered by factors other than sex, length of board service, occupation, parental status, or education.

A/ 1, 2, 3

Dent examined how leaders of teachers' organizations saw the actions and attitudes of their organizations, how the leaders of opposed teacher groups saw these organizations, and how school board members and school administrators saw teacher organizations. Dent concluded that one organization of teachers, rather than several, would probably have the most effect on school board decisions. Data were gathered from interviews, minutes of meetings, newspapers, and documents from "Valley City IV."

A/1, 5


Postulating the existence of corruption and politics in the American school, De Weese called for adoption of the "system of administration most perfectly adapted to centralize authority, to remove friction, and to realize the highest educational ideals." The first requirement is a centralization of authority in the superintendent in curricular and personnel matters, with financial, architectural, and business matters being left to the board. Comparisons of small and large boards, and appointed and elected boards are included.

A/1, 6


While covering all aspects of school organization, Draper balanced varying arguments regarding election (or appointment) of board members. He stated that the board "should be vested only with legislative functions and should be required to act wholly through formal and recorded resolutions...It should be allowed to make no appointments other than its own clerk." The report is followed by comments of the discussants who argued for the separation of legislative and executive functions in schools, for and against independent taxing powers of the board, and for resorting to the legislature for educational guidance.

This historical treatment traces the development of local, county, and state educational organizations up to 1900. Draper identified two problem areas in educational organization: very small rural districts and very large urban districts.


Dunn examined the program developed in Montgomery County, Maryland, to comply with the Supreme Court's order to desegregate. The program consisted primarily of allowing Negro transfers to desegregated schools. The author studied the efforts of the school board and its professional staff to secure the aid of lay groups, both proponents and opponents of desegregation.


This work is both a status study of the organization and administration of United States' schools and also a vehicle for the recommendations for change of its principal author, George Strayer. He argued, apparently from his own experience, in favor of local, elected, fiscally-independent, non-partisan school boards.

This textbook on public school law contains chapters related to the legal arrangements surrounding public school boards of education. Local district organization, relationships to the state and federal governments, and tort and contract liability are covered. The book draws heavily upon legal principles derived from cases and statutes.

B/ 1, 2, 6, 7, 8, 10


Eliot examined the major groups exercising political power over public schools. He argued that the local school district is essentially a political, not a professional, institution, and urged more conscious political activity for teachers, school administrators, and boards of education.

B/ 1, 3, 5, 8


"The great reform of the decade in Boston school administration was the substitution on January 1, 1906. of a school committee of five for one of twenty-four," and the abolition of sub-committees through which most school business had formerly been transacted. The greater degree of centralization and the concomitant clearer, fuller focus resulted in the elimination of "pull" from the field of appointment, promotion, compensation, and removal of janitors. Similar improvements in teacher training, teacher retirement benefits, vocational training, student health, summer school programs, and continuation schools were enumerated as results of the smaller board.

B/ 1, 2, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10

Engelbert argued for organizational changes to strengthen education, including the abolition of local school boards, to be replaced with lay advisory boards.


This short hortatory statement justifying the existence of local school boards, is one of a series in the Engelhardt-Judd debate on local control of education. (See also Bailey; Judd; Keyworth.)


Evans studied the constitutional and statutory provisions which provide the basis of authority for local school boards in Tennessee. He was concerned with powers of the board in the areas of (1) role of federal, state, and local governments in education; (2) pupil relations; (3) teacher relations; (4) superintendent relations; (5) buildings and property; (6) internal board affairs; and (7) school funds, all as expressed in the opinions of appellate courts and in the public acts of the Tennessee Legislature.


Foskett considered factors which affect the nature of the policy decisions made by school administrators within the community setting. He concluded that community discussion, which occurred primarily in that segment having high socio-economic status, tended to represent those views and may have a direct or indirect effect on school policies. Administrators consequently may tend to shape their appeals for support and to develop rationales for policies that will appeal to this group.

Frasier examined and evaluated the merits of the different methods of controlling funds for public schools in American cities. After discussing and comparing independent control by the board of education and control in which the municipal government has almost complete authority, he presented a concluding argument in favor of fiscal independence.

B/ 8


In a description of the schools' relation to city politics, Freedman emphasized the separate nature of city and school government. The Philadelphia school board was discussed concerning its duties, methods of performing its duties, members, method of selection, legal and financial powers, and especially the influence which city politics had on each of these.

B/ 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 10


Gamberoni attempted: (1) to determine the powers vested in boards of education to make or delegate the making of rules and regulations governing the conduct of pupils; (2) to determine the trends in those powers; and (3) to ascertain which powers had been upheld in two or more states by appellate courts. He found that the boards' discretionary powers were broad and had been increasing over the previous 60 years; courts were reluctant to interfere unless authority was illegally or unreasonably exercised. Where there was no applicable law, courts frequently referred to court decisions in other states as precedents for their own decisions regarding board powers.

A/ 5, 8, 10

After reviewing the resignation of Willis in Chicago and the retirement of Witter in Philadelphia, Garber very tentatively questioned whether political parties could not perhaps provide protection for a competent administrator who is in conflict with his board or his community because he is forced to make an unpopular decision.

B/1


Individual, group, community, and attitudinal factors were related to the school board member's reason for seeking office, Garmire concluded. At the same time that he felt a strong sense of civic obligation, a school board member might also express a self-interest reason for seeking office.

A/2


The author investigated the origin and development of the powers and duties of the superintendent of schools. The study reports the conditions which caused the transfer of legal powers and responsibilities by lay boards of education to professional officers. The rapid rise of the superintendent as a leader in school policies and as an intermediary between the board of education and the public is also portrayed. The data for the investigation were secured from official proceedings of boards of education and the annual reports of officers of boards of education.

B/1, 4, 8, 10

In this case study of two issues confronting the school committee, Gleazer identified two or more competing alignments of social power for each issue. His study concentrated on the characteristics of the individuals exerting social power, their relationships to board members and superintendent, and their effects on school board decisions.

A/ 3, 5


Goldhammer found that in "Central Forks" the community power structure played an important role in the selection and in the policy decisions of school board members. He found also that school board members represented a narrow segment of the population.

A/ 2, 3, 5, 6


Goldhammer compiled research studies covering a broad range of matters related to school boards. Specifically covered are historical and legal foundations of school boards, school board and community relations, school board and superintendent relations, and school board decision-making.

A/ 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 10, 13


In this article Gross revealed the problems and the solutions which were indicated by his study of Massachusetts superintendents and school boards. He suggested that the same areas of pressure cause tension in both groups and that a solution would have to be mutually achieved. The problem areas specified and the recommendations mentioned were fully developed subsequently in Who Runs Our Schools?

A/ 1

In this study Gross examined the major obstacles to effective action by school boards and administrators in the Massachusetts public schools. Because of political patronage, concern for insignificant policies, and furtherance of personal interests, the school boards in many cases were not carrying out their responsibilities. Since the ultimate responsibility for the schools is vested in the school boards, Gross presented suggestions which would help to insure effective board behavior.

A/1, 2, 3, 4, 6


The authors reviewed and synthesized the literature on "role," and applied role analysis to expectations held for school superintendents. This provides a theoretical explanation for role conflict resolution and treats school board members' perceptions of the behavior of school superintendents.

B/1, 2, 3


Gunn studied the school board in Portland, Oregon, making frequent reference to the survey of the same area by Culverley in 1913. He attempted to establish the criteria for good board membership and to analyze how completely these have been fulfilled. In addition he discussed the composition and organization of the board and its relationship with the administrator, the faculty, and the community.

A/1, 2, 3, 8

Hall collected information concerning the statutory provisions in the 48 states governing school board size, selection of members, qualifications for membership, and compensation. He found that more than 95 percent of all local school boards were elected by popular vote.

A/ 2, 6, 10


The authors presented the legal restrictions upon the discretionary powers of local school boards, first in general terms, then through examples of legal case histories. All legal aspects of board activities were thoroughly discussed, from the structure of the boards themselves and their authority regarding pupils, employed personnel, curriculum, school property, school funds, and contracts, to the liabilities of membership collectively and individually.

A/ 1, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10


Hanus reported on a 1913 survey of the New York City school system. He included a chapter on the Board of Education of that city and on local school boards generally, with recommended changes.

B/ 1, 5, 8, 9


Hausknecht examined the functions of voluntary associations through the use of descriptive statistics. He described the number of people belonging to voluntary organizations, their social characteristics, and the types of associations to which they belonged. Analytical questions concerning the consequences of voluntary organizations were then discussed. In the concluding chapter he assessed the significance of the finding in terms of role and functions of voluntary associations.

B/ 2, 3, 8

This study of school and municipal relationships in cities with populations of 50,000 or more deals with the legal basis of these relationships, the selection of boards of education, municipal services to school districts, and municipal control of school budgets.

B/ 3, 6, 8, 10


Hiebert investigated board meetings of unified school districts in California, utilizing literature, reviewing law, observing meetings, and interviewing superintendents and board members. The study recommends "desirable procedures and decorums" for board meetings, with respect to the board room, notice of meetings, length and frequency of hearings, participation by members and public, parliamentary procedures, conduct of public hearings, and conference sessions.

A/ 1, 2, 3, 5, 9


Holden examined the communication channels utilized in school policy development. He considered also the interrelationship between superintendent, school board, and certain members of the community, and the factors which influenced these people in the determination of educational policy. The observations Holden acquired from his two case studies are summarized in 12 conclusions.

A/ 1, 3, 5


The City of Houston adopted the commission form of city government, consisting of a mayor and four aldermen, who appointed all public officials, including school board members.
Free commission form was reverted to as an antidote against corruption. The author was superintendent of schools for four years under the commission and attested that there "has never been the slightest form of political pressure brought to bear upon the schools." A list of efficiencies, from procurement of stationery to the hiring of teachers, documented the value of "business practices" in city politics.


In this general study of good board practice, Houle assumed that boards of all types and purposes have certain essential similarities. He discussed the relationship between the board and its institution; the qualities and selection of its members; the relationship between the board, the executive, and the staff; and methods for improving the operation of the board.


Houle discussed dispassionately the functions of governing boards, noting but not participating in the argument over the value of local control in education. Houle offered eight propositions dealing with the responsibilities and strengths of boards, not the least of which is that the "board-executive system of control is a unified structure of authority."


This survey contains an extensive chapter on the Board of Education in Los Angeles.

Seven five-member school board member-superintendent groups in rural and suburban areas of Wisconsin were studied (utilizing action theory and small-group research methods) to determine stability over time, to identify factors disturbing to stability, and to ascertain the effects of differing value-orientation congruence within the groups. It was found that the groups were relatively stable over time, particularly in those activities devoted to external problems--a phenomenon attributable to the controls, obligations, institutionalized role expectations imposed upon members. The superintendent was the key leader in a group's activities; his age and experience appeared more important to successful relationship with the board than did similarity of value orientation between superintendent and board.

A/ 1, 2


The author examined the 'dual system' in Cleveland under which the board appointed two administrative officers, the director of schools, and the superintendent of schools, the 'former acting as business manager of its schools and the latter as the educational or instructional manager.' Irwin claimed that the two men acted in "harmonious independence," answering only to the board. He traced the history of the origin and development of the dual system in Cleveland. The board was summarized as being, prior to 1867-68, "practically a body without any power--a mere committed having the right to recommend measures to the city council but without authority to express them." After the passage of an act for the support and regulation of public schools, the council was divested of most of its educational authority.

B/ 1, 5, 8, 10


James surveyed literature related to the topic and reported on studies of relationships between the various governmental units. The bibliography accompanying the article lists 122 publications.

James averred that the doctrines of separatism between politics and education and of local control of education were outmoded. He argued that education must engage in politics because of an increasing centralization of decisions which deal with matters of educational financing, the existence of a national educational policy, and the lack of adequate political structure to govern rapidly growing cities. He said that the school board should express local social policy to the superintendent and obtain the resources requested by teachers and administrators. In this way, some degree of local power would be maintained, but such local power could, in his opinion, only be kept by using political methods.


This book, sponsored by the California School Boards Association, was intended to help board members particularly, and parents and others interested in education generally, to understand the processes by which and the framework in which sound educational decisions are made.


Part I of this survey deals with the organization and administration of the St. Louis schools. In this volume is a discussion of the charter provisions governing the board of education and how the work of the board is done. Part II covers the work of the schools, and Part III surveys the finances of the St. Louis schools. The latter volume has considerable reference to the board.

This is the first of a series of statements by Judd calling for the abolition of local school boards. He based his argument on the "obstructive rather than contributory" effect of school boards on teaching. He called for superintendents of schools to be appointed directly by the civil authorities of the community. (See also Bailey; Engelhardt; Keyworth.)

A/ 12


Judd argued in this article, one of a series of such statements, that local school boards should be abolished, with appointment of the local superintendent than to be left to the state department of public instruction or to the officials of the municipality.

A/ 12


School board-superintendent conflict and role conception in Elmira, New York, were analyzed, using minutes of meetings, newspaper accounts, and questionnaires and interviews of surviving members and superintendents, covering the period 1930-54. Keeler found that board utilization of standing committees bred conflict, segmented the board, corrupted decision-making, and diluted leadership; performance of strong executive functions by the board president or standing committees weakened the role of the superintendent. A gap existed between theoretical roles of board members and the superintendent, and their actual roles in practice.

A/ 1, 2, 5

This was a study of school board decisions, using as a sample 34 districts in Illinois, ranked into four size classifications. Minutes of all board meetings for the 1960-61 school year were retained and analyzed. Findings showed: (1) that the number of meetings held and the number of decisions made were both positively related to district size; (2) that board decisions dealt with business management (33 percent), staff personnel (24 percent), the board of education itself (23 percent), and the instructional program (2 percent); (3) that 62 percent of decisions were adjudicative, 2 percent established policy, 27 percent were miscellaneous, and 8 percent were ministerial; and (4) that the relationships between decision patterns and both district size and preparation of professional staff members were not statistically significant.

A/ 1, 3, 4, 5, 8, 11


On the basis of observations carried out in 1962-63 in two suburban school districts located near a large northern city, the author came to the conclusion that school boards tended to become agencies for legitimizing the superintendent's decisions to the public (rather than acting as a representative body to present community views to the school administration). Among the pressures that contributed toward this are (a) the absence of visible constituents for board members—once elected, they had no one to check up on them and (b) the fact that real decision-making went on at closed meetings, public meetings being ceremonial occasions for presenting a united front, so that new board members had no way of familiarizing themselves with real board business before election. Thus they were dependent on the expertise of superintendents and veteran board members for their information, and this tended to pull them "into the system."

A/ 1, 3, 5, 6, 8


Arguing that centralization would lead to inflexibility, Keyworth answered Judd's contention that local school boards should be abolished. (See Bailey; Engelhardt; Judd.)

A/ 12

Kimbrough examined the situation that confronts the educational leader in the formulation of educational policies. He presented an analysis of the results of empirical research concerning power and decision-making and presented generalizations. The informal power concept was discussed followed by additional speculations about the acceptability of this concept at administrative levels other than the local administrative unit. He concluded by examining the implications of the informal power concept for educational leaders and the educational profession; the nature of power in the decision-making process was examined from the perspective of values inherent in a free society.


The purpose of the study was to identify background factors associated with particular board member decisions. Data and observations concerned one school board, whose meetings for four months were attended and analyzed, and whose members were interviewed individually. The author derived the following tentative conclusions: (1) members could not themselves identify background factors influencing their decisions; (2) a member accepted by another member as leader was also accepted socially by the latter; (3) relatively high salaried members tended toward satisfaction with school status quo; and (4) members followed district traditions in making decisions.


This bulletin reported a case study of a suburban community controversy. The issue was a bond proposed to raise funds for a new high school. The first section describes the community; the second section analyzes some social characteristics of the electorate in relation to the voting record; the third section contains a summary of findings. The authors concluded that location of residence was found to be a more useful variable than length of residence in determining the exhibited voting behavior. The authors further concluded that the Okemos area is characterized by heterogeneity rather than homogeneity.

Kline studied policy decisions made by the school board in Princeton Borough, New Jersey. He analyzed the policy-making process, using the historical method, which entailed evaluation of reports, minutes, interviews and consultations. The essentials contributing to the formulation and effective implementation of policy-decisions were identified as follows: (1) effective board-administration relationship; (2) formulation of the policy by administration and board with the aim of serving the best interests of pupil growth and of the community; (3) formulation of policy only after thorough study of problem area; (4) flexibility of board and administration in adapting policy to meet reservations of community while yet meeting policy design; and (5) effective public presentation of policy to community.

A/ 1, 3, 5


Eleven pages were devoted to the development of the school system in Boston during this hundred-year period, including references to the changes that were made in the structure of the school board.

B/ 13


Lautenschlager examined the techniques used by school board members to familiarize themselves with their district and its operation. Data were gathered by interviews with 45 school board members selected from Indiana, Illinois, and Michigan. Lautenschlager found that members relied heavily on their superintendents for information, guidance, and leadership; they drew additionally on P.T.A.'s and on national and state associations of school boards for information, utilized standardized testing reports, and occasionally heard lay advisory groups' complaints. Congenial, friendly work-atmosphere
was rated by school board members as having a more significant effect than salaries in retaining competent teachers.

A/ 1, 2, 4, 5


Lee presented the results of a study of nonpartisan politics in California cities. He attempted to describe the local election process, and on the basis of this description to evaluate local elections against the accepted norms of democratic practice. School boards are mentioned only briefly in relation to party activity in school board campaigns.

B/ 6


Lieberman argued that the non-professional school boards should decide the purpose and direction of education, but that professional educators should decide the methods. In order to take some of the responsibility away from local boards and to place it in the more competent hands of professional educators, he suggested a centralized system of schools. Much of the paper is concerned with dismissing the criticisms of centralized education.

B/ 1, 5, 7, 8, 9, 12


Lieberman's hortatory presentation of recommendations for the future of public education may be of interest as they offer a refreshing contrast to the opinions of members of the educational "establishment."

B/ 1, 5, 7, 8, 9, 12

This Wisconsin study systematically assessed role expectations of school board members as viewed by "typical" adult citizens, elected officials, teachers, and school board members themselves. Most respondents evidenced definite opinions regarding their role expectations for board members. In general, it was determined that school board members were held in high community esteem and were likely to be chosen as primary decision makers, in spite of their roles being perceived as of potentially high conflict.


Loftfield’s letter to *School and Society* outlined the composition of Norwegian school boards in the 1920’s, dealing mainly with teacher status in Norway and the Norwegian requirement for the inclusion of teachers on the board. The lack of a discussion of the functions of the board in this state school system detracts from the worth of this information.


Logsdon treated the major educational developments and administrative actions in the St. Louis school system. In his discussion of the organizational history of the board of education, he refers to early activities of the board, politics within the board, outside controls on the board, and relationship of superintendent with the board. He discusses the current role of the board in the supervision of instruction and in financial administration.


This historical-descriptive study explored the politics of New York City. Various references were made to that city’s Board of Education, including discussions of the ethno-religious composition of board members; the increase in size of the board; and the reorganization of the board.

Stipulating the importance of effective communication between superintendent and school board, the author sought to determine how the congruence of board members' and the superintendent's perceptions of the superintendent's behavior is related to communication between the superintendent and board. Luketich recorded, analyzed (using the "Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire"), and compared the self-perception of role by superintendent and the perception of him by board members; participants were four superintendents and 22 board members from four districts in Colorado. He noted a direct relationship between perceptual congruence and effective communication.

A/ 1


This field study of a school district was conducted by a school board member without the knowledge of fellow board members or of the community. He utilized Homans's "interaction and sentiment" and Kimball's "points of tangency" concepts in developing a theoretical statement of the relationship between the board and the social structure of the district community. The board plus associational and personal relationships of members constituted points of tangency within the social structure, the sentiments expressed at board meetings reflected the sentiments of the substructures of the district. From this followed Lutz's hypothesis: changes in interaction of board members, as well as changes in school board policy and membership were interdependent with changes at points of tangency in the social structure of the district.

A/ 2, 3

Magoulas studied background literature such as research studies, school administration textbooks, and state and national school board policy manuals, and also sent a questionnaire to school board chairmen and superintendents in Virginia, in an effort to determine the importance, the need, and the obstacles to written school board policies. The Virginia school board chairmen's and superintendents' opinions were compared with those of "authorities in the field." Magoulas prepared a guide for Virginia school boards to aid them in preparing written policy manuals. He noted a difference between the term "policies" and "rules and regulations." The majority of Virginia school boards did not have written policies but were either preparing or considering preparing them; the majority of board chairmen and superintendents considered written policies "important to a school system." Magoulas concluded that there was a "definite trend" both in Virginia and throughout the nation toward the use of written board policies, and that there was a need for a Virginia State publication explaining the general functions of school boards in Virginia.

A/ 1, 5, 8


This is a history of the development (up to 1894) of the Massachusetts public school system, written in a folksy, hometown style. Martin included some references to board establishment, composition, duties, and influence.

B/ 13


Twelve issues frequently considered by school boards were selected for analysis. An instrument was designed and sent to all school board members in Nassau and Suffolk counties; 232 members finally participated. Mattlin also studied the two counties' newspaper reports of community pressures during the period January, 1956 - May, 1959. The news reports confirmed
the survey findings: on all 12 issues, boards received "widespread and unremitting pressure" from multi-various community groups; "group: opposition to a school board decision tended to cause more negative and fewer neutral outcomes in the community." Mattlin concluded that school boards did not reflect a majority point of view due to their necessity to placate vociferous minority groups. He recommended consideration of elimination of public voting on budget and school bond issues. In its place the elected school board members would make the decision with the advice and approval of the State Education Department. Thus, being still responsive to community opinion, the board members would be free of "the constant threat of destructive minority group opposition."

A/ 3, 5, 8, 9, 10, 12

125. Mawhinney, Paul E. "Basic Principles for School Board Policy:"

Mawhinney presented 18 principles he had developed in his doctoral project at the University of Denver in order to undergird "the imperative areas of school board policy." The principles were presented in the form of recommendations, ranging in topics from policy formulation (all groups affected by adoption of policy should be represented); to the nature of "good" policy (policy should reflect the philosophy of the school system and be morally defensible); to legal impingements (policy should be kept within the framework of state legal codes).

A/ 1, 3, 5, 8, 10

126. McCarty, Donald J. Motives for Seeking School Board Membership.
152 pp.

The purpose of this interview study of 52 boards of education from different communities was to find the conscious motives of citizens who sought school board positions and the possible consequences of these motives. McCarty found that people sought board positions to satisfy a sense of civic duty, to gratify the ego, to enjoy a professional challenge, and to expand their knowledge. More than half of the board members questioned had self-interested motives for seeking office. He found no correlation between the independent variables of sex, marital status, length of service, age, income, education, and political affiliation and the dependent variable of motivation to become a board member. While religious representation was important to Catholics, it was not for Protestants. Pressure
groups and inharmonious relations with the superintendent were mentioned as problems of board members, but were not found to be related to type of motive. McCarty found that boards which had self-oriented members tended to have friction and to use a majority vote to settle disputes. Boards with community-oriented board members tended to have little friction and to settle their problems by compromising.

A/1, 2, 5, 6


This study compared the school board member selection and orientation procedures used in selected communities in order to determine what relationship, if any, existed between effectiveness of school board members and selection and orientation procedures used.

A/3, 5, 6


Authoritarianism was measured by the "P-scale" and attitudes towards school issues were measured by 20 items on a similar scale. These two measures were applied to a questionnaire sent to 63 "long tenure" school systems and to 40 "short tenure" systems. Only 23 responses from each of the groups of systems were returned. Noting the low percentage of returned questionnaires, McLain found that authoritarianism and administrative tenure were significantly related. Authoritarian administrators tended to have long tenure, whereas equalitarian administrators tended to have long tenure only if they were working with equalitarian school boards.

A/1, 2

To examine the effect of politics upon elected non-partisan school boards, Miliers did this case study of a suburban school board which had a history of endless conflict over board positions. He studied the particulars of a single election.


In this sociological study of four dissimilar suburban school districts, Minar analyzed how these districts functioned as political systems. He found that variations in decision-making characteristics were related to the characteristics of community context, and concluded with nine propositions concerning the districts' use of organizational skills in the political process.


Moehlman traced the history of the development of the public school system in Detroit over 225 years (1700-1925). He included occasional references to the position of the school board in this development and briefly discussed such problems as the drive for a smaller board.


Morehart comprehensively covered such topics as (1) how the city school district came into being; (2) the legal nature of boards of education, and their powers and duties as indicated in state statutes; and (3) the principles of code development. He included what he considered an ideal statute for the creation and maintenance of city school districts.

Morris argued, with respect to the control of American public education, that as we had backed away from the trap of centralism, we had fallen into the trap of localism.


The "Milwaukee school law" of 1897 was an attempt to remove that city from the grip of political control. It attempted to transfer to the professional officers purely professional duties, like the appointment of teachers and the selection of text-books; to secure in the personnel of (the school board) members whose personality and interest in educational questions would be a strong guarantee of fitness for their position. The law's attempt to improve Milwaukee schools by mayoral appointment of school board members of all political persuasions is attacked as obscuring responsibility and making punishment difficult.


This is a descriptive survey of the caucus committee plan for nominating candidates for boards of education. The investigation consisted of three parts: (1) an analysis of the constitutions and by-laws of 54 caucus committees; (2) an empirical evaluation of caucus committee procedure; and (3) examination of nomination practices in school districts not using caucus procedure, assessment of the feeling of need in these districts for an organized procedure for nominating candidates, and problems of developing such a procedure.

In this report data were presented showing the number of school board members and the selection procedure in each school district having an enrollment of 12,000 or more. There had been few changes in methods of selection since 1950.

A/ 6, 11


This bulletin presented an overview of contemporary American school boards and a review of (then) current trends in board organization and procedure. Data were summarized from responses to questionnaires which were originally distributed to 4343 school districts. All states and all types of boards were represented.

A/ 2, 3, 6, 11


The "new" board of education, as established by the Philadelphia School Law of 1906, was analyzed as not curing the ills that existed prior to the Law's enactment. The new 21 member board was too unwieldy; committees were appointed to assume the various responsibilities of the board. An efficiency comparison with smaller boards was presented, showing that the Philadelphia board transacted little business.

A/ 5, 6, 8, 10, 11, 13


Nearing studied the composition of school boards in 131 cities with a population of more than 40,000 in 1910. He found that board members were largely business and professional men.

A/ 2, 6, 13

Newell tested the thesis that state legal provisions under which school districts operated were related to the financial support of schools as shown in successful results of school bond and tax elections. In his study he considered state legal provisions which governed the selection and composition of school board members, as well as those which governed school district fiscal activity.

A/ 2, 3, 6, 10, 11


This report of a survey included a brief historical treatment, showing how American school boards had shifted from performing an administrative function to performing a policy-making function. The Buffalo Board of Education was autonomous, except that it used exams rather than board judgment to select teachers, the superintendent did not have full authority to nominate staff members, and it did not have fiscal responsibility and independence. School board members were nonpartisan and were selected by mayoral appointment. Several recommendations for improvement of the board were included in this report.

B/ 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, 9, 13


Despite recent developments such as teacher strikes and state legislation, which have made inroads into local control, Nugent claimed that local school boards are far from obsolete. He feared that local boards may become obsolete, however, if they do not learn to express their informed opinions on pending political decisions, thus exercising political leadership beyond school district lines. Nugent stated that the key to exercising such political leadership is associations of school boards.

A/ 7, 8, 9, 10, 12

"Understanding" was defined by Olson as consensus on the elements in a situation, rather than agreement on a course of action. Fourteen commonly held assumptions concerning superintendent-board relations were tested. Understanding was found to be related to the superintendent's ability to analyze problems, his receptiveness to criticism and the board proposals, the number of years superintendent and board had served together, and whether teachers had formal access to the board.

A/ 1, 2, 5


Orlich's case study of School District Number One in Cascade County, Montana focused upon the district's development of school board policies, bylaws, and administrative regulations. Four main conclusions based on the study were that: (1) board members did not always regard the consequences before accepting written policies; (2) there was no one individual or group that consistently influenced all board operations; (3) "traditional," "implied," and "written" were the three types of board policies; and (4) the writing of board policies did not seem to be impeded by the lack of a written school board philosophy. Orlich concluded that before they abided by written policies, the school board members had to feel the policies were "essential" to the operation of the board and the school district.

A/ 1, 2, 5, 8


Despite the officially non-partisan nature of school board elections, Ostrom proposed that politics still played a major role. Since differing views on educational policies exist,
interest groups will continue to use their candidates to endorse their objectives. Therefore, he believed that the usefulness of the non-partisan laws could be seriously questioned.

A/ 2, 3, 6, 9, 10


Friction which school administrators experienced with local communities in the administration of the public school programs was alleged to have hindered the improvement of educational administration. Ostrom reported that "policy formation" was selected as the most strategic aspect of the problem requiring investigation, for it had been the focal point of an administration-community conflict. He then concentrated on a sociological discussion of policy formation in general.

B/ 1, 3, 4, 5, 8


The author discussed the proper use and function of citizens' committees by administrators and school boards. He mentioned problems associated with citizens' committees, such as becoming a conflict source, being used as a public relations device, or being used as a source of protection for the administration or school board. Ideally, he stated, citizens' committees should serve as a source of fresh ideas.

B/ 1, 3, 5, 8


Philbrick presented a lengthy historical and comparative study of U.S. city school systems in which he was principally concerned with the facilities offered by public education in the latter half of the 19th century. Five pages, devoted to administration, contain a discussion of the value, composition, election procedures, and duties of school boards in major cities.

B/ 2, 6, 8, 13

Pinter sought to discover factors determining the policy-making behavior of school board members in a specific community. Of prime concern were (1) the relationships between role expectations and role perceptions, and the various responses concerning leadership behavior desired in school board members; (2) the "interpersonal needs" of the respondents in each group; and (3) their general social values. Included in these referent groups were school board members, "the influential males," and male homeowners from the same community. The research design was based on portions of Getzels' and Guba's "nomothetic-idiographic" theory and the "interpersonal needs" theory of Schutz. Pinter did not find "significant" differences among the groups with respect to the desired leadership behavior, their own interpersonal needs, or their general social values.

A/ 2, 3, 5


The purpose of this thesis was to determine the effects of selected variables concerning socio-economic status of school board members on the attitudes adopted toward community-confronted school problems. Proudfoot examined seven hypotheses in the province of Alberta, Canada, to see how members of high influence differed from those of low influence. Data is based on questionnaires given to members of the school boards of 20 districts in Alberta. He concluded that: (1) degree of influence in school board decisions tended to be positively related to social background of the school board member; (2) degree of influence tended to be positively related to level of educational attainment; (3) level of income and level of influence tended to be positively related; (4) degree of influence tended to be positively related to socio-economic status; (5) more influential members tended to hold different attitudes than those held by the less influential members; (6) patterns appeared in responses related to income level, educational level, and racial background; and (7) degree of influence tended to range over many areas.

A/ 2, 3, 4, 5, 8

Prouse attempted to remove the concept of "shared authority between the school board member and the superintendent" from the realm of the empirical to that of the scientific. He concentrated on five objectives: (1) to find "conceptual foundations for analysis" by examining recent social studies research; (2) to look for empirical data influential in decisional behavior; (3) to hypothesize regarding behavioral variables; (4) to build behavioral models based on the variables' interrelationships; and (5) to create "predictive propositions." The central source of conflict between the superintendent and board member was found to be a difference in understanding "the respective prerogatives and obligations of the interactive roles." The potential for conflict was inherently high, Prouse stated, in the relationship between the superintendent and the board member.

A/ 1, 2, 5, 8


A list of standards and practices believed to be effective in good board-superintendent relationships was compiled from the literature. The list was validated and compacted by a "jury of highly competent authorities;" 113 standard practices were finally included. This inventory was then applied in 59 selected Texas public school systems; school board member and superintendent responses were separated for the purpose of comparison. The superintendents and school board members generally agreed on the efficacy of the standard practices to be followed at the local level. However, 12 practices were assessed significantly differently by the two respondent groups; five of these 12 were related to personnel functions, indicating a "considerable lack of consensus in this area." Finance practices were the subject of the greatest amount of agreement between the two groups.

A/ 1, 2, 4, 5, 8

Reeves' main intent was to provide school board members a "source from which to get information concerning the status, functions, and activities of school boards..." with the hope of providing "information essential to the more effective performance of board functions." He provided an analysis of the development of the local board system, the board's legal status, and board efficiency. He summarized the ethical principles for school board members, and discussed the arguments for autonomy versus dependency of school boards.

A/ 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 8, 10, 12


Reller replied to the argument that "boards of education... stood in the way of the judgment of experts who were conversant with school problems," and that board members "often represented special interests." The author found the charges exaggerated, or true only in limited situations. He found, furthermore, that city councils or mayors placed education low in their priorities for attention, and that publicly elected superintendents with partisan platforms were unsuited for objective educational requirements. Reller termed consideration of education as a municipal function as a "looking backwards."

A/ 12


Reller devoted one chapter to superintendent-board relations and stressed generally the inability of boards, because of their political orientation, excessive size, and lack of educational expertise, to help the superintendent solve educational problems. The approach is historical; Reller outlined several board-superintendent imbroglios with their effect, usually deleterious, on educational progress.

B/ 1, 2, 5

Rice reported on the historic study he had made, in early 1892, of school operations in 36 cities. Schools were classified according to the author's judgment of quality of teaching, and detailed observations and examples from many cities were used to justify the judgments. Rice placed most of the blame for poor schools on the corrupt politics of school boards. The book remains a classic in American education because of the nation-wide public and professional demands for reform which followed publication of Rice's study.

B/ 1, 4, 13


Riese devised an instrument to determine board members' expectations of desirable administrative behavior and perceptions of actual administrative behavior. The instrument consisted of situational episodes, in five categories, with possible behavior patterns listed. The respondent board members indicated which patterns they desired their superintendent to follow, and which they thought he actually would follow. Respondents were able to enter free responses. Biographical data from both superintendents and responding board members were also collected. The greatest number of significant differences in expectations and perceptions were found in the area of school employee relationships.

A/ 1, 2


One hundred and sixty school districts in Nebraska were studied to determine the extent and the effectiveness of the use of written school board policies. Structured interviews were held with superintendents of 30 randomly selected districts. From these, six districts were chosen as those most effectively using written school policies. A questionnaire was given to the teachers and principals in these six schools; it was then sent to school board members and superintendents of the other 160 schools. Riggs found (1) that a large majority of
Superintendents thought all school systems should be required to have written school policies; (2) that teachers and principals "greatly preferred" to work in school systems with written policies; (3) that many times the superintendent had written the policy manual himself and that the school board's main function was to adopt it; and (4) that no one method of developing the written policies was believed to be the best, but that generally superintendents wanted to work with board members, principals, teachers, and lay committees in policy formation.

A/ 1, 3, 5, 8


Roach reviewed a school segregation case in an attempt to identify and clarify rights of school boards, and of individual board members, as they attempted to carry out their mandated duties. In this case, the board's duty was to make suitable school facilities available for all children of the district. Roach identified six legal principles of broad applicability.

A/ 3, 5, 7, 8, 10, 12


The purpose of this study was to discover who makes educational decisions, who makes decisions on other community issues, and whether the two types of issues are decided by the same persons. Rosenthal found that the public school decisions in both New Jersey communities studied were made primarily by professional educators, particularly the superintendent. Other decisions were made by a variety of other local actors. Thus he concluded that the "community power structure" thesis needs qualification.

B/ 1, 3, 4, 5, 8


From his experience as President of the New York City Board of Education, Rubin argued that a local school should present a united front, should lead its community, and should work out in practice its role in making policy.

A/ 1, 3, 4, 5, 8

In this study of 45 school districts, Samson tested the hypothesis that the tenure of the administrator and the effectiveness of board membership were related, and that the tenure of the administrator and certain factors of board operation were related. By means of questionnaires, interviews, and case studies of six communities, he found that small districts had a high turnover of superintendents and usually promoted their superintendents from positions within the district, and that people chosen with previous experience in the superintendency tended to have remained in their previous position for only a few years. In low turnover districts, he found that boards delegated a great deal of authority to the superintendent, the community had a good understanding of the purposes of the school program, and highly qualified people were willing to serve on the board. Samson also found that the mechanics of board operation seemed to have no causal relation to tenure of administrator, but that the extent to which the board and the superintendent had "cooperatively defined" their respective functions did. He concluded that most districts had inadequate means of selecting superintendents, and he made several recommendations as to how to improve the functioning of boards and superintendents.

A/ 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 9, 11


The authors reported on an exhaustive study of government in New York City, and examined in detail both formal and informal arrangements for decision-making. This is an authoritative source for anyone who wish to study, or participate in, New York City's local governmental agencies. It is essentially a description of the issues, participants, and decision-making in New York's politics.

B/ 1, 3, 5, 6, 8, 9, 10


Sears examined existing theories and practices of school administration, and formulated a set of administrative recommendations which would improve and clarify then current practices. He discussed the administrative duties of school
boards, their powers, and their limitations.

B/ 1, 5, 8, 10


This book contains a brief history of publicly financed English schools from 1833 to 1927, and of the function of the Board of Education of England and Wales from 1899 to 1927. Selby-Bigge pointed out that, unlike American school boards, this board was national in scope and had fewer powers than a local American school board. The main function of the English Board of Education was to obtain money from Parliament and to distribute it to local districts if they met certain conditions. At various periods in England's history the Board had provided schools, enforced attendance of school till a minimum age of each pupil was reached, removed sources of inefficiency in staffing and organization, inspected schools to see that money granted them was being used efficiently, organized several levels of public education, and tried to make up for the inequalities between local districts due to socio-economic differences.

A/ 7, 8, 10, 13


Shaplen described a community conflict in Scarsdale, New York, where a few citizens became upset because the high school library contained books with allegedly Communist propaganda. The school superintendent and school board insisted that the books remain in the library and were supported at the next school board election by an overwhelming margin.

B/ 3, 4


Shock attempted to identify the patterns of decision-making usually followed in the determination of policy by the board of trustees in one high school district. In a majority of instances, the board followed the pattern of accepting the superintendent's recommendation; variations from this pattern
were found to be directly related to the type of problem.

A/ 1, 4, 5, 8


Sletten explored the areas of agreement and disagreement between superintendents and board members based upon data gathered in Montana. He concluded that much conflict arose from value and attitude differences.

A/ 1, 2


Smith sought to evaluate school board policy manuals in terms of guidelines developed through a review of the literature. He concluded that, in their present form, most policy manuals of urban southeastern school districts tended to offer inadequate guidance to school board members, employees of the board, and the general public. There was a time lag between recommendations of authorities and the implementation of those recommendations. Most manuals failed to provide for policy changes, and little attention had been paid to the factor of readability.

A/ 1, 3, 5, 8, 10


The purpose of this study was to compare teachers' expectations of themselves with others' expectations of the teacher's role. Comparisons with a 1941 study showed that the teachers and board members in this 1959 study were far more liberal in attitude toward teacher behavior than were those in the 1941 nation-wide study. The order of liberality-to-restrictiveness among the major groups was found to be: secondary teachers, most liberal; elementary teachers, next; citizens, a very close
third; administrators, close to fifth; and board members, most restrictive.

A/ 1, 2


Soper's primary purpose was to reveal to boards of education their powers and liabilities with respect to taxation for the support of education. Another aim was to determine the trend of court decisions in order to prevent expensive litigation.

A/ 8, 10


This article is a critique of a document by the Chicago Board of Education, which was written to clarify the distinction between the policy-making functions of the board and the administrative responsibility of the superintendent. The author generally commended the document, but he also mentioned several problem-areas that were not covered.

A/ 1, 8


Stapley summarized a study of existing written school board policies, which he defined as agreements "by members of an administrative body describing or defining the manner in which it will act." He maintained that policies should be written so as to: (1) let the public know how the schools are being administered; (2) force the superintendent and board members to focus their attention on the school's objectives; (3) guarantee that board procedure and decision-making will be consistent; (4) clarify the duties of board and superintendent; (5) orient new superintendents and board members; and (6) develop strong lay leadership.

A/ 1, 3, 4, 5, 8

Stapley compiled the results of a series of studies, sponsored by the Midwest Administration Center, dealing with the composition, responsibilities, duties, and operations of school boards.

A/ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 11


The authors described 32 specific problem situations common to school boards and offered specific recommendations for the solution of these problems. In their recommendations they stressed the distinction between the superintendent as policy-maker and administrator of the schools and the board member as adviser, investigator, and approver of policy.

A/ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8, 10


The purposes of the study were to establish a theoretical position for boards to measure their practices in relationship to possible liability, and to discover and analyze practices currently carried on in selected public schools of Ohio. It was concluded that if the national trend of the abrogation of school board immunity to tort liability continues and extends itself in Ohio, many practices now followed by Ohio schools would provide bases for claims against the boards of education. A conceptual change toward the justification of school board liability was identified as taking place among Ohio boards of education.

A/ 3, 8, 10


"Recent developments" in Baltimore tended to prove that American schools had not yet been freed of political influence, and that "eternal vigilance is a necessary condition for
maintaining an efficient system of public education under professional control." The power of committees and ward politics had been the bane of Baltimore's schools; some teachers were only high school graduates; many schools had more than one principal. A new city charter and a superintendent appointed by a "blue-ribbon" committee was successfully thwarted by elements in the faculties and on the board itself.

Strayer sought to prove his point, re the impossibility to structure out (of education) pernicious influences, by a minute description of the political infighting in Baltimore.

B/ 1, 2, 3, 5, 6, 10


Strayer surveyed the Boston school system in its entirety and made appropriate recommendations for change. Part of the report is directed to the functioning of the board, but the majority of his recommendations concern other areas of school administration.

B/ 1, 8


Strayer dealt with public school administration in California, with some comments directed to the duties and responsibilities of boards of education.

B/ 8


Struble's analysis of the influence of social factors on school board efficiency was based on data derived from questionnaires sent to city superintendents. He discussed vocation, age, years of service, teaching experience, and sex as factors which influenced effective school board behavior.

A/ 2, 8

Studebaker presented five general principles of school board organization: (1) equality of membership; (2) legislation as the chief function; (3) the superintendent as chief executive officer; (4) department heads elected by board only upon nomination of superintendent; and (5) responsibility for management and operation of the system completely with the superintendent. A general argument for clarity of objectives and responsibilities in all areas pervades the article.

A/ 1, 4, 5, 8


Suzzallo traced the development of local school supervision in Massachusetts from early colonial times up to the 1800's. School board received much of his attention.

B/ 1, 5, 6, 8, 13


Sweitzer reviewed the literature pertinent to the selection and effectiveness of school board members. He summarized the studies by Whalen and McGhehey at Indiana University, and concluded that there was no definite evidence to indicate that either the appointive or the elective method was superior. He stated that the active concern of lay and professional people regarding the quality of their school boards was the essential element in selecting more effective board members.

A/ 2, 6


Teal examined the relationship between the social background of the school board member and his attitude toward problems in education. He described the typical board member in the larger
districts of Pennsylvania in terms of the average findings on questionnaires. Those members with the most formal education were found to be most liberal in their attitudes. Occupational status, annual income, younger age, and having children in school were also factors which were found to be related to liberal attitudes.

A/ 2


Theisen considered the problem of how lay boards of education could provide for the administration of city school systems through professional chief executives. He analyzed the practices of school boards in cities of various sizes and attempted to evaluate these practices, in order to discover what functions boards performed and what functions were delegated to executives.

A/ 1, 5, 8, 11


Thomas studied administrator-school board relationships, utilizing small group research and theory. He found the behavior pattern of school boards to be very stable and little affected by the presence of a new administrator or new board members. New administrators made a greater attempt to control decisions than did experienced administrators who attempted to control the information available to the groups. Administrators were found to be less aware of capabilities of other group members than were board members.

A/ 1, 2, 5

The general purpose of this study was to effect a better understanding of school board members in Oregon. After studying data on each of the separate classifications, Tiedt found some relationships; for example, level of education was found to be related to authoritarianism, morality, contemptuousness, and liberalism-conservatism.

A/ 2


Troester sought to determine which of several selected factors was related to effectiveness of public school board members. He found that males continued to dominate board membership; board members had a higher degree of formal education than the general adult population; effective board members were significantly older than less effective ones; and a large majority of board members were in business or were professional men and women. Particular attention was given to personal characteristics and attitudes of board members.

A/ 2, 8


The article, stemming from a Chicago mayor's attempt to remove board members whose appointments he originally controlled, focused on the general advisability of such mayoral prerogative, as well as on the question of appointive or elective boards. The opinions of "superintendents of several of our largest cities" were summarized and quoted anonymously. The author then proceeded to discuss the subordination (to the city) versus the independence of the educational system.

A/ 3, 6, 9, 10

The study sought to explore the ways in which written policy statements may operate to improve education in a school district, and to relate a codification procedure to educational goals. The preparation of written policies should involve the superintendent, school board, faculty, and other employees, Turnbaugh stated. A procedure of widespread participation in each step of the codification was found to be usable. Conclusions of the study were that (1) a usable procedure was found; (2) policy codification did not require a prohibitive amount of time; and (3) spoken participation at board meetings became more evenly distributed while policies were being codified.

A / 1, 5, 8


Tuttle, the first executive secretary (1949-1956) of the National School Boards Association, expressed his ideas about how school boards ought to operate. He included several chapters dealing with relationships among school board associations.

A / 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 8


Usdan examined the factors contributing to the success of educational processes in the state of New York, focusing upon educational leaders at the state and local levels. He found that New York's unique political power over education could be explained by the history of educational leadership, the strength and unity of educational interests at the state level, and the effective "grass roots" political activity by educational leaders.

B / 8, 10, 12, 13

In this study of the foundations of social life in a rural community, the authors considered the town's relationship to modern industrial society, its social classes, and its political arrangements. They observed that public enactments of community life bore little relationship to the private values of its members. In the course of this analysis, the school board was analyzed in terms of social composition, method of selecting members, consequences of rural dominance, and relationship with the principal.

B/ 1, 2, 6, 11


The purposes of this study were to determine the self-expressed needs of board chairmen in Georgia, to compare these needs with the needs expressed by superintendents of schools, and to examine the relationships between the self-expressed needs and certain factors (such as age and educational level of chairmen). Weitman found the greatest in-service educational needs felt by chairmen to be in the areas of evaluation of school programs, the philosophy of mass compulsory education, and changing Federal policies towards education.

A/ 1, 2, 6


Wells analyzed conditions of employment of school attorneys in Michigan; ascertained problems in the relationship between counsel, superintendent and the school board; and isolated criteria useful in establishing the school attorney as an integral part of the school administrative organization. Wells discussed the needs for local legal counsel in school districts, for the adoption of administrative policies by school boards, and for an awareness of the disparity in fees paid to local legal counsel.

B/ 1, 8, 10

E lecting the school board by popular vote was cited as the evil responsible for a school system "lower than the masses of pupils in other cities." Other factors cited were: (1) lack of line of demarcation between educational and management areas; (2) friction between Protestant-Republicans and Catholic-Democrats; (3) ability of publishers to divide the committee from its board of supervisors; and (4) proliferation of committees, thus increasing the cost of schooling.

A/ 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8, 10


Whalen measured the relative effectiveness of elected and appointed board members. He concluded that a high percentage of elected members functioned effectively, but that appointmen by mayor or city council produced more effective members than did election.

A/ 6


White reviewed research literature dealing with selected school board problems and identified problems in need of further research. White recommended additional study on (1) the effects of personal characteristics of board members on criterion performance; (2) effective board in-service training; (3) measurement problems concerning "effective" and "ineffective" performance of board members; (4) internal board organization; and (5) effective board relationships with lay committees.

A/ 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 8

The data accumulated in this study were based on surveys of all local boards in school systems with pupil enrollment of at least 1200. White's principal concern was a comparison of the organization and practices of the boards surveyed and an analysis of the differences resulting from district size, location, and election procedure.

A/2, 5, 6, 11


Members of six "discordant" and three "harmonious" school boards were interviewed to determine and analyze causes of discordant school boards. Williamson found that discordant boards did not confine their activities to policy-making and evaluation, but engaged in administrative responsibilities, to the detriment of school district operations. The definite pattern of voting practiced by discordant board members indicated their greater interest in protecting a vote alignment than in determining board issues on the individual merits of the cases. Williamson recommended that in communities where small factions controlled school board members, citizens should unite to canvass the area for qualified candidates.

A/1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8


A proposal by the Republican party of Philadelphia to exact 2% of the salaries of Republican teacher appointees was the genesis of this article. The school system was described as corrupted by the appointment of teachers by ward bosses. The ward boards of education were seen as limiting systems. Proof of extortion of money from teacher applicants was offered. Woodruff closed with an account of the personal humiliation of an "upright" ward board member by the establishment.

B/1, 2, 3, 5, 8, 10

Wright argued that the two essentials for improving board-superintendent relations were (1) increased understanding of the unique tasks of each, and (2) ability and willingness to perform those tasks.


Wyss investigated certain characteristics of school board members, the agencies and reasons influencing members to become candidates for the board, and certain of their activities in becoming trained to serve their schools. He found that the majority of members were motivated toward school improvement, although the given reasons for service to the board were not always related to a member's activities. Members from high educational and income levels more actively trained themselves for their positions than did others; those who attended meetings and read much tended to be more active in school improvement than other members.


The public school was analyzed as the focus of the many institutions and societal forces that determine the development of the child. The board was summarized as "the agent of the state": interpreting community needs, levying taxes, budgeting, and interpreting the educational program to the community. The superintendency was considered as part of the board's administrative staff. Other areas of consideration were the house organ, the teachers' handbook, advisory councils, and the superintendent's report.
INDEX

(Note: The 204 entries in the annotated bibliography have been classified into 14 categories. Each category is listed below, followed by the identifying numbers of all entries that deal with that category. Many entries are classified under more than one category.)

Category 1: School Board Relationships with Administrators and Teachers: 1, 4, 5, 6, 9, 12, 13, 16, 17, 18, 19, 20, 21, 22, 26, 27, 33, 39, 43, 45, 47, 49, 51, 53, 54, 56, 57, 58, 59, 60, 62, 63, 64, 65, 66, 69, 72, 74, 76, 79, 80, 81, 82, 83, 85, 86, 89, 90, 91, 92, 93, 94, 95, 96, 98, 99, 100, 103, 104, 105, 110, 112, 114, 115, 116, 118, 120, 122, 125, 126, 128, 130, 141, 143, 144, 146, 147, 151, 152, 153, 155, 156, 157, 158, 160, 161, 162, 163, 164, 167, 168, 169, 170, 172, 173, 174, 175, 177, 178, 181, 182, 185, 186, 190, 191, 193, 194, 195, 196, 198, 200, 201, 202, 204

Category 2: Individual Characteristics of School Board Members: 1, 3, 5, 6, 7, 9, 11, 18, 20, 25, 30, 32, 33, 36, 37, 42, 43, 46, 50, 53, 54, 56, 57, 60, 64, 66, 72, 75, 78, 79, 81, 82, 83, 84, 87, 89, 92, 95, 99, 103, 108, 112, 116, 119, 121, 126, 128, 130, 137, 139, 140, 141, 143, 144, 145, 148, 149, 150, 151, 152, 153, 155, 157, 162, 168, 170, 174, 175, 177, 180, 183, 184, 186, 187, 188, 191, 193, 194, 196, 198, 199, 200, 201, 202, 203


Category 7; School Board Relationships with State and Federal Governmental Agencies: 19, 33, 62, 64, 97, 98, 99, 114, 115, 142, 159, 165, 198


Category 9; Predicted and Recommended School Board Structures and Functions: 6, 7, 14, 27, 33, 41, 43, 45, 51, 67, 86, 89, 98, 107, 114, 115, 124, 141, 142, 145, 162, 163, 189, 192

Category 10; Legal Constraints on School Board Activities: 5, 10, 12, 19, 20, 25, 27, 32, 40, 54, 60, 62, 63, 64, 66, 69, 72, 73, 76, 79, 84, 85, 88, 91, 92, 94, 96, 97, 99, 118, 124, 125, 132, 134, 138, 140, 142, 145, 153, 159, 163, 164, 165, 169, 171, 175, 176, 177, 189, 192, 195, 196, 201, 204

Category 11; Relationships of Size and Location of School District to School Board Structure and Function: 5, 9, 20, 24, 63, 98, 104, 130, 136, 137, 138, 140, 162, 174, 185, 193, 199

Category 12; Local Control of Education: 8, 67, 68, 93, 97, 98, 101, 102, 106, 114, 115, 124, 133, 142, 153, 154, 159, 192


Category 14; Research on School Boards: 38, 97