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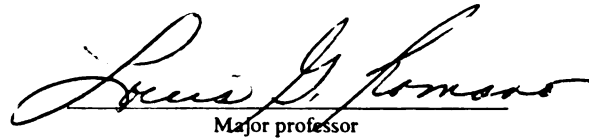
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Decision Process And Factors Of
Representation, Role, Training, And
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Cheryl A. Adamkiewicz

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of the requirements for

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**MICHIGAN K-12 PUBLIC SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS:
DECISION PROCESSES AND FACTORS OF REPRESENTATION, ROLE,
TRAINING, AND ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE.**

VOLUME I

By

C. A. Adamkiewicz

A DISSERTATION

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

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Educational Administration

1994

ABSTRACT

MICHIGAN K-12 PUBLIC SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS: DECISION PROCESSES AND FACTORS OF REPRESENTATION, ROLE, TRAINING, AND ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE.

By

C. A. Adamkiewicz

This exploratory study was designed to identify the factors of representation, role, training, organizational structure, and decision process as perceived by board members and superintendents for the purpose of determining if these factors were interrelated or significant to school board decision making. Surveys were sent to all school board presidents, all superintendents, and one random board member from the 524 K-12 school districts in Michigan. Responses were received from 88% of Michigan's K-12 school districts. Survey instruments were designed by the researcher and included questions on five decision processes and eight organizational structures. In addition questions were asked on the subjects of trustee versus delegate representational style, incrementalism, groupthink, and special interest pressure. A large section of the survey was also devoted to school board training. Data were analyzed using the SPSS statistical computer program and described by frequencies, distributions and crosstabulations.

Results indicated that 77% of board respondents primarily use a Trustee representational style; 87% assume a Legislative or policy making role; 25% believe a Traditional organizational structure is used in their district; and 40% use an Approval or "rubber stamp" decision process. The majority of board respondents believe they represent the Community, while 41% believe they represent the District. In addition, 70% of all respondents believe their boards prefer incrementalism or small changes over time rather than major change, while 42% believe that their boards have changed tentative decisions due to special interest pressure.

C. A. Adamkiewicz

Concerning training, 78% of board respondents have received one training session in role; 66% in decision process; and 43% in organizational structure. Superintendents identify Role as the most needed training area for their boards, while boards identify Finance. Although 62% of board respondents have not completed the Michigan Association of School Boards voluntary training program, 67% of superintendents, 48% of board presidents, and 53% of board members favor mandatory board training in Michigan.

Further findings suggest that there are significant relationships between the variables of representation and representational style; representation and role; as well as decision process and organizational structure. Significant relationships were also found between incrementalism, special interest pressure and decision process.

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1994

**This work is dedicated to my daughters,
Lisa and Andrea Calkins
and to Ms. Theresa Campbell-Braun my third grade teacher.**

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was aided by the interest and support of many people who deserve my gratitude:

I would like to thank Mr. Justin King of the Michigan Association of School Boards and Dr. Jeremy Keidel of the Michigan Association of School Administrators for their interest and approval of this research. I wish to thank superintendents, Mr. Dean Atkins, Mr. Andrew DeSaeger, Mr. Tom Dove, Mr. Charles Dumas, and Dr. Jon Reynolds for believing in this research enough to involve their districts in the pilot study. Equally, I would like to acknowledge all the board members and superintendents who took the time and cared enough about school boards to return the survey.

I wish to extend my heartfelt appreciation to Mr. John H. Gretzinger for his understanding and prompt legal opinion.

I especially wish to thank Dr. Louis Romano, whose friendship and counsel as chairman of my doctoral committee helped me through this effort. My gratitude is also extended to my other committee friends Dr. Samuel Moore, Dr. William Joyce, and Dr. Roger Niemeyer, whose availability, support, and critical analysis were exceptional.

My gratitude for the help, support, and unfailing interest in this project is given to: Andrea Calkins, Jo Colby, Dennis Eagle, Dr. Randy Fotiu, Lorraine Hull, and my very thorough editor Cheryl O'Brien.

Lastly, I wish to acknowledge certain past college instructors, who particularly supported my educational growth and encouraged me to continue: Dr. Alwynelle Ahl, Dr. Philip Cusick, Dr. Kevin Gottlieb, Dr. Frederick Ignatovich, Dr. Richard Johnson, Dr. John Seuhr, Dr. Donald Shebuski, Dr. Norman Stewart, and Professor Irving Taran.

I thank God for the kindness that all these people have shown me and for the ability to finish this work.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Always, however, we think and work from within some conceptual framework, some theoretical bias, some intellectual stance, which of course is to be held lightly, but nonetheless held, however provisionally, until a better one comes along...A theory can be wrong and still lead to progress. Gelpi, 1960

STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

Michigan K-12 School Board Members are elected by fellow resident voters but receive their board decision making power directly from the state legislature. The local school board is legally responsible for everything that happens, programs and procedures, within the local school district. Their decisions on how local schools are run carry the weight of law and determine the direction and quality of that school system. Most local school board members take their board work very seriously and work hard to try to make good decisions. Decision making is what school boards do.

However, the local school board in Michigan and across the nation has been plagued by controversy, conflict and criticism almost from its inception.

The history of educational government at the local level is replete with crisis. The typical local school district may be viewed as moving from one educational crisis to another with periods of dullness between. (Iannaccone and Lutz, 1970, p. 24)

The overall criticism is specific that school boards are counterproductive to progress in school development. They "prevent things from happening rather than making them happen" (Shanker, President of the American Federation of Teachers, 1989). Furthermore,

the Institute of Educational Leadership Report School Boards: Strengthening Grass Roots Leadership (1986) points out that many school board members represent "single constituencies or issues" which cause conflict and prevent school board effectiveness. Yet, Zerchykov in the 1984 Institute for Responsive Education Report, "School Boards and the Communities They Represent: An Inventory of the Research. Final Draft" believes that school board members should be more politically responsive to special constituencies and therefore more representative of the specific people who voted for them. In reviewing the literature, it is clear that the debate of school board representation began early in the history of school boards and remains unresolved. Without a clear referendum on representation, school board members may exhibit partiality toward special interest groups in their decision making (Davies, 1984; Garber and Edwards, 1963; Goldhammer, 1964; Gross, 1958; Jackson, 1926; Jacobson, 1964; Meeting the Challenges of School Board Leadership, NSBA, 1973; Putnam, 1904).

Some school board members also interfere in daily school operations as appellate judges or attempt to do the superintendent's job rather than remain in the role of policy makers. These actions can impact the effectiveness of the organizational district. The IEL Report states that those board members who pursue intervention roles do not view the school district as a whole but reduce the decision work of the board to case by case situations:

They are not reluctant to interfere in management, nor to pass judgment on individual or system performance. They brandish the word 'accountability' with abandon, usually in the name of this or that constituency. They do not view the system as a whole. Rather, they see a shabby school, an upset parent, a poor

teacher, an unfair principal, an incident, a leaky roof, each of which is an occasion for intervention. (School Boards: Strengthening Grass Roots Leadership, Institute for Educational Leadership, 1986, p.17)

McGonagill, in the September 1987 issue of Phi Delta Kappan, reported that board member intervention occasionally causes alliances with constituents against staff members. This could lead to a total breakdown of the organizational structure as staff feel untrusted and see their best efforts undermined. Further, the IEL Report states that staff, community and the children are the eventual losers when the school board role is unclear:

Infighting, public airing of disagreements and an inability of boards and superintendents to work together and respond to diverse constituencies permeate many school system environments, particularly in urban areas...Dissension causes confusion, affects the morale and professionalism of those who staff the schools and causes lack of confidence in educational leadership within a community. Eventually, it limits the education of children. (School Boards: Strengthening Grass Roots Leadership, Institute of Educational Leadership, 1986, p. 2)

Authors agree that school boards are legally policy making legislative bodies but may engage in judicial or administrative roles that cause conflict, and disruption in the organization structure and in decision making (Boardsmanship, 1961; Gatti and Gatti, 1990; Goldhammer, 1964; McGonagill, 1987; Reeves, 1954; Valente, 1980; Wilson, 1976).

In Michigan, some drastic proposals have been made to solve the problems of school governance. For instance, the Michigan Education Association calls for disbanding local school boards and providing a different organizational structure for schooling ("Union Offers Drastic School Reform Plan," Detroit Free Press, January 25, 1993, p.1). The

MEA's school reform proposal, "Schools of the 21st Century," also recommends a new "decisionmaking" process for schools:

It is essential to use a participatory model in the total decisionmaking (sic) process and to discontinue the use of the industrial model of top down management. ("Schools of the 21st Century," Courtesy: Michigan Education Association, 1993)

According to Cusick (1992) in The Educational System: Its Nature and Logic there are two roads to educational reform, either change the organizational structure or add a program to achieve equity in education. In The Administration of Public Education, Knezevich (1984) suggests that, "Creation of the kind of organization structure conducive to more effective decision making is important." However, at least eight complex and different organizational structures were found in the literature that can be used in schools (Blau, 1963; Bolman and Deal, 1991; Burns and Stalker 1961; Chapman, 1990; Cusick, 1992; Iannaccone and Lutz, 1970; Knezevich, 1984; Morgan, 1986; Weber, trans: Henderson and Parsons, 1964). There is disharmony among authors on which structures are currently prevalent in school districts and which structures are most useful. There is also evidence that some structures may either incorporate certain decision making processes or have a direct influence on the decision making process.

Furthermore, although school board member training might help to alleviate the controversies of school boards, no training is mandated for school boards in Michigan. School board members are expected to make important decisions from their first day of service, some without benefit of higher education or any training whatsoever. The authors of the IEL Report also believe that: "The need for school board education and development is recognized generally, but too often it is merely

informational and episodic." Further, findings from the literature review indicate that although "role and responsibility" or "leadership" may be taught in some programs, organizational structure is not taught at all. In addition, decision making skills do not seem to be an important priority as a full session class in any board member training curriculum in the country (Bond-Brewer and Braverman, 1990; Ficklen, 1985; Goins, 1985; Laffey, 1985; MacDougall, 1988; Morris, 1986; Reecer, 1990). However, decision making training is provided as one of five sub-topics taught during a a three hour Leadership Skills class in the Michigan Association of School Boards voluntary certification program (Courtesy: Michigan Association of School Boards, January 1, 1993). Just as each state has a different list of curriculum topics, there is also disagreement on whether school board training should be mandatory or voluntary.

In summary, the majority of the literature on the controversy of school boards seems to be centered on four major areas of educational debate:

1. The dilemma of representation: Who should the school board represent when making decisions, the State, community, district, special interest, or other power structure?
2. The consequence of roles: Which role should school board members choose, legislative, executive/administrative, or judicial? What are the consequences of role choice?
3. The issue of organizational structure and its relationship to school board decision making: Do school boards understand which organizational structure they are using? Which organizational structure is primarily used in schools? Which decision process is associated with which organizational structure?

4. The direction of school board member training: Are Michigan school board members trained in representation, role, organizational structure, and decision making? Should school board members receive voluntary or mandatory training? Who is responsible for the training and what should be taught?

PURPOSE OF THE EXPLORATORY ANALYSIS

It is the researcher's premise that these four main factors of representation, role, organizational structure, and training are related. Each plays a part in school board decision making behavior, and each may be explained within the context of decision theory. It is the purpose of this dissertation to attempt to reveal this relationship in an exploratory analysis and use decision theory as a framework to further understand the decision making processes now employed by Michigan K-12 school boards. In general, little recent research has been conducted on school boards. No previous research was found that attempted to find an association between these factors, or attempted to determine which representation, role, decision process or organizational structures were primarily used by Michigan school board members.

Secondly, there are no school board training prerequisites or mandates for school board members in Michigan. School board members are expected to logically decide issues and policies without benefit of instruction in organizational structure, representation, roles or decision making processes. It is the hope of this researcher to include elements on training in this analysis and in particular on the voluntary program instituted by the Michigan Association of School Boards.

THEORETICAL RATIONALE

In Boardmanship: A Guide for the School Board Member (1961), it states that decision making is what school board members do. Legally the choices only belong to them as a whole and not to any individual board member. Their decisions determine the quality of education. In the past, information and knowledge were considered the prime requisites for good decision making.

Whether a school system is excellent or poor is in part attributable to the decisions of past and present school board members...The first requirement for an effective school board member is that he have the information and knowledge on which to base his decisions. (Gross, 1958, p. 136, 94)

The majority of preceding researchers have focused on improving school board member inservice training and effectiveness (Crain, 1987; Curtis, 1990; Goins, 1985; Hansen, 1988; Holwey, 1992; Jinks, 1979; Johnson, 1990; Kask, 1990; Kerrins, 1984; Kleinstiver, 1986; Koeninger, 1988; Morgan, 1987; Neubauer, 1983; Schuster, 1980; Selby, 1984). The idea was to increase the school board members' knowledge base in an attempt to augment the quality of decisions (Schuster, 1980).

Subsequently, some information and knowledge bases improved. Merz (1983) found in Missouri, New Jersey and Washington, that "acquiring information and expertise was not perceived by superintendents or board members as a significant problem for school boards." According to Gross (1958) in Who Runs Our Schools?, school board members realized long ago that gaining information and knowledge was not their only issue but the decision process itself was a problem. However they considered the decision process to be a combination of leadership, open mindedness, and the manner in which meetings were conducted:

To summarize then: school board members in specifying particular dissatisfactions with their school board and its functions emphasize first the level of information, or the basis for their decisions, and then the processes by means of which their decisions are reached...The process of this decision making is probably crucial, at least for the ease with which decisions will be reached, if not for the actual content of the final decision. Adequate leadership, open mindedness in discussion, the conduct of meetings--all of these influence the kinds of decisions a school board will reach. And some board members, by their expressed dissatisfactions, recognize these as areas in which improvement would significantly affect the functioning of the board and, ultimately, the public schools in their communities. (Gross, 1958, p. 94)

Some board members may still believe that these are the main elements in making decisions, or may not be able to recognize how their decisions are made. Kinder (1963) found in Missouri that, "School board members either could not or would not explain why they made a particular decision." He recommended that further study should be made in the area of school board decision making since, "School board members tend to a significant degree to follow tradition in making decisions." In 1964, Goldhammer stated that improving the decision process was the best way to improve school board decision making:

The solution to the improvement of the board's decision making appears to lie in the improvement of the deliberative process. Board members need to study the actual process that they employ in order to determine the extent to which they make decision making an empirical search for general principles rather than a loose discussion group basing its important decisions on evidence which may not meet the criteria of acceptability. (Goldhammer, 1964, p. 85)

Logically, for board members to study the deliberative or decision process, some type of training may need to be provided. Indeed, many states provide mandatory training or state school board associations provide voluntary training programs for school board members.

However, a review of the literature did not provide any indication that decision processes for school boards are taught as a major area of study in any program or in any state in the nation. Rather, the conventional wisdom has prescribed a need for consensus in a political decision making arena (Boggs, 1985; Iannaccone and Lutz, 1970).

It is possible that decision processes are not taught because decision making theory is a relatively new field shared by many disciplines. There are at least two major divergent views on the question of "rationality," and several sub-theories on the question of people's beliefs and preferences in decision making. For example, some have advocated a rational decision process for school boards and other decision making groups (Bemis, 1955; Campbell, Bridges, and Nystrand, 1977; Griffith, 1979; Boardsmanship, 1961; Knezevich, 1984; Newman, Summer, and Warren, 1967; Wilson, 1976). They argue that decisions are either rational or non-rational. The rational decision maker acts on the basis of deliberation, careful diagnosis and a "thorough consideration of the means used to achieve a given end" (Campbell, Bridges, and Nystrand, 1977). A rational decision process is a series of steps that attempts to find the best solution based on the comparison of many well thought out alternatives. This is called optimizing or maximizing. An irrational decision is made on the basis of a haphazard whim, caprice, or guesses, and "without serious intellectual activity" (Griffith, 1979).

On the other hand, authors have expounded on Herbert A. Simon's bounded rationality theory (Glasman and Nevo, 1988; Janis and Mann, 1977; Pfiffner and Sherwood, 1960; Simon, 1958a, 1977b, 1979c, 1986d, 1992e; Tversky and Kahneman, 1990). Simon, in Administrative

Behavior (1958) and other works, states that there is a discrepancy between the principle of rational decision making and actual observed human behavior. He believes that "neither people's knowledge nor powers of calculation allow them to achieve the high levels of optimal adaptation of means to ends." They are bounded by the reality of their own limitations to choose alternatives that are "good enough" to meet the limited number of needs that they can perceive. A bounded or subjective rationality decision process is called "satisficing" in which a selective search is carried out for a few alternatives that may meet a test of feasibility, "obtained by applying rules of thumb or heuristics. The search halts when a satisfactory solution has been found, almost always before all alternatives have been examined." Simon believes "satisficing" is used in all decisions and defines two types. Programmed decisions are routine, repetitive and made in accordance with established rules or standard operating procedures. Non-programmed decisions are made to resolve unique problems where there are no predefined solutions.

There are also those authors which attempt to balance out this debate and propose that there is a place for both rational and bounded decision processes (Janis and Mann, 1977; Jungermann, 1986; Leiser and Gillieron, 1990). They believe that the key to quality decisions lies in the choice and completeness of the decision process. They accept that due to time and costs constraints, a rational decision process is not always necessary. Rather, they see a continuum between rational and bounded decision processes and feel that the decision maker must take into account what type of process is most useful to a particular problem situation (Janis and Mann, 1977). Programmed decisions, for

instance, might be placed closer on the continuum to the bounded rationality decision process of satisficing, while non-programmed decisions may contain elements of risk or uncertainty and require the more detailed rational decision processes.

The other half of the study of decision making, called descriptive decision theory, which pertains to individual school board member behavior, focuses on unprogrammed decisions made under risk and uncertainty. Researchers are particularly interested in the individual's biases, heuristics and preferences. Jungermann (1986) in "The Two Camps on Rationality," defines the "two camps" of thought as the pessimists and the optimists. The pessimists (Janis 1989; Janis and Mann, 1977; Kahneman and Tversky, 1986; Simon, 1992), believe that biases exist in people and that "judgement and decision making under uncertainty often show systematic and serious errors." People are inherently limited in judgement and decision making ability due to "inbuilt characteristics of the human cognitive system." Their three arguments are that people have judgmental biases, representational faults, and coping defects. Biases may also occur in group decision making where the desire for unanimity can override realistic and careful consideration of alternatives. Janis and Mann label this concept "groupthink." On the other hand, the optimists (Boudon, 1992; Edwards, 1982; Edwards and von Winterfeldt, 1986; Feldman and Lindell, 1990), believe that biases during decisions of uncertainty are not part of human observed behavior, but exist in the analysis of that behavior by the pessimistic researchers. They see human beings as rational and their behaviors misinterpreted due to a difference in understanding the decision strategies, the decision model and/or the

problem structure between the research subjects and the researchers. Jungermann argues for a middle ground solution, a new view of rationality called "substantive rationality" and a distinctive research on decision making. He says the emphasis should be on the preferences and beliefs the person holds when making decisions in the real world:

The issue is not anymore what the limitations of the human cognitive system are. All approaches assume that there are boundaries for rationality in situations of cognitive overload due to the capacity and processing limits of the system. The issue is how people form judgements and make decisions, and particularly whether they operate rationally within the constraints... Rationality is not only a question of whether a choice is in line with a person's beliefs and preferences, but also a question of what sort of preferences and beliefs the person holds.... (Jungermann, 1986, p. 639, 641)

These constraints of bias, defects, beliefs and preferences, have been shown to dramatically effect the decision process.

Many researchers (Brehmer, 1986; Feldman and Lindell, 1990; Lock, 1983; Montgomery, 1983; Mullen and Roth, 1991; von Winterfeldt, 1983), and others already cited, have found that beliefs, values, goals, objectives, experience, and other factors may all play a part in how a person or group reaches a decision. Mullen and Roth call this mode of investigation empirical decision theory or behavioral decision theory. They have determined that four specific problems exist in decision making, which may also relate directly to the controversies of school board representation and role. Paraphrased these are:

1. We belong to groups and communities that demand loyalty in matters of action and belief, and whose opinions matter to us.
2. When important values and goals are threatened we often seek quick solutions to decrease stress, thereby creating various

distortions and errors that can act as powerful barriers to rational thought.

3. Difficulties arise from our need to have a coherent and consistent view of the world and our place in it. When we discover inconsistencies in our original understanding we may engage in irrational attempts to preserve our original understanding rather than struggle to develop new ones.

4. Problems arise in our attempt to structure a decision problem in a meaningful way.

Furthermore, through a review of the decision making literature, there are also indications that decision making is tied to organization structure and organizational behavior (Glasman and Nevo, 1988; Griffiths, 1969; Knezevich, 1984; Morgan, 1986; Pfiffner, 1960; Simon, 1958; Wiles, 1979). These authors believe that the key to understanding an organization's structure is to understand the decision process employed. For instance, a Systems organizational structure might incorporate a rational decision method, while a Political organizational structure could use a political decision method. In addition, each organizational structure contains different roles, functions, and lines of communication which may also influence school board decision making. Lastly, Beach (1993) believes that change itself is impossible without considering the impact on the organizational belief structure.

Other decision processes have been described in the literature to enhance decision making, especially by authors advocating a rational approach. Some of these processes are: Operational Research (Rosenhead, 1989); Systems Analysis (Larichev, 1983); Decision Analysis (Maskowitz, 1990); SODA, Strategic Options Development and Analysis (Eden, 1989); SSM, Soft Systems Methodology (Checkland, 1989); Strategic Choice Approach (Friend, 1989); Metagame (Howard,

1989); Hypergame (Bennett, Cropper and Huxham, 1989); MAMP, Multi-Attribute Multi-Party Model of Choice (Kunreuther, 1983); and Systems Approach (Knezevich, 1984). Several of these decision processes will be explained throughout Chapter II.

HYPOTHESES

Hypotheses are stated in the null form for statistical purposes. Each hypothesis was tested at the .05 level of significance for retention or nonretention.

Hypothesis 1: There is no primary role, representation, organizational belief, or decision process that is identified by school board members, school board presidents, or superintendents.

Hypothesis 2: There are no significant relationships between the demographic variables and the four factors of decision process, role, organizational belief, and representation as perceived by school board members, school board presidents, and superintendents.

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant relationship between the two factors of decision process and organizational belief in the perception of school board members, school board presidents, and superintendents.

Hypothesis 4: School board members, board presidents, and superintendents do not desire a change in the decision process or in the organizational belief that they currently use.

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant relationship between the two factors of decision process and representation in the perceptions of school board members, school board presidents, and superintendents.

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant relationship between the two factors of decision process and role in the perceptions of school board members, school board presidents, and superintendents.

Hypothesis 7: There are no significant relationships among the four factors of role, decision process, organizational belief, and representation in the perceptions of school board members, school board presidents and superintendents.

Hypothesis 8: There are no significant relationships between the perceptions of school board presidents, and superintendents from the same district on the four factors of role, representation, organizational belief, and decision process.

Hypothesis 9: School board members do not believe that MASB certification training has helped them make better decisions, and there is no relationship between MASB training and the factor of decision process.

Hypothesis 10: There is no significant relationship between completing the MASB certification training and the three factors of representation, role, and organizational belief.

DEFINITION OF TERMS

The following definitions are included to help the reader accurately determine the writer's intent and meaning.

K-12 School Board: A group of 5 to 11 members, who form a single legal entity (Valente, 1980). A school board is considered an agency of the State, and has the responsibility for making decisions as to the control and management of public schools within the restrictions of law (Gatti and Gatti, 1990). They determine the policy that guides the efforts of the school district. In Michigan, school boards are most commonly seven member, elected bodies that meet monthly or bi-monthly. The Michigan local K-12 school board is legally responsible for everything that happens within a school district.

School Board Member: In Michigan, a school board member is usually elected. The candidate must be a registered voter of the district who circulates and returns a completed, official nominating petition. The candidate is allowed to campaign, and once elected, they must takes a sworn oath of office (Michigan School Code of 1976, p. 108, 110). A school board member is considered a State officer

(Boardsmanship, 1961; Gatti and Gatti, 1990; Goldhammer, 1964; Iannaccone and Lutz, 1970; Reeves, 1954; Valente, 1980).

Representation: Pitkin does not define representation but regards it as a complex construct and/or a subjective experience. Four contexts of representation are identified instead. In the substantive representation context, the representative is seen as "acting in the interest of the represented, in a matter responsive to them" (Pitkin, 1967, p. 209). For this report, representation is the responsibility of a school board member to represent a micro or macro faction of the school environment. A school board member is seen as choosing to represent either the State, the whole community, the particular school district, or a special interest group.

Representational Style: Pitkin states that there are two divergent views of representation: 1. "the representative must do what is best for those in his charge, using his own judgement and wisdom"; 2. "the representative's duty is to reflect accurately the wishes and opinions of those he represents" (Pitkin, 1967, p. 4). Mann calls these views representational style. He has reported that there are three choices for a representational style called "trustee," "delegate," and "politico":

Briefly, a trustee is someone whose decisions are based on his own values, even though the represented may disagree. A delegate reverses the priority and is guided by expressed citizen preferences even at the expense of his own best judgment...A politico borrows from either the trustee or delegate styles as dictated by situations but has some internally consistent rationale for doing so. (Mann, 1976, p. 11)

There has been some disagreement among researchers in the meaning of trustee and delegate style and a use of defined style as "role." In this

report, a representational style and a school board role are defined as two different concepts.

Role: A "role" is a position in a group that is defined by expectations. The person is expected to behave in a way that fits the role (Bolman and Deal, 1991, p. 144). Gretzel and Guba define role similarly as "the set of complementary expectations regarding the actor in his interactions with other individuals" (Getzels and Guba, 1954, p.164). In this report, school board members are seen as choosing legislative, judicial, or administrative roles.

Legislative Role: The State expectations of school board members are that they uphold State interests as State officers. The school board as an agency of the state can enact rules, regulations, policy or other decisions which carry the strength of the law "insofar as all persons associated with schools may be reasonably expected to implement" (Wilson, 1976, p. 8).

Administrative or Executive Role: In Michigan, it is the superintendent's function to perform the administrative role in managing the school district pursuant to the Michigan School Code of 1976. A superintendents duties are specified:

- a. Recommend in writing teachers necessary for the schools.
- b. Suspend a teacher for cause until the board may consider the suspension.
- c. Supervise and direct the work of the teachers and other employees of the board.
- d. Classify and control the promotion of pupils.
- e. Recommend to the board the best methods of arranging the course of study and proper textbooks to be used.
- f. Make written reports to the board and to the state board at least once each year in regard to matters pertaining to the educational interests of the school district.

g. Assist the board in matters pertaining to the general welfare of the school and perform other duties which the board requires.

h. Put into practice the educational policies of the state and of the board within the means provided by the board.

(Michigan School Code of 1976, p.19)

Judicial Role: If school board members assume a priority as judges rather than policy makers then they have chosen a judicial role. They may see themselves as an appellate body to hear complaints or grievances. They may put individual community members or special interest group concerns ahead of school district hierarchical structure and previously held policy. Goldhammer believes that this may happen when the citizens of the community distrust the educational professionals, who may appear to subordinate public interests and represent values that are incompatible with the diverse culture of the community (Goldhammer, 1964, p. 11-12).

Decision: A conscious choice made after some sort of consideration and from a set of alternatives or possible courses of action (Knezevich, 1984, p. 27).

Decision Making: There are many different definitions. "It may be considered only in terms of the culminating act of deciding or it may include all prior activity leading to the choice. There is also a lack of consensus on the number and sequence of elements in the decision process" (Knezevich, 1984, p. 49). For this dissertation, decision making encompasses all aspects of a decision, from problem recognition to decision evaluation. There are also different decision making processes. Although no one decision process will be recommended in this report, several will be discussed in relation to the literature.

Rational Decision Process: A maximizing or optimizing process to find the best solution. "John Dewey's analysis of thinking is often the

base used for identifying the steps in rational decision making. Most analyses include a situation calling for a decision; diagnosis of the problem; collecting data about it; generating alternatives; analysis of each alternative; determining the consequences of each alternative; and evaluation after the fact" (Knezevich, 1984, p. 49-50).

Bounded Rational or Subjective Process: This process is called "satisficing" by Simon. A problem is recognized. There is a selective search for alternatives to meet a small number of requirements to solve the problem. The alternatives are tested one by one for feasibility, applied by rules of thumb or heuristics. The first alternative is chosen that meets a criteria that the alternative is better than the current situation. The search halts when a satisfactory solution has been found, almost always before all alternatives have been examined (Janis and Mann 1977; Simon, 1992).

Heuristic Decision Rule: In this report, the term "heuristic" is based on the following definition:

A rule of thumb for simplifying complex problems in a way that increases the probability that a solution will be found within a 'reasonable' amount of time...heuristic search is based on 'educated guesses' as to where in the search space the solution is likely to be found...Simon (1957, p. 198f) sees heuristics as necessitated by the limited information processing capacity of humans and resulting in a Bounded Rationality. (Anderson, Deane, Hammond and McClelland, 1981, p.121).

In other words, a heuristic, is the first criteria that comes to mind when faced with a problem, such as "What can we afford to do to solve the problem?" With this heuristic, expense limits the search space. Heuristics can be consciously or unconsciously applied. They are often called "decision rules," which are criteria for judging priorities,

alternatives, and consequences. Janis (1989) believes unacknowledged decision rules are defects or constraints to decision making.

Political Decision Process: In school districts, an idea is introduced early on by a board member or the administration. It is publicized and talked about with board members, administration and the public. It may be modified to satisfy concerns. There is lobbying, negotiation, pressure, or trading votes to reach consensus (Boggs, 1985, p. 40).

Approval Decision Process, Issue Accommodation and Legalization (Collaborative Decision Process): Only one alternative is presented to the school board for formal approval by the superintendent or committee representative. Since only one alternative is reviewed, the school board action could be described as approving a recommendation rather than making a board decision (King, 1978). This Approval process or Issue Accommodation and Legalization may be a part of a Collaborative Decision Process. This decision process might be accomplished through inter-district groups, such as parents advisory councils, teacher-administration curriculum councils, school staff meetings, administrative councils, or any number of specially organized committees. The problem and solutions are discussed within these groups, a school board member may or may not be present during the meetings. A consensus, majority vote, or power coalition may decide the issue within the committees. Only one alternative is presented to the school board for formal approval.

Analysis Decision Process: There are many different decision making processes invented for the systems organizational structure. Usually they are basically rational processes incorporating mathematical

utility measurements, alternative weights, models, decision rules, and/or consequence diagrams. Systems analysis and operational research are very close in structure and considered the most classical (Larichev, 1983; Rosenhead, 1989).

Organizational Structure: The theoretical framework based on a particular belief and used by an organization to explain how things get done, responsibilities, communication and relationships. "All organizations have goals, boundaries, levels of authority, communication systems, coordinating mechanisms, and distinctive procedures" (Bolman and Deal, 1991, p. 45). Bolman and Deal as well as Morgan refer to structure as a "frame." Several different types of organizational structures have been identified for this research. Each structure has strengths and weaknesses.

Rational-Legal Organizational Structure: Called the Structural Frame or Structural Perspective by Bolman and Deal, this structure was first described by Max Weber. The belief is in the supremacy of laws, rules and regulations to further the rational pursuit of goals. There is a formal authority hierarchy with each level supervising the one below it. Specialized training is highly valued, and there are written files to document decisions. This structure maximizes rational decision making and administrative efficiency but "does not and cannot encourage willingness to work hard or to exercise initiative" (Blau, 1963, p. 308-309, 313).

Human Resource Structure or Frame: Based on the belief and emphasis that the interdependence between people and the organization is most important. The focus is on ways to develop a better fit between people's needs, skills and values as well as formal roles and

relationships (Bolman and Deal, 1991, p. 9). In schools the structure usually contains one or more forms of democratic teacher participation, teacher recommendations or teacher decision making. However, the human resource structure is criticized as naive and easily led by power elites. It may attempt to impose middle class values on everyone and ignore individual differences, power and conflict (Bolman and Deal, 1991, p. 177-178). This organizational structure may also be irreversible. "When workers gain more power they are rarely willing to give it up and often press for its expansion" (Bolman and Deal, 1991, p. 163).

Traditional Organizational Structure: This structure was first described by Max Weber. The belief is in tradition and routine. A concrete body of rules are traditionally received rather than enacted. Change only occurs under the fiction that it was a renewal of past practice. The authority figure is free to make his/her decisions according to his/her own best judgement, need or whim and rules through the use of obligation and favoritism (Blau, 1963, p. 305; Parsons, 1964, p. 60-63). Iannaccone and Lutz called this structure the Sacred Community where "old ways are better than new." They point out that, "the 'etiquette of gossip' tends to be well developed and provides a non-public outlet for the criticism of others in lieu of public attack, formal confrontation, and open debate." They identified the sacred community as the most prevalent organizational structure used in schools (Iannaccone and Lutz, 1970, p. 30-31).

Site Based Organizational Structure: A type of human resource structure which places the decision-making process at the lowest level of a hierarchy in order to make decisions for that level. A school

based management structure is decentralized and places teachers in the decision-making role usually in conjunction with the principal (Chapman, 1990). The State of Kentucky has mandated site based schools. Each school has a council of three teachers, two parents and the principal, who make all the decisions for the school. However, administrators may block or sabotage this organizational structure due to lack of trust and loss of power. Site based management approaches may also be short on particulars, contingencies, consistency and legalities (Harrington-Lueker, 1990, p. 17). Chicago school councils contain six parents, two community representatives, two teachers and the principal. Rist reports that conflict, power struggles, and community politics are still prevalent (Rist, 1990, p. 22-24).

Political Organizational Structure or Frame: The belief that power, conflict and distribution of scarce resources are the central issues. Cooperation and consensus are achieved through the uses of power, coalitions, bargaining, negotiation, and conflict (Bolman and Deal, 1991, p. 9). Cusick's description of school district "bureaucracy" is a political description (Cusick, 1992, p. 227).

Systems Organizational Structure: Sometimes called management science or cost effective analysis, is based on the organic belief that reality exist in systems. School districts are viewed as delivery systems. Subsystems may be schools or interdisciplinary teams. There is a mission statement, performance based long and short term objectives, as well as models. Change is considered normal. Seeks to improve the organization by making decision making more explicit, and more systematic through the use of scientific data, mathematics, and statistics. However, all subsystems may not be well defined.

Sometimes it is impossible to develop symbolic or mathematical models. Simplifying assumptions in order to manipulate a model may lead to abstraction rather than a clearer understanding. Systems structure may also ignore the reality of power plays, internal politics, and resistance to change (Knezevich, 1984, 4th ed.: p. 140-144; 1975, 3rd ed.: p. 139).

Symbolic Organizational Structure or Frame: Because of uncertainty and ambiguity in organizational life, there is a belief in the search for meaning in events, symbols, myths, rituals, stories, and ceremonies. "Appearances" and legitimizing images of action are prevalent to gain support from the environment. Humor, play, and job significance are used in the staff culture to reduce tension and encourage motivation and creativity. These organizations usually have a lack of clear goals and direction. Bolman and Deal identify schools as symbolic organizations (Bolman and Deal, 1991, p. 10, 244, 275, 298).

Contingency Theory Organizational Structure: Derived from Systems Theory, the belief is that there is no one best way to structure an organization. Rather, all organizational structures could be placed on a continuum from mechanistic to organic. Each structure is used for a particular need in a subsystem at a particular time. The appropriate structure depends on the kind of task and the demand from the environment. Choice and balance are essential (Morgan, 1986, p. 49-55).

SIGNIFICANCE OF THE ANALYSIS

Very little is known about how Michigan school boards function.

The Institute for Educational Leadership points out:

Problems of some magnitude, however, are emerging with regard to the role and operations of boards. Recent, in-depth research is lacking. Some descriptive accounts of the work of boards and superintendents can be found in the literature, but there is no recent solid data base upon which to generate recommendations for change, in either this relationship or the role, functions and operating structures of boards themselves. (School Boards: Strengthening Grass Roots Leadership, Institute for Educational Leadership, 1986, p. 2)

Past researchers have concentrated on the trustee or delegate role style in attempting to determine who school boards represent; the pressures put on school board decisions; or the training of board members with the intention that better informed school boards will make better decisions. This researcher also began with a singular intention, to find out if school boards make good decisions. However, the literature and theory provided a more encompassing thought problem. School board problems may be linked. Mullen and Roth (1991), for instance, seem to have included the concept of special interest pressure in their description of a decision rationale. They feel people are social creatures who belong to certain groups "that demand loyalty in matters of action and belief" and whose opinions matter to the individual decision maker. This influence or pressure is one part of the Mullen and Roth decision theory. If these two variables of special interest pressure and decision are linked as suggested by these authors, it may be possible that other variables are also associated.

This research will add to the body of knowledge on school boards. It will attempt to provide data on current Michigan school board

member beliefs and training. Further, it may indicate what current decision processes are used by school boards as well as provide some clues on the type or types of organizational structure now being employed in school districts. Secondly, this study will endeavor to show:

1. if a school board member's choice of representation is associated with his/her chosen role;
2. if a school board member's chosen role is associated with a type of decision process and/or a organizational structural belief used; and
3. if a particular decision process is associated with a particular organizational structural belief.

This analysis will add content to an area lacking in research. The ensuing information could be very valuable to superintendents, state and local agencies, school board trainers, other researchers, those interested in educational reform, and school board members themselves. Parts of the information might be particularly valuable to those research theorists interested in the relationship between decision process and organizational structure.

Results could also be interesting or useful to those researchers looking for a vehicle to initiate school board reform. The Institute for Educational Leadership states that:

What is needed is a way to manage diversity, rise above the idiosyncratic preferences of individual board members and chart a course for the district that transcends individual interests of board members but also respects them.... (School Boards: Strengthening Grass Roots Leadership, Institute for Educational Leadership, 1986, p. 19)

Throughout the review of the literature, what has surprised this researcher is that descriptions of school boards through history have

remained virtually unchanged. Although various authors have called for improving the decision process of school boards as an avenue of school board reform, little seems to have been accomplished. In understanding how decision processes work, in the use of multiple alternatives, and in recognizing influences and biases openly, a school board might transcend the idiosyncratic and yet respect diversity. Perhaps, now is the time to use the study of decision making as at least a first step in school board reform.

LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

Conclusions of this analysis are subject to the problems of any other study in its design, structure, subjects, instruments and methodology. Limitations of research design and structure are inherent in the use of decision-making theory as the primary framework to explain school board member behavior. Organizational theory is also heavily used as a topic in the review of the literature as it relates to school districts, and as part of the design of the research. This may present further limitations as organizational theory used in conjunction with decision theory is relatively new to research in general.

This research is also limited by the introspection and accuracy of its subjects in determining true responses. Although the entire population of school board presidents and superintendents will be included in this analysis, due to financial limitations only a portion of the total population of general school board members can be surveyed. Therefore, findings, conclusions and recommendations are limited by the extent that the sample represents the total population. Finally, the instrument used in this study is limited to measuring only those

questions asked. Since it is designed by the researcher's perceptions, there may be different interpretations on the part of the respondents. This may limit the usefulness of responses for research.

OVERVIEW

This chapter has presented the problem, purpose, hypotheses, theoretical rationale, important terms, the significance and limitations of this exploratory analysis. Chapter II contains a review of the literature on the factors of representation, role, organizational structure, and training as relating to school board past and current behavior. It presents the basic information from which most of the survey questions and hypotheses were drawn. Chapter III contains a look at current school board decision making paradigms. It also includes a comprehensive view of the theoretical rationale of decision theory and possible causes for individual and group decision making behavior. In Chapter IV, the design of the study is explained. The population, methodology, instruments, and procedures used in analyzing the data are described. The results of the data analysis of the hypotheses are presented in Chapter V. In Chapter VI, decision theory is the focus of the investigation and appropriate data analysis on the variables of incrementalism, consensus, and special interest pressure is presented. Lastly, Chapter VII contains the summary, major findings, and conclusions of this exploratory study.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW ON SCHOOL BOARDS

...dynamic situations that consist of complex systems of changing problems that interact with each other. I call such situations messes. Problems are abstractions extracted from messes by analysis; they are to messes as atoms are to tables and chairs. Ackoff 1979

At first glance, the body of literature surrounding the controversy of school boards appears to be a chaotic whole. Upon closer inspection, there seems to be four main distinctive issues that may be related.

1. The dilemma of who the school board represents: State, community, district, special interest, or other power structure representation.
2. The consequence of roles assumed by school board members in legislative, administrative, or judicial roles.
3. The issue of organizational structure and its relationship to decision making: legal-rational, traditional, political, human resource, site based, systems approach, and contingency organizational structures.
4. The direction of school board member training: providers, state mandated programs, voluntary programs, and program content.

It is the premise of this dissertation that these four main areas are associated, that each plays a part in school board decision making behavior or is effected by it, and that each area may be explained within the context of decision theory. It is the purpose of this dissertation to attempt to reveal this relationship and use decision theory as a framework to further understand local K-12 school boards and their decision making processes. To that end each of the four

areas are discussed in this chapter in relation to the literature in order to address the controversies contained in each area. A discussion of the literature is continued in Chapter III on the problems and paradigms now inherent in current school board decision making. Lastly, a review of the literature on decision making theory and how it pertains to school boards completes the following chapter.

REPRESENTATION

School boards were established as the first managing structure of local education. In Michigan, the Law of 1827 allowed townships to divide into school districts with annually elected boards of 3 trustees to manage local affairs. Their purpose and function was to carry out State interests in running their schools and hold the annual meeting where everything was decided by the resident voters (Briggs, 1873). The 1835 Michigan State Constitution and the Act of 1838 initiated the Michigan School System and the school laws. The Act of 1859 enlarged the school board to six members and in 1874 school boards were authorized to use taxes to establish a high school and hire a superintendent (Putnam, 1904). The trustees or school board members were considered State officers in upholding the interests of the State in education and given the power of decision for their local district. The school board, as a result, was established as an agency of the State, with its functions, duties, powers and responsibilities derived from the State legislature (Boardsmanship, 1961; Gatti and Gatti, 1990; Goldhammer 1964; Iannaccone and Lutz; 1970; Reeves, 1954; Valente 1980). School board members were voters residing in the district. No other qualifications or training was considered necessary. However,

the school board members themselves may not have understood if they were supposed to represent the State or the community in their decisions. Putnam (1904) in The Development of Primary and Secondary Education in Michigan recounts the situation from the State Superintendent Tarbell's report to the Michigan legislature in 1877:

...the district school boards dare not comply with the law...the board being but few in numbers, being with neighbors, and desirous of being the friends of those affected by their action, they shrink from doing their duty as officers, lest it should affect their relations as men; for some, perhaps most, will almost inevitably be displeased at their action. (Putnam, 1904, p. 169)

Through the years, the dilemma of who the school board really represents and whose interests they take into consideration when they make their decisions has not changed. The arguments have only increased. In 1926 Jackson observed that the constitution of 1835, "made no provision for the control of school instruction in any way except by the local school officers." He referred to school boards as representing the school district. He complained that the "school house was the district castle," because local school boards would not give any information to the State regarding school conditions so constructive legislation could be enacted. In 1949, Davies and Hosler argued that the school board had the responsibility of representing State, and district interests:

A school-board member is both a state official and a local representative. In the former sense, he keeps the well-being of the whole state in mind insofar as education is concerned. As a local official, he must keep the welfare of the entire school district in mind; therefore, he should be elected at large, rather than by ward, and represent the entire school district rather than any particular section of it. (Davies and Hosler, 1949, p. 140)

In 1944 and in 1957, the school board supposedly represented both the community and State interests to enlarge the basic state plan, and as a communication mechanism between the community and the professional staff:

The local education authority acts as the agent of the state and of the community in putting the educational plan into operations, and as an agent of the people within the community in enlarging and improving the basic state plan in accordance with broad powers granted by legislation to meet distinctive community needs and to harmonize the operation of the schools with other community activities. (Michigan's System of Public Education in Michigan, 944, p. 227-228)

School boards perform the dual function of communicating local needs and aspirations to the professional staff and of interpreting the technical competencies of the profession to the community. In addition, since Boards of Education have been established by state governments...these Boards perform state functions on a local level. Their policies, then, fuse state purposes and local control, cultural heritage and social goals. (Stapley, 1957, p. 1)

However, in 1958 Gross related his observations that some school board members seek election to the board as representatives of special interest "blocs" such as certain religious or political groups, a "sports crowd," or certain geographical or ethnic sectors of the community. Once they are elected, board members may feel committed to repay the "bloc" support and maintain continued help in future elections. When this happened conflict was inevitable within the board itself:

A school board member who behaves as a representative of one element or one section of a community is bound to take positions different from those taken by the superintendent or other board members who see their job as representing the entire community. (Gross, 1958, p. 15)

In 1963, Garber and Edwards were very clear that school board members represent the state in The Law Governing School Board

Members and School Board Meetings:

Members of a board of education represent the state. They act in the performance of a state function, and they are state officers...The status of an officer is not determined by the method of his appointment but by the nature of his duties...school boards are agencies of the state, created by it to carry out its educational policies in local communities. They possess no inherent powers nor are any powers conferred upon them by the local community. (Garber and Edwards, 1963, p. 15)

Yet, in a 1964 detailed study, Goldhammer concluded that some school board members represent certain power cliques in the community and that "decisions were frequently delayed until school board members could consult with the central power figure of the community." He also noted that a PTA president or someone with a real interest in educational affairs "may help mediate educational decisions before policies are finally determined" or act as a "community force which either compels the board to further action or restricts its complete freedom of behavior and decision-making." Further, the community itself believes that school board members should carry out only the community will. School board members are obviously caught in the middle when State requirements and community interests and/or special interests are in juxtaposition.

In 1972, school board members were told by their own National School Boards Association that they were to represent the state in no uncertain terms:

A school board is an agent of the state, vested with the responsibility of implementing the state's education laws and regulations in the local community...the local school board is

expected to be vigorous in upholding the state's interest in providing good schools and equal educational opportunities for all children. This is important, for many people seem to believe that since board members are supposed to be representatives of the local voters that they should respond automatically to the loudest voices in the local community...the school board is wrong when it makes decisions on the basis of popularity of the moment with local pressure groups rather than on the basis of its obligations to uphold the states interest in education...and...the principles embedded in the United States Constitution. (Meeting the Challenges of School Board Leadership, 1973, p. 99-100)

However in 1987, the National School Boards Association temporized that the school board represented community interests as agents of the State:

Our public education is based on the concept of local governance by school boards that are mostly elected...to represent the educational priorities and objectives of their communities...Local school boards acted as agents of the state while at the same time providing local citizens a real voice in deciding the kind of education they wanted for their children--a pattern that accorded very well with the experience of frontier communities in relying on themselves to find local methods for meeting local needs...School boards remain a dynamic example of the American system of representative and participatory government. (Howe and Shannon, 1987, Foreword to American School Boards: The Positive Power)

Likewise, Danzberger explains that school boards definitely represent the community in 1992:

If a school board's basic purpose is to represent the community, then there is little to debate...School boards in communities with highly educated citizens never make a decision that deviates from the communal expectation that children will achieve at the highest national levels and go to "good colleges." School boards in rural areas and many small towns also make decision representative of their constituents, who place great value on tradition and who fear that greatly expanding horizons through future-orientated education would mean the loss of their young people to other places. Urban boards, too, are made up of people who, by and

large, represent the diverse values and issues among their constituents. (Danzberger, 1992, p. 67)

On the other hand, there are those people who feel that the school board should listen to the loudest voices and therefore represent individual constituencies. In 1984 Don Davies, President for the Institute for Responsive Education, stated that:

...the democratic potential of school boards can best be realized if they become more not less political, and if citizens act so as to elect politically ambitious members, and if their members have their base in a special interest constituency rather than in a vision of an objective public interest. (Davies, 1984, Foreword, Zerchykov report, p. 7)

The Institute for Educational Leadership Report also points out a growing opinion trend for board members to be politically elected:

Some urban community leaders believe that it may be time to rethink the non-partisan nature of school board elections. Perhaps election to the board through mainstream political party structures is an issue worthy of debate in some communities. (School Boards: Strengthening Grass Roots Leadership, Institute for Educational Leadership, 1986, p.11)

Although most people might feel that politics does not belong in schools, Dapper and Carter relate that schools must have relationships with other local and State governing agencies, and therefore boards are already political in reality:

But whatever the arrangement for getting money, the school board's relationship with other governing bodies, whether it is the city council, the mayor's office, or the state legislature, has to be a viable one or the schools are going to suffer the consequences. In theory, many people advocate keeping the schools as much as possible out of politics. Yet school boards do not act in a vacuum, but in a setting where decisions affecting schools are made on a political basis by political bodies that have to consider all aspects of the community and not solely the educational institution. In practice, then, school boards are very

much in politics, whether they want to be or not. (Dapper and Carter, 1966, p. 15)

Therefore, even though school board members are legally responsible to uphold state interests, they have been continually battered between divergent ideologies to represent different interests, sometimes at the same time. In order to understand the underlying basis of this debate, this researcher turns briefly to the theory of representation.

According to Pitkin in The Concept of Representation, the term representation cannot be defined easily:

Alternatively, then, we might conclude that representation has no fixed meaning, that the various theorists disagree because they are in fact talking about different things. Perhaps the concept has evolved, and that is why earlier writers disagree with later ones...Or perhaps, if the meaning is not fixed, each writer is free to use the concept as he pleases, assigning whatever measure he chooses. (Pitkin, 1967. p. 5)

Pitkin identifies four contexts of representation: formalistic, descriptive, symbolic and substantive. The first three contexts do not involve the "act" of representing. In the latter, substantive representation context, the representative is seen as "acting in the interest of the represented" with good conscience, good reasons and good explanations:

...acting in the interest of the represented, in a matter responsive to them. The representative must act independently; his action must involve discretion and judgment; he must be the one who acts. The represented must also be (conceived as) capable of independent action, and judgment, not merely being taken care of. And, despite the resulting potential for conflict between representative and represented about what is to be done, that conflict must not normally take place. The representative must act in such a way that there is no conflict, or if it occurs an explanation is called for. He must not be found persistently at odds with the wishes of the represented without good reason in

terms of their interest, without a good explanation of why their wishes are not in accord with their interest. (Pitkin, 1967, p. 209-210)

Further, Pitkin states that there are two divergent views to representing. The representative must either use his own best judgment or be the voice of a constituency. This seems to be part of the debate on school board representation:

The majority of theorists argue that the representative must do what is best for those in his charge, but that he must do what he thinks best, using his own judgement and wisdom, since he is chosen to make decisions for (that is, instead of) his constituents. But a vocal minority maintain that the representative's duty is to reflect accurately the wishes and opinions of those he represents. (Pitkin, 1967, p. 4)

However, Pitkin points out that in the first instance a representative in doing what is best is also limited by obligations in his activity. In the latter example of attending to the wishes of a constituency, there are no standards or guides of representation:

By defining a representative as anyone who will eventually have to account to another for his actions, they make it impossible for the idea of representation to serve as a guide or standard for his actions. His conduct remains irrelevant to representation. (Pitkin, 1967, p. 113)

Nevertheless, it is this debate of the concept of representation that has been used in previous research on school boards. Most studies use the terms, "trustee," "delegate," and "politico." Mann (1976) defines these terms as representational style. He believes that, "Any person who undertakes to represent another is faced with a number of practical and ethical dilemmas. Essentially, he must choose a style of representation."

Briefly, a trustee is someone whose decisions are based on his own values, even though the represented may disagree. A

delegate reverses the priority and is guided by expressed citizen preferences even at the expense of his own best judgment...A politico borrows from either the trustee or delegate styles as dictated by situations but has some internally consistent rationale for doing so. (Mann, 1976, p. 11)

However, these term definitions have been given other connotations by authors and in studies among researchers. A "trustee" for instance is sometimes called a representative of the community. All three terms are also considered as "role" rather than representational style. For instance, Ross on page five in "The Role of the Local School Board" for the 1987 National School Boards Association report, School Boards: The Positive Power, says, "School board members are trustees, responsible for a trust established by the community." Also, a study conducted in 1987 confirmed that school board members preferred a trustee role "suggesting that the majority of school board members sought, were selected, and were motivated to represent the interests of their communities" (Cameron, 1987). While in 1991, Strobel concluded in his Wisconsin study that:

Analysis of the data showed school administrators tended to have more reputed influence with a trustee type board while teachers' and citizens perceived influence increased when the board's governance style was described as delegate/trustee or delegate type. (Strobel, 1991, dissertation abstract)

Finally, a Michigan study used classical definitions and terms, however its conclusions are debatable. Schmidt (1980) found that sixty-five percent of school board members indicated that "they voted based on the basis of their own convictions rather than on what they perceived their constituency as wanting. They thus indicated a 'trustee-type' position." He concluded:

Also, it does not appear that the delegate-type or the trustee-type board members rank educational concerns in a significantly different manner, thus leading to the conclusion that this classification of board members is not a significant indicator in how they will vote on specific issues. (Schmidt, 1980, dissertation abstract)

This researcher disagrees with Schmidt's conclusion that this classification of board member is not significant. It is not the ranking of educational concerns that determine voting, but who the school board member represents when he makes the vote. Two board members can have the same belief that curriculum is most important in schools. In a retrenchment situation, a trustee board member could vote to keep the curriculum in tact and eliminate sports. The delegate board member could vote to keep the curriculum in tact but eliminate busing because s/he represents the sports special interest group. Schmidt's conclusion seems oversimplified. Yet, it is also a problem when school board members do not recognize their own representation biases. It is quite possible that a particular school board member does not recognize the pressures which influence him or her to represent a certain faction. It is also quite possible that board members do not realize that they are legally responsible for primarily upholding the interests of the State as representatives of the State. School board members may also believe that it is their duty to represent solely the interests of the people who voted for them.

Moreover, in a report for the Institute of Responsive Education, Zerchykov (1984) recommended the election of school board members for only one term of office "without the possibility of succession" in order for a more constituent responsive school board. He feels that new members are more likely to have a delegate or politico orientation:

...research has shown that new members are more likely to have a delegate orientation, and that the longer they serve, the more likely it is that they will be socialized into the culture of trustee representation typical of long-time incumbents. Single-term membership may also attract candidates who wish to use the office of school board membership as a political stepping stone, and the evidence is that these kind of ambitious office-holders will show a more responsive, "politico" role orientation. (Zerchykov, 1984, p. 68)

In an opposing viewpoint, Williams (1980) states that frequent turnover of board members results in instability. "The board becomes the victim and advocate of single issues that appeal to, and benefit but a few of the district's patrons." There is also a problem of what standards the representative conforms to when representing a special constituency. According to Pitkin, there are no guidelines.

In summary, although any law book on education will explain that the school board legally represents State interests, there has been continuous debate by authors and action by school boards or individual school board members to represent the community, the district, special interests, or other power groups in their decisions. The latest comment and research on school board representation is that the nation's school boards represent community interests and in Michigan were found to be "trustees" or have a trustee representational style. The individual board member perspective of whom they represent may very well effect their decisions. The dilemma of the theory of representation, deciding what is best or voting for the specific interests of a faction, is certainly part of the problem of school board decision making. However, it does not seem to be enough to explain the total problem or help the situation. Researchers seem to be confusing representation with role. If representation is tied to

pressures and expectations of particular board member behavior from those being represented, what roles do school board members choose? In the next section, this report will use the terms of legislative, executive-administrative, or judicial to examine school board role and the consequences of role choice.

SCHOOL BOARD MEMBER ROLE

A "role" is a position in a group that is defined by expectations. The person is expected to behave in a way that fits the role (Bolman and Deal, p. 144). Board members assume different roles depending on their perception of expectations placed upon them. This section examines the legislative, administrative, and judicial roles board members choose as a result of those expectations, and the consequences of role choice.

From a State and legal point of view, a school board is seen as a "single legal entity" (Valente, 1980) or "corporate body" (Reeves, 1954) or "quasi-municipal corporation" (Gatti and Gatti, 1990) in a legislative role for a unitarian purpose. A school board as a whole has the responsibility for making decisions to control and manage public schools within the restrictions of law (Reeves, 1954). Individual board members do not have any legal power outside of a board meeting over school policies or employees (Boardsmanship, 1961; Gross, 1958; Goldhammer, 1964; Iannaccone and Lutz, 1970; Valente, 1980).

School board powers come under the authority of the State constitution, State legislative statutes, court decisions, State board of education regulations, and local agencies regarding such areas as health, police and fire protection (Goldhammer, 1964; Reeves, 1954).

School board powers are also discretionary, and the board is free to plan an educational program tailored to both the needs and the resources of the community (Boardsmanship, 1961), as long as those decisions conform to law:

The local board may exercise these powers so long as (1) the state has not preempted the area. (2) the exercise of the power is reasonable and not arbitrary and capricious, and (3) the exercise is not in violation of a person's contract or constitutional rights. (Gatti and Gatti, 1990, p. 297)

School board decisions that set the purpose, philosophy, objectives, goals, long range missions, and plan the educational program are called policies. Traditionally, the primary function of a board of education has been recognized as deciding school policy (Carpenter, 1989; Wilson, 1976). Policies reflect the community values, may grow as the result of the board's best thinking, and change as the values of the community change. Policies are brief, broad statements of the "destination" of the total school organization and used as a basis for administrative and school board future decisions (Bemis, 1955; Goldhammer, 1964; Wilson, 1976). Clemmer (1990) in The School Policy Handbook describes the benefits of policy. He says that they provide consistency and credibility to the district:

Properly designed and implemented, policies can save time, clarify objectives, promote consistency, and assign responsibility. In addition, policies contribute to a school district's credibility and its accountability, and they play a part in the accreditation process in most states. (Clemmer, 1990, p. 12)

Brodinski explains that policy is the power of the school board to make things happen. He says, "Those who make policy are in control. Only

the board which takes its policy-development role seriously will be able to exert its influence and exercise its authority."

The board can get what it wants only if it sets down its ideas in written policy statements...But once they are developed, the superintendent is obligated to respect them, follow them, and to report to the board how they are working out. (Brodinski, 1977, p.19)

Koerner (1968) in Who Controls American Education?, believes that school board failure is due to school boards not using their power:

In any case, the fact is that the whole concept of local control of education is frequently undermined by the failure of the local board itself to exert the powers everybody says it has...a school board could do much to neutralize the power of outside forces if it chose, but it usually does not so choose, and so in effect becomes the captive of other persons and groups. (Koerner, 1968, p. 125)

However, policies are not easy to write and a frustrating task for some board members. Apparently, some members prefer to have the administration prepare policy statements rather than personally produce them. However, by not being involved in producing policy, school boards may also misunderstand their legislative role:

It is a task more or less foreign to the experience of most Americans. That is why many board members are only too glad to adopt and approve policy placed before them--ready made--by the administration. That is why many board members do not grasp the distinction between broad policy and narrow regulation. Some would as soon spend time arguing a "policy" on safeguarding the school's petty cash box as on developing policy for inservice education for teachers. (Brodinsky, 1977, p. 29)

Policies are implemented by the school administration not the school board or school board members:

...the local board has the power to adopt policies, but it does not have the power to implement those policies. For example, the board has the right to encourage the teaching of patriotism, but

it does not have the power to enter a teacher's classroom to observe his or her methods and effectiveness. The local school board may adopt reasonable rules, but the administration and implementation of these rules is the responsibility of teachers and administrators. (Gatti and Gatti, 1990, p. 297)

Nevertheless, the legislative role of school boards can break down as board members assume executive or administrative functions. Ross (1987) says that "Board members differ considerably in their interpretation of the line dividing policy and administration." Board members have been known to act as individual executives, believing that they could make decisions for the board, which only the board as a unit is legally permitted to do. Other members have acted as if they, rather than the superintendent, had the right to administer policy. For example, members have bypassed the superintendent entirely in dealing with another administrator or employee. This leads to a disruption of the organizational structure of the schools (Gross, 1958). Some board members have visited the schools and requested or demanded school employees to do certain things, or obtain first hand information or poll employees on issues. Such behavior can be considered illegal, undermine the authority of the superintendent, lead to conflict, and produce serious consequences for the effectiveness of school operations, such as destroying the chain of command:

From a legal point of view, school personnel do not interact with individual board members, but rather with the school board as a whole...The guiding principles of school board professional relationships are such that the school board member must attempt to refrain from seeking direct information from school employees and thereby destroying the chain of command within the school organization. (Goldhammer, 1964, p. 61-67)

Wilson pointed out that sometimes school board members assume administrative functions because they have a distorted view of their role:

The temptation to move into the executive role is irresistible to some board members, especially if one has strong convictions about the matter, if one becomes quite knowledgeable about a segment of the operation (as is possible where boards function under permanent standing committees), if one has a distorted understanding of his or her role, or if the superintendent is ineffective in handling a segment of assigned responsibilities. (Wilson, 1976, p. 9)

Wilson said that this isn't always a "one-way encroachment" on the part of board members, and that aggressive superintendents have also been known to invade the policy-making prerogative of the board. In either case, "it is likely that the optimum functioning of school management will dissipate." Moreover, Wilson also believed that this is a violation of the original design of the public school system (Wilson, 1976). However, Goldhammer states that there are some areas of operations, such as personnel, which superintendents feel that their professional recommendations should always take precedence. He says superintendents do not believe a board has the knowledge or experience to perform personnel functions responsibly and may have ulterior motives:

Superintendents also feel that interference in employment by school board members is frequently an attempt to exert influence in behalf of special interests or friends and is done without knowledge of the degree to which educational values are promoted or hindered by such interference. (Goldhammer, 1964, p. 47-48)

In addition, many board members lack experience in complex organizations and feel frustration with the policy-making process in effecting change. Such board members may find hands-on involvement

in administrative matters more rewarding but this also places them in direct competition with administrative staff (McGonagill, 1987). Not only is the trust relationship broken when school board members assume administrative functions, but the superintendent may also feel an obligation to "protect the professional staff from arbitrary or capacious actions on the part of representatives of the community or the school board" (Goldhammer, 1964). Further, superintendents who continue to have to battle their school board live an uneasy existence, fear for their jobs, and may become ineffective:

Many superintendents are more anxious, more insecure, more self-commiserating than they would be if it were not for the pressures and cross pressures they face, and a number of them indicated that they had conscience problems because they did conform to some pressures that carried with them the threat of losing their jobs...How can a man who is dissatisfied with his job, worried that he may lose it, afraid that particular decisions of his school board will set the school program back a year or more, perform effectively? (Gross, 1958, p. 59,101)

Therefore, according to this discussion, when school board members assume an administrative role, at least two consequences are possible. Conflict with the superintendent is inevitable and the organizational structure is threatened if not disrupted.

In another vein, Goldhammer listed six functions that appear to place the school board in a judicial role in representing the community interests which may also influence their acting on administrative terrain. Paraphrased, school board members are to promote the public interest in education, defend and uphold accepted values of the community, be an appellate body to hear complaints and grievances, maintain close supervision over professional personnel, conserve resources, and promote individual rights and interests. Goldhammer

explains that these expectations are due to a community distrust of educational professionals who appear to subordinate public interests, and represent values that are incompatible with the basic culture of the community. The public expects the board to keep informed of methods of instruction, promote greater economy, extend special favors and yet be fair and unbiased.

...the ordinary citizens find it increasingly difficult to have their point of view officially represented in the decision making that takes place...citizens feel that they must have an avenue open to them through which they can appeal adverse decisions and receive redress for presumed wrongs.... (Goldhammer, 1964, p. 11-12)

There is also more organized pressure on boards from the local level and from activists than ever before. Smith warns that the pressure groups are now stronger and more formidable:

An inevitable part of a democratic nation, pressure groups are old hat to school board members. But the strength of some of the newest ones is a phenomenon not many board members have had to confront before...A variety of pressure groups, some of them exclusively local in nature, focus on schools and eventually school boards. This diversity of viewpoints remains a healthy sign in a democratic nation unless the pressure groups disrupt the educational process or try to exclude other opinions. (Smith, 1987, p. 25)

In contrast, Koerner (1968) believes that school boards must remain "firm" in the onslaught of pressure groups, otherwise special interests will succeed:

I do not mean to suggest that any pressure group that comes along with its pet reforms deserves to succeed. We all know that political fringe groups, for example, can make life extremely difficult at times for teachers and administrators. When they do, a firm school board is the best insurance against unreasonable demands. If the board is not firm, such groups often succeed. (Koerner, 1968, p. 153)

Unfortunately, school boards may not be remaining firm. Zerchykov (1984) provides a clinical view of how to influence school board decision making from his review of 130 studies. He says that school boards "can and are differentially responsive to certain kinds of contacts and requests, especially dealing with cases rather than policies." He found that this judicial "case work" takes up a large portion of school board agenda time:

These data on case responsiveness reveal an important latent function of school boards: as ombudsman, and as informal courts of appeal and grievance committees. Both scholarly and informal observers of school board proceedings report that "case work" occupies most of the agenda time in which boards do interact or react to the citizenry. Their significance has been undervalued because this latent function does not square with the textbook ideal of democracy. (Zerchykov, 1984, p.70)

Thus, if a school board member believes his or her role is primarily judicial because s/he represents a pluralist community or is pressured by special interest groups, he may very likely assume administrative functions as well. McGonagill (1987) believes that these community pressures to solve problems or to attend to special interests can lead board members to intervene in areas of administration and occasionally to form alliances with constituents against staff members. This could lead to a total breakdown of the organization as staff feel untrusted and see their best efforts undercut.

Written policies could help define the school board member roles and respective responsibilities between the school board member and the superintendent. Such policies are said to be essential, but it is not always as easy as one might imagine since perceptions are diverse:

It is an elementary principle of organizational management that the governing body performs the legislative function while the chief administrator and his staff carry out or execute the legislation...There has never been clear and universally accepted directives as to which tasks belong to the board and which ones belong to the superintendent...board legislates and makes policy while the superintendent executes. The words present different images to different people. (Wilson, 1976, p. 7-8)

In fact, McGonagill (1987) states in Phi Delta Kappan, that most boards of education are too internally divided to address board/staff roles. He cites the 1986 Institute for Educational Leadership study which documents an increasing trend away from the "trustee" model toward a "representative" or delegate model in which board members act as advocates of particular interests. McGonagill seems to support the position of this paper that representation causes school board members to assume different roles.

Getzels and Guba (1954) explain role as, "the set of complementary expectations regarding the actor in his interaction with other individuals." They see the behavior of the actor, or representative, as modifying his behavior in terms of his constituency's expectations in order to "assure himself of alters [constituency] approval or at least avoid his active disapproval." The representative will also feel an "internal obligation to conform to the role," since he is also a member of the group which sets the expectations:

Each individual occupies a number of roles defined by his group. To the extent that an actor properly meets the expectations of his roles, he meets with approval; to the extent that he fails to meet these expectations, he is held eccentric and at extremes liable to negative sanctions. Since the actor filling the role is himself a member of the group that defines the role, he will in general share the expectations of the role, and the expectations will have for him a legitimacy that stems from mutual acceptance. The actor thus feels an internal obligation to conform to the role,

even when in some respects the role expectations run counter to his own needs. (Getzels and Guba, 1954, p. 165)

If school board members choose their role due to expectations and approval needs, what happens when there is more than one constituency? What happens when school board members attempt to fill all possible roles and make everyone happy? Getzels and Guba call this role conflict, and eventually the representative will be judged ineffective:

That is, the situations are so ordered that an actor is required to fill simultaneously two or more roles that present inconsistent, contradictory, or even mutually exclusive expectations. The actor cannot realistically conform to these expectations. He is then forced to choose one of several alternatives: he may abandon one role and cling to the other, he may attempt some compromise between the roles, or he may withdraw either physically or psychologically from the roles altogether. In any event, over any long-term period he cannot fully meet the expectations of all roles, and to the extent that he fails to meet the expectations, he is judged ineffective in the management of one or another of the roles by the defining groups. (Getzels and Guba, 1954, p. 165)

According to role theory, school board members need to choose one representation and one role to be effective. However, Mann (1975) points out that school board reality is more complicated. Not only are there many competing interests for scarce resources, there are also important "empirical" educational concerns of merit that may take precedence over constituent demands. Mann places this conflict in the realm of school board "correct" and "incorrect" decisions, and he questions whether responsiveness to constituents is always a good idea:

But as we have seen, the people's heterogeneity produces a welter of differing and therefore competing interests. That necessarily involves conflict, and policy-makers must (in some fashion) take account of that in their decisions. On the other hand, education is a profession, and there are a great many

aspects of educational policy for which some answers are clearly empirically preferable to others. Thus, we may not want policy makers to be responsive to their constituents when the result would be an empirically "incorrect" decision. Somehow, policy-making must accommodate both democratic and meritocratic expectations. (Mann, 1975, p. 19)

Lastly, Danzberger (1992) points out that the different images of role that board members have, can also produce conflict within the board:

Members' different views of the boards' role are often at the root of internal difficulties, particularly for urban boards, and the cause of the inability of board members to understand each other's position. (Danzberger, 1992, p.71)

In summary, there is considerable ambiguity and continued debate on school board member role. Legislative, judicial, and administrative role choice appears to be heavily linked to who the school board member believes s/he should represent and thereby fulfill the subsequent expectations. Legally and traditionally, the school board member role is legislative, concerning decisions of policy. However, the community and increasingly organized pressure groups are placing school board members in difficult situations, where they must choose judicial or administrative roles to meet the expectations of their perceived constituencies. In contrast, there are empirical educational concerns that may need preferential board support over constituency demands. Judicial roles, such as case by case intervention, can also lead to administrative roles. Likewise, the trend toward administrative roles by board members seems to be increasing. This is confirmed by a 1982 study, which research indicated a tendency for board member to become involved in administration rather than remaining in the role of a policy-maker (Jacklin, 1992). Furthermore, superintendents and board members disagree on board role. A 1989 study points out that both

board members and administrators agreed on only one conflict area, "role and responsibility of the school board" (Van Kampen, 1989). A diverse opinion of school board role on any board can produce internal board conflict. Lastly, although written policies on board role could alleviate some of these problems, a 1992 report Facing the Challenge: The Report of the Twentieth Century Fund Task Force on School Governance, states that school administrators control policy and therefore the board's legislative role:

Today's system of governance is one that largely has allowed school administrators rather than board members to "control" policy, particularly because many administrators have made it a practice to overwhelm boards with detail-and reams of meaningless paper and statistics not vital to governance. (Facing the Challenge, 1992, p.7)

At the same time, school board members who assume other than a legislative role, can also do significant damage to school organizational structure, disband the hierarchy of control, erode the authority and effectiveness of the superintendent, or derail the entire structure. These consequences appear to be in opposition to what school board members intend.

Of the many conflicts and problems that result from role choice, such as the conflict between superintendents and school boards, this researcher believes that the most pervasive consequence and most overlooked is the detrimental impact on the organizational structure of the schools. There are no studies known to this researcher that address this larger consequence of role choice. No studies were found that determine if board members understand organizational structure or studies that designate which organizational structure or structures is

best for schools. The following section will review the literature in an attempt to clarify organizational structure.

ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE

Organizational structure is the framework of an organization, such as a school district. It explains how things get done, who is responsible for which duties, and explains the formal and informal lines of communication and relationships. School board members need to understand organizational structure in order to appreciate how the district operates, and to avoid unintentionally derailing it. The organizational structure may account too, for certain roles that board members may assume, who they represent in the external environment, as well as decision processes used.

All organizations have goals, boundaries, levels of authority, communication systems, coordinating mechanisms, and distinctive procedures. (Bolman and Deal, 1991, p. 45)

There are different types of organizational structures to choose from, each has its own basis of beliefs, perspective or emphasis, strengths and limits, and all derive from different organizational theories. Etzioni (1964) tells us that there were two main schools of organizational thought. The Human Resource school placed the employee as the most important element in an organization and the Scientific Management School or mechanistic viewpoint, which placed production as the focal point. He tells us that these two schools combined to form a third Structuralist School and specifies Max Weber as a Structuralist.

Max Weber described "pure" forms of organizational structure that he observed, however most organizations could be some sort of a blend on a continuum. Two of Weber's organizational structures are called

Rational-Legal, and Traditional. The Rational-Legal structure of organization and authority, called the Structural Frame by Bolman and Deal, is easily recognized and is based on a belief in the supremacy of laws. Rules are deliberately established to further the rational pursuit of goals. There is a formal hierarchy of authority. Each level supervises the lower level, while the top of the hierarchy sets the policies and goals. Fitness for office is determined by technical competency such as formal training. The Rational-Legal structure provides a basis for continual change and a tendency not to allow settled routines. However, discipline and authority generate various forms of resistance and resentment. Rational-Legal authority, too, does not and cannot encourage willingness to work hard or exercise initiative (Blau 1963; Bolman and Deal, 1991; Parsons, 1947; Morgan, 1986; Weber, trans: Henderson and Parsons, 1947). We recognize this structural framework because we see it at work in our government and bureaucracy. Local schools are all authorized by the State and carry the bones of this organizational structure. However, local schools can also have other organizational designs on top of the Rational-Legal framework depending on the beliefs held by the school board or within the organizational culture. These preferences stipulate the reality of how things are accomplished and decisions are made.

For instance, Weber's Traditional structure is based on the belief in tradition, routine and habit. The social order of the organization is viewed as sacred, eternal and inviolable. No innovation occurs unless it is through the fiction of a renewal of past practice. The main authority figure is free to make decisions according to his own best judgement, need or whim as long as he does not upset the sacred

order. He receives personal loyalty, and he rules through the use of obligation and favoritism. Any free individual action or planning will unloose a potential struggle for power between authority and staff. The Traditional organizational structure tends to perpetuate the status quo and maintains a high level of stability (Parsons, 1947; Weber, trans: Henderson and Parsons, 1947).

Weber's description of Traditional structure is very similar to Iannaccone and Lutz's description of the Sacred Community of school districts in Politics, Power and Policy: The Governing of Local School Districts (1970). They report the Sacred Community as the most common organizational structure used in school districts. Iannaccone and Lutz report that in the public school Sacred Community, the organization is based on the beliefs that "old ways are better than new," while fads and new notions were considered inherently dangerous. The organization as a whole avoids or resists change. "Anxiety, distress, fear, and strain accompany change or the suggestion of change and provide an emotional base for resistance to it. "Innovation that is defined as a new idea will be rejected. Inventions are most easily introduced as "what we've been doing right along," and adoption takes place, if at all, when intimates report successful experiences. The superintendent, as the chief executive, holds the most power in the district. The district functions as enhancing or maintaining group and community solidarity. There are specific group patterns of interactions and a suspicion of strangers.

Hence the 'etiquette of gossip' tends to be well developed and provides an outlet for the criticism of others in lieu of public attack, formal confrontation, and open debate. (Iannaccone and Lutz, 1970, p. 32)

This organizational structure also effects decision making. Iannaccone and Lutz state that the Sacred Community is characterized by a minimum of decision making. Decisions are unanimous, and school boards are politically manipulated by special interest groups. They say that this is the most commonly found pattern of policy making for school districts.

School district politics tends to maximize the search for consensus and avoid open conflict, creating opportunities for the manipulation and control of school boards and educational policies by relatively small and narrowly based cliques. (Iannaccone and Lutz, 1970, p. 29)

Political decision making and consensus building still seems to be the preferred decision process. In the September 1985 issue of The American School Board Journal, Boggs lists the reality of some current board decision making:

Rule Number One: Learn to count your votes...Veteran board members and administrators know that whatever a majority of the board thinks or wants, that's the way it's going to be.

Rule Number Two: Comply with your state's open meeting laws...controversy can erupt and derail your well-laid lobbying.

Rule Number Three: Learn to live with scrutiny from the press...The press offers a means of publicizing your ideas and perhaps garnering public support, but premature publicity can raise controversy or opposition....

Rule Number Four: Learn the art of political decision making. Introduce your idea early on. A board takes its time to come to consensus. Talk with your fellow board members, administrators, and the public. Listen to their ideas and objections, and be willing to modify your proposal to satisfy their concerns. And don't be afraid to horse-trade. Do board members have projects that you want to support? Will you trade votes or do you want to go it alone and take your chances? (Boggs, 1985, p. 40)

Iannaccone and Lutz believed that the Sacred Community structure and

political decision making are tied. The Boggs' article suggests that the majority of school boards use political decision making as the accepted and preferred decision process. Real change is next to nonexistent in a traditional organizational structure. Thus, if the traditional structure is the predominant district structure, then, whatever a school board may decide, whoever they may represent in whatever role they choose, may have little if any effect on school progressiveness due to this prevailing organizational structure. Further, in a traditional organizational structure, any decision process, political or otherwise, has minimal effect for real change, since the goal of the structure is to maintain the status quo.

School board members often do not seem to understand the politics of school organization. Poole in a 1992 North Carolina study concluded that board members refute the idea that the educational organization has a political nature and are naïve about the impact of community dynamics. In 1988, Griffin found that Connecticut board members identify themselves most often as team members who function in non-political school boards. On the other hand, it may be a general belief that politics will always be present in schools and to think otherwise is naïve.

Bolman and Deal (1991) in Reframing Organizations: Artistry, Choice and Leadership and Morgan (1986) in Images of Organization tell us that the Political Frame or organizational structure is a means of reconciling differences through consultation and negotiation in a pluralist organization. "Pluralism" is the liberal, democratic belief in the plural and diverse nature of the interests, and sources of power that shape organizational life. The political frame, however, does not focus

on these differences but rather on the strategy and tactics of balancing the inevitable conflict. The pursuit of self-interest and power are the basic processes both within and without the organization.

Organizational goals and decisions are not made from the top of the organization but through an ongoing process of bargaining, negotiation and jockeying for position among members of different coalitions. Most modern organizations promote different levels of politicking as staff may collaborate on common tasks but are in competition for limited resources. Staff may build coalitions to further specific group interests and use pressure to assert power when trust is low. Haderlein in "Reaching Out" an article for the National School Boards Association Report American School Boards: The Positive Power (1987) recommends coalition building for school boards:

Coalition building in the community will generate that support if structured properly and if the people involved believe they are being dealt with sincerely. This has meant that school boards and administration have had to be willing to do as much listening as talking, to develop specific action plans as a result of the dialogue and to engage in valuations that assure coalition members their participation is something more than public relations. To get started, some school boards have found it useful to make a list identifying various constituencies and specifying which other boards and volunteer organizations the school should cultivate. (Haderlein, 1987, p.17)

However, the political frame is so "thoroughly concentrated on politics it disregards the value of both rational and collaborative processes" (Bolman and Deal, 1991, p. 233), and "may generate cynicism and mistrust" (Morgan, 1986, p. 197). It is logical to assume therefore, that if the school board is very open about its political process, this attitude and ideology will transmit itself to the

organization. This could produce a more coalitionist than united staff culture, and the political organizational structure could become the predominate organizational frame. Cusick (1992) also seems to believe that there is one "bureaucracy" or organizational structure that schools employ in the present day. His description is political:

Negotiation and accommodation go on all the time at every level, and in those two processes is the overlapping that creates the system from its separate collectivities...The individuals, groups, and coalitions are unequal; so educational outcomes are unequal. If the formal organization were synonymous with the system, or at least coterminous with the system, one could expect more equal outcomes from schools.
(Cusick, 1992, p. 227)

Although he recommends keeping this organizational structure and working toward specific programs for equity in schools, there are other organizational structures to consider.

An organizational structure that includes staff needs, participation and empowerment is the Human Resource frame originating out of the Human Resource school of organizational thought. According to Bolman and Deal, human resource theorists emphasize the interdependence between people and organizations. Using Maslow's human need theory, the focus is on developing a better "fit" between people's needs, skills, values, roles, and relationships. The premise is that people's skills, insights, ideas, energy and commitment are an organization's most critical resources. The human resource structure is democratic and participative; people volunteer ideas and suggest alternatives. The features of a decision are approved by the whole in a flat hierarchy and decisions are made by consensus. There may be use of teams, or groups, or a whole staff in unison.

The process of inquiry, learning, and self-study can empower participants because it creates new definitions of what is possible, new explanations of why things are as they are and therefore new possibilities for action. (Bolman and Deal, 1991, p. 161)

Some types of human resource organizational applications are participative management, quality circles, job enrichment-job enlargement, self-managing work teams, organizational democracy, T-groups, Organizational Development, and Site-based management.

Site-based management is particularly interesting to this discussion since it is currently mandated by the State of Kentucky for all Kentucky school districts.

Over the next five years, every school in Kentucky will have to move to site-based management. By July 1, 1996, every school in Kentucky must have in place a site-based council consisting of two parents, three teachers, and a principal. (Harrington-Lueker, 1990, p.17)

In Michigan, the MEA, Michigan Education Association recently proposed in 1993 that site-based management be installed for all school districts in the State. In this structure, the school staff would be the decision makers for every individual school. Local school boards would be completely eliminated as extraneous in their plan. Site or school-based management has also been endorsed by the National Education Association, the National Association of Secondary School Principals and advocated by Al Shanker, President of American Federation of Teachers. Duignan (1990) in "School-Based Decision-Making and Management, Retrospect and Prospect," believes that this organizational structure is especially important for decision making:

There is an extensive literature which supports the notion of greater involvement in educational decision-making at the school and community levels. Few, if any, in education argue against such a common-sense idea. (Duignan, 1990, p. 328)

Some school-based organizational plans retain school boards. For instance, when the Kentucky legislature mandated site-based management for Kentucky school, they kept their school boards but mandated training for school board members.

Nevertheless, the human resource structure is criticized as naive and easily led by power elites. It may mistake human nature and attempt to impose middle class values on everyone, ignoring individual differences in reality. "Managers may believe in sharing power but may also fear that subordinates will misuse it. As a result, their attempts to implement participation are often inconsistent and contradictory" (Bolman and Deal, 1991, p. 157). This may be very true for those principals attempting to work in a site-based management environment, since principals have been taught decision-making from an autocratic approach, rather than using teamwork in the decision process (Mitchell, 1990). Harrison, Killion, and Mitchell (1989) also found in site-based schools in Colorado that, "many central office administrators actively blocked the practice of school-based decision making. They did not trust the ability of school personnel to make decisions, and they were reluctant to give up their role as innovators and controllers." In Kentucky, the only site-based mandated state, superintendent retirements are "up by 50 percent" (Harrington-Lueker, 1990).

Site based management approaches are also short on particulars, and possible contingencies. According to Harrington-Lueker (1990) in Kentucky there seem to be no provisions concerning the site-management school council. It is unknown if council meetings are subject to the Open Meetings Act, or if the school board is the deciding body over school council decisions. No one seems to know if school

council minutes should be published, or if school councils are subject to lawsuits. Clemmer (1990) also points out the problem of consistency in procedures and curriculum from school to school. It is quite likely that two elementary schools could be very different in a site-based district, and present more problems and controversy rather than less. Rist (1990) says Chicago is another site-based mandated area, where parents have the majority vote on school councils. But, what makes their untrained councils less prone to the bias, influence, pressures, and problems that local school boards have endured? Surely, they are subject to the same representation and role conflicts that have hampered school boards. Lastly, site-based management may also be irreversible as other human resource organizational structures usually are. "When workers gain more power, they are rarely willing to give it up and often press for its expansion" (Bolman and Deal, 1991, p.163).

Another answer to organizational structure is the Symbolic Frame, where the question of staff culture and a search for meaning in the midst of uncertainty or ambiguity is addressed. Many of the most significant events in an organization are unplanned. It is difficult or impossible to know the rational reasons, or what will happen next. The more uncertainty there is in an organization, the harder it is to use rational approaches, to analyze, problem solve, and make decisions. Meaning truly becomes the most important human need. The symbolic frame is a social and cultural search for meaning in events, rituals, symbols, myths, sagas, stories, humor, and relationships. Human beings create symbols to resolve confusion, increase predictability, provide direction, relieve tension and find meaning and order. Symbols reflect and express an organization's culture of who they are and how

they do things. Bolman and Deal believe schools are symbolic organizations:

In many organizations, goals are multiple and elusive, the technology is underdeveloped, the linkages between means and ends are poorly understood and effectiveness is almost impossible to determine. Schools, churches, mental health clinics, personnel departments, and management consulting firms all share these characteristics. (Bolman and Deal, 1991, p. 275)

They feel that to achieve legitimacy, schools need to maintain an appearance that conforms to the way society thinks they should look. Policies should also convey modern appearances and reflect contemporary issues, since organizations are judged not so much by their actions as by their appearance of action. Michaelsen (1980) believes that myth is important for schools to survive even if goals are forsaken:

The public assesses the district according to institutionalized rules, myths and rituals that the public has come to take as indicators of 'good schooling.' The school district's managers must, if they are to survive and prosper, insure that they conduct the district's affairs in accordance with these rules and myths, even though this behavior often conflicts with the efficient pursuit of the district's formal goals. (Michaelsen, 1980, p. 30)

It may be a social and symbolic world that human beings have chosen to construct. Cusick, also agrees that the symbolic is important to schools:

Parents will not give their children over to an organization that does not give the appearance of knowing what it is doing. The bureaucracy provides the appearance. (Cusick, 1992, p. 225)

Symbolic organizational structure may also be tied with representation. School boards may provide symbolic representation, one of Pitkin's four representation contexts. According to Mann, symbolic

representation is the public feeling that the representative is one of them, who "enacts ceremonials or rituals that evoke" this identification.

The representative is not judged on his decisions:

This type of representation refers mainly to the way people feel about representatives or a representative body. Thus symbolic representation can come about either because the representative stands as a point of identification or because the representative enacts ceremonials or rituals that evoke an identification. Those people who support a representative regardless of the nature of the representative's actions but because 'he's one of us' are satisfied with symbolic representation. (Mann, 1976, p. 9)

Therefore, if school board members believe that the concept of representation is symbolic, that "they are one of the people" then they are more likely to have symbolic priorities in their belief system. They may very well agree that schools should conform to the "myths and rituals" of community perceptions of good schooling. They are also likely to promote the symbolic belief in their decision making and thereby reinforce the symbolic organizational structure.

Bolman and Deal suggest that all four frames, structural, political, human resource and symbolic, illuminate a different slice of life in organizations, but usually only one is practiced and the other three are ignored. They suggest that "complex realities require complex approaches" and integrating the frames into a multidimensional organizational structure is needed. Otherwise, the existence of multiple perspectives can lead to misunderstanding and conflict. For instance, the decision making process can be viewed in four distinct ways:

Structural Frame: Rational sequence to produce the right decision.

Political Frame: Opportunity to gain or exercise power.

Human Resource Frame: Open process to produce commitment.

Symbolic Frame: Ritual to provide comfort and support until a decision happens.

(Bolman and Deal, 1991, from Table 4, p. 323)

One organizational structure that is designed to cut across these frames is organic Systems Theory developed by von Bertalanffy and used in conjunction with Wiener's cybernetics of control and communication (Bolman and Deal, 1991). This general Systems Approach, sometimes called Management Science, Operations Research or Rational Systems, is evolved from Weber's Rational-Legal organizational design. It is an application that is suggested for schools by Knezevich:

An educational 'system' may be conceptualized as a network of interrelated subsystems, each charged with accomplishing part of the overall task of converting inputs into desired outputs. It is a manmade system with an array of resources, with a dynamic interplay with its external environment or community, and with a set of missions or objectives. Its primary purpose is to deliver educational services desired by the community that created, supported, and can terminate it. (Knezevich, 1984, p. 141)

The Systems Approach in education contains a network of specific subsystems to coordinate goals and priorities, resources, operations, client services, manpower development, environmental relations, and student services. The educational organization is viewed as a unique delivery system, with clear long and short range objectives. Change is recognized as normal and relevant. The decision making process is rational and includes identifying issues so objectives are clear and environmental considerations are known. Relevant data is collected and arranged to precipitate finding decision alternates and the means to evaluate each alternative in relation to costs and benefits. Although decision making becomes "more explicit, more systematic, and better"

through the use of scientific and mathematical methodology, the mathematics is also its liability. People do not always want to do the work involved in gathering data and mathematical models do not always exist to manipulate the many variables in a school district.

Another concept derived from the Systems Approach is Contingency Theory, which attempts to meet the needs of the organization's subsystems with appropriate structures. Burns and Stalker (1961) feel that it is possible to identify a continuum of organizational structures ranging from mechanistic to organic. The idea is to interpret the needs of each subsystems and incorporate a particular organizational structure to that subsystem. The emphasis is on meeting the changing demands of the environment by establishing congruence between different subsystems. Information is integrated. Dysfunctions are identified and eliminated. Yet, a contingency structure mainly allows for differentiation among the different subsystems in order to achieve overall growth. In a school district, this would mean that each individual school might have a different organizational structure in order to meet the demands of its environment. The authors say that different tasks require different structures. Decisions on strategy and balance have to be made. The assumption is that there is no one best way of organizing and the appropriate structure or frame depends on the kind of task and environment that is integral to the organization.

...in the process of organizing a lot of choices have to be made and...effective organization depends on achieving a balance or compatibility between strategy, structure, technology, the commitments, and needs of people, and the external environment. (Morgan, 1986, p. 54)

In this section, eight different organization structures were reviewed in relation to schools. They are Rational-Legal, Traditional, Human Resource, Site-based Management, Political, Symbolic, Systems, and Contingency Theory. Authors disagree on which structure is currently prevalent in schools. Iannaccone and Lutz believe it is the sacred community or Weber's traditional structure. Others see the predominate structure as political or symbolic. Still other authors believe that schools should be human resource based and use site based management. Knezevich recommends a systems approach for schools. Several authors also pointed out that specific decision making approaches were inhibited or promoted in different organizational structures. For instance, rational decision making seems to be inhibited in the traditional and political structures due to special interest bias, while it is promoted in systems' organizations. Further, Bolman and Deal argue that decision making provides different functions for different structures. Decision making can be an opportunity to gain power in the political structure; a process to produce commitment in the human resource frame; or a ritual to provide support until a decision happens in the symbolic frame. Organizational structure may also be tied to representation, such as in the symbolic frame. Differences in perspective and organizational structure are important and can determine the nature of how people interact, "Clearly the ideology in use will determine the character of the organization," (Morgan, 1986, p.186).

Therefore, if organizational structure is complex, important and directly related to decision making, do school board members understand the different alternatives, properties, and relationships in

order to make relevant choices? Do they understand representation and role? What training is available?

SCHOOL BOARD TRAINING

People who gain school board seats probably do so with the best of intentions (Goldhammer, 1964; Reeves, 1954). It is quite possible, that most board members believe that the intent of doing a good job is enough to be a good board member. In general, it is unlikely that new school board members expect any form of formal training since their legal qualifications for the job are simple. Many states, including Michigan, only require that the prospective board members be 18 and a resident voter to become a board member. No other training or qualifications are mandated. However, as school boards have received more intense criticism, their qualifications are questioned. In a 1989 article for the American School Board Journal, Reecer says, "Even if their honesty is unquestioned, their qualifications, their competence, and the quality of their commitment sometimes gets grades that are barely satisfactory." Her article also points out that administrators and teachers are far more trained than their employers, the school boards. The new board member must deal with these realities as well as complex school problems immediately. In "Boards need education, too," MacDougall (1988) states that, "A newly elected or appointed representative must be prepared to discuss and cast informed votes on board matters from the moment he or she is sworn in. There is no apprenticeship or mentor system in school board work." Some board members have learned the "ins and outs" of boardsmanship through a "baptism by fire" (Ficklen, 1985), from on the job training, or from

other board members (Griffin, 1988). Still other board members and superintendents believe that training is a significant factor in enhancing school board performance (Roland, 1990).

However, there is much debate on where this training should be given and by whom. Should it be mandatory or voluntary? What should be taught and is it really necessary after all? Hansen (1988) reported that in Los Angeles County, "more than one third of new school board members received no district orientation" at all. He concluded that: "New school board member orientation varied widely in quality and quantity. Topics were inadequately presented." He recommended that districts without bylaws or board policies regarding orientation should adopt them.

There are some studies that have attempted to find out what the expectations of board members were in regard to their training. They found that training may mean local in-service discussion, instruction from the superintendent, use of other consultants, or training from state school board associations. Thus results of the research are mixed and contradictory. In Nebraska, briefings with the superintendent was the most common method of inservice reported. Although a majority of these school board members reported that their inservice program was satisfactory, their superintendents reported "either no program offered or unsatisfactory program" (Jinks, 1979). In Colorado, Kerrins (1984) discovered that training emphasizing discussions was the preferred method of inservice. In Kansas, board members do not choose their inservice topics, nor do they evaluate their inservices, but expect the superintendent to be the primary source of inservice (Selby, 1984). Kleinstiver's 1986 Arizona study showed "local training was provided by

the superintendent, the state school board association and school board members themselves through self-studies." In Connecticut, Griffin's (1988) research stated that school board associations and local level orientations were mentioned by board members has "somewhat helpful." Texas boards believe that it is the superintendent's responsibility to keep the board informed of applicable laws, rules, and regulations. "This is perceived to be most important area of training" (Koeninger, 1988). In North Carolina, Curtis (1990) showed that boards "expected the superintendent to be the primary provider for inservice training." In Pennsylvania (Neubauer, 1983) no single inservice model is used. The state school board association plays a crucial role in promoting and providing for board development. Neubauer also found that the superintendent's education and self-image affects his/her willingness and ability to provide a strong board development program.

Unwilling superintendents may have other reasons for not providing board training. MacDougall points out that the superintendent may not be comfortable with inservicing the board on some issues such as "delegation of power" or "superintendent's authority." These topics would include school board role and responsibility:

To achieve educational quality, continuing education for school board members is not only valuable, it's essential...However, the close working relationship between the school chief and his or her board can make instruction on some topics difficult...Another option is to hire a consultant to organize the seminar.
(MacDougall, 1988, p. 2)

Finally, Goins (1985) surveyed all 50 state school board association executive directors, 100 district superintendents, 100 school board

presidents, and 39 state legislators in Illinois. The main conclusions of his study were that in-service programs should be "mandatory for newly elected board members" and that "state school board associations should have the primary responsibility for providing the majority of training hours required."

New board members, in general, were not prepared to deal with the complexities of a school district without formal in-service training...Different school board in-service training programs should be designed for experienced and inexperienced board members... In-service training should be mandatory for newly elected board members...but not be a requirement for all school board members... Local school boards should be required to have written in-service goals for board member training...the state school board associations should have the primary responsibility for providing the majority of training hours required. (Goins, 1985, dissertation abstract)

Currently, there are at least twelve states that have required school board training by law. They are: Arkansas, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, New Jersey, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia, (Courtesy: National School Boards Association, Research Department, 1992). Their mandated programs reflect different ideas, and consequences. For example, in Arkansas, the Department of Education has authority to design and conduct "a series of institutes" for administrators and school board members. The Arkansas School Board Associations is also authorized as a training provider. However attendance is not mandated (Laffey, 1985). In 1985 Kentucky became the first state to fully mandate an annual in-service training for school board members. According to Ficklen (1985) board members are required to document 15 hours of training. However, the Kentucky legislature provided no

funding and expected the local district to pick up the costs. The Georgia legislature, on the other hand, earmarked \$56,000 for school board training. New school board members were required to receive orientation training during the first year of office. Orientation training must include specific subjects given by the authorized Georgia Education Leadership Academy, in cooperation with the Georgia School Boards Association. All school board members must participate in at least one day of annual training. The Academy is required to verify attendance, while local districts pay school board members per diem, registration fees, and reimbursement of expenses. (Georgia Public School Standards B 2(1a)(1b); Georgia law: O.C.G.A. 20-2-230(b), as amended, 1991). Texas mandated newly elected school board members to complete a local in-service orientation within 60 days. An additional 20 hours of training "on the standards of the duties of a board member" must be completed within the first year of service. The twelve standards were developed by the Texas State Board of Education. Every year thereafter, board members are required to complete 6 hours of training. Each board's training program will be reviewed by the State Board once every three years (Morris, 1986). "The penalty for failure to comply is that the board member's name is published in the local paper as being derelict of duty." If a Kentucky board member fails to obtain the annual training, s/he will be expelled from the local school board, while in Oklahoma, if the school board member does not receive training, his seat is declared "vacant" by the local school board ("State Law Mandates New School Board Members Attend Training Workshops," 1986).

However, according to Laffey (1985), "some state associations are opposed to the establishment of state mandates." She cites the objections of the National School Boards Association, Executive Director, Thomas A. Shannon. His objections to mandatory training are: the cost of training which might create additional state bureaucracies; lack of necessity since state school board associations are willing to provide quality instruction; enforceability which would include additional paperwork and penalties; and a negative impact on willingness of candidates to run for office and veterans to continue on boards. His most serious objection is that mandating training for school board members is in a sense subverting representative government.

"Dr. Shannon fears that education mandated by the state and controlled and/or conducted by the state education bureaucracy may weaken the position of elected school board members in the political structure and result in a state-dominated 'political power fiefdom" (Laffey, 1985, p. 4). Yet, if state associations provide all the school board training, what keeps that training objective? According to Simon, training can be facts, frame of reference, "approved" solutions or an indoctrination of values:

Training may supply the trainee with the facts necessary in dealing with these decisions, it may provide him with a frame of reference for his thinking, it may teach him "approved" solutions, or it may indoctrinate him with the values in terms of which his decisions are to be made. (Simon, 1958, p. 16; 1979, p. 269)

Considering that the National School Boards Association currently supports community representation for school board members, it seems likely that is what state associations may teach. Likewise, in Holding Effective Board Meetings (1984) a joint publication of the American

Association of School Administrators and the National School Boards Association, "consensus-building" is recommended as the "team decision-making style" for school boards. Thus it seems likely that this type of decision making is what school boards may learn in state association training programs. However, if school board members are to receive training, shouldn't it be an in-depth, objective review of all viewpoints?

Moreover, Bond-Brewer and Braveman (1990) state in an article for the Michigan Association of School Boards Journal, that at least 16 state board associations offer voluntary formal training programs that lead to certification or accreditation in boardsmanship. They are: Alabama, Alaska, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Florida, Kansas, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, New Hampshire, North Carolina, North Dakota, South Dakota, Washington, and New York.

Unlike past inservice efforts at conventions and conferences, most new breed certification/training programs stress formal instruction in specific skills and knowledge in a classroom or clinic setting with limited enrollment. (Bond-Brewer and Braverman, 1990, p. 10)

These state school board associations also provide a diverse array of school board member voluntary programs. For instance, the North Carolina School Boards Association Academy awards certificates for "credits" earned through attendance and training at various seminars, conferences, conventions and meetings, and service in various capacities. The Florida State School Board Association awards a certificate for completing 96 hours of instruction in 11-12 areas. To remain in the program, each board member is expected to train an additional 18 hours per year. A "Master Board Program" is the highest level of training, where entire boards and superintendents participate

in workshops dealing with decision-making and evaluation. When this program is completed, a plaque will be issued (Courtesy: National School Board Association, Research Department, 1992).

Some voluntary school board associations programs may not be viewed as viable. The Missouri School Board Association pioneered the concept of voluntary board member certification (Bond-Brewer and Braverman, 1990). However in 1990, Johnson sent questionnaires to 50 local teacher association presidents, 50 board of education presidents, 50 superintendents, 20 Missouri Department of Education supervisors, the Commissioner of Education, the State Board of Education, 11 state school board association directors, and 36 Missouri House and State legislators serving on education committees. Johnson's study in Missouri, like Goins (1985) in Illinois, concluded that school board member training should be "considered as a possible mandate." In Michigan, Schuster (1980) produced a study to improve decision making by investigating school board member participation in inservice programs. He found that:

More than 80 percent of members agreed that continuous inservice education is vitally important to all who desire to perform their duties in a competent manner...More than two-thirds of the members agreed that newly elected or appointed members should be required to complete a locally determined inservice program during their first year of service. Only one-half of the members had attended one or more of the regional inservice programs. (Schuster, 1980, dissertation abstract)

He concluded that "time and cost are the two most significant factors influencing the decision made by individual board members to attend inservice events." In Missouri, New Jersey, and Washington, Merz

(1983) found that "School board associations are less helpful in training board members in rural districts than in nonrural districts."

If there are problems with attendance, time, cost and distance to state association voluntary training programs, there is also the question of curriculum in both mandatory and voluntary programs. There is a wide range of opinion and different lists of the skills that school board members need to know. This report for instance, has attempted to point out the need for school board members to understand representation, role, organizational structure, and decision-making processes.

Some studies have tried to determine school board member perceived instructional needs. McDaniel reported in 1984 that Minnesota board members felt poorly informed on areas of "lobbying skills with government officials, selection of texts and library books, and cooperation with community service organizations." "Role and Responsibility" was the most indicated area of perceived training need by board members in Colorado and Arizona (Kerrins, 1984; Kleinstiver, 1986). In North Carolina, school board members surveyed by Curtis in 1990 choose "Curriculum and Finance." In 1992, Holwey surveyed school board members in five states that have mandated school board training. She found that, "School board members in all five states placed greater importance on the skill of administration than they did on any other skill." Board members also indicated that knowledge of "decision-making" was extremely important to them in Kentucky and Georgia, while "finance" was important in Arkansas.

Holwey's review of the literature indicated that school board members needed to have knowledge of the following eight skills:

Leadership, Decision-making, Finance, Policy, Communications, School Law, Instruction/Curriculum, and Administration. If her research is valid, do mandatory and voluntary training programs include the same eight categories? In states with mandatory school board training, the state board of education or the legislature has the legal authority to determine the nature and subject matter of school board member training. For example, Georgia includes instruction in school finance, school law, community relations, state instruction objectives, ethics, duties, and responsibilities of board members, as well as evaluation of the school superintendent and school board, (Georgia Public School Standards: B 2(1a)(1b); law: O.C.G.A. 20-2-230(b), as amended, 1991). If the Georgia program is typical of mandatory school board training, it does not appear to include instruction in the five areas of leadership, administration, policy, communications, or decision-making as recommended by Holwey. On the other hand, according to Bond-Brewer and Braverman, most curricula in voluntary programs are similar in content:

Courses cover school finance, policy, leadership skills, school law, legislation, technology, and communication skills, as well as board-superintendent relations, effective meetings, labor relations, and conflict management. (Bond-Brewer and Braverman, 1990, p. 11)

Apparently voluntary programs do not cover three areas suggested by Holwey, administration, instruction/curriculum or decision-making.

In Michigan, the Michigan Association of School Boards has a voluntary training program for school board members. As of January 1993, it's curriculum specifically contained: Leadership Skills, six hours; Policy, three hours; School Finance and School Budget, three

hours; School Law, three hours; Curriculum and Instruction, three hours; Community Relations, three hours; Labor Relations, three hours; and Legislation, three hours (Courtesy: Michigan School Boards Association, January 1, 1993). It does not seem to contain major instruction in the three areas of communications, administration or decision making, although all three areas may be included as sub-topics under Leadership Skills. The MASB does not provide training in organizational structure. Judging from these surface observations, voluntary programs may contain more of the eight important skills indicated by Holwey. Overall, both state mandatory and voluntary programs appear to be deficient especially in educating board members in decision making skills. It is also surprising that if some of the main criticisms of school boards involve a need to learn the complexities of school organizations, not one curriculum teaches an understanding of organizational structure.

The debate on school board training continues to rage on. On the local level, superintendents may be unwilling or uncomfortable to instruct board members. One research study (Kask, 1990) indicated "that board members and superintendents perceive training needs differently. "In-service problems may also entail a question of who has control over the training material presented to school board members. On the state level, if the state department decides on content, the school board associations seem to believe that this is a threat to local control. If the school board associations have charge of instruction than there is a question of objectivity. Plus no general curriculum in any state seems to contain all four factors of role, representation, decision-making, and organizational structure. Additionally, school board

members may not feel a need for instruction. Hill (1985) in studying external and internal factors in board members, found that externals in Oklahoma were consistently less interested in activities associated with learning for their specific roles. External board members were also more likely to interfere in the daily operation of the schools than were internal board members. Hill's study might be considered evidence that without training school board members are more likely to misunderstand their roles, responsibility, and have limited knowledge of the organizational structure of the district.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This review of the literature on school board behavior includes the four areas of debate concerning school boards: representation, role, organizational structure, and training. The authors cited in the literature on school board member representation maintain that school board members are legally supposed to uphold State interests as State "trustees" in their decisions. However there is a continuous debate raging that they should represent the community, the district, or special interest groups as "trustees" or "delegates." If school board members acquiesce to represent certain factions, they may be subject to bias, as school board members attempt to keep the approval of their perceived constituents. The values and beliefs that school board members hold or those of their constituents form the policy that runs the schools and may determine the organizational structure. Research shows there is a growing trend for board members to adopt a "delegate" model or style in representation.

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Three school board roles of legislative, judicial and administrative were found in the course of reviewing the literature. Authors maintain that the traditional role of the school board members is legislative in order to form school policy. Pressures exerted by community factions, internal factions, or special interest groups for representation may influence school board members to assume judicial or administrative roles. Board members may attempt to appease their voters by solving problems on a case by case basis, protect the values of the community which may be different than the school personnel, or form coalitions with factions of the community against the staff. Further, a lack of experience with complex organizations may produce frustration with the change process as a further incentive to have "hands on" involvement. Research shows there is a growing trend for school board members to assume administrative roles. Literature was found that explained the damage that school board role choice has on the effectiveness of the superintendent, but little information was found on the larger issue of overall damage done to the district organizational structure.

Eight different organizational structures have been identified in the literature that can be used in schools. They are: Rational-Legal, Traditional, Human Resource, Site-Based Management, Political, Symbolic, Systems, and Contingency Theory. Each structure has a particular guiding belief as well as particular command and control mechanisms. All organizational structures have positive and negative components. Each structure may have its own decision process or influence the function of the decision process. Authors disagree on the prevailing structure of what is used today or what is the best structure for tomorrow. In addition, decision making provides different functions

for different structures. Decision making can be an opportunity to gain power in the political structure; a process to produce commitment in the human resource frame; or a ritual to provide support until a decision happens in the symbolic frame. Whatever organizational structure is used, that belief in how things get done may well determine the character of the school district organization. It is unknown if school boards understand or have received training in organizational structure.

Through the literature review, it was found that there are few initial qualifications for school board members. Usually a resident voter of the school district is the only prerequisite. Many school board members appear to be untrained in organizational structure, representation, role, and decision making. Board members seem to learn their roles from various sources such as on-the job training from other board members, superintendent inservices, paid consultants or other organizations, and state school board associations. Twelve states have mandated school board training, while sixteen state school board associations offer voluntary training programs. Recommended curriculum consists of subjects in: Leadership, Decision making, Finance, Policy, Communications, School Law, Instruction/Curriculum and Administration. No mandatory or voluntary training program appears to incorporate this entire curriculum. No training program appears to contain organizational structure in their curriculum. Few programs contain decision making.

CHAPTER III

LITERATURE REVIEW ON DECISION THEORY

Long term commitment to new learning and new philosophy is required of any management that seeks transformation. The timid and the faint hearted and people that expect quick results, are doomed to disappointment. W. Edwards Deming 1986

This chapter focuses on the decision making elements and processes used in decisions. It begins with a review of the known decision making paradigms used by school boards. This is followed by an explanation of the normative and descriptive properties of decision theory. Two working theories are also presented in some detail. The purpose of this chapter is an attempt to understand how individuals and groups make decisions in order to apply this knowledge to school board decision making.

THE PARADIGM OF SCHOOL BOARD DECISION MAKING

Decision making is what school boards do and have always done. They decide on all content and procedure of the schools. They decide on policy, issues, curriculum, staffing, programs, facilities, and finances. The quality of these decisions determine how well an organization is run. In the 1961 edition of Boardsmanship, it says that, "School boards work at decision making. Theirs is the final action and responsibility." While Gross in Who Runs Our Schools? believed:

Whether a school system is excellent or poor is in part attributable to the decisions of past and present school board members. (Gross, 1958, p. 136)

Yet, board members themselves may not know how they come to make decisions or they may follow a ritualized pattern or paradigm. Some boards may believe that just "good" information is enough to consider when making a "good" decision. Other boards may believe that arriving at a consensus, following "good" meeting procedure, or accepting the superintendent's recommendation produces a "good" decision.

From the literature, historically the idea of good decision making first meant having adequate knowledge and information:

The first requirement for an effective school board member is that he have the information and knowledge on which to base his decisions. (Gross, 1958, p. 94)

In The School Board, Goldhammer's study found that the "deliberative process" consisted of school boards seeking information and superintendents supplying it. A large portion of the superintendent's role was being the information giver as part of the decision process:

...because the superintendent gave little written information to the board, the dominant role played by the school board members in the deliberative process was that of seeking information, while the dominant role of the superintendent of schools was that of giving information. (Goldhammer, 1964, p. 83)

However, Iannaccone and Lutz (1970) argue that there are definite problems with the superintendent role as information giver in decision making. In the Sacred Community organizational structure and political decision process they observed, the superintendent may pose as an ultimate authority:

Without the development of viable political mechanisms for provoking district wide discussions and debate and without provisions for legitimate public dissent with confrontations between opposing views on educational matters, the school administrator is usually reduced to manipulating his board by

posing as more of an expert than any one man or single group of professionals can ever be. Thus the board is faced with the extreme alternatives of accepting staff recommendations in toto or rejecting its professional staff. (Iannaccone and Lutz, 1970, p. 21)

Superintendents as the chief information giver may not always have complete information. Nelson (1976) investigated the use of people information sources, organizational information sources and literature information sources by Michigan school district personnel. She found that although "persons of higher educational status used all types of information more"... "school districts minimally use information of any type that is external to themselves...and...people sources were used most frequently."

The implied consequence of this finding is that professional educators generally rely on their own internal judgement with its biases, areas of expertise, and areas of relative ignorance for instructional decision-making. This tendency has direct bearings onto whom and when information is transmitted within school districts. (Nelson, 1976, p. 159)

Further, if there is distrust between the superintendent and the school board, superintendents may not always be forthright with unpopular information and recommendations to a board for fear of losing their jobs.

From the superintendent's point of view, his is the more susceptible job as far as pressures are concerned. It is his source of livelihood, and he can lose it. (Gross, 1958, p. 57)

On the other hand, if superintendents do not provide specific information they are breaking their trust of office:

If the board takes or fails to take certain action, the administrator's clear recognition of his responsibility to advise the board of the effects upon both the educational process and the community at large cannot be avoided. It is his responsibility to

delineate for the board the alternatives involved in any situation and the consequences of their accepting one set of alternatives in preference to another. (Goldhammer, 1964, p. 54)

However, if superintendent information is one source of information, what other sources do school boards use? If school boards use people or organizational information sources there are problems. From the previous sections we know, that if school board members attempt to gain first hand information from school employees they risk damaging the organizational structure. Other community sources of information may be unreliable or solely represent the issues of special interest groups. Literature information may be the basis of school board training, but not all school board members appear to be trained. Some school board members have also been known to use information that they found at home in decision making:

Information secured by a wife at a bridge club, by a husband at Rotary, or by children at the dinner table may be used at the next board meeting as the basis for making certain important decisions affecting the schools. (Goldhammer, 1964, p. 83)

Past researchers have attempted to prove that the quality of information used in decisions is a basis for improving decision making (Glasman and Nevo, 1988). Likewise, many studies have focused on the inservice needs of school board members in an attempt to improve the quality of decisions such as Schuster (1980) and others described in the previous section on training. Subsequently, some information and knowledge bases improved. Merz (1983) found in Missouri, New Jersey and Washington, that "acquiring information and expertise was not perceived by superintendents or board members as a significant problem for school boards."

However, school board members may have realized long ago that gaining information and knowledge was not their only issue but the decision process itself was a problem. However, they considered the decision process to be a combination of leadership, open mindedness, and how meetings were conducted:

To summarize then: school board members in specifying particular dissatisfactions with their school board and its functions emphasize first the level of information, or the basis for their decisions, and then the processes by means of which their decisions are reached...The process of this decision making is probably crucial, at least for the ease with which decisions will be reached, if not for the actual content of the final decision. Adequate leadership, open mindfulness in discussion, the conduct of meetings--all of these influence the kinds of decisions a school board will reach. And some board members, by their expressed dissatisfactions, recognize these as areas in which improvement would significantly affect the functioning of the board and, ultimately, the public schools in their communities. (Gross, 1958, p. 94)

This limited notion of the decision process may have continued as the paradigm of decision making. Goldhammer felt that improving the discussion-deliberative process was the best way to improve school board decisions.

The solution to the improvement of the board's decision making appears to lie in the improvement of the deliberative process. Board members need to study the actual process which they employ in order to determine the extent to which they make decision making an empirical search for general principles rather than a loose discussion group basing its important decisions on evidence which may not meet the criteria of acceptability. (Goldhammer, 1964, p. 85)

However, as presented in the training section of this report, "deliberative" or decision making processes and skills are not taught as a major subject to school board members. Decision making may still be

misunderstood in terms of the old paradigm of information needs rather than as a separate field of inquiry. In 1971, Collar found in Arkansas that:

The climate or style of actual board meetings was found to be an important factor in determining whether the board approached decision making in a realistic and effective manner. The president of the school board probably has the most direct influence on how board meetings are conducted. (Collar, 1971, dissertation abstract)

Collar recommended, "that the decision process be recognized as a legitimate area in the inservice training of school board members." In School Boards: Strengthening Grass Roots Leadership (1986), the Institute for Educational Leadership also reported, "The need for school board education and development is recognized generally, but too often it is merely informational and episodic." For example, in a 1988 article, "Boards Need Education, Too!," for the National School Boards Association, information is viewed as the primary inservice base to improve decision making rather than teaching decision making skills:

To improve decision-making, school boards increasingly are turning to annual inservice programs to inform and keep their decision makers up-to-date on matters of local, state, and national concern. (MacDougall, 1988, p. 1)

Other researchers have found that school boards continue to follow a traditional pattern in decision making if school board members are even remotely aware of their dynamics. Kinder (1963) found in Missouri that, "School board members either could not or would not explain why they made a particular decision." He recommended that further study should be made in the area of school board decision making since "the

traditions of the school district seemed to influence the decision making of the school board members"...and..."school board members tend to a significant degree to follow tradition in making decisions." In California, Harshman (1983) also found that "school board members tend to adopt certain preferred orientations when making important policy decisions." Likewise a Michigan study (Brubacher, 1963) concluded that "school boards have a fairly uniform pattern in making decisions."

School superintendents perceive themselves as primarily providing and making proposals in the decision making process. School board members primarily perceive themselves as supporting proposals and providing information. (Brubacher, 1963, dissertation abstract)

In 1978, King concluded that the customary decision-making pattern for each district he surveyed in New York, included "issue initiation by the superintendent and joint accommodation by the superintendent and board members...The role board members have in decision-making may be described as issue accommodation and legalization." As the reader may remember from the literature on organization this description might imply a political decision process if previous steps were taken by the superintendent to ensure consensus. On the other hand, issue accommodation and legalization might not be a decision process at all, if boards just approve or rubber stamp administratively made decisions. "Rubber Stamping" is described in Holding Effective Board Meetings (1984) as one of three types of decision patterns, and used by "five percent" of American school boards:

These boards view themselves more as a benign corporate board than as an active legislative body. They defer to their professional administrator, or perhaps to one powerful member whose charismatic qualities inspire the faith of the follower.

However some administrators are able to get "a sense of the board" and frame issues and recommendations in a way that they are, indeed, acceptable to the board. (Holding Effective Board Meetings, 1984, p. 44)

The other two types of decision patterns described are "Faction Weary" and "Team Decision-Making." Faction Weary school boards are described as having certain sections of the school board united against the other factions on a continuous basis. Votes are continually split due to long term board member disputes. Seven percent of American school boards were found to actively ignore the superintendent and try to administer the schools themselves as part of this pattern:

These boards like to administer, and often get involved in daily operations through board committees responsible for overseeing various aspects of school operations. The administration is not especially trusted, and the board-superintendent line is unclear. At meetings of the full board, discussions are often heated. When the vote comes, its often split, with the same people on the same side every time. (Holding Effective Board Meetings, 1984, p. 44)

"Team Decision Making" is the third pattern of school board decision making and endorsed in Holding Effective Board Meetings by the American Association of School Administrators and the National School Boards Association. This pattern uses "consensus building" as the main method to reach a decision:

Most boards use this method, whereby members view themselves as peers, regard their superintendent as a source of information and advice, and discuss issues in depth. Frequently, consensus building results in a consensus on a vote. Votes may split but according to conscience and not to long-running board member disputes; and everyone supports the majority decision. The board tries to live the textbook ideal of the policy-making board and the administrative superintendent. (Holding Effective Board Meetings, 1984, p. 45)

On one hand, "Team Decision Making" may seem to be a viable solution to school board decision making where everyone strives to get along with everyone else, attempts to look at issues objectively, and everyone follows their functional role. On the other hand, decision making is more complicated than this surface description. The effectiveness of team decision making is more likely to be dependent on what decision process is used within the team discussions. For instance, is the discussion structured to compare the pros and cons of each alternative with each of the other alternatives or is the discussion random until one influential member provides an answer and pressures the board into his or her recommendation? The use of either of these two different perspectives on decision making could determine the effectiveness of that board's decision function. Either of these decision processes could be used in team decision making.

In this section, the concept of a paradigm of school board decision making is discussed. Traditionally, school boards have believed that "best information" has been enough on which to base a decision. However, the information-only paradigm did not allow for the problems associated with gaining information, such as the influence of the information giver. Later the focus was on open-mindedness, the discussion dialogue, and how meetings are conducted as attributes of good decision making. These concepts, although helpful, were not portrayed as skills, and lacked substance in the actual practice of how to make school board decisions. Other board decision practices provide an insight as to how school board decision practices are linked to the role of school board members. Faction-Weary practices lead to "administrative" board members, while "Rubber-Stamping" boards may

not be decision makers at all. The latest paradigm of decision making is centered on "consensus building," endorsed by the American Association of School Administrators and the National School Boards Association. This paradigm, though striving to help boards work together congenially and politically, may or may not address decision making skills or the different decision processes of decision theory that school board members could use.

DECISION THEORY

Although most authors discussing school boards use the term "decision," little is mentioned about the "skill" of decision making. Decision making may not be recognized by most people as a skill with steps or a format. Initially, some authors believe that the term decision should be "applied to all judgements which affect a course of action" (Griffiths, 1969). If we consider school board judgements as approving one superintendent recommendation, then the school board has made a decision based on this definition. However, the vast majority of authors believe that a decision is based on more than one alternative. Therefore, for the purposes of this research, a decision is a conscious choice made after some sort of consideration and from a set of alternatives or possible courses of action (Knezevich, 1984). Decision-making, on the other hand, has many different definitions. It is the act of choice, or judgement from a number of alternatives. Or, it is problem analysis, or planning, or analyzing alternatives, or a combination of all the aforementioned activities.

It may be considered only in terms of the culminating act of deciding or it may include all prior activity leading to the choice.

There is also a lack of consensus on the number and sequence of elements in the decision process. (Knezevich, 1984, p.49)

For the purposes of this report, decision making includes the entire continuum from problem recognition to evaluation of the decision. There are also a variety of decision processes which will be discussed throughout the following sections of the literature review.

The concept of decision making is a relatively new field of theory, which "began to emerge as a discipline in its own right only in the 1960's (Arkes and Hammond, 1989). Decision theory is also unique because it encompasses many fields:

Making decisions is like speaking prose--people do it all the time, knowingly and unknowingly. It is hardly surprising that the topic of decision making is shared by many disciplines, from mathematics and statistics, through economics and political science to sociology and psychology. (Kaheman and Tversky, 1986, p. 194)

Decision theory contains two distinct branches of normative and descriptive analysis. Each branch may answer questions about school boards and their decision making behavior. The normative study of decision making attempts to recommend how a decision ought to be made. It is concerned with the process of decision and the interaction with the organization. It may explain school board use or lack of use of particular decision processes based upon their version of a "rationality" and the logic of making a decision. It may also explain how the decision process is related to organizational structure and influence. The descriptive study of decision theory, sometimes called empirical or behavioral, is concerned with how people actually do make decisions. It attempts to explain people's beliefs, preferences and biases in decisions of uncertainty. This may explain individual board member decision

making behavior, and shed some light on the problems of school board representation and role.

However, throughout all of decision theory there is a basic major argument among researchers on human rationality. There are those theorists who recommend a rational approach to decision making and those that believe fervently in Simon's "bounded rationality." Each theoretical approach seems to recommend different views of decision and different decision processes. For the purposes of this research these different ideologies and decision processes will be considered. This researcher first turns to the normative study of the argument.

NORMATIVE DECISION THEORY

Most educational administration writers and others recommend an objective "rational approach" for school district decision making based on the concept of "rationality." "Rationality" seems to have begun as a line of inquiry with Max Weber in a dichotomy of thought on the rational and irrational. In The Theory of Social and Economic Organization, Weber's view of a rational act denotes achieving a clear and logically consistent goal through some adopted means to realize that goal. An irrational act is a deviation from this prescription:

An act is rational in so far as (a) it is orientated to a clearly formulated unambiguous goal, or to a set of values which are clearly formulated and logically consistent; (b) the means chosen are, according to the best available knowledge, adapted to the realization of the goal. (Weber, translation: Henderson and Parsons, 1964, p.16)

Campbell, Bridges, and Nystrand (1977) in the Introduction to Educational Administration, are clear on the differences between rational

and irrational decision making. They definitely recommend rational decision processes in educational decision making:

Decision making can be irrational or rational. In the first instance the decision maker acts on the basis of whim or caprice whereas in the second he deliberates and acts in terms of a careful diagnosis of the situation and a thorough consideration of the means used to achieve a given end. (Campbell, Bridges, and Nystrand, 1977, p. 166)

Francis Griffith, Administrative Theory in Education (1979), also reiterates recommendations for rational decisions in education. The author states that rational decisions, "are those made after deliberation; they are purposive and discretionary. Non-rational decisions are guesses or hunches; they are haphazard and made without serious intellectual activity."

Although the literature contains different numbers of steps, a rational decision process appears to be a fairly universal attempt to maximize or optimize the opportunity to pick the best solution. Newman, Summer, and Warren (1967) in The Process of Management, list four essential phases to rational decision-making. Paraphrased they are: 1. diagnose the problem and identify causes; 2. find promising alternatives; 3. analyze and compare alternatives with each other alternative in relation to some evidence of the relative importance of particular advantages and disadvantages; and 4. select the best alternative as a course of action. Campbell, Bridges and Nystrand (1977) relate just two steps in rational decision making: problem analysis and decision. However their problem analysis contains three steps: 1. describe the problem; 2. locate the cause, which is often a change in people, technology, or situational circumstance; 3. analyze all

alternatives for intended positive and unintended negative side effects. Finally, Knezevich (1984) in Administration of Public Education says that the many different rational decision processes may have all originated from John Dewey in How We Think, in which six steps are described in thinking:

Most analyses include a situation calling for a decision; diagnosis of the problem; collecting data about it; generating alternatives; analysis of each alternative; determining the consequences of each alternative; and evaluation after the fact. (Knezevich, 1984, p. 49-50)

Differences in rational processes may also occur due to differences in particular organizational structures. A more analytical and comprehensive stance in data collection and analysis is recommended for a systems organizational structure. It is called Systems Analysis or an Analysis decision process. It might incorporate "models" which are diagrams of alternatives that attempt to reduce the "tremendous complexity of reality to the fewer important factors." Or, other devices may be used such as a decision tree which is a diagram of decision alternatives, events and consequences. A systems decision process relies on "statistical probabilities in analysis of the consequences of each alternative." Game theory may also be used in "conflict situations and reveals the dynamic qualities of decision situations where for every action there may be reactions that may necessitate the formulation of new choices of action" (Knezevich, 1984, p. 45-46). However, most of the rational processes in new terminology stress:

1. There must exist first of all a situation that calls for a decision.
2. It is imperative to define and diagnose the nature of the decision problem.

3. Data pertinent to the analysis of the decision problem are gathered.
4. Alternative courses of possible action are generated, followed by formulation of preferred solutions.
5. Each alternative is analyzed and appraised preferably through the development of a model that portrays the essential elements of phenomena under investigation.
6. The consequences of each possible choice are analyzed employing techniques such as cost-benefit analysis or at least informal approaches such as what may happen after a given choice is pursued.
7. There should be an evaluation of the impact of the decision made at some time after the fact. (Knezevich, 1984, p. 42)

Further, Feldman and Lindell (1990) point out that the steps of the rational decision process do not always take place in a neatly ordered sequence, but may be interdependent. For instance, as alternatives are evaluated, parts of their attributes may suggest new alternatives, or new ways to generate other alternatives. Final decisions may also result from many subdecisions or sequential decisions or result from a combination of several alternatives. Griffiths (1969) says new decisions are built upon previous decisions and that is the structure of organization:

Furthermore, it is almost impossible to determine which decision of all those made is a unique one. Each decision made appears to tie into another decision reached previously. From this we note the sequential and interrelated nature of decision....All organization is built around a system of sequential decisions. (Griffiths, 1969, p. 140-141)

Nevertheless, there are two main notions of rational decision making that distinguishes it from other decision processes. First, in rational decision making all known alternatives are analyzed and compared to each other before a final choice is made. The second notion is that the final decision should be evaluated since the rational action was implemented to achieve a desired goal.

Decisions are totally pragmatic in nature-that is the value of a decision is dependent upon the success of the action which follows it. Since all rational action is in terms of goals, the value of a decision is related to the degree to which the goals are attained. (Griffiths, 1969, p. 140)

However, rational decision making is not always used. People do not seem to always make the logical choice. Knezevich says that educational decision makers are not different and use subjective opinion even when data analysis techniques are available:

There continues to be an over reliance on the subjective opinions and raw judgements of educational decision makers even in situations where data and quantitative analysis techniques are available and have much to offer. (Knezevich, 1984, p. 46)

Choice may also be based on the decision maker's subjective judgement of the desirability and probability of anticipated outcomes. There are also pressures to compromise and cause less resentment:

Consequently, the decision maker finds it difficult to be completely logical and often arrives at a decision not because it is intellectually justified but because it is expedient and less disruptive of personal relationships. He yields to pressures and tries to reach a compromise which, while it completely satisfies nobody, arouses less resentment than a completely logical solution. (Griffith, 1979, p. 240)

However, Mullen and Roth (1991) argue that there are ethical considerations when making decisions in the role of "fiduciary" or "trustee." They feel that the fiduciary's responsibility is to follow guidelines when making decisions for the benefit of others:

Many of the decisions that we make are not made to further our own personal interests directly, but involve the various roles we have adopted and groups to which we belong...In these cases where others are the proper beneficiaries of our choices, we are acting as trustees or "fiduciaries." When acting only for ourselves we have a perfect right to be sloppy in thought, negligent in the

analysis of goals, or haphazard in the evaluation of outcomes. Such freedom is intolerable, however, when one is acting in a fiduciary capacity...In these situations you will be held accountable for your decisions, for providing a rationale that shows that you acted prudently and with seriousness. Bosses demand this of their subordinates, the law demands it of trustees, the voters demand it of their elected officials...This is an important reason to follow guidelines for the making of the decision, rather than relying upon intuitive choices or holistic evaluation. (Mullen and Roth, 1991, p.11-12)

Nonetheless, according to Griffith (1979) and Knezevich (1984) there are also time constraints, cost restraints, and communication problems which can pressure the decider into reducing the optimal decision process. There are also problems when only incomplete information is available. Knezevich says this "may reduce the number of alternatives that could be generated as well as their careful analysis and comparison" (Knezevich, 1984, p. 45). Lock (1983) believes that sequential decisions are also a problem. He says that sequential decisions are sometimes the result of group or committee viewpoint and are relatively unnoticed as a potential source of influence. However, these group beliefs can be unknowingly incorporated into the internal "frame of reference or world view of the decision maker and other organizational participants."

Little is said about the extent to which decisions are made by individual executive action, taken by groups or cabals in informal meetings, or taken in committee. Decisions are perceived to emerge rather there being always a readily identifiable decision point. This reflects the extent to which 'decisions' in many instances are the cumulative consequence of a set of minor preceding actions (or inactions)....Similarly, the power of other groups may only be identifiable as internalized constraints on the part of the decision-maker. These form part of the 'frame of reference' or 'world view' of the decision maker and other organizational participants. Without an understanding of these

viewpoints...analysts will understand little of the [decision] process. (Lock, 1983, p. 152)

These problems of rational decision making may be explained by Herbert A. Simon and his version of a subjective or "bounded rationality" (Simon, 1958a, 1977b, 1979c, 1986d, 1992e). Simon states in Economics, Bounded Rationality and the Cognitive Revolution (1992) that there is a discrepancy between the principle of rational decision making and actual observed human behavior. He believes that "neither people's knowledge nor powers of calculation allow them to achieve the high levels of optimal adaptation of means to ends." They are bounded by the reality of their own limitations to choose alternatives that are "good enough" to meet the limited number of needs that they can perceive.

The term 'bounded rationality...was introduced about thirty years ago to focus attention upon the discrepancy between the perfect human rationality that is assumed in classical and neoclassical economic theory and the reality of human behavior as it is observed...The point was not that people are consciously and deliberately irrational, although they sometimes are, but that neither their knowledge nor their powers of calculation allow them to achieve the high level of optimal adaptation of means to end that is posited in economics. (Simon, 1992, p. 3)

A bounded or subjective rationality decision process is called "satisficing" in which a selective search is carried out for a few alternatives that may meet a test of feasibility. This test is "obtained by applying rules of thumb or heuristics." These heuristics are also called decision rules. In satisficing the decision search through alternatives stops when a satisfactory solution that meets the criteria of the decision rule has been found. All remaining alternatives are not always analyzed:

We know today that human reasoning, the product of bounded rationality, can be characterized as selective search through large spaces of possibilities. The selectivity of the search, hence its feasibility, is obtained by applying rules of thumb, or heuristics, to determine what paths should be traced and what ones can be ignored. The search halts when a satisfactory solution has been found, almost always before all alternatives have been examined. (Simon, 1992, p. 4).

According to Janis and Mann, in Decision Making (1977), even if large numbers of alternatives are used in satisficing, "they are examined sequentially with no attempt to work out a comparative balance sheet of pros and cons." There are also time pressures and cost restraints in an effort to investigate all alternatives, which, "precludes careful search and appraisal." In addition, people tend to use only a single, simple formula as the sole criteria in choice. This decision rule may simply be to contact an expert, such as a superintendent, and follow his advice to a "good enough" solution:

The simplest variant of the satisficing strategy takes the form of relying upon a single formula as the sole decision rule, which comes down to using only one criterion for a tolerable choice...The sole decision rule in such cases is often simply, 'Tell a qualified expert about your problem and do whatever he says-that will be good enough.' (Janis and Mann, 1977, p. 27)

Janis and Mann also believe that people fool themselves by using a quasi-satisficing or moral decision rule where the altruistic decider believes that the decision is not just minimally satisfactory, they are convinced it is the best judgement. However, little if any deliberation is used when determining the choice.

Once the person realizes that someone requires aid and that there is some obvious way help can be given, he promptly takes action without deliberating about alternatives...Instead of regarding his action as merely 'good enough' the moral decision maker is

convinced that it is the best, that no other course would be morally justifiable. (Janis and Mann, 1977, p. 27)

A simple decision rule of "good enough" or a moral altruistic decision without deliberation may be noticeable in school board decision making. For instance, some school boards may rely on "building consensus" as in the paradigm of "Team Decision-Making." Other boards may rely on the advice of their constituents or the influence of special interest groups to alleviate the stress of decision making. The decision is therefore, "good enough" if a majority is perceived to support it:

One type of decision rule frequently resorted to in a bureaucracy consists of using a simple criterion of 'consensus,' which requires only the single piece of information that could, in effect, be supplied by an opinion poll of the most powerful persons in the organization; thus, any policy is good enough to be adopted if the majority of influential people want it and will support it. (Janis & Mann, 1977, p. 28)

Simon believes "satisficing" is used in all decisions and defines two types. Programmed decisions are routine, repetitive and made in accordance with established rules, or standard operating procedures. Non-programmed decisions are made to resolve unique problems where there are no predefined solutions. School boards may make programmed decisions such as approving payment of the telephone bill and unprogrammed decisions such as deciding on a particular curriculum, improvement program, or bond proposal. Glasman and Nevo report that school systems use "satisficing" for the majority of decisions:

Decision makers in school systems consider in-depth alternatives solutions to a given problem only seldom or at most infrequently. Rather they do what is logical, reasonable and acceptable. There are simply too many possible alternatives and too many possible consequences for each alternative. They cannot be all anticipated let alone accurately predicted. (Glasman and Nevo, 1988, p. 22)

Decision heuristics of "elimination by aspects" and "incrementalism" are other satisficing procedures that may be familiar in school board decision making. Elimination by aspects incorporates a priority scale of perhaps "a half dozen considerations" or decision rules. Starting with the first priority, perhaps a set cost, all alternatives which are too expensive are eliminated. The procedure continues with the second priority decision rule, such as community acceptance, until a single alternative is left. In 1974, Dickinson found in Illinois that cost was affective in influencing the decision making of school board members and that school board members were "aberrantly sensitive to cost-benefit information."

Another satisficing decision rule is "incrementalism" which is a slow progress as a result of a succession of satisficing policy choices over time. Each small change is considered "good enough" and better than leaving the old policy unchanged. No effort is made to specify major goals. Solutions are chosen that are within available means in order to put out "fires."

Incremental decision making is geared to alleviating concrete shortcomings in a present policy--putting out fires--rather than selecting the superior course of action...no effort is made to specify major goals and to find the best means for attaining them.... (Janis and Mann, 1977, p. 33)

However, Beach (1993) in Making the Right Decision: Organizational Culture, Vision, and Planning does not agree with this view of incrementalism. He believes that making small incremental changes is useful in promoting long term major organizational change. He believes that any major change will meet resistance because it will threaten the long held beliefs that encompass organizational culture. He says there

are several ways to promote change in an organization. You can mandate change, or you can convince people that there is a crisis situation that demands change. In either of these two choices, the result may be either overt or covert rebellion. He suggests that gradual changes in people's organizational activities and in the immediate goals that these activities serve, will eventually lead to a major change in organizational beliefs. He cites rules of the "Law of Incremental Change" as "Only ask for incremental changes in the members' activities and, therefore, in the organization's culture... [and]...Communicate, communicate, communicate" (Beach, 1993, p. 28). However, neither Janis and Mann or Beach compare the consequences of "incrementalism" to different organizational structures. Beach, for instance, may be right in his evaluation of incrementalism in a traditional organizational structure but perhaps wrong in a systems organizational structure where change is viewed as normal.

There is also a difference in opinion on evaluating decisions. In a rational decision process, the evaluation of the decision is considered a necessary part of the process. In "bounded rationality" evaluation is irrelevant. Janis and Mann believe that evaluations of decisions are not valid or useful since they would be determined upon the "subjective ratings of the degree of post decisional satisfaction or regret:"

To evaluate the ultimate success of a decision one would need to take into account the negative values and the bad consequences as well as the positive values of the good consequences. But since there is no way of obtaining quantitative scores for these values, one would have to ask decision makers to give subjective ratings of the degree of their post decisional satisfaction or regret. Such ratings, however, are of doubtful validity because they are subject to a variety of errors deriving from face-saving distortions and rationalizations. (Janis and Mann, 1977, p. 11)

One answer to the problem of evaluation and decision making, that Janis and Mann advocate, is to consider that both rational and satisficing decision processes are valid on opposite ends of a continuum of decision making options.

Indeed it could be argued that in certain circumstances it is not rational to waste time and effort in maximizing; even when the relevant information is available, a very simple form of satisficing sometimes may be the most sensible orientation, especially for many minor issues.... (Janis & Mann, 1977, p. 32)

They feel that the quality of the process employed in decision making is what is important and may determine the quality of the decision. They list seven major criteria "that can be used to determine whether decision making procedures are of high quality," and believe that these decisions have a better chance of "obtaining objectives." They describe these seven steps as "vigilant information processing." Paraphrased these criteria are:

The decision maker, to the best of his ability and within his information-processing capabilities:

1. thoroughly canvasses a wide range of alternatives;
2. surveys the full range of objectives and values implicated
3. carefully weighs the costs, risks, and advantages of each alternative
4. intensively searches for new information to evaluate alternatives
5. correctly assimilates new information or expert testimony even though it may be in opposition to his initial preference.
6. reexamines the positives and negatives of all known alternatives including those previously disregarded, before a final choice is made.
7. makes detailed plans for implementing the final choice, including contingency plans if various known risks were to materialize. (Janis and Mann, 1977, p. 11)

Leiser and Gillieron in Cognitive Science and Genetic Epistemology

believe that the choice of a decision method is the crux of

understanding the problem since each method contains a certain perspective and a structural format:

Intelligent problem solving requires the choice of an appropriate method, according to the problem's nature, which may be modified if necessary. The choice of a method forms an inherent part of understanding. Every method imposes a certain perspective on a problem, and assumes that certain structural conditions which justify its application are met. (Leiser and Gillieron, 1990, p. 9)

One method that is discussed quite often in decision theory is the SEU or Subjective Expected Utility theory model. In this decision process, there are four principal components. The decision maker assigns a cardinal number as a measure of the utility function of particular future scenarios. These measures express the value preferences among all alternative futures that may be presented for choice. Second, the decision maker determines a well-defined set of alternatives which may involve a series of steps or strategies to achieve a future scenario. Third, the decision maker computes a probability distribution of scenarios for the future associated with each alternative. Finally, the decision maker chooses the alternative or strategy, "that will maximize the expected value, in terms of the utility function, of the set of events consequent on the strategy" (Simon, 1986, p. 100). Although Simon has used this particular strategy, he points out that the SEU process is much too complicated for general use. He says:

It is that human beings have neither the facts nor the consistent structure of values nor the reasoning power at their disposal that would be required, even in these relatively simple situations, to apply SEU principles. (Simon, 1986, p.102-103)

Yet, in 1984, Duke found in retrenchment decisions that "how decisions are made can be as crucial as the decisions themselves." He believes

that effectiveness may be enhanced when as many alternatives as possible are considered:

The work of March and Simon (1958) and March and Olsen (1976), among others, indicates that the nature of organizational decision making may be closely related to aspects of effectiveness. Current theory further suggest that the likelihood of making an appropriate decision is maximized when policy makers consider as many alternatives as possible. (Duke, 1984, Ed. Report, p. 8)

Further, decisions are intimately related to the organizational **structure**. Simon believes that "the task of deciding" is integrally tied to the entire organization as much as the task of "doing." Griffiths, too, views organizational structure as a product of the "substance" of the decision process. He feels that the differences in organizational **structure** are accounted for by the different decision processes used:

Organizations take their common form from the decision-making process, and their differences occur in the modifications of the process as required by their task and the way in which the public perceives the task...In the public schools the decision-making process is almost wholly prescribed by state legislatures and arises largely out of prudential considerations. A business organization does not differ primarily from a school organization in that one is a profit-making organization and the other is not; the difference resides in dissimilarities in the decision-making process. This is a difference of substance, not form. (Griffiths, 1969, p. 141-142)

Simon feels that the best way to analyze an organization is to find out **where** the decisions are made and by whom. For instance, one would **think** that decision patterns follow the structure of formal hierarchy. **However**, informal communication channels in organizational structure **are** also extremely important and often overlooked in lieu of the formal **communication** paths of the organizational chart. Both communication

channels have influence and make up the complex organizational lines of communication:

The term 'influence' covers a wide range, both in the degree to which one person affects the behavior of another and in the method whereby that influence is exercised. Without an analysis of these differences of degree and kind no realistic picture can be drawn of an administrative organization. It is because of its failure to account for variations in influence that the usual organization chart, with its oversimplified representation of the "lines of authority," fails to record the complexity of actual organizations. The organization chart does not reveal the fact that the actual exercise of authority may, and often does, cut across formal organizational lines, and that forms of influence other than authority--information, training, identification--may be far more important than the former in securing coordination throughout the organization. (Simon, 1979, p. 260)

These informal communication patterns of organizations can be disruptive or conducive to decision making. In Administrative Organization, Pfiffner and Sherwood (1960) agree with Simon that normal decision patterns follow the structure of formal hierarchy involving person to person relationships. They say that power exists when one person has the ability to influence another person to make a particular decision. However, they believe that informal communication channels throughout the organization can also involve formal decision making. These patterns of communication, both formal and informal, set the influence structure. They quote one of the hypotheses of March and Simon in relationship to influence on unprogrammed decisions:

The greater the communication efficiency of a channel, the greater its usage. Further, channel usage tends to be self-reinforcing. Once the channels have been well established, their pattern will have an important influence on decision making processes and particularly upon nonprogrammed activity. (Pfiffner and Sherwood, 1960, p. 390)

Iannaccone and Lutz, Politics, Power and Policy: The Governing of Local School Districts, noted that unrecognized informal communication channels are present in school organizations:

School people are often unconscious of the fact that the school organization with committees of teachers, its citizens advisory councils, its nominating caucuses and parent teacher associations constitute an organized power subsystem within the school district. (Iannaccone and Lutz, 1970, p. 15)

Griffiths (1969) also believes that an informal organization is present in every formal organization and "is the system of interpersonal relations which forms to affect decisions made in the formal organization." It is a "dynamic structure composed of special interest groups" formed to affect decisions because they are omitted from the formal scheme or they are brought together in opposition to the formal organizational structure. He also believes that the informal communication lines have a great impact on decisions. He concludes his discussion concerning two studies on teacher groups, "It appears that the informal groups may be either of a passing nature or of a permanent nature. They all have in common, however, the altering of the decision-making process of the formal organization" (Griffiths, 1969, p. 143). It may be important here to remember Beach's admonitions that the change process must recognize the organizational culture to avoid overt or covert rebellion. For example, it seems probable that school staff could especially form influence groups if they thought that their beliefs in how things should be done are threatened. Beach defines culture as the formal and informal rules about what to do and how to behave in a organization. His view of culture is very close to a description of organizational structure:

Together, the formal and informal rules about what to do and how to behave in the group start to take on a life of their own. They may begin as simple statements about the activities of group members, but they evolve into something more, something quite powerful. As it becomes clear what is expected of the group's members, and as the group's purpose becomes more explicit, there develops a sense among the members of "who we are, what it is that we do, and how we do it." In short, the rather straightforward purpose and activities characterize the group in its infancy give way to more sophisticated conceptions. With this change comes a sense of group identity and, quite simply, the beginnings of a culture. (Beach, 1993, p. 16)

Therefore, according to this discussion, a formal and informal influence structure of special interest groups exists within and without the organization to influence the decision process. If organizational culture embodies the working beliefs of its members, any decision that threatens those beliefs and values will probably produce these informal special interest groups drawn together to oppose or influence the decision process.

In a similar vein, Simon believes that the behavior of a rational person, such as a school board member, can be controlled in decision making through the influences of these communication lines of organizational structure. If you view a rational decision as a set of values or ends and a set of factual premises or means with a specified set of alternatives, there is one alternative of the set that meets the demands of ends and means. Therefore, if you control the value and factual premises, you can control the decision that the rational person is bound to make:

The behavior of a rational person can be controlled, therefore, if the value and factual premises upon which he bases his decisions are specified for him. This control can be complete or partial--all premises can be specified or some left to his discretion. The

scope of influence and discretion are determined by the number and importance of the premises which are specified and the number and importance of those which are left unspecified...An analysis of almost any decision of a member of a formal organization would reveal that the decision was responsive to a very complex structure of influences. (Simon, 1979, p. 261-262)

In an opposing view, Lock believes that clear goal structures coordinate and direct the organization and remove the possibility of individual political influence:

Goal structures serve functions of co-ordination and direction of organization. Ideally, at each level in organization the overall goal structure should be broken down into goals appropriate to problems that are encountered at that level while remaining consistent with goal structure at higher levels...an absence of goals or aspirations levels removes the possibility of developing any coherent framework for action. If there are no goals there is political coalitions. If there is no group power, then individual political skills are dominant. (Lock, 1983, p. 153)

Other authors have observed that the introduction of specific premises is involved in the forming of the question itself, and may have the power of influence. Yet, Feldman and Lindell also point out that the more cognitive activity that is expended by the individual decider, the less likely that the decision maker can be influenced. Furthermore, they feel that the complexity of the decision process or decision task may provide a specific structure for the behavior of the decision maker which forces the decider to use objectivity:

Even changing the units of measurement or the form of a question may influence responses, producing expressed 'preference reversals'...The less patterning provided by the individual's cognitive structure or by the task itself, the greater the influence of other people...Thus task ambiguity or difficulty, lack of knowledge and unanimity of judgements influence people's opinions and judgements in a relatively permanent fashion... The task has, in effect, created or elicited the decision process,

providing a specific structure for behavior. (Feldman and Lindell, 1990, p.103, 105)

In summary, the normative study of decision making tells us that there are at least two types of decision processes, the rational "optimizing" process and the bounded-rational "satisficing" process. Each contains different basic steps based on two different perceptions of rationality. Some authors recommend a continuum of these decision processes, based on the type of decisions, programmed and non-programmed or uncertain decisions. Simple decision rules of "good enough" or "consensus" put out "fires," but do not serve long term goals. There are also properties that accompany decision processes such as incrementalism in which small changes are preferred to major change. In addition, organizational structure, communication paths, and the way a problem may be presented can influence the decision maker or control the decision maker's choice. Lastly, the less cognitive involvement a decision maker has in forming a decision, the more likelihood that the decider can be influenced. Feldman and Lindell believe that the complexity of the decision process may provide some barrier to influence because it provides a specific structure for behavior. Many authors believe that controlling for a quality decision process or determining which decision process is best in a given situation will lead to post decisional satisfaction. At least two authors, Simon and Griffiths, believe that decision is intimate to organizational structure. Therefore, unless school board members are aware of different decision processes and of organizational beliefs and influences, it seems unlikely that they will make quality decisions or have quality organizations by continuing an outdated paradigm.

DESCRIPTIVE DECISION THEORY

In the descriptive study of decision making, the focus is on the individual in making uncertain or nonprogrammed decisions. Uncertain decisions or non-programmed decisions are those which are connected to ambiguity and risk. Much of school board decision making is attempting to decide on uncertain situations, such as curriculum, bond-issues, millage votes, and budget problems. These are the decisions that cause the greatest controversy and greatest anxiety for school boards. For instance, McDaniel (1986) reported that some school boards rush decisions to avoid stress and anxiety:

The issues your school board must act on often are complex and frustrating, but rushing decisions just to relieve the anxiety that results from ambiguity simply doesn't work. Premature decisions have a way of coming back to haunt you. (McDaniel, 1986, p. 31)

The descriptive theorists' argue that this stress and anxiety either produces certain bias and preferences in defective decision making or promotes creativity and adaptation. Jungermann (1986) in the "Two Camps on Rationality," explains that there are "two camps" of thinking in the descriptive study of decision making. He calls them the "pessimists" and the "optimists."

The pessimists (Janis and Mann, 1977; Janis 1989; Kahneman, Slovic, and Tversky, 1986; Simon, 1958, 1977, 1979, 1986), believe that biases exist in people and that "judgement and decision making under uncertainty often show systematic and serious errors." They believe that people are inherently limited in judgement and decision making ability due to bounded rationality and "inbuilt characteristics of the human cognitive system." The pessimist's three main arguments are

that people have judgmental biases, representational faults, and coping defects.

Judgmental biases are choices based on heuristics, rules of thumb, or simplistic decision rules. A decider might judge the probability of an event according to how well the representativeness of the event matched with past experience. For instance, in judgmental biases, each board member may rely on their own view of what is important based on their own individual past experience as an intuitive base. However, their experience may not be valid or representative of the current situation, and they may tend to neglect or ignore other factors, or be persuaded by the "favorableness" of the description. Yet, they may have formed their own individual decision rule based on this "evidence" which they use to make decisions. School board members might therefore show a tendency to make snap judgements or have a closed mind. Tversky and Kahneman explain that representativeness may be how people tend to judge another's personality and perhaps the worth of a person's information. They overestimate or underestimate the correlation between the similar variables of a piece of a person's perceived behavior and their own experience of people who have shown similar behavior:

People appear to believe in a hologram-like model of personality in which any fragment of behavior represents the actor's true character...That is, people often evaluate the probability of an uncertain event or a sample 'by the degree to which it is (i) similar in essential properties to its parent population and (ii) reflects the salient features of the process by which it is generated'...The two representativeness hypotheses have been used to explain a variety of observations, such as the relative ineffectiveness of consensus information and the use of similarity

in the interpretation of projective tests.... (Tversky and Kahneman, 1982, p. 84-85)

This bias may be especially apparent during job interviews or partly explain how people are elected to office. Tversky and Kahneman point out that impressions during an interview, such as when a school board interviews a superintendent candidate, are "notoriously fallible:"

Consider, for example, the probability that a candidate who made an excellent impression during an interview will succeed in a very difficult task. Because impressions based on interviews are notoriously fallible and success or failure on the job is controlled by numerous factors that are not predictable from a brief conversation, success may be very unlikely even when it is highly representative of our impression of the candidate. (Tversky and Kahneman, 1982, p. 89)

Other forms of judgmental bias that are most discussed in the literature are anchoring and adjustment, availability, salience, hypervigilance, and confirmation bias. Short explanations of these biases follow.

"Anchoring and adjustment" is beginning with an initial value as a starting point which is supposed to be adjusted to allow for change.

Different starting points or different values may yield different estimates of an event. When overly optimistic or pessimistic initial beliefs are present, errors in the estimation of an event can occur.

Glasman and Nevo explain anchoring in schools:

Anchoring in schools may be analogous to a value-laden formulation or definition of a problem. 'Nonadjustment' may be analogous to inability and/or unwillingness to consider data that do not suit the administrator's [or school board member's] mindset. (Glasman and Nevo, 1988, p. 23)

"Availability" is the ease in which probabilities of future events are brought to mind, and the possibility of ignoring consequences or other probabilities that are not readily visualized (Glasman and Nevo, 1988).

Closely related is "salience," where a decider concentrates on the figures or facts in the foreground of memory and may ignore other relevant facts (Feldman and Lindell, 1990). In "hypervigilance," there is an extreme fixation on the immediate details of a situation and a failure to think clearly about various courses of action. High levels of anxiety to panic may be present (Mullen and Roth, 1991). "Cognitive dissonance" is the stress we encounter when we find inconsistencies in our beliefs that threaten some long held value or desire. To avoid this stress, we tend to accept those facts and theories that support our own beliefs. This is called "confirmation bias." People seldom seem to attempt to find facts that would repudiate their own beliefs. However, in not keeping an open mind, it is difficult for deciders to evaluate information fairly, and easy to rationalize or deny the "existence of dangers in the present course" (Mullen and Roth, 1991). In general, Glasman and Nevo report that:

Biases may exist as a function of retrievability of instances, and retrievability depends on familiarity, salience and recency. Other biases are rooted in imaginability. Risks may be assessed by imagining contingencies that cannot be coped with. If the difficulty is portrayed vividly, then the plan may appear difficult, even though the ease with which the difficulty is imagined need not reflect the actual likelihood of the difficulty. "Retrievability of instances in schools may be analogous to acquaintance with pertinent information. "Imaginability" of contingencies in schools may be analogous to the extent to which risk is involved. (Glasman and Nevo, 1988, p. 23)

The second argument of the pessimist researchers is representational faults, which are different frames of reference. An example might be the use of one decision rule to achieve possible gain versus another decision rule to reduce loss. These differently coded

options place the decision maker above or below a hypothetical mid-reference point. It induces the decision maker to focus on different parts of the utility function of any particular subject. Members of a school board for instance may very well arrive at inconsistent preferences, determined by which decision rule they individually prioritize. It is also possible that school boards as a whole view education in one frame of reference while the superintendent views education in another. Coding outcomes from frames of reference is only one of several cognitive mechanisms of representational faults. These perceptual illusions are "used to edit, or represent decision problems before the options will be evaluated, and these operations can also lead to violations of rationality." However, Jungermann points out that the assumption of representational faults implies that there is only one correct view of the situation and inconsistent preferences are a result of "deficient perception and interpretation of the decision problem":

The representational errors resulting from the application of such mechanisms are likened to perceptual illusions. (Tversky & Kahneman, 1981.) This implies the assumption that there exists one and only one correct representation of the problem, as there exists only one veridical representation of the physical world. Inconsistent preferences are understood as results of a deficient perception and interpretation of the decision problem. (Jungermann, 1986, p. 631)

Coping defects are the third argument of the pessimists, and are a result of the coping defenses people use in handling stress. Sometimes called "defensive avoidance," it is an escape from anxiety and stress. Janis and Mann identify several patterns. Decisions are made or not made by procrastination, shifting responsibility, or "wishful" rationalizations to "bolster" the least objectionable alternative. The

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decision maker may be selectively inattentive to correct information, may forget the goal, or obstinately stick to a goal in changed circumstance. These behaviors often lead to defective decision making. People fail to assimilate and combine information relating to outcome expectations and values. "Post-decisional dissonance reduction," for instance, is when people rationalize the good aspects of a bad decision. They do this because the consequences were unintended, but the decider may feel embarrassed or angry at themselves for not being able to anticipate the outcome. Sometimes, they continue to support a bad decision in attempting to make it better or recoup sunk cost and expenses. Janis and Mann feel that coping defects occur because there is a failure to make use of the resources available for engaging in effective search and appraisal of alternatives, "within the limits of their cognitive capabilities and within the limits imposed by powerful social constraints."

In groups, such as school boards, biases may also occur in decision making where the desire for unanimity can override realistic and careful consideration of alternatives. Janis and Mann label this concept "groupthink--a collective pattern of defensive avoidance." This desire for consensus is found in political decision making and throughout the literature concerning school board decision making as in the "Team Decision-Making" paradigm. For instance, a school board may be pressured into consensus by its own chairman. Goldhammer reports his observation that "the board chairman generally delayed taking the vote or determining the consensus until he was fairly sure that unanimity prevailed" (Goldhammer, 1964). Consensus, as previously discussed, is also noted as the one decision rule in traditional decision making. Decisions are "good-enough" if the majority

of influential people support the decision. Janis and Mann suggest that there are eight symptoms of groupthink. These are:

1. an illusion of invulnerability, shared by most or all of the members, which creates excessive optimism and encourages taking extreme risks;
2. collective efforts to rationalize in order to discount warnings which might lead the members to reconsider their assumptions before they recommit themselves to their past policy decisions;
3. an unquestioned belief in the group's inherent morality, inclining the members to ignore the ethical or moral consequences of their decisions;
4. stereotyped views of rivals and enemies as too evil to warrant genuine attempts to negotiate, or as too weak or stupid to counter whatever risky attempts are made to defeat their purposes;
5. direct pressure on any member who expresses strong arguments against any of the group's stereotypes, illusions, or commitments, making clear that such dissent is contrary to what is expected of all loyal members;
6. self-censorship of deviations from the apparent group consensus, reflecting each member's inclination to minimize to himself the importance of his doubts and counter arguments;
7. a shared illusion of unanimity, partly resulting from this self-censorship and augmented by the false assumption that silence implies consent; and
8. the emergence of self-appointed 'mindguards'--members who protect the group from adverse information that might shatter their shared complacency about the effectiveness and morality of their decisions. (Janis and Mann, 1977, p. 130-131)

Other authors agree that groupthink or even the appearance of consensus is dangerous. Mullen and Roth (1991) believe that groupthink constitutes a real threat to decision making because the

majority may be wrong. They feel that the serious dissenter may have valuable points of view to offer:

Even highly respected individuals with little to fear from deviation are prone to "go along" with majority opinion, especially in times of crisis. The danger here is that the majority may be wrong. Thoughtful and serious dissent from majority opinion is important and, in serious decision making groups, minority voices should be cultivated and not squelched....too often we see them as threats to accomplishing goals we have set and that seem at least to us, so obviously correct. (Mullen and Roth, 1991, p. 25)

Similarly, Feldman and Lindell (1990) also believe that there is danger in consensus which "may cause change in even strongly held opinion," however they note that even one dissenting opinion may deter groupthink influence, "perhaps by stimulating the formation of counter arguments." McCormick (1985) states that consensus is unrealistic and undesirable, but points out that there is a difference between unanimity and cooperation. However Iannaccone and Lutz have observed that board debate may exist behind the scenes but as a vehicle to protect the symbolic image of the board as unanimous. Although groupthink may or may not be used, unfortunately this model of board behavior will also produce a symbolic environment or symbolic organizational structure within the school district where debate is discouraged:

Thus the official school board minutes displayed almost complete unanimity of voting by board members. This is not unusual. Differences in positions taken by board members on educational issues exist. Some ultimately break open into severe political battles. Most differences, however, are concealed from the public and may only be seen in closed subcommittee hearings and executive sessions...The closed meeting results in open meetings which are largely ceremonial in nature...In an effort to avoid the appearance of conflict, discussion and debate throughout the school district is discouraged. (Iannaccone and Lutz, 1970, p. 21)

Mullen and Roth believe that groupthink is possible due to our need to conform and avoid further personal risk. They recommend that groups seek a balance between conformity and its costs:

Very generally we conform because it is prudent to do so. Doing things differently from the way they are generally done involves risk. We also conform so as to avoid group rejection and ridicule, or to obtain admiration. Deviation has its risks and costs, but so does blind conformity. As a practical matter it is extremely important that we balance the advantages of conformity with its costs. We must be clear in our own minds about which personal goals and values are crucial to us that to betray them in the face of group pressure is to redefine who, in some fundamental sense, we are. (Mullen and Roth, 1991, p. 26)

On the other hand, Wiles (1979) interpreted groupthink as a medium for "interpersonal cohesion, and, under extreme stress, 'calculated inactivity.'" However, in his study of two Ohio school systems in a fuel shortage crisis, he did not find that "groupthink" was predominate in school board decision making.

There are other forms of judgmental biases, faults, and coping defects. Edwards and von Winterfeldt report that "Hogarth (1980) defined at least 27 sources of bias or error in judgement and decision making." They believe that the elements of these cognitive illusions are the same:

1. A formal rule that specifies how to determine a correct (usually, the correct) answer to an intellectual question. The question normally includes all information required as input to the formal rule.
2. A judgment, made without the aid of physical tools, that answers the question.
3. A systematic discrepancy between the correct answer and the judged answer. (Random errors do not count.)
(Edwards and von Winterfeldt, 1986, p. 643-644)

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Janis (1989) in Crucial Decisions: Leadership in Policymaking and Crisis Management, redefines judgmental biases, faults, and coping defects into categories of cognitive, affiliative, and ego-centric constraints. He believes that decision makers may place a priority on these constraints at the time a problem is recognized. Each group of constraints is associated with specific and simplistic decision rules that deciders use in place of formal decision processes when a particular constraint is given priority. Cognitive constraints are time, resources for information search, multiple tasks, complexity of issue, lack of dependable knowledge, and ideological commitments. These constraints produce representational faults such as availability, incrementalism, bolstering, sole information source, and consensus. For example, when cognitive constraints are given a priority, the decider or policymaker resorts to accepting the first alternative in a satisficing decision process. The decider might use "availability" and search for a well-known analogy or adage that can be applied. Or the decider might wish to save time and rely on a sole-source of information. A group may use consensus and ask for information on what most people in the organization will accept. Others may rely on the ideological principles of an organization's "operational code" for appropriate strategies and tactics. As soon as the decision maker selects a course of action, s/he may bolster the choice by thinking only of the advantages and ignoring the negatives. Other cognitive decision rules, such as incrementalism or sole-source information are identified by Janis:

Incrementalism Decision Rule:

Stick closely to the last decision bearing on the issue and make only slight changes to take care of the most urgent aspects of the problem currently at hand.

Sole Source Information Decision Rule:

When facing a complicated policy problem, save time and effort by getting someone who has looked into the issues to tell you what it is all about, 'in a nutshell,' and then decide. (Janis, 1989, p.40)

According to Janis, the cognitive decision rules such as sole source information, incrementalism, and availability, used in a "quick and easy" approach is sometimes adequate to save time and effort. However he does not recommend reliance on these decision rules for good decision making:

But fairly often reliance on such rules results in judgmental errors, which can create grossly misleading expectations about a chosen course of action. These conclusions are supported by findings from a large number of psychological experiments as well as organizational case studies. (Janis, 1989, p. 42-43)

Affiliative constraints are needs to maintain power, status, compensation, social support, and the need for new policy to be acceptable within the organization. Janis explains:

Whenever a crisis arises, policymakers are likely to seek a solution that will avert threats to important values in a way that will not adversely affect their relationships with any "important people" within the organization, especially those to whom they are accountable, and that will not be opposed by subordinates who are expected to implement the new policy decision. I call requirements of this kind "affiliative" constraints because they pertain to the policymaker's affiliation with others in his or her organization...They want to maintain or enhance their power, compensation, and status within the organization and to continue to obtain social support from their personal network. (Janis, 1989, p.45)

These constraints produce coping defects of defensive avoidance or avoiding punishment/confrontation, rig for acceptance, one-upmanship, and groupthink. The best known decision rule that gives priority to an affiliative restraint is the C.Y.A. rule which attempts to avoid punishment but also prevents advisors from expressing frank

judgements on policy issues. This can lead to "inertia, lack of initiative, 'buck-passing,' and 'creeping incrementalism'" which keeps organizational change to a bare minimum. Other affiliative decision rules are:

Avoid punishment Rule

Find out which party offers most protection and then follow the party line.

One-upmanship Decision Rule:

Choose an option that will enable our faction to gain, or at least retain, power.

Rigging Decision Rule

Decide on the policy choice you favor in advance, before consulting the committee; then rig the meetings to muffle any opposition.

Groupthink Decision Rule:

Preserve group harmony by going along uncritically with whatever consensus seems to be emerging.

(Janis, 1989, p. 55-57)

Janis believes that groupthink is an affiliative, social constraint, which:

...consists of the members' strong wish to preserve the harmony of the group, which inclines them to avoid creating any discordant arguments or schisms. When this constraint is dominant, the members engage in self-censorship..They use their collective cognitive resources to develop rationalizations to support expectations of a successful outcome, usually by invoking shared illusions about the invulnerability of their organization.... (Janis, 1989, p.56)

Egocentric constraints or self-serving, emotive constraints are due to a strong arousal of emotion, like anger, guilt, frustration, or elation. They can be a product of a personal motive such as greed or status, or a result from the emotional distress of decisional conflict. Egocentric constraints produce coping defects, such as defensive avoidance, and judgmental biases such as hypervigilance. For example, Janis believes that the "rely on gut feelings" decision rule usually

results in impulsive, ill-conceived decisions, because of possible emotion or stress involved. A structural decision process is not completed.

Other decision rules are:

Power Player (personal aggrandizement) Decision Rule:

What's in it for me? "Push for an option that will help me get what I want for myself or for my family.

Wham! (distress reduction) Decision Rule:

Wham! The hell with the consequences!

Wow ! Grab it! (elation) Decision Rule

If you hit upon a promising solution, much better than any you have been considering, grab it; don't take any chance of losing the terrific opportunity by wasting time looking into it further.

Retaliate (reciprocity) Decision Rule:

When you are thwarted, injured, or humiliated, don't let them get away with it; do something to punish them in retaliation.

Can Do! (audacity) Decision Rule:

Don't be chicken about resorting to a dangerous course of action when necessary, even if it scares the experts; concentrate all your available decisionmaking resources to find ways of overcoming the deterrents. (Janis, 1989, p. 68, 70, 72-73, 76, 83)

Emotive decision rules are not only consciously applied. They can operate at a preconscious level and are not always easy to discover:

When they are aware of the egocentric basis for a decision, they usually try to conceal it by giving impressive-sounding reasons to justify the new policy in terms of benefits for the organization....Little consideration is given to organizational objectives and long-term interests that might be at stake. The survey of alternatives tends to be restricted to those that will be personally satisfying to the decisionmakers. (Janis, 1989, p. 68)

Janis believes that a formal decision process will elevate dysfunctional decision making and recommends vigilant information processing. In his Constraints Model of Policymaking Processes, he postulates that the quality of the policymaking procedures is a determinant of the outcome. He feels that most policy makers are capable of using a quality decision

making procedure, but they will not use such a procedure, like vigilant problem solving, unless the problem is judged to be important and all salient constraints, such as the those previously discussed, are judged manageable. He believes that policymakers make most decisions "by the seat of their pants."

As far as I can tell they mean that instead of approaching a crisis or any other challenge as a problem to be worked on by engaging in a careful information search, deliberation about alternatives, and contingency planning, they resort to a simplistic strategy for arriving at a decision-relying on a few simple decision rules, which enable them very quickly to arrive at a solution that seems to be satisfactory. This appears to be one of the main ways that policymakers cope with time limitations, lack of knowledge, social pressures that threaten loss of power and status, emotional stress, and other constraints that interfere with high-quality decisionmaking. (Janis, 1989, p.28)

Similarly, other authors such as Mullen and Roth have described decisional defects in the perspective of psychology. They feel that these defects are primarily due to stress which instigates a "fight or flight" response. Stress in excessive amounts may make clear thinking difficult because the brain demands immediate action. They explain three areas of induced conflict called: Approach-Avoidance Conflict, Approach-Approach Conflict and Avoidance-Avoidance Conflict. In Approach-Avoidance conflict, something in our psychological choice both attracts and repels at the same time. In this decisional conflict we tend to vacillate and anguish over an inability to choose. In Approach-Approach Conflict, there may be two equally desirable but mutually exclusive courses of action. This produces hesitation, and postponement, as we attempt to avoid the stress of postdecisional regret. We are torn between the anticipation and the future where we

may be disappointed with the choice. In Avoidance-Avoidance Conflict we are attempting to choose between the lesser of two evils. A decider might withdraw psychologically through denial, "become ritualistically preoccupied with manageable, but often trivial details, or engage in other forms of denial and withdrawal."

Other authors believe that certain properties of decision processes may help alleviate these problems of bias and pressure. Mullen and Roth (1991) believe that having and using decision skills is an antidote to bias or cognitive illusions, and making errors under stress:

One powerful antidote to the tendency to make errors under stress is to have available various decision tools to aid in such circumstances. If one knows how to approach a decision and has had practice with the various tools of decision making, then most decisions can be transformed into problems or puzzles that need working out, rather than threats to our well being that require avoidance. To the extent that such problems are seen as puzzles that can be rationally solved, there is usually a great deal less stress involved and therefore less need to engage in neurotic stress reduction. (Mullen and Roth, 1991, p. 32)

On the other hand, the decision theory optimists (Boudon, 1992; Edwards, 1982; Edwards and von Winterfeldt, 1986; Feldman and Lindell, 1990), believe that biases during decisions of uncertainty are not in human observed behavior but in the analysis of that behavior by the pessimist researchers. They see human beings as rational and their behaviors misinterpreted due to a difference in understanding between the researchers and research subjects. The basis of this view could be rooted in rational thought. For instance, Boudon interprets Weber's view of rationality as understanding the reasons behind behavior:

By contrast, because he had a broad view of rationality including implicitly the notion of subjective rationality, Weber could defend the idea that explaining behavior amounts in most cases to

disentangling the reasons of actors....we reach the conclusion that, trying to substitute subjectively rational explanations of social behavior for the current irrational explanations is a major task of the social sciences. (Boudon, 1992, p. 126)

The three arguments of the optimist researchers are called the meta-rational, continuity, and structural. Each argument seems to be based on the idea that people do things for a reason.

In the meta-rational argument, all decision strategies are considered valid. The person chooses the decision strategy based on time and resources available. A person would be considered irrational if they used infinite effort to find all potential consequences of all options all of the time. Jungermann explains it rather well:

In this model it is assumed that people make meta-decisions between the various decision strategies they have in their repertoire. Strategies differ with respect to the cognitive effort required and the probability with which they lead to an optimal solution (i.e., SEU maximizing, satisficing, elimination-by-aspects, coin flipping). Strategy selection is seen as contingent upon a (cost/benefit) compromise between the decision maker's desire to make the best decision and his or her negative feelings about investing time and effort in the decision making process. The strategy that is perceived as yielding the maximum net gain is the one selected. The specific choice depends on characteristics of the situation (e.g., familiarity of the problem, time pressure) and of the subject (e.g., knowledge, ability). (Jungermann, 1986, p. 634)

In the continuity argument, judgement and decision are seen as a continuous process in a real world environment. Pessimistic researchers have not taken full consideration of time pressures, the possibility of feedback and the expectation that people have that to correct their judgements. Research models have been tested with the assumption of a stable environment, while people live and work in a continuously changing environment. As Jungermann explains:

Demonstrations of deficient judgment and decision can either be attributed to inadequate assumptions of the model, like fixed time horizons; the observed behavior was in fact efficient and functional, the model was wrong. Or, one can claim that the experimental situations used for testing the model had a very low ecological validity and that therefore biases and errors were possibly artifacts, encouraged by the researcher. (Jungermann, 1986, p. 635-636)

The structural argument is based on the pessimist researcher's internal structure of his/her research and the interpretation of observed behavior. The optimist theorists question whether there is a common understanding between the researcher and the subject on the presented problem. They see that it is quite possible that the model presented to the subject defines the basis for the rational choice. For instance, the problem model may contain specified boundaries, goals, and contexts which may be cues for different interpretations on the part of the subjects. Jungermann states:

This argument, then, focuses on the structural representation of the task and its significance for the interpretation of judgments and decisions. The representation depends strongly, however, on the context within which it is developed. Different contexts evoke different knowledge-elements and structures of knowledge- and thus will often lead to different behaviors. Each behavior might be consistent within the given context although inconsistent with some behavior towards the same task in a different context. The description of behavior as deficient or nonrational is not justified if it is not invariant over multiple contexts; to the contrary, invariant behavior would be deficient. (Jungermann, 1986, p. 637)

Furthermore, the pessimist researchers may not be considering that human behavior is modified to increase the probability of survival.

This is called "adaptation," a concept in decision theory, which advances both the belief in human rationality and the need for human non-rationality. It is used to explain deviations of behavioral processes

as rational. Yet, its use as a creative mechanism is deemed nonrational by Feldman and Lindell:

Adaptation requires flexibility, the ability and willingness to produce new problem frames, scripts for action, and modes of understanding the world. Whether the goal is the use of existing knowledge to solve a novel problem or the generation of new knowledge structures, producing the variation on which adaptation depends is an inherently nonrational act. It requires the kind of perceptual, intuitive, heuristic-based processing...working backward from the visualized goal rather than forward to a solution whose form is already known. (Feldman and Lindell, 1990, p.145-146)

These authors believe that organizations need to improve in relation to adaptation. They believe that a supportive environment for nurturing creative people is essential. They also propose a simultaneous "top-down" and "bottom-up" approach to information processing as a means of adaptation for organizations:

This system would predict substantial but imperfect adaptation to a variety of circumstances, as well as predicting errors or deviations from optimality of particular kinds under specific conditions. It would allow the construction of decision aids such as training for decision makers and situational manipulations (e.g. decision support systems) to reduce the frequency of incorrect choices. Behavior would not always become more normatively rational-though it sometimes would-but the overall performance of the individual or organization would be expected to improve when measured by external criteria. (Feldman and Lindell, 1990, p. 91)

Their discussion on the use of input and output information processing as a means of adaptation, bears a striking resemblance to the information attributes of "adaptation" and "self-regulation" found in a systems organizational structure. Additionally, Edwards and von Winterfeldt suggest using a formal decision procedure in the presence of

uncertainties, specifically decision analysis which is also used in systems organizational structure:

We consider it self evident that by far the best remedy for such errors is to use the formal rules that lead to the right answers rather than unaided intuition to answer questions to which they apply....Decision analysis is an applied discipline...focus on helping people and organizations to act wisely in the presence both of irreducible uncertainties and of values that must be traded off against one another in making decisions.... (Edwards and von Winterfeldt, 1986, p. 644)

On the other hand, Jungermann proposes a different point of view. He argues for a middle ground solution between the optimists and pessimists theorists. He sees a new view of rationality, called "substantive rationality" and a distinctive research on decision making. He says the emphasis should be on the preferences and beliefs the person holds when making decisions in the real world:

The issue is not anymore what the limitations of the human cognitive system are. All approaches assume that there are boundaries for rationality in situations of cognitive overload due to the capacity and processing limits of the system. The issue is how people form judgements and make decisions, and particularly whether they operate rationally within the constraints...Rationality is not only a question of whether a choice is in line with a person's beliefs and preferences, but also a question of what sort of preferences and beliefs the person holds.... (Jungermann, 1986, p. 639, 641)

However, preferences and beliefs cover a lot of psychological territory. Each individual may have different beliefs and preferences. Different values for instance, are accepted as part of the human condition. Feldman and Lindell point out that value systems are "highly idiosyncratic" and suggest personal involvement as a defense against manipulation;

Recently however it has been shown that value systems are highly idiosyncratic; people do not possess the ability to generate internally consistent, contextual, independent judgements characteristic of value systems or ideologies unless there is substantial personal involvement and knowledge in a domain."...judgements in domains where no strong prior attitudes exist are easily altered by manipulations." ...Some people's judgements of themselves and others are made in terms of certain traits (introversion) that others simply do not habitually use...Affective responses and preference judgements, rather than being retrieved from memory, are computed based on more general cognitive structures and whatever associations are available at the time. (Feldman and Lindell, 1990, p. 95)

Values could also be unconscious beliefs or consciously applied priorities. Iannaccone and Lutz (1970) point out that school board decisions "rest on value premises, unintentional or quite deliberate." School board policies for example are supposed to incorporate the values of the community. But if values, beliefs and preferences are not shared openly, then the school board members may be suspected of having hidden agendas. Goldhammer found that board member service was related to certain "value orientations" that they wished to include in the educational system and members were "less interested in the search for the most effective educational policies..." He concluded that although board members believed that they represented the community as a whole, in actuality they represented only a segment of it, where their values were approved and shared:

...school board members were anchored in the interests, values and perspectives of groups in which their own socio-economic concepts provided common acceptance...discovered that the conservative, political, social and economic philosophy of the members of the board were reflected in the nature of the decisions which they made... while in interviews members reflected a deep concern for development of an educational program that would realistically meet the needs of the community and its youth. (Goldhammer, 1964, p. 98)

Sussman (1976) also found in New York, a relationship of value systems and a preference for certain types of decisions, such as "disregard decision," "delay decision," "routinized decision," "adaptive decision," or "innovative decision. "Similarly, Voto (1983) in an attempt to define the similarities and differences in values between superintendents and board members in New Jersey, concluded that there were significant differences on social, political, theoretical, economic values and education. The boards scored highest on theoretical values while superintendents scored highest on political values.

Perhaps, the problem of beliefs and preferences, such as values, lies not only in that they exist and are different, but also in the individual's ability to voice and share them realistically in decision making. Mullen and Roth address this problem in their discussions on values, beliefs, and preferences. They believe that there are four specific problems in decision making. Each of their four postulates are presented below with an explanation as to how these ideas might relate to school boards and their decision making:

Postulate #1: We belong to groups and communities that demand loyalty in matters of action and belief, and whose opinions matter to us. Mullen and Roth believe that because human beings are social creatures, they have group and approval needs, therefore their judgements can be influenced or biased toward the expectations of the group. The authors say that there is a general tendency to conform and avoid disapproval. Therefore, people tend to avoid confrontation. For instance, a school board member's choice of representation could be product of their belonging to certain groups of constituencies. Their chosen role may be a product of their need to seek approval from that

group of constituents. Mullen and Roth believe that, "We are, of course, more likely to receive approval if we conform to communal expectations." Likewise, these same group and approval needs may result in "groupthink" defects, especially if "consensus" is the approved course of action. The authors explain that if any disloyalty to a group is exhibited, the person faces "almost certain rejection and ridicule."

If we fail to exhibit acceptable tastes and goals or use acceptable means to achieve our ends, or in other ways exhibit disloyalty to group values and interests, we face almost certain rejection and ridicule...Most of us, quite sensibly, are loathe to deviate from the norm, except for very pressing reasons...we are generally willing to conform our behaviors, our ideas, and even our principles to the expectations of others...If we are prone to conform to the expectations of others, we are equally likely to do so when that other is an authority figure who we assume is in a position to represent community standards...such tendencies often interfere with sound judgement. (Mullen and Roth, 1991, p. 24)

An example of the consequences for schools might be, if the communities that school boards have chosen to represent are out of touch with the realities of today's educational needs, then school boards could be incorporating inadequate values and inappropriate beliefs into the school policies they form. In other words, if a community expected their school to be the same as they experienced twenty years ago, that value or belief could be incorporated by the school board into current policies. Mullen and Roth suggest that decision makers should balance the risks of disapproval with the costs of blind conformity. They recommend using brainstorming or procedures like the "delphi technique" to counteract conformity.

Postulate #2: When important values and goals are threatened we often seek quick solutions to decrease stress, thereby prone to various

distortions and errors that can act as powerful barriers to rational thought.

Mullen and Roth believe, as other authors previously cited, that values and goals are important to us. If we feel these values are threatened, stress is produced and our "fight or flight" physiology takes over.

Stress, as noted previously in this report, can also be debilitating and produce defensive avoidance conflicts. Mullen and Roth state that even "threats to self esteem can induce fairly strong stress reactions." The fight or flight mechanism because of its normal bias to induce action may make reflective thought difficult. For instance, school boards might "cave in" to the pressure of special interest groups rather than objectively deciding an issue. The authors suggest that the use of various decision tools is an antidote to stress:

If one knows how to approach a decision and has had practice with the various tools of decision making, then most decisions can be transformed into problems or puzzles that need working out, rather than threats to our well-being that requires avoidance. To the extent that such problems are seen as puzzles that can be rationally solved, there is usually a great deal less stress involved and therefore less need to engage in neurotic stress reduction. (Mullen and Roth, 1991, p. 32)

Postulate #3. Difficulties arise from our need to have a coherent and consistent view of the world and our place in it. When we discover inconsistencies in our original understanding we may engage in irrational attempts to preserve our original understanding rather than struggle to develop new ones.

According to Mullen and Roth, human beings throughout their lifetimes attempt to form a coherent understanding of reality and how the world operates. In the process of abstraction and theorizing, we form value hierarchies where we make choices of what is important to us. The authors believe that rational action is impossible without such a

"cognitive map" and problems ensue if "our understanding is flawed." They cite many of the same cognitive, affiliative, and egocentric constraints that have been previously identified in this report as possible defects to decision making as a result of "flawed" understanding. For example, school boards might resort to using a series of "incremental" decisions in policy changing, rather than recognize that major change is needed which would require a new understanding of the problem. The authors suggest that these defects and biases need to be understood and recognized to minimize their impact. However, they do not see that values are subjective, rather, most people have strong well reasoned beliefs behind their value hierarchies. They believe that using values can set up the criteria for the decision:

A value judgement is any claim, either explicit or implied, that something is good or bad based upon some sort of criteria, or that something is better or worse than something else, based upon some set of criteria. This is to be distinguished from an empirical claim about how things are, were, or will be...Where the criteria are clear and well thought out, value claims can be as objective as any empirical claim. (Mullen and Roth, 1991, p. 56-57)

Therefore, they suggest that a clear value analysis should be instituted prior to any information search in the decision process. A value analysis is the process of clarifying the goals and objectives and therefore "create a set of criteria with which to evaluate the outcome of possible choices." In other words the authors advise designing a value decision tree in order to acknowledge underlying values and assign priorities or "weights" to these objectives. A completed value tree should state the goal, objectives, objective weights, attributes, relative

attribute weights, and final attribute weights. This agreement gives the deciders a measure on which to judge the alternatives in a decision process.

Postulate #4: Problems arise in our attempt to structure a decision problem in a meaningful way.

According to Mullen and Roth, successful outcomes over the long term are more likely a result of using a method of decision process. They say that most situations are too complicated to deal with in total, and people in general use "satisficing" decision rules, framing, or short time frames to simplify the problem. These may lead to possible short term gains and probable long term disasters. They suggest that decision makers design a model of the problem which includes all the relevant properties of rational decision making:

You have to build a model or theory of your problem that includes your goals, the relevant choices you can make in the world as you understand it, and take into account your abilities as you understand them. The model must also include your evaluation of the consequences of your choice...how you structure your decisions, what you include in your map or model, and what you exclude, will have a major impact on the choices you make and, by extension, on the likelihood that you will be satisfied with the outcome. (Mullen and Roth, 1991, p. 42)

Although, Mullen and Roth particularly recommend "Multi-Attribute Utility Analysis," which seems to be a simplified version of Subjective Expected Utility Theory, they advise that some decision process should be used in decision making. They counsel that the more you understand the different decision procedures and processes the more likely you will make better decisions with successful outcomes. They suggest training:

The basic principle here is that there are procedures for making various kinds of decisions well, and the better your decision-making procedures are, the more likely you will be to achieve favorable outcomes. This is one good reason for studying decision-making, to make you more aware of how you make decisions, and to suggest some strategies for improved decision making. (Mullen and Roth, 1991, p. 6)

Training in decision making is also advocated by several other authors, such as Feldman and Lindell:

Another method for improving the rationality of judgement and decision making is training. (Feldman and Lindell, 1990, p. 142)

In summary, the descriptive branch of decision theory is concerned with crucial, non-programmed decisions made under uncertainty and risk. There are two diverse branches of research thinking, the pessimists and the optimists. The pessimists researchers believe that people are inherently limited in judgmental ability due to "bounded-rationality," and have found twenty-seven different sources of bias or error in judgement. The three main sources of error are judgmental biases, representational faults, and coping defects. Judgmental biases are the errors associated with initial values, visualizing, memory, thinking, anxiety, and acceptance of new information. Representational faults are present when the decider codes options according to their own priorities before all options are evaluated. Coping defects or defensive avoidance is found when people procrastinate, shift responsibility, are selectively inattentive, or change the goal to allow for an erroneous outcome. "Groupthink" and "consensus" are also mentioned in descriptive decision theory as errors in the decision process which override the realistic and careful consideration of alternatives. Here, dissenter viewpoint is considered important by some authors, since such viewpoints may not only be

valuable but prevent a vision of a unanimous governing board. Unanimity is discouraged since it represents a symbolic organizational structure and thereby discourages the debate of better ideas throughout the organization. Other authors believe that certain properties can alleviate bias and pressure. Formal decision processes, skills, and tools help the decider to approach a problem with reduced stress. Janis believes that policymakers must manage cognitive, affiliative, and ego-centric constraints before a formal decision procedure has a chance of success.

The optimist researchers on the other hand believe that people do things for a reason, that they are inherently rational, and that the biases are in the analysis of that behavior. Their arguments are called meta-rational, continuity, and structural. The meta-rational statement postulates that all decisions are valid as based on time and resources available. The continuity argument is that judgement and decision are seen as a continuous process in a constantly changing real world environment with necessary considerations of time pressures, feedback, and the ability to correct judgements. The structural reasoning is explained as the pessimist researcher's interpretation of data that is wrong. The optimist researchers believe that the concept of adaptation is at work in the real world as groups and organizations use both the rational and non-rational to creatively survive. Feldman and Lindell propose a top-down and bottom-up approach to information processing for adaptation to be successful which may be analogous to a systems organizational structure.

As a third opinion, Jungermann argues for a middle ground in descriptive decision theory. He states that a new view of rationality is

needed, called substantive rationality, where the issue is not the limitations of the human cognitive system, but the beliefs and preferences that the decider holds when making the decision. Mullen and Roth also, feel that values and beliefs are important in decisions. They believe that deciders should use a decision process to form decisions in order to alleviate bias and influence. They advocate training as a means to increasing the understanding of decision processes and procedures which could increase successful decisional outcomes.

Therefore, unless school board members are aware of decision processes, the possibilities of decisional failure, constraints, adaptation, the possibility of organization structures alignment to consensus, as well as their own beliefs and preferences it seems unlikely that they will progressively decide anything. It is more likely that school board members may be either unconsciously manipulated by events, the expectations of others, their own perceptions, or they may individually attempt to manipulate other board members and the decisions of the school board.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This review of the decision theory literature began with the current paradigms of school board decision making in order to understand how school boards currently make decisions. A full review of normative and descriptive decision theory followed as it relates to decision making processes and individual school board member behavior. Lastly two working theories were reviewed.

Traditionally, school boards have believed that "best information," leadership, open-mindedness, the discussion dialogue, and how meetings are conducted were the only elements of good decision making. Three types of school board decision patterns or paradigms were identified. "Faction-Weary" decision practices divide the school board members into feuding groups, and lead members to believe that they can assume administrative roles. "Rubber-Stamping" boards which approve superintendent proposals or committee proposals, may not be decision makers at all. "Team Decision-Making" boards base their decisions on "consensus building," endorsed by the American Association of School Administrators and the National School Boards Association. This last paradigm, though striving to help boards work together congenially and politically, may or may not address decision making skills or different decision processes found in decision theory that school board members could effectively use. In addition, many authors strongly advise against the use of consensus as detrimental to effective decision making and to the organizational structure.

The literature was reviewed concerning the normative and descriptive research on decision theory. Influences surrounding communication lines, hierarchical levels, personal relationships, and decision making properties in the organizational structure were found in the normative theory. Various forms of judgmental bias, representational faults, coping defects, as well as cognitive and psychological constraints were found in descriptive theory. Mullen and Roth as well as Irving Janis have produced models that attempt to show how the different decisional constraints and the need for clear individual beliefs and goals are connected. However, no one decision

making model was found that incorporated all of the decision theory concepts. Nevertheless, there does seem to be a universal conclusion from researchers that decision makers should understand and use specific decision processes in order to reduce the properties of influence, bias, and stress.

CHAPTER IV

DESIGN OF THE STUDY

...that no one way of knowing is intrinsically superior to all others, that knowing and the specific purpose of the knower must be examined conjointly. All human knowledge is partial, and as human beings none of us is so rich in understanding that he can afford to ignore any of the several gates to the kingdom of knowledge. Halpin, 1960

This chapter contains information on the method, site and population, procedures, pilot study, instruments, pilot study findings, as well as the statistical treatment of the data used in this exploratory study. Research procedures and statistical techniques applied in analyzing the data are also specified.

METHODOLOGY

Planning took place over a nine month period and included investigating the literature, formulating the problem, defining the parameters, designing the instrument, writing the proposal, requesting approvals, and completing the pilot study. The topics of interest in this research are school board member beliefs about their representation, role, training, the organizational structural belief and decision process used. An exploratory study was chosen as the most useful method of research, since these concepts as a unified format have not been researched previously. A survey instrument was designed because the proposed analysis was comprehensive and involved five main variables and multiple levels. Instruments that included other distantly related factors or utilized only one or two variables were dismissed. Comprehensive instruments that could measure organizational

structure or identify specific decision processes were not found. A survey was also considered appropriate because it could reach a larger sample of the population for an exploratory analysis.

The proposal for this study was accepted by the doctoral guidance committee on May 18, 1993 with suggestions. Completed changes were written and submitted to each member of the doctoral committee on May 26, 1993. A complete copy of the proposal and completed UCRIHS documents were submitted to Michigan State University for approval in early June. The Michigan State University Committee for Research Involving Human Subjects approved the proposal, instruments, and letters of invitation on June 26, 1993, designation IRB 93-294. Copies of all approval forms are found in the Appendix. Further approvals were sought and received. In meetings held on May 24th, and August 16th, Mr. Justin King, Executive Director of the Michigan Association of School Boards approved the project and endorsed the letters of invitation. Likewise, Dr. Gerard Keidel, Executive Director of the Michigan Association of School Administrators was contacted. The MASA approved the project and endorsed the letters of invitation on August 18th. A copy of the letters of invitation are found in the Appendix.

The pilot study was conducted through the months of July and August with the cooperation of five Michigan K-12 school boards and their superintendents. Lastly, an oral report of the results of the pilot study and all changes made to the instrument were presented and explained to Dr. Romano, chairman of the doctoral committee, who gave approval to send out the main body of research.

SITE AND POPULATION

The three populations used in this exploratory analysis are all K-12 school board presidents, superintendents, and school board members other than presidents from the 524 public school districts in the State of Michigan. The three samples for this study were formed from purchased mailing lists from the Michigan Association of School Boards and the Michigan Educational Directory, Inc. Two samples consisted of the entire population of K-12 school board presidents and superintendents. The third sample is comprised of one school board member, other than president, randomly chosen from each of the 524 K-12 public school districts. The sample size is a total of 524 school board members, 524 school board presidents, and 524 superintendents. 1,572 individual responses were possible. The data were generated from all responses received from these three samples.

PROCEDURES

Data for this research were collected by means of two similar questionnaires developed by the researcher. One survey is designed for school board members and board presidents. The second questionnaire is designed for superintendents. The question format is the basically the same on both questionnaires. The wording is different to reflect the respondent. Secondly, a pilot test was conducted to determine readability, the format, the structure of the questions, as well as time and ease in answering. Some changes were made to the instruments as a result of the pilot study. Explanations and changes made to individual question are discussed in the instruments section of this report.

For the main body of research, a letter of introduction, survey, and stamped self-addressed envelope were sent by first class mail to each of the 1572 possible respondents on August 25, 1993. Returned surveys were mailed directly to the School Board Research, a post office box title invented by the researcher. Complete confidentiality has been maintained. The completed surveys were received from August 29th through October 25, 1993. One major mailing was made. No other attempts to solicit a response, other than redirecting mail, were made to any sample member. Further, board membership was validated for the 1992-93 school year, if surveys indicated that respondents were not current board members. Completed surveys were received by 842 respondents, representing 462 or 88% of the 524 K-12 school districts in Michigan. All tabulations of the questionnaires were done by the researcher and presented in two data analysis chapters, Chapter V and Chapter VI of this report.

PILOT STUDY

Once Michigan State University UCRIHS approval was granted, a pilot study was conducted. First all schools within a 50 mile radius of the University were contacted to find out which had board meetings in July. The second priority was to attempt to have a stratum of different sized schools in an effort to discover if the instrument would be perceived differently in smaller versus larger schools. Subsequently, telephone calls were made to superintendents requesting an interview to discuss the pilot project, show them a copy of the instrument and letters of invitation, and explain how the pilot study would work in their board meetings. Meetings were held with four of

the superintendents, the fifth superintendent approved the project over the phone. During the meetings, each superintendent offered suggestions, support, interest, and decided that they would each ask their board at the next board meeting or sooner to approve taking an active part in the pilot study.

The pilot study meetings were conducted on July 19th, July 26th, August 3rd and August 5th. The researcher was present during each meeting. Forty individual responses were possible in the pilot test. Twenty-nine responses were collected. Four board conversations were conducted either just before, during, or immediately after board meetings. One board conversation occurred during a board retreat. Two board meetings were on the same day. The original survey was used in the first three meetings with school board members. Superintendents and their boards filled out the surveys independently while they were timed by the researcher. The survey was discussed immediately afterward. Some problems with the instrument were found. Subsequently, changes were made for the fourth and fifth school board meeting. It was also noted that the survey should take no longer than 10 minutes for board members to complete in order to reduce school board member frustration. All school board member input has been taken into account. The researcher believes that the pilot study was extremely helpful. This author's gratitude is extended to the superintendents and school boards of Dansville Schools, Leslie Public Schools, Portland Public Schools, Stockbridge Community Schools, and Waverly Community Schools for their support, hospitality and straightforward responses which in turn produced positive change in the instrument. A list of questions used during the pilot study to

elicit board member discussion is found in the Appendix. A full description of each survey item and changes made to the instruments as a result of the pilot study follow.

INSTRUMENTS

The two survey instruments, one for board members and one for superintendents, are designed to be extremely similar. They each consist of three sections and twenty-five total questions. Section I contains five multiple choice questions on demographic variables, plus one yes/no question to determine superintendent training or current board member status. Section II contains all yes/no questions with the exception of one write-in answer. This second section is designed to provide information on school board member training. Section III consists of seven multiple choice and five yes/no questions. This third section is designed to provide information on school board member perceptions in relation to the literature on representation, role, decision process, and organizational structure. In designing the questionnaires, the simplicity of questions, ease in answering, and the brevity of the form were considered important. It was the hope of this researcher that the subjects would feel more inclined to complete a short, simple form than one that was extensive or complicated. Below, each question is explained. An original version, the final board member version, and final superintendent version are shown in most instances. Copies of both instruments are found in the Appendix.

SECTION I DEMOGRAPHIC BACKGROUND**Question 1.****ORIGINAL VERSION****1. Your high school enrollment is:**

- ☐ a. Class A 1150+ students
- ☐ b. Class B 587-1149 students
- ☐ c. Class C 311-586 students
- ☐ d. Class D 50-310 students

BOARD AND SUPERINTENDENT**FINAL VERSION****1. District high school classification is:**

- ☐ a. Class A
- ☐ b. Class B
- ☐ c. Class C
- ☐ d. Class D

It is a standard research practice to determine the size of the district as part of the demographic data. Although other district classifications have been used in other studies, the MHSAA, Michigan High School Athletic Association, "class" size of high school is used most often in colloquial educational administration to designate district size. It is therefore the easiest identifier to understand. The enrollment numbers were found to confuse board members during the pilot study and were dropped in the final survey.

Question 2:**ORIGINAL****2. Your school district is in:**

- ☐ a. Large urban center
- ☐ b. Suburban area
- ☐ c. Small town or city
- ☐ d. Rural area

BOARD AND SUPERINTENDENT**FINAL VERSION****2. Your school district is located in:**

- ☐ a. Large urban center
- ☐ b. Suburban area
- ☐ c. Small city
- ☐ d. Small rural town

Question 2 is a standard demographic question to determine the size of the local environment. During the pilot study, some board confusion was evident between c and d in the original version. A small change was made to help clarify the question. The final version is the same for superintendent and school board member questionnaires.

Question 3.**SCHOOL BOARD**

3. How many years have you served on the school board?

- () a. 1 yr. or less
 () b. 2-4 yrs.
 () c. 5-8 yrs.
 () d. 9-12 yrs.
 () e. Over 12 yrs.

SUPERINTENDENT

3. How long have you been superintendent in this district?

- () a. 1 yr. or less
 () b. 2-4 yrs.
 () c. 5-8 yrs.
 () d. 9-12 yrs.
 () e. Over 12 yrs.

Question 3 is also a standard demographic question, used to determine the experience level of each respondent in the study. The categories are the same for superintendents and board members. The question is unchanged from the original version with one small exception. During the pilot, new board members preferred "or less" added to the a category.

Question 4:**SCHOOL BOARD**

4. Highest education level attained:

- () a. High School Diploma
 () b. Bachelors Degree
 () c. Masters Degree
 () d. Doctorate

SUPERINTENDENT

4. Highest education level attained:

- () a. Masters Degree
 () b. Educational Specialist
 () c. Doctorate

Question 4 is another standard demographic question to determine the education level of the respondents. Authors such as Reecer (1990) have pointed out a growing concern that school board members as employers have a lower educational level than their employees. Teachers in Michigan must have at least a Bachelor's Degree; administrators must have a Master's Degree to qualify for their positions. Many states, including Michigan, only require that board members be 18 years of age and a resident voter in the district. Although a category to accommodate those respondents with an Associates degree was

suggested, this question is unchanged from the original version. The suggestion was not used due to space limitations on the form.

Question 5.	BOARD AND SUPERINTENDENT
ORIGINAL	FINAL VERSION
Your district funding is:	5. Total district funding
() a. In-formula	per student in 1992-93:
() b. Out-of-formula	() a. \$3000. or less
	() b. \$3001 to \$3500.
	() c. \$3501 to \$4000.
	() d. \$4001 to \$4500.
	() e. \$4501 to \$5000.
	() f. over \$5000.

Question 5 is the last standard demographic question in the surveys. It is used to determine the financial resources of a district as a possible factor. However, during the time of the pilot study, the Michigan legislature eliminated property tax and the previously relied on State funding formulas for schools. Legally, there simply are no more "in formula" or "out of formula" districts in Michigan at this time. The funding categories in the new question were taken from the "State Aid Data Report" (Michigan Department of Education, February 18, 1993, p. 1-12). Since every school was listed with a category of per funding per student in the report, the researcher determined approximate equal groups of school spending to use in the question.

Question 6.	BOARD	SUPERINTENDENT
ORIGINAL	FINAL VERSION	FINAL VERSION
6. Are you the	6. a. Are you a current	6. Are you formally
Board	Board Member?	trained in:
President?	b. Are you the Board	a. Decision making
	President?	processes?
		b. Study of school
		boards?

Questions 6 asks for yes/no answers to different questions for school board members and superintendents. Originally, there had to be a

distinction on the survey to determine board presidents from random board members. Later, it was understood that school board membership may change over the summer and a check on current membership was needed. Since there were no identical questions that would pertain to superintendents, the researcher took advantage of the space to question superintendents on their training in decision making and in the formal study of school boards. There was no change in the superintendent survey from the original.

SECTION II IDENTIFY THE TYPES OF TRAINING FOR BOARD SERVICE THAT YOU HAVE HAD:

Question 7:

ORIGINAL VERSION

- 7. Inservices and seminars: a half to a full day or more of instruction**
- a. from your superintendent**
 - b. from the Intermediate School District consultants**
 - c. from the Michigan Association of School Boards**

BOARD FINAL VERSION

Section II Please identify all formal training for board service that you have received:

- 7. Inservices and seminars: a half to a full day of formal instruction per session**
- a. from your superintendent or central office personnel?**
 - b. from the Intermediate School District consultants?**
 - c. from the Michigan Association of School Boards?**
 - d. from a district paid consultant or other organization?**

SUPERINTENDENT FINAL VERSION

Section II Identify all training for board service that your school board has received:

- 7. Inservices and seminars: a half to a full day of formal instruction per session:**
- a. from you or your central office personnel?**
 - b. from the Intermediate School District consultants?**
 - c. from the Michigan Association of School Boards?**
 - d. from district paid consultants or other organizations?**

From a review of the literature in Chapter II of this report, it became apparent that school board training may be piecemeal at best with a variety of trainers (Curtis, 1990; Griffin 1988; Jinks, 1979; Kleinstiver 1986; Koeninger, 1988; Neubauer, 1983; Selby 1984). Since there are no requirements for school board member training in Michigan, this question attempts to find out who are the most often used school board trainers. Changes in question format were meant to tighten up the specifics of the question. During the pilot study, school board members were confused and asked for clarification on this question. "Were inservices meant as whole formal blocks of time or bits of discussions added up?" Secondly, "other organizations" were added to the categories when it became known that Lansing Community College and the Michigan Association of School Administrators also have programs for school board training.

Question 8:

ORIGINAL QUESTION

- 8. Have you received training as a school board member in these areas:**
- a. the role and responsibility of a school board member?**
 - b. the different organizational structures of schools?**
 - c. the decision-making processes of school boards?**

BOARD FINAL VERSION

- 8. Have you received one full formal session of training in each of these specific topics:**
- a. the role and responsibility of a school board member?**
 - b. the different organizational structures of schools?**
 - c. the decision-making processes of school boards?**

SUPERINTENDENT FINAL VERSION

- 8. Do you believe that your school board has received one full formal session of training in each of these specific topics:**
- a. the role and responsibility of a school board member?**
 - b. the different organizational structures of schools?**
 - c. the decision-making processes of school boards?**

Questions 8 requires yes/no answers and is the result of the main themes of this study. It was felt that if board members were to be asked to determine specifics on role, organizational structure, and decision-making processes, it was also important to ask them if they had received any prior formal training in these areas. Changes in question format were meant to tighten up the specifics of the question. As in question 7, respondents in the pilot study seemed to want to believe that they were trained rather than not trained.

Question 9:

ORIGINAL AND BOARD FINAL VERSION

9. Have you completed the MASB certification program?

SUPERINTENDENT FINAL VERSION

9. How many of your board members have completed the MASB certification program? #_____

Question 9 originated as an attempt to find out how many board members had completed the MASB certification training and how a yes answer correlated with their answers in other questions.

Superintendents were originally asked if their board was certified.

However, it was almost immediately discovered in the pilot study and verified by the MASB that some board members may be certified but very few total boards are certified. Therefore, Superintendents were asked for the number of certified members in their school boards in order to determine the average number of certified members on a Michigan school board.

Question 10:

ORIGINAL

Do you make better decisions as a result of completing the Michigan Association of School Boards' voluntary certification program?

yes___ no___

BOARD FINAL VERSION

10. Do you make better decisions as a result of completing the Michigan Association of School Boards' voluntary certification program? *Check N/A if not certified. yes___ no___ *N/A___

SUPERINTENDENT FINAL VERSION

10. Does your school board make better decisions as a result of members completing the Michigan Association of School Boards' certification program? *Check N/A if no board members are certified. yes___ no___ *N/A___

Question 10 came from the fact that no outside research has attempted to verify the value of the MASB voluntary certification program. Since decision making is what school boards do, the decision factor was used as the focal point of the question. However, in the pilot study respondents checked yes to the question of better decisions, when they had indicated that they had not completed the MASB certification program in the previous question. The researcher was told by one respondent in the pilot study that it was the politically correct thing to do and that the majority of answers would be yes to question 10 in the final research. A qualifier "N/A" was added to the question as an attempt to limit the answer to those that had completed MASB certification training.

Question 11:

ORIGINAL AND BOARD FINAL VERSION

11. Do you have a personal copy of the Michigan School Code?

SUPERINTENDENT FINAL VERSION

11. Should each school board member have a copy of the Michigan School Code?

Question 11 is unchanged from the original. The question began with the literature review in Chapter II of this report. Some authors (Boardsmanship, 1961, p. vi, 3; Reeves, 1954, p.186), have recommended that each school board member should be familiar with

state school laws, and either have a copy of the State School Code or state school laws for reference. The Michigan School Code of 1976 (Reprinted From the Michigan Compiled Laws, November, 1989) is the size of a large paperback, contains 203 pages, and costs \$5.00. It seemed important to find out if board members and superintendents agreed or disagreed with the literature and explore the situation in Michigan. There was discussion during the pilot study on this question. One entire school board did not know what the School Code was. The researcher neither agreed nor disagreed with the various comments. The Michigan School Code can be ordered from the State of Michigan, Department of Management and Budget, Office Services Division, 7461 Crowner Drive, Lansing, MI, 48913.

Question 12:

ORIGINAL AND SCHOOL BOARD AND SUPERINTENDENT FINAL VERSIONS

12. Should school board training be mandatory in Michigan?

Question 12 is unchanged from the original and the same question on both surveys. It originated from the literature discussion in Chapter II. Since 12 states, Arkansas, Georgia, Kentucky, Mississippi, New Jersey, North Dakota, Oklahoma, South Carolina, Tennessee, Texas, Virginia, and West Virginia have mandated training for school board members, it seemed very appropriate to ask this question in Michigan.

Question 13:

ORIGINAL AND BOARD FINAL VERSION

13. In what one area would you like to receive more training? _____

SUPERINTENDENT FINAL VERSION

13. In what area do you think your school board needs training? _____

Question 13 is unchanged from the original. This question is an attempt to find the major area of wanted or needed training for school board members from each group of respondents. It may also point out serious deficiencies or problems that may have gone previously undetected. At one point it was suggested that the word "areas" instead of "area" be used. However on reflection that meant more than 1572 possible answers in the major research project. Further, one respondent in the pilot study voiced the objection that in answering this question, respondents were admitting that they had a problem in the district and therefore might not answer the question. If more than one area was requested, the chances of response might be decreased.

SECTION III DECISION PROCESS (check only one answer per question)

Question 14: ORIGINAL

14. As a board member, who do you primarily represent in making decisions?

- ☐ a. The interests of the State of Michigan
- ☐ b. The interests of the entire local community
- ☐ c. The interests of the district, ie. students, teachers, and staff
- ☐ d. The interests of a special interest group or constituency.

BOARD FINAL VERSION

14. As a board member, who do you primarily represent in making decisions?

- ☐ a. The interests of the State of Michigan in education.
- ☐ b. The interests of the entire local community.
- ☐ c. The interests of the district, ie. students, teachers, and staff
- ☐ d. The interests of a group or constituency, ie. community leaders, senior citizens, section of the community, etc.

SUPERINTENDENT FINAL VERSION

14. Who should a board member primarily represent in making decisions?

- ☐ a. The interests of the State of Michigan in education.
- ☐ b. The interests of the entire local community.
- ☐ c. The interests of the district, ie. students, teachers, and staff.
- ☐ d. The interests of a group or constituency, ie. community leaders, senior citizens, a section of the community, etc.

Questions 14 remained the same as the original in both surveys. It originated from the literature review found in Chapter II of this report. There has been much debate as to whom, the school board is obligated to represent and it is one of the major areas of debate found in the literature on school boards. All four answer categories were mentioned in the literature. The interest of the state as the legal school board representation is stated by: Ashe, McGrath, and Palmer, 1964; Briggs, 1873; Garber and Edwards, 1963; Gatti and Gatti, 1990; Goldhammer, 1964; Hillway, 1961; Iannaccone and Lutz, 1970; Boardsmanship, 1961; Reeves, 1954; Meeting the Challenges of School Board Leadership, 1973; and Valente, 1980. The interests of the community in school board representation were referred to by: Danzberger, 1992; The Improvement of Public Education in Michigan, 1944; Gross 1958; Howe and Shannon, 1987; Putnam 1904; Reeves 1954; and Tuttle, 1958. The interests of the district as represented by school board members were mentioned by Davies and Hosler, 1949; Jackson, 1926. The interests of a group or constituency in school board representation were discussed by: Davies, 1984; Goldhammer, 1964; Gross, 1958; and Zerchykov, 1984.

However, through the pilot study it was revealed that only two choices were utilized by the respondents in Question 14. Therefore the choices were reworded during the pilot study in an attempt to increase the choice ratio among the categories. "In education" was added to category a to decrease any confusion, and "special interest" was removed from category d to eliminate the possibility of an emotional response. Other examples were also added to category d in an attempt to fully explain the category. In addition, board members were asked

if they felt that "parents" should be added in explaining a category. However, some board members felt that parents were part of the district, other board members felt that they were part of a constituency, and still others felt that parents were in the community category. "Parents" was not added in the question in order to avoid confusion. Some respondents in the pilot also believed that there should be one category for "students" alone. It is the researcher's belief that "students" are why schools exist and ideal reason why any effort is made by anyone concerning education. A separate "students" category would be the easy ideal choice for any respondent rather than a realistic one. Realistic representation is the debated topic in question 14, and "students" as a category is not debated in the literature. "Students" were included in the district category as an example of one group that is part of the district, which is taken into consideration in decisions as part of the district, and one group most directly effected by the decisions of those who believe they are representing the district.

Question 15:

ORIGINAL

15. As a school board member what do you believe is your primary role?

- () a. Legislative, ie. deciding on policy.**
- () b. Judicial, ie. deciding on conflicts involving community interests.**
- () c. Administrative, ie. making sure the schools are managed correctly.**

BOARD FINAL VERSION

15. As a school board member what do you believe is your primary role?

- () a. Deciding on school policy?
- () b. Deciding on issues and concerns involving community interests?
- () c. Personally making sure the schools are managed correctly?

SUPERINTENDENT FINAL VERSION

15. What do you believe a board member's primary role should be?

- () a. Deciding on school policy?
- () b. Deciding on issues and concerns involving community interests?
- () c. Personally making sure the schools are managed correctly?

Question 15 addresses the question of school board member role which is one of the major areas of debate found in the literature. A legislative policy role is discussed by: Ashe, McGrath, and Palmer, 1964; Boardsmanship, 1955; Brodinsky, 1977; Carpenter, 1989; Clemmer 1990; Goldhammer, 1964; Reeves 1954; Wilson, 1976. A judicial role of deciding on community concerns is discussed by: Ashe, McGrath, and Palmer, 1964; Goldhammer, 1964; and Zerchykov, 1984. An administrative "hands on" role is described by: Goldhammer, 1964; Gross, 1958; McGonagill, 1987; Ross, 1987; Wilson, 1976. A full discussion of school board member role is found in Chapter II of this report. During the pilot study, one school board was unhappy with the three choices and suggested that there should be more categories. They suggested "setting budget" or being a "sounding board and support for the superintendent." However, the literature only referred to three areas. The researcher felt uncomfortable adding other categories that couldn't be documented. The titles of legislative, judicial, and administrative were deleted from the definitions due to the suggestions of the dissertation committee. The word "personally" was added to category c because the administrative role is indicated as an

individual function in the literature rather than a group function. During the pilot study several groups of board members were asked what they thought about the word "personally." Their answers indicated that either they checked it because they felt that this choice indicated their role or they didn't check the choice because they didn't believe they should have "hands on" activity in district affairs. Their answers reassured the researcher that choice c was an accurate role description. However, the respondents in the pilot only checked two category answers. Therefore, the word "conflicts" was eliminated and the phrase "issues and concerns" was substituted in category b in order to decrease any emotional connotation.

Question 16:

ORIGINAL

16. Should the school board or committees be responsible for significant or strategic decisions for the organization?

() a. School board

() b. Committees

Question 16 was changed after the first three meetings with school boards during the pilot study since all respondents gave the same answer. Originally, the question came directly from Herbert Maskowitz (1990, p. 181), who proposed that further research was needed on the topic of who actually decides between alternatives. The researcher felt that this was an important question to ask in light of what seems to be an increasing trend by school boards and administrators to rely on committee work for one recommendation on a course of action. However, school boards in the pilot study questioned what kind of committees were referred to in the question. Were they school committees, board

sub-committees, parent committees, etc.? A second version of the same question was asked of the fourth school board:

Should advisory committees decide between alternatives in important decisions for the district? yes___ no___

Unfortunately, the results were still unanimous. Without some sort of variety of response, the researcher felt that the question wasn't working and dropped it from the survey. Further, in some respects the essence of the question is posed in Question 20, category d.

Other new questions were tried with the fourth and fifth school boards with better variation in answers. The original question was replaced with one of the new questions, shown below, in the final survey versions.

New Question 16:

NEW SCHOOL BOARD QUESTION

16. As a board member which one decision style is dominant when making significant, strategic decisions for the district?

- () a. Decisions are based on your own values, even though who you represent may disagree.**
- () b. Decisions are guided by expressed preferences of those you represent even at the expense of your best judgement.**

NEW SUPERINTENDENT QUESTION

16. Which one decision style is dominant on your board when making significant, strategic decisions for the district?

- () a. Decisions are based on the board's own values, even though who they represent may disagree.**
- () b. Decisions are guided by expressed preferences of the represented even at the expense of the board's best judgement.**

New question 16 comes from past research efforts on school boards which attempted to find out if school board members were "trustee," "delegate" or "politico" in representation or representational "style" (Cameron, 1987; Ross, 1987; Schmidt, 1980; and Strobel, 1991).

However, there were different definitions of these terms with different

research reports on representation. Through the literature discussion on representation in Chapter II of this report, specific definitions of representation and representational style were presented (Mann, 1976; Pitkin, 1967). Question 16 is almost word for word from Mann, as he describes "trustee" and "delegate" representational style.

Briefly, a trustee is someone whose decisions are based on his own values, even though the represented may disagree. A delegate reverses the priority and is guided by expressed citizen preferences even at the expense of his own best judgment...A politico borrows from either the trustee or delegate styles as dictated by situations but has some internally consistent rationale for doing so. (Mann, 1976, p. 11)

The researcher did not use Mann's "politico" description which is a combination of the previous two styles, but asked school board members during the pilot study if they thought a third category c stating "Both a and b" was needed, necessary, or valid. Although they preferred to argue choice a versus b, they seemed ambivalent to the need for a third alternative.

Question 17:

ORIGINAL

Should school board members always achieve voting consensus in making decisions? yes___ no___

FINAL VERSION

17. Should school board members achieve a unanimous 7-0 vote in making decisions? yes___ no___

Question 17 originated with Janis and Mann's (1977) "groupthink" concept in decision making theory as discussed in Chapter III. They point out that biases may occur in decision making where the desire for unanimity can override realistic and careful consideration of alternatives. Other authors found during the literature review also

discouraged the use of "consensus" (Feldman and Lindell, 1990; Iannaccone and Lutz, 1970; Janis, 1989; McCormick, 1985; Mullen and Roth, 1991; Wiles, 1979). The original question was changed during the pilot study when it was found that one whole board choose a yes answer and one whole board choose a no answer. The researcher found that the choice depended on the definition of consensus which for some board members meant "majority" rather than "unanimous." "7-0 vote" was added to give clarity to the meaning.

New Question 18:

NEW SCHOOL BOARD AND SUPERINTENDENT QUESTION

18. Has your board changed a tentative decision due to pressure from a special interest group? yes___ no___

New question 18 is the result of the discussions in the literature on powerful, organized special interest groups and constituencies (Davies, 1984; Goldhammer, 1964; Jacobsen, 1964; Koerner, 1968; Meeting the Challenges of School Board Leadership, 1972; Zerchykov 1984) presented in Chapter II and Chapter III. It seemed very appropriate to ask if this was a current problem in Michigan. Further, question 18 seemed to be a good follow up question to determine any correlations to the previous survey questions that dealt with representational style and role.

This question appeared during the fourth and fifth meeting of the school board pilot study without comment from school board members. Therefore, the researcher thought the meaning was clear and retained the question for the final version of the surveys.

New Question 19:

NEW SCHOOL BOARD QUESTION

19. Do you prefer to make small changes in district policy over time rather than major changes? yes___ no___

NEW SUPERINTENDENT QUESTION

19. Does your board prefer to make small changes in district policy over time rather than major changes? yes___ no___

Question 19 comes from the literature review on decision making in Chapter III of this report concerning the satisficing decision procedure of "incrementalism." Janis and Mann (1977, p. 33) define this term as slow progress as a result of a succession of satisficing or "good enough" policy choices over time. The intent is "to put out fires," rather than "selecting the superior course of action." Secondly, Question 19 seemed to be a good follow up question to determine any correlation to district decision processes in Question 20. Like the previous question in the pilot study, question 19 was reviewed by the fourth and fifth school boards without comment. Therefore, the researcher felt that the meaning was clear and retained it for the final version of the surveys.

Questions 20:

ORIGINAL AND FINAL VERSION

20. When making a crucial decision, which one definition is closest to describing your board's decision process?

The purpose of Question 20 is an attempt to discover which decision process is used in major decision making by school boards in Michigan. Five different definitions found in the literature and discussed in Chapter II and Chapter III form the possible choices. In the pilot study, school board member comments on this question centered on the length of each category. However, the researcher had already attempted to reduce the wording yet present the definition in as easy to understand fashion as possible. School board respondents in the pilot study did not seem to have a problem in understanding the

category definitions. This question is unchanged from the original. The question is exactly the same for School Board Members and Superintendents in the final version of the survey. Reasoning and citations follow each category to explain where each definition originated.

() a. The board identifies the related goals and objectives. The problem is diagnosed, and data is collected. Many alternatives are developed and considered for pros and cons. Each alternative is compared to each of the other alternatives in relation to the goals and objectives. The best alternative is selected and the solution is evaluated.

Rational Decision Process: A maximizing or optimizing process to find the best solution. "John Dewey's analysis of thinking is often the base used for identifying the steps in rational decision making...Most analyses include a situation calling for a decision; diagnosis of the problem; collecting data about it; generating alternatives; analysis of each alternative; determining the consequences of each alternative; and evaluation after the fact," (Knezevich, 1984, p. 49-50).

() b. There is a problem and the focus is on the main requirements needed to solve the problem. A number of alternatives are generated. The alternatives are reviewed in order and eliminated if main requirements are not met. The process stops when a satisfactory alternative is found.

Bounded Rational or Subjective Process: Called "satisficing" by Simon. It is picking the first alternative that meets a level of aspiration or decision rule criterion that the alternative chosen is better than the current situation. There is a selective search for alternatives to meet a small number of requirements. The alternatives are tested one by one for feasibility applied by rules of thumb or heuristics. Alternatives are not compared to each other. The search halts when a satisfactory

solution has been found, almost always before all alternatives have been examined (Janis and Mann 1977; Simon, 1992).

() c. An idea is introduced early on by a board member or the administration. It is publicized and talked about with board members, administration and the public. It may be modified to satisfy concerns. There may be lobbying, negotiation, pressure, or trading votes to reach consensus.

Political Decision Process: This definition was taken from an advisory article in the American School Board Journal, "Four rules for the world's best board game." Rule four specifies the art of political decision making.

Rule Number One: Learn to count your votes...Veteran board members and administrators know that whatever a majority of the board thinks or wants, that's the way it's going to be.

Rule Number Two: Comply with your state's open meeting laws...controversy can erupt and derail your well-laid lobbying.

Rule Number Three: Learn to live with scrutiny from the press...The press offers a means of publicizing your ideas and perhaps garnering public support, but premature publicity can raise controversy or opposition....

Rule Number Four: Learn the art of political decision making. Introduce your idea early on. A board takes its time to come to consensus. Talk with your fellow board members, administrators, and the public. Listen to their ideas and objections, and be willing to modify your proposal to satisfy their concerns. And don't be afraid to horse-trade. Do board members have projects that you want to support? Will you trade votes or do you want to go it alone and take your chances? (Boggs, 1985, p. 40)

() d. The school board approves decisions or recommendations made by the administration, district-wide committees, or school-based committees. Usually only one solution is presented to the school board.

Approval: Issue Accommodation and Legalization (Collaborative Decision Process): Only one alternative is presented to the school board for formal approval by the superintendent or committee representative.

Since only one alternative is reviewed, the school board action could be described as an approval decision process or issue accommodation and legalization rather than a board decision (King, 1978). A collaborative decision process is accomplished through inter-district groups, such as parents advisory councils, teacher-administration curriculum councils, school staff meetings, administrative councils, or any number of specially organized committees. The problem and solutions are discussed within these groups, a school board member may or may not be present during the meetings. A consensus, majority vote, or power coalition may decide the issue within the committees. Only one alternative is presented to the school board for formal approval.

() e. The board defines and prioritizes goals. Alternatives are identified to achieve a goal. A diagram is designed that shows the relationship of goals, resources, and parameters to help predict the consequences of each alternative in terms of the goal. A decision rule is made for selecting the preferred alternative by evaluating the consequences of each alternative on a common scale of value. The alternative is selected whose net benefit is highest.

Analysis Decision Process: There are many different decision making processes invented for the systems organizational structure. Usually they are basically rational processes incorporating mathematical utility measurements, alternative weights, models, decision rules, and/or consequence diagrams. Systems Analysis and Operational Research are very close in structure and considered the most classical. A combination would consist of a series of logical stages: 1. define the goal or objective with weights; 2. identify the alternatives; 3. construct a model presenting the interdependence of goals, means, and parameters of the system, in order to predict the consequences in terms of objectives. 4. determine the decision rule for selecting the preferred

alternative; or evaluate the consequences on a common scale of value;
 5. select the alternative whose net benefit is highest (Larichev, 1983; Rosenhead, 1989).

Question 21:

ORIGINAL AND FINAL VERSION

21. If you could change the decision process, which ONE DEFINITION from question 20 do you prefer? ()a. ()b. ()c. ()d. ()e. ()f. no change

Question 21 is an attempt to find out if board members appreciate their current decision process or would like to see specific change in their school board decision process.

Questions 22:

ORIGINAL:

22. Which ONE STATEMENT IS CLOSEST to describing your district's belief in how things get done?

FINAL VERSION

22. In your opinion, which ONE STATEMENT IS CLOSEST to describing your district's belief in how things get done?

Question 22 originated from the literature on school boards, decision making and organizational structure discussed in Chapter II and Chapter III. There are references to some school board members destroying the chain of command and thereby damaging the organizational structure (Goldhammer, 1964). Iannaccone and Lutz (1970) suggest that the Sacred Community or Traditional organizational structure that they identify in schools, also employs a particular decision making process. Simon (1979) believes that organizational structure is formed from the decision process used. Other authors have suggested different organizational structures as the one structure employed in school districts. Cusick (1992) seems to believe that there is one "bureaucracy" and describes a Political structure. Bolman and

Deal (1991) believe schools have Symbolic organizational structures. Systems organizational structure is recommended for schools by Knezevich (1984). In decision-making literature, there are references that the organizational structure can influence decision making, and more research is needed (Griffiths, 1969; Maskowitz, 1990; Pfiffner and Sherwood, 1960; Simon, 1979). Therefore because of all these references in the literature, the organizational structure of Michigan school districts seemed to be of some importance to this report. Subsequently, this researcher reviewed the literature on organizational structure and found that particular beliefs determine the type of organizational structure used. Seven major organizational structures were identified through the literature in Chapter II. Site Based Management was included as the eighth structure since it seems to be the newest experiment in education and currently mandated in Kentucky. All eight organization structures are discussed in some detail in Chapter II of this report and included in this question.

During three of the pilot study discussions, school board members commented on this question. They felt that the question was long and there were too many choices to remember. One board suggested that the question should contain "In your opinion." They did not like the negatives found in each category at all. The researcher explained to them that according to the literature, positives and negatives were particular to different organizational structures and negatives would be present in any organizational structure used. They suggested that the negatives should be softened as much as possible if not taken out entirely. After much consideration, all the negatives were softened with "seem," "could be," "may be," and "can be." The negatives

were not taken out because the researcher believes: 1. the negatives are an important point of the reality of school district structure; 2. logically if negatives are known they could be controlled; 3. it would be inappropriate to mislead school board members into believing that negatives are not present in district organizational structure. Further, school board members in the pilot study were able to identify a particular organizational structure of their school district which is discussed in the pilot study findings section of this report. Therefore, other than the superficial changes already mentioned, question 22 remains the original question approved by the dissertation committee, the URICHS Michigan State University committee, the Michigan Association of School Boards and the Michigan Association of School Administrators. It is exactly the same for school board members and superintendents on each final survey version. Each structural belief statement in question 22 is derived from an organizational structure definition drawn from the literature. Each definition and citation are described after each category in the following passages:

() a. **There is a great belief in laws, rules, and regulations. The school board sets the policies and the goals, but the staff doesn't seem to work hard or have initiative to make those goals a reality.**

Rational-Legal Organizational Structure: Called the Structural Frame or Structural Perspective by Bolman and Deal, this structure was first described by Max Weber. The belief is in the supremacy of laws, rules and regulations to further the rational pursuit of goals. There is a formal authority hierarchy with each level supervising the one below it. Specialized training is highly valued, there are written files to document decisions. This structure maximizes rational decision-making

and administrative efficiency but "does not and cannot encourage willingness to work hard or to exercise initiative" (Blau, 1963, p. 308-309, 313).

() b. **The belief is that teachers are the most critical resource. Staff participation, empowerment and teacher needs are emphasized. However, a few influential teachers seem to have more power than they should.**

Human Resource Structure or Frame: Based on the belief and emphasis that the interdependence between people and the organization is most important. The focus is on ways to develop a better fit between people's needs, skills and values as well as formal roles and relationships (Bolman and Deal, 1991, p. 9). In schools, the structure usually contains one or more forms of teacher democratic participation, teacher recommendations or teacher decision-making. However, the human resource structure is criticized as naive and easily led by power elites. It may attempt to impose middle class values on everyone and ignore individual differences, power and conflict (Bolman and Deal, 1991, p. 177-178). This organizational structure may also be irreversible. "When workers gain more power they are rarely willing to give it up and often press for its expansion" (Bolman and Deal, 1991, p. 163).

() c. **This district is stable with a strong belief in tradition. Yet, change is extremely difficult in the district. It's almost as if there is a sacred belief in the status-quo. Gossip and favoritism could be evident.**

Traditional Organizational Structure: This structure was first described by Max Weber. The belief is in tradition and routine, that the order has always existed and continues to be binding. A concrete body of rules are traditionally received rather than enacted. Change

only occurs under the fiction that it was a renewal of past practice. The authority figure is free to make his decisions according to his own best judgement, need or whim, and rules through the use of obligation and favoritism (Weber, trans: Henderson and Parsons, 1947, p. 60-63; Blau, 1963, p. 305). Iannaccone and Lutz called this structure the Sacred Community where "old ways are better than new." They point out that, "the 'etiquette of gossip' tends to be well developed and provides a non-public outlet for the criticism of others in lieu of public attack, formal confrontation, and open debate." They identified the sacred community as the most prevalent organizational structure used in schools (Iannaccone and Lutz, 1970, p. 30-31).

() d. **The belief is all decisions should be made at the lowest level. Each school council of three teachers, two parents, and the principal manage the school. Conflict, community politics, and power struggles are still present.**

Site-Based Organizational Structure is a type of human resource structure which places the decision-making process at the lowest level of a hierarchy in order to make decisions for that level. A school-based management structure is decentralized and places teachers in the decision-making role usually in conjunction with the principal (Chapman, 1990). The State of Kentucky has mandated site based schools. Each school has a council of three teachers, 2 parents and the principal, who make all the decisions for the school. However, administrators may block or sabotage this organizational structure due to lack of trust and loss of power. Site-based management approaches may also be short on particulars, contingencies, consistency and legalities (Harrington-Lueker, 1990, p. 17). Chicago school councils contain 6 parents, 2 community representatives, 2 teachers and the principal. Rist reports

that conflict, power struggles, and community politics are still prevalent (Rist, 1990, p. 22-24).

() e. The belief is that everyone has different interests and conflict is inevitable. Uses consultation, bargaining and negotiation to come to a consensus. Staff or parents join groups to press for certain decisions. There may be little trust.

Political Organizational Structure or Frame: The belief that power, conflict and distribution of scarce resources are the central issues. Cooperation and consensus are achieved through the uses of power, coalitions, bargaining, negotiation, and conflict (Bolman and Deal, 1991, p. 9). Cusick's description of school district "bureaucracy" is a political description (Cusick, 1992, p. 227).

() f. The belief is that the district is an interrelated set of subsystems. Change is recognized as normal. Uses objective research and data to evaluate goals. However, the computations can be complicated; the data may be misleading.

Systems Approach Organizational Structure: Sometimes called Management Science or Cost-Effective Analysis, it is based on the organic belief that reality exists in systems. School districts are viewed as delivery systems. Subsystems may be schools or interdisciplinary teams. There is a mission statement, performance based long and short term objectives, as well as models. Change is considered normal. Seeks to improve the organization by making decision making more explicit, and more systematic through the use of scientific data, mathematics, and statistics. However, all subsystems may not be well defined. Sometimes it may be impossible to develop symbolic or mathematical models. Simplifying assumptions in order to manipulate a model may lead to abstraction and ignore the reality of

power plays, internal politics, and resistance to change (Knezevich, 1984, 4th ed.: p. 140-144; 1975, 3rd ed.: p. 139).

() g. The belief is that symbols have impact and appearances are important. This district conforms to the way society thinks it should look and act. Yet, there could be a lack of clear goals and direction for meaningful change.

Symbolic Organizational Structure or Frame: Because of uncertainty and ambiguity in organizational life, there is a belief in the search for meaning in events, symbols, myths, rituals, stories, and ceremonies. "Appearances" and legitimizing images of action are prevalent to gain support from the environment. Humor, play, and job significance are used in the staff culture to reduce tension and encourage motivation and creativity. These organizations usually have a lack of clear goals and direction. Bolman and Deal identify schools as symbolic organizations (1991, p. 10, 244, 275, 298).

() h. Each school is different in needs, tasks, and strategies. Each school may use any one of the different beliefs described above to achieve a balance between strategy, needs of people, commitments and community. But the overall district design could be difficult to control and balance.

Contingency Theory Organizational Structure: Derived from Systems Theory, the belief is that there is no one best way to structure an organization. Rather, all organizational structures could be placed on a continuum from mechanistic to organic. Each structure is used for a particular need in a subsystem at a particular time. The appropriate structure depends on the kind of task and the demand from the environment. Choice and balance are essential (Morgan, 1986, p. 49-55).

Question 23:**ORIGINAL AND FINAL VERSION:****23. If you could change the district organizational belief, which one statement listed in question 22 would you prefer?**

- ☐ a. ☐ b. ☐ c. ☐ d. ☐ e. ☐ f. ☐ g. ☐ h.
☐ i. no change

Question 23 is very similar to Question 21, both ask for the respondent's preference and perceived need for change. No change was made to this question. The same question is used for the board member and superintendent surveys.

Questions 24 and 25:**NEW QUESTIONS:****24. Would you like additional information on the decision processes described in question 20? yes___ no___****25. Would you like additional information on the organizational structures represented in question 22? yes___ no___**

Questions 24 and 25 are an amalgam of new questions that were discarded or changed. From the pilot study, the researcher learned that although board members were checking that they had previous training in decision processes and organization structures in Question 8, they seemed to have some difficulty in answering questions 20 and 22. In the fourth school board meeting, two additional questions were asked in an attempt to specify training in these areas:

Check all the decision processes described that you have received formal training in:

- ☐ a. ☐ b. ☐ c. ☐ d. ☐ e. ☐ f. none

Check all the organizational structures represented that you would like more information about:

- ☐ a. ☐ b. ☐ c. ☐ d. ☐ e. ☐ f. ☐ g. ☐ h.
☐ i. all ☐ j. none

However, these question arrangements forced the school board members to go back through the lengthy categories for a third time. School

board frustration with the questions was apparent. They suggested eliminating these questions and use simpler yes/no questions, which advice has been followed in the fifth and last survey versions.

Although the researcher will not find out the specifics of past training, the final questions may show if future training in decision processes and organizational structure is perceived as needed. One other new question was deleted from the final version of the survey due to room on the form: Is there a district policy that outlines the roles and duties of the board and administration?

PILOT STUDY FINDINGS

Data from the surveys used in the pilot study were put into the Minitab statistical software program for simple count procedures.

Statistical tests were not run. Results of the pilot study are only tentative indications and cannot be considered hard data. Therefore, a discussion of meaning will not be given, only possible differences in opinion between superintendents and board members will be noted in this section. Findings are grouped to eliminate any association with any school or any person. No demographic data will be disclosed.

Only those questions that were asked of all five districts will be reported and only if there is a simple 60% or more majority answer based on the total number of participants in each group.

Table 1: Pilot Study Findings

QUESTION		SUPT	PRES	MEMB
Q6A	SUPT. DECISION TRAINING	Yes 60%	--	--
Q6B	SUPT. BOARD TRAINING	No 60%	--	--
Q7A	CENTRAL OFFICE TRAINERS	Yes 60%	Yes 60%	Yes 66%
Q7B	ISD TRAINERS	No 60%	Yes 60%	--
Q7C	MASB TRAINERS	Yes 60%	No 60%	--
Q7D	OTHER TRAINERS	Yes 80%	Yes 80%	Yes 62.5%
Q8A	BOARD ROLE TRAINING	Yes 80%	Yes 60%	Yes 79.2%
Q8B	BOARD ORGANIZATION TRG	No 60%	No 60%	--
Q8C	BOARD DECISION TRAINING	Yes 80%	Yes 60%	Yes 62.5%
Q9A	MASB CERTIFICATION	--	No 80%	No 82.3%
Q10	BETTER DECISIONS	Yes 60%	--	--
Q11	COPY OF SCHL CODE	No 60%	No 100%	--
Q12	MANDATORY TRAINING	Yes 60%	Yes 60%	--
Q14 BOARD REPRESENTATION		Supt: DISTRICT 60%	Pres: COMMUNITY 80%	Memb: COMMUNITY 75%
Q15 BOARD ROLE		Supt: LEGISLATIVE 80%	Pres: LEGISLATIVE 80%	Memb: LEGISLATIVE 70.8%
Q20 DECISION PROCESS		Supt: POLITICAL 80%	Pres: APPROVAL 60%	Memb: --
Q21 PREFERRED DECISION PROCESS		Supt: --	Pres: NO CHANGE	Memb. --

In addition, when district responses were analyzed as individual groups, the specific decision process used in that district was identified when there were more than four respondents. However, this district response appeared to be different in some cases from what 80% of superintendents S and 60% of school board presidents P believe.

Table 2: Pilot Study Findings: District Board and Superintendent Responses on Decision Process

ID	S P MEMBER	Decision Process
District #1	C A B D	--
District #2	C D A A A A	A=Rational Decision Process
District #3	C A A A C B A C	A=Rational Decision Process
District #4	B D B B A D	B=Satisficing Decision Process
District #5	C D D D B D D D	D=Approval Decision Process

Table 3: Pilot Study Findings: District Board and Superintendent Responses on Organizational Belief

ID	S P MEMBER	Organizational Structure
District #1	C C G C G G	C/G=Tradition and Symbolic Structure
District #2	F A F B C B	B/F=Human Resource and Systems
District #3	H C C C C C C G	C=Traditional Structure
District #4	B C B F	--
District #5	G E E E E F F	E=Political Organizational Structure

District responses in the pilot study were also examined in regard to organizational structure. Like decision process, organizational structures may also be mixed within a school district. However, the pilot study findings seem to indicate that total district respondents are

able to identify specific organizational structures in their specific district when there are more than four respondents from that district. However, only 2 out of 4 superintendents S and 3 out of 4 school board presidents P agree with the majority of district opinion.

These findings on decision process and organizational structure, though limited, helped the researcher feel more reassured about the clarity of Questions 20 and 22. District responses seemed to indicate a majority opinion out of eight categories. However, it also seems apparent that there is not enough data in the pilot to determine if individual responses are accurate in indicating school board decision process and district organization structure. Unfortunately, there will not be more than three respondents per district in the major research project. So, although there may be indications of the decision process and organizational structure in Michigan schools from the larger sample of respondents, there may not be indications of a particular decision process or an organizational structure in particular individual schools. Nevertheless, the researcher is particularly interested in finding out what the major research data might indicate and if the size of the district is correlated to specific decision processes and specific organizational structures. All other questions used in the pilot study did not contain 60% of any group response and are not reported in this findings section.

METHOD OF ANALYSIS

The survey instrument provided all nominal, discrete, categorical data. Therefore descriptive and inferential statistics for categorical data were both planned. Descriptive statistics consist of frequencies or

percentages, contingency tables, cross tabulations, joint distributions and marginal distributions in order to determine positive and negative association between variables. The chi square test at the .05 level of significance was the main inferential test planned to determine independence or relationship between factors. The SPSS For Windows statistical program was purchased to complete the statistical analysis.

STATISTICAL TREATMENT OF THE DATA

Once all data were received by the beginning of November 1993, all survey answers were coded by the researcher into numerical values and typed into the SPSS program. Written responses to training needs in Question 13 were coded into 21 numerical categories. Any unsolicited comments written by the respondents to qualify their answers were not considered in the coding procedure. All codes and typed values were double checked for accuracy. One master data file was created for all responses. Eight data sub-files were established from the master file. One combined file eliminated open cases. Three files defined superintendent, board president, and board member individual responses. One file grouped all board president and board member responses together; and three files matched responses from the same district. In the matching files, one file defined superintendent and board president responses. One file matched board president and board member responses, and one file matched all three respondents from the same district. Frequencies, cross tabulations and Pearson's Chi-square test were the main statistical procedures used in exploring all data files for significance at .10 in relation to all other variables. Variables were crosstabulated with each other in all eight sub-files.

Some values were recoded in some variables to eliminate outliers (less than 5 responses per category). Due to the large amount of significant tests found, tests were analyzed by combining relevance and a fair use of criteria in judging the individual crosstabulation tests of significance as a good approximation of the distribution of the statistic. Significant tests were eliminated from further consideration if: the significance level was .05 or greater; 1 open cell was found in a crosstabulation grid of less than 10 cells; more than one open cell was found in any larger crosstabulation; and if more than 20% of the cells in each crosstabulation contained less than 5 expected frequencies. Further tests were also eliminated on the basis of relevance to this dissertation. All criteria are presented with each crosstabulation. Since a large range of significance was found, the results are reported in two chapters.

In Chapter V, ten null hypotheses were tested for retention or nonretention at the .05 level of significance and the established criteria. Three tests of significance were used: Pearson's Chi Square, Cramer's V, and the Likelihood Ratio. Significance at less than .05 alpha was first established by using Pearson's Chi Square test. Cramer's V was used as a second test to verify that the significance level was less than .05 alpha. The Likelihood Ratio was the third test of significance used to test the strength of the relationship at less than .05 alpha. Crosstabulations were eliminated from consideration if they did not achieve less than .05 alpha on any of the three tests of significance or if they did not meet the established criteria described in the previous paragraph. Interpretation of admissible test results were made through column and row percentages, marginal and residual information. If a series of crosstabulation tests met all the established

criteria and had the same interpretation of residuals, the test with the greatest residual differences and the clearer meaning is presented. Therefore, the success or failure of each hypothesis according to chi square test results and established criteria, data findings, and any response bias are reported in Chapter V.

In Chapter VI, decision theory is the focus of the investigation. In adding Questions 17, 18 and 19 to the survey, the topics of Consensus, Pressure, and Incrementalism were raised. All significance testing and criteria relating to these variables are identical to the procedures used in Chapter V.

Lastly, the summary, major findings, and conclusions of this dissertation are presented in Chapter VII.

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**MICHIGAN K-12 PUBLIC SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS:
DECISION PROCESSES AND FACTORS OF REPRESENTATION, ROLE,
TRAINING, AND ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE.**

VOLUME II

By

C. A. Adamkiewicz

A DISSERTATION

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

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Educational Administration

1994

CHAPTER V

ANALYSIS OF HYPOTHESES DATA

We often end up persuading ourselves that everything is more simple than it actually is, dealing with complexity by presuming that it does not really exist. Gareth Morgan, 1986

The data presented in this chapter consist of all valid survey answers received from three sample groups. Questionnaires were sent to the superintendent, board president and one random board member in each of the 524 K-12 school districts in Michigan. Of 1572 surveys sent, 842 superintendents, board presidents and board members responded from 462 or 88% of State school districts. District demographic data are presented in Tables 4, 5, 6, and 7. Personal demographic information of the sample subjects are presented in Tables 8, 9, 10, 11, 12, and 13.

All frequency tables in this chapter are presented as observations and percentages. Distributions of variables by respondents are given with column and marginal percentages. Crosstabulations contain column, row, marginal percentages with residual and significance information that meet the criteria established in Chapter IV. Crosstabulations are interpreted by judging the value of row, column, and residual information. Rounded percentages are used in discussion.

DISTRICT DEMOGRAPHICS

Since no one group returned a response from all districts represented, overall district demographics found in survey questions 1, 2, and 5 were calculated by using superintendent response data first. When the superintendents survey was not received, board president

information was used for that district. If superintendent and board president both did not respond to the survey, district demographic information was taken from board member answers. Therefore, the following district demographic information is reported to describe the overall districts being represented but this specific district demographic data cannot be used to determine significance with other variables.

Table 4. District Demographics: Frequency of Districts Represented in Survey

Responses Per District	Number of Districts Represented of N=524	Percentage of Districts
3 responses	86	16.4 %
2 responses	208	39.6 %
1 response	<u>168</u>	<u>32.0 %</u>
Total	462	88.0%
Filtered by D District demographics		

Of the 462 districts represented in this study, one person responded from 32% of the districts, at least two people responded from 39.6% of the districts, and all three sample groups responded from 16.4% of the districts.

Table 5. District Demographic: Frequency of District Size in Survey

Class Size	Number of Districts Represented N=462	Pct of Total Response to Survey N=462
CLASS A	86	18.61
CLASS B	144	31.16
CLASS C	131	28.35
CLASS D	<u>97</u>	<u>20.99</u>
Total	458	99.11
Filtered by D District demographics		
Number of Missing Observations: 4		

In terms of Class Size, 19% of the 462 responding districts represented are Class A, 31% of the districts are Class B, 28% of the districts are Class C, and 21% of the districts are Class D.

Table 6. District Demographics: Distribution of District Size by Location

	Count	CLASS A	CLASS B	CLASS C	CLASS D	
	Row Pct					Row
	Col Pct	1	2	3	4	Total
URBAN	1	8	4			12
		66.7	33.3			2.7
		9.5	2.9			
SUBURBAN	2	54	34	11	3	102
		52.9	33.3	10.8	2.9	23.0
		64.3	24.6	8.5	3.2	
CITY/TOWN	3	21	59	35	10	125
		16.8	47.2	28.0	8.0	28.2
		25.0	42.8	27.1	10.8	
RURAL	4	1	41	83	80	205
		.5	20.0	40.5	39.0	46.2
		1.2	29.7	64.3	86.0	
Column		84	138	129	93	444
Total		18.9	31.1	29.1	20.9	100.0

Filtered by D. District Demographics
Number of Missing Observations: 18

From the marginal row percentages, of the 462 participating districts, 46% are located in rural areas, 28% are located in cities or towns, 23% are found in suburban areas, and 3% are located in urban areas. According to column percentages, 64% of Class A participating districts are found in suburban areas, and 43% of Class B districts are located in cities or towns. The majority of districts with size designations Class C 64% and Class D 86% are located in rural areas

By analyzing marginal row percentages in Table 7, it appears that

most surveyed districts seem to be in a variety of funded ranges. A 35% majority of school districts in the survey are funded in the \$3501-4000 range. According to column percentages, 36% of Class A districts are in the over \$5000 category, while 40% of Class B, 44% of Class C, and 27% of Class D districts are in the \$3501-4000 category.

Table 7. District Demographics: Distribution of District Class Size by 1992-93 Funding Per Student

	Count	CLASS A	CLASS B	CLASS C	CLASS D	
Row Pct						Row
Col Pct		1	2	3	4	Total
	1		2	3	4	9
\$3000 OR LESS			22.2	33.3	44.4	2.0
			1.4	2.3	4.2	
	2	3	14	39	21	77
\$3001-3500		3.9	18.2	50.6	27.3	17.3
		3.6	10.1	30.5	22.1	
	3	16	56	56	26	154
\$3501-4000		10.4	36.4	36.4	16.9	34.6
		19.3	40.3	43.8	27.4	
	4	18	28	20	18	84
\$4001-4500		21.4	33.3	23.8	21.4	18.9
		21.7	20.1	15.6	18.9	
	5	16	12	6	8	42
\$4501-5000		38.1	28.6	14.3	19.0	9.4
		19.3	8.6	4.7	8.4	
	6	30	27	4	18	79
OVER \$5000		38.0	34.2	5.1	22.8	17.8
		36.1	19.4	3.1	18.9	
Column		83	139	128	95	445
Total		18.7	31.2	28.8	21.3	100.0

Filtered by D. District Demographics
Number of Missing Observations: 17

PERSONAL DEMOGRAPHICS

There were 842 valid responses to the survey. Three hundred and eighteen superintendents or 60.6% of the superintendent population responded. Two hundred and eighty-one board presidents or 53.6% of the board president population responded, and 243 school board members or 46.3% of the board member random sample responded. Data are presented in Table 8.

Demographic data taken from these individual groups can be used in crosstabulations with other variables since a single response will also denote a specific school district. Likewise, matched groups from the same district can be used in crosstabulations with other variables, since the districts are equalized in matched groups.

Table 8. Personal Demographics: Frequency of Survey Respondents

Sample Group	Frequency	% of Sample Groups N=524	% of Total Respondents N=842
Superintendents	318	60.6	37.8
Board Presidents	281	53.6	33.4
Board Members	<u>243</u>	46.3	<u>28.8</u>
Totals	842		100.0

According to marginal row percentages in Table 9, 60% of the respondents are from Class B and Class C districts. Column percentages illustrate that 31% or most superintendents are from Class B districts, 33% or most board presidents are from Class C districts, and 31% or most school board members are from Class B districts.

Table 9. Personal Demographics: Distribution of Size by Respondent

	Count	SUPT.	B. PRES.	MEMBER	Row
	Col Pct	1	2	3	Total
CLASS A	1	56	54	42	152
		17.7	19.4	17.6	18.2
CLASS B	2	99	81	74	254
		31.2	29.0	31.0	30.4
CLASS C	3	90	92	67	249
		28.4	33.0	28.0	29.8
CLASS D	4	72	52	56	180
		22.7	18.6	23.4	21.6
Column		317	279	239	835
Total		38.0	33.4	28.6	100.0

Number of Missing Observations: 7

Table 10. Personal Demographics: Distribution of Location by Respondent

	Count	SUPT.	B. PRES.	MEMBER	Row
	Col Pct	1	2	3	Total
URBAN	1	10	3	2	15
		3.2	1.1	.9	1.9
SUBURBAN	2	68	65	55	188
		21.9	24.6	23.5	23.3
CITY/TOWN	3	78	101	90	269
		25.2	38.3	38.5	33.3
RURAL	4	154	95	87	336
		49.7	36.0	37.2	41.6
Column		310	264	234	808
Total		38.4	32.7	29.0	100.0

Number of Missing Observations: 34

From the column percentages in Table 10, 50% of superintendents are located in rural locations, while 38% of board presidents and 39% of board members are located either in small cities or towns.

Table 11. Personal Demographics: Crosstabulation of Years Served by Respondent

	Count						
	Row Pct	1 YEAR	2 TO 4	5 TO 8	9 TO 12	OVER 12	
	Col Pct	OR LESS	YEARS	YEARS	YEARS	YEARS	Row
	Residual	1	2	3	4	5	Total
	1	46	107	90	42	33	318
SUPERINTENDENT		14.5%	33.6%	28.3%	13.2%	10.4%	37.8%
		48.9%	44.4%	34.1%	33.1%	28.7%	
		10.5	15.9	-9.8	-6.0	-10.5	
	2	2	49	111	64	54	280
BOARD PRESIDENT		.7%	17.5%	39.6%	22.9%	19.3%	33.3%
		2.1%	20.3%	42.0%	50.4%	47.0%	
		-29.3	-31.2	23.1	21.7	15.7	
	3	46	85	63	21	28	243
BOARD MEMBER		18.9%	35.0%	25.9%	8.6%	11.5%	28.9%
		48.9%	35.3%	23.9%	16.5%	24.3%	
		18.8	15.4	-13.3	-15.7	-5.2	
	Column	94	241	264	127	115	841
	Total	11.2%	28.7%	31.4%	15.1%	13.7%	100.0%
Chi-Square		Value		DF		Significance	
Pearson		99.65739		8		.00000	
Likelihood Ratio		117.88583		8		.00000	
Cramer's V		.24341				.00000	
Minimum Expected Frequency -		27.161					
Number of Missing Observations:		1					

Marginal column percentages in Table 11 indicate that 31% of all respondents have 5 to 8 years in service. In analyzing row percentages, cell 1-2 shows that 34% of superintendent respondents have 2 to 4 service years in their district. Cell 2-3 describes 40% of board president as having 5 to 8 service years on the school board, while cell 3-2 specifies 35% of board member respondents as having 2 to

4 years of service on the school board. Higher than expected frequency counts or positive residuals of 10.5 and 15.9 are found in cells 1-1 and 1-2 which is interpreted to mean that superintendent respondents are more likely to have 4 years or less of service in their district. High positive residuals are also found in cells 2-3, 2-4, and 2-5 which is interpreted to mean that board president respondents are more likely to have 5 or more years of service on the school board. Lastly, high positive residuals are found in cells 3-1, and 3-2 which is interpreted to mean board member respondents are more likely to have 4 years or less of school board experience. The significance level of this test is less than .001 alpha.

Table 12. Personal Demographics: Distribution of Education Level by Respondent

	Count Col	Pct	SUPT 1	B. PRES 2	MEMBER 3	Row Total
HS DIPLOMA	1			88	94	182
				32.7	39.5	22.1
BACHELOR DEGREE	2			96	73	169
				35.7	30.7	20.5
MASTERS DEGREE	3		99	66	54	219
			31.3	24.5	22.7	26.6
ED SPECIALIST DEGREE	4		112			112
			35.4			13.6
DOCTORATE DEGREE	5		105	19	17	141
			33.2	7.1	7.1	17.1
Column			316	269	238	823
Total			38.4	32.7	28.9	100.0
Number of Missing Observations: 19						

According to column percentages in Table 12, superintendent respondents are almost equally divided between Masters, Educational

Specialist, and Doctorate levels of education. In addition, 36% of board president respondents have a Bachelor's Degree, 33% have a High School Diploma, 25% have a Master's Degree, and 7% hold a Doctorate. Forty percent of board members have a High School Diploma, 31% have a Bachelor's Degree, 23% have a Master's Degree and 7% hold a Doctorate.

Table 13. Personal Demographics: Distribution of 1992-93 District Funding Per Student by Respondent

	Count Col Pct	SUPT. 1	B. PRES. 2	MEMBER 3	Row Total
	1	2	8	12	22
\$3000 OR LESS		.6	3.0	5.3	2.7
	2	44	59	55	158
\$3001-3500		14.2	21.9	24.3	19.6
	3	112	84	51	247
\$3501-4000		36.1	31.1	22.6	30.6
	4	66	45	44	155
\$4001-4500		21.3	16.7	19.5	19.2
	5	27	27	23	77
\$4501-5000		8.7	10.0	10.2	9.6
	6	59	47	41	147
OVER \$5000		19.0	17.4	18.1	18.2
Column		310	270	226	806
Total		38.5	33.5	28.0	100.0
Number of Missing Observations: 36					

From the marginal row percentages in Table 13, 31% of respondents come from districts that have a 1992-93 funding level of \$3501-4000 per student. According to column percentages, 36% of superintendent respondents and 31% of board presidents are from districts with a \$3501-4000 category. Twenty-four percent of board member respondents come from districts with a \$3001-3500 category.

HYPOTHESES TESTING

The researcher's purpose in the hypotheses section of the study was to explore and to describe the school board situation in Michigan as it pertains to representation, role, decision process, organizational structure, and training. All of the hypotheses are stated in the null form for statistical purposes. Ten hypotheses were tested for retention or nonretention, using an alpha of .05 from three different tests of significance. Crosstabulation tests that achieved significance were eliminated as evidence if one open cell was found in a crosstabulation grid of less than 10 cells, or more than one open cell was found in any larger crosstabulation, or if more than 20% of the cells in each crosstabulation contained less than 5 expected frequencies. All criteria are presented with each crosstabulation.

The remaining sections of this chapter are divided by subtitles which are followed by significance tests that pertain to those areas of interest. Each hypothesis is restated within the appropriate section and followed by the results of significant testing. Each significance test is briefly described in relation to new information not found in previous tests.

MAIN VARIABLES

The main variables of data analysis in this chapter are representation, representational style, role, decision process, and organizational belief. The first hypothesis is structured to identify those categories used most in Michigan schools at the present time.

1. Hypothesis: There is no primary role, representation, organizational belief, or decision process that is identified by school board members, school board presidents, or superintendents.

According to marginal percentages found in the following tables, 60% of respondents chose Community interests as representation, 76% chose Trustee as representational style, 89% chose Legislative as board role, 25% chose a Traditional organizational belief, and 39% chose Approval as their decision process in a crucial situation. The hypothesis is not retained. However, sociological response bias may have been found on three occasions.

Table 14. Distribution of Board Representation by Respondent

	Count Col	Pct	SUPT. 1	B. PRES. 2	MEMBER 3	Row Total
STATE INTERESTS	1		3		3	6
			1.0		1.3	.7
COMMUNITY INTERESTS	2		191	159	135	485
			62.2	59.8	57.2	60.0
DISTRICT INTERESTS	3		112	107	97	316
			36.5	40.2	41.1	39.1
CONSTITUENCY INTERESTS	4		1		1	2
			.3		.4	.2
Column Total			307	266	236	809
			37.9	32.9	29.2	100.0

Number of Missing Observations: 33

According to the marginal row percentages in Table 14, Community interests and District interests are the two categories of representation used by school boards in Michigan. Sixty percent of all respondents favor Community interests as board representation. According to column percentages, 62% of superintendents believe school boards should represent Community interests, while 60% of board

presidents and 57% of school board members represent Community interests. If only grouped board opinion is considered, a separate calculation of the 294 board respondents who chose Community representation divided by the 502 total number of board respondents, shows that 59% of board respondents chose Community representation.

However, less than 10 responses were found in two categories. This can be interpreted in two ways. The responses are true or the question may have triggered a sociologically biased response. Respondents may have felt that it is not sociologically acceptable to represent State or Constituency interests.

The variable of Representation has been recoded in all future crosstabulations to delete the categories of State and Constituency in order to eliminate the outliers of 8 total responses found in these two categories.

According to the marginal row percentages in Table 15, a Trustee representational style is used by Michigan school boards. Seventy-six percent of all respondents choose Trustee. From column percentages, 75% of superintendents believe that a Trustee style is dominant on their boards when making significant, strategic decisions for their district. Seventy-seven percent of board presidents and 76% of board member believe that they use a Trustee representational style. If only grouped board opinion is considered, a separate calculation of the 377 board respondents who chose Trustee representational style divided by the 491 total number of board respondents, shows that 77% of board respondents chose a Trustee representational style.

Table 15. Distribution of Representational Style by Respondent

	Count Col Pct	SUPT.	B. PRES.	MEMBER	Row Total
		1	2	3	
TRUSTEE	1	222	201	176	599
		75.0	77.3	76.2	76.1
DELEGATE	2	74	59	55	188
		25.0	22.7	23.8	23.9
Column		296	260	231	787
Total		37.6	33.0	29.4	100.0
Number of Missing Observations: 55					

Table 16. Crosstabulation of Board Role by Respondent

	Count				
	Row Pct	SUPT.	PRES.	MEMBER	
	Col Pct				Row
	Residual	1	2	3	Total
		1	2	3	
LEGISLATIVE	1	294	244	199	737
		39.9%	33.1%	27.0%	89.3%
		93.6%	89.1%	84.0%	
		13.5	-.8	-12.7	
JUDICIAL	2	19	14	17	50
		38.0%	28.0%	34.0%	6.1%
		6.1%	5.1%	7.2%	
		.0	-2.6	2.6	
ADMINISTRATIVE	3	1	16	21	38
		2.6%	42.1%	55.3%	4.6%
		.3%	5.8%	8.9%	
		-13.5	3.4	10.1	
Column		314	274	237	825
Total		38.1%	33.2%	28.7%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	25.06014	4	.00005
Likelihood Ratio	32.03832	4	.00000
Cramer's V	.12324		.00005
Minimum Expected Frequency - 10.916			
Number of Missing Observations: 17			

In Table 16, the Legislative role received the highest marginal row percentage of 89%. A column percentage of 94% in cell 1-1 shows that superintendents believe that Legislative or policy making is the school board's primary role. Column percentages of 89% in cell 1-2 for board presidents and 84% in cell 1-3 for board members describe board respondents as indicating a primarily Legislative or policy making role. If only grouped board opinion is considered, a separate calculation of the 443 board respondents who chose Legislative role divided by the 511 total number of board respondents, shows that 87% of board respondents chose a Legislative role. However, higher than expected counts or residuals of 3.4 in cell 3-2 describes some board presidents as more likely to assume an Administrative role. Residuals of 2.6 and 10.1 in cells 2-3 and 3-3 respectively, describe some board members as likely to assume Judicial or Administrative roles. The highest grid residual of 13.5 in cell 1-1 indicates that superintendents may be more likely to support a Legislative role for school boards than either of the other two groups. The significance level of this test is less than .001 alpha.

However, this vast majority of positive response to the Legislative role might be considered suspect. The results can be interpreted in two ways. The responses are true or the question may have triggered a sociologically biased response. Question 16 may have triggered sociological bias with the use of the word "policy" in the legislative category. It is assumed that school boards and superintendents are very aware that "policy" is supposed to be the board function and equally aware that judicial or administrative roles are not accepted

board functions. This usage and subsequent bias may be why the majority of answers are found in the legislative category. Recoding is used in further Superintendent crosstabulations to eliminate the "1" outlier in the administrative category in the superintendent data file.

Table 17. Distribution of Organizational Belief by Respondent

	Count Col	Pct	SUPT. 1	B. PRES. 2	MEMBER 3	Row Total
LEGAL-RATIONAL	1	18	15	16	49	6.8
		6.5	6.4	7.5		
HUMAN RESOURCES	2	49	25	26	100	13.9
		17.8	10.6	12.3		
TRADITIONAL	3	66	59	52	177	24.5
		24.0	25.1	24.5		
SITE-BASED MGT	4	13	6	5	24	3.3
		4.7	2.6	2.4		
POLITICAL	5	29	28	23	80	11.1
		10.5	11.9	10.8		
SYSTEMS	6	33	43	28	104	14.4
		12.0	18.3	13.2		
SYMBOLIC	7	19	8	18	45	6.2
		6.9	3.4	8.5		
CONTINGENCY	8	48	51	44	143	19.8
		17.5	21.7	20.8		
Column Total		275	235	212	722	100.0
		38.1	32.5	29.4		

Number of Missing Observations: 120

The marginal row percentages in Table 17, show a wide range of organizational structures used in Michigan schools. Twenty-five percent of all respondents choose a Traditional organizational belief. According to the column percentages found in row 3, approximately 25% of all sample groups favor Traditional organizational structure. If only

grouped board opinion is considered, a separate calculation of the 111 board respondents who chose Traditional organizational belief divided by the 447 total number of board respondents, shows that 25% of board respondents chose a Traditional organizational belief. Marginal row percentages also display 20% response for Contingency, 14% for Systems, and 14% for Human Resource structures as next in order of usage. Site-based management seems to be the least chosen organizational structure with a row marginal percentage of 3.3. However, Site-based management is a type of Human Resource organizational structure. If one only considers true organizational structures in a theoretical sense, then site based management might be added to the human resource organizational values. Once recoded, the Human Resource choice becomes stronger and becomes the third overall choice.

Organizational Belief received unsolicited comment and 120 people or 14.2% of the total sample did not answer the question. Some possibilities exist for this reaction to this question. Sociological bias may be present as respondents were asked to answer a question which they may have perceived as threatening or, if answered, politically damaging. Respondents may have felt that there might be some repercussion in admitting that their organizational structure had negatives. Some respondents may not have realized that there are negatives in all organizational structures. Respondents might have preferred to believe that there are no negatives in their school district's organizational structure. They may have believed the researcher was attempting to find fault with their school system rather than asking a straightforward question.

Test frustration also may have been present since it is possible that the respondents may not have had prior training in organizational structure. A crosstabulation of the missing answers from organizational structure by the variable of organizational training shows that 59 of the 120 people who did not answer this question have not had previous training in organizational structure.

		ORGANIZATIONAL TRAINING				Row
Count	Row Pct	YES:		NO:		
		ORG TRG		ORG TRG		
		1		2	Total	
-----+-----+-----+-----+						
	1	48		59	107	
SYSMIS		44.9		55.1	100.0	
ON Q22		+-----+-----+-----+				
	Column	48		59	107	
	Total	44.9		55.1	100.0	

Number of Missing Observations: 735

Therefore 61 people or 7% of the total sample did have previous training and may have had other reasons for not answering. This may have included bias.

In Table 18, the marginal row percentages indicate that 39% of all respondents use an Approval decision process in crucial situations. High column percentages show that 35% of superintendents in cell 4-1, 39% of board presidents in cell 4-2, and 42% of board members in cell 4-3 chose Approval. Rational decision ranked second with a 30% marginal row percentage, while Political decision ranked third with a 15% marginal row percentage. Satisficing and Analysis decision processes ranked fourth and fifth with marginal row percentages of 11% and 6% respectively. If only grouped board opinion is considered, a separate calculation of the 206 board respondents who chose an Approval decision process divided by the 509 total number of board respondents, shows that 40% of board respondents chose an Approval decision process.

Table 18. Crosstabulation of Decision Process by Respondent

	Count				
	Row Pct	SUPT.	B. PRES.	MEMBER	
	Col Pct				Row
	Residual	1	2	3	Total
	1	79	90	76	245
RATIONAL		32.2%	36.7%	31.0%	30.1%
		25.9%	33.0%	32.2%	
		-12.8	7.8	5.0	
	2	47	24	22	93
SATISFICING		50.5%	25.8%	23.7%	11.4%
		15.4%	8.8%	9.3%	
		12.2	-7.2	-5.0	
	3	66	33	19	118
POLITICAL		55.9%	28.0%	16.1%	14.5%
		21.6%	12.1%	8.1%	
		21.8	-6.6	-15.2	
	4	107	107	99	313
APPROVAL		34.2%	34.2%	31.6%	38.5%
		35.1%	39.2%	41.9%	
		-10.3	2.0	8.3	
	5	6	19	20	45
ANALYSIS		13.3%	42.2%	44.4%	5.5%
		2.0%	7.0%	8.5%	
		-10.9	3.9	7.0	
	Column	305	273	236	814
	Total	37.5%	33.5%	29.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	41.68405	8	.00000
Likelihood Ratio	43.20912	8	.00000
Cramer's V	.16001		.00000
Minimum Expected Frequency - 13.047			
Number of Missing Observations: 28			

However, a combination of high row percentages and positive residuals may indicate other choices per group. High row percentages and positive residuals in cells 1-2 and 5-2 suggest that some board presidents may believe their boards are primarily using a Rational or Analysis decision process. A high row percentage of 44% and positive residual of 7.0 in cell 5-3 and a positive residual of 8.3 in cell 5-4 from the board member column suggest that some board members are more likely to believe that their boards use an Analysis or Approval decision process. On the other hand, high row percents of 51% and 56% with the highest grid positive residuals of 12.2 and 21.8 respectively in cells 2-1 and 3-1 indicate that some superintendents are more likely to identify their board decision process as Political or Satisficing. The significance level of this test is less than .001 alpha.

DEMOGRAPHIC RELATIONSHIP

The second hypothesis is structured to identify any possible relationships between the main variables and the demographic variables of class size, location, service years, education level and funding.

2. Hypothesis: There are no significant relationships between the demographic variables and the four factors of decision process, role, organizational belief, and representation as perceived by school board members and school board presidents and superintendents.

Relationships were found between demographic variables and the main variables of representation, representational style, role, and decision process. Table 19, 20, 21, and 22 show significant relationships between the main variables and demographic variables of class size, service years, and education. Although the demographic variables of location and funding were found to be significant, these

tests did not stand up to further criteria. Therefore, the hypothesis is not retained for the demographic variables of class size, service years, and education. But, it is retained for location and funding variables.

The Approval decision process remains the majority choice in Table 19, among matched respondents from all three sample groups from the same district. A high row percentage of 44%, a high column percentage of 36%, and a positive residual of 6.1 in cell 2-4 also indicate that Class B districts are more likely to have an Approval decision process than other sized districts. A column percentage of 45% and higher than expected frequency residuals of 7.8 in cell 1-3 indicate that Class A districts may be more likely to have a Political decision process. Class D districts with a high column percentage of 44% and a high residual of 7.2 in cell 4-2 are more likely to have a Satisficing decision process. Although the data pattern for Class C districts is difficult to interpret in respect to positive usage, a low row percentage of 7%, a low column percentage of 11% and less than expected observations or negative residuals of -5.6 in cell 3-3 point out that Class C districts are least likely to use a Political decision process. The significance level of this test is less than .001 alpha.

Table 19. Crosstabulation of Decision Process by Class Size from all Matched District Respondent Data

		Count						
		Row Pct	RATIONAL	SATISFIC	POLITIC	APPROVAL	ANALYSIS	Row
		Col Pct						Total
		Residual	1	2	3	4	5	
CLASS A	1		20	6	17	15	1	59
			33.9%	10.2%	28.8%	25.4%	1.7%	24.1%
			26.7%	18.8%	44.7%	17.0%	8.3%	
			1.9	-1.7	7.8	-6.2	-1.9	
CLASS B	2		22	1	12	32	5	72
			30.6%	1.4%	16.7%	44.4%	6.9%	29.4%
			29.3%	3.1%	31.6%	36.4%	41.7%	
			.0	-8.4	.8	6.1	1.5	
CLASS C	3		21	11	4	22	4	62
			33.9%	17.7%	6.5%	35.5%	6.5%	25.3%
			28.0%	34.4%	10.5%	25.0%	33.3%	
			2.0	2.9	-5.6	-.3	1.0	
CLASS D	4		12	14	5	19	2	52
			23.1%	26.9%	9.6%	36.5%	3.8%	21.2%
			16.0%	43.8%	13.2%	21.6%	16.7%	
			-3.9	7.2	-3.1	.3	-.5	
Column			75	32	38	88	12	245
Total			30.6%	13.1%	15.5%	35.9%	4.9%	100.0%
Chi-Square			Value		DF		Significance	
Pearson			34.75503		12		.00051	
Likelihood Ratio			37.94077		12		.00016	
Cramer's V			.21745				.00051	
Minimum Expected Frequency -			2.547					
Cells with Expected Frequency < 5 -					4 OF	20 (20.0%)		
Number of Missing Observations:			13					

Table 20. Crosstabulation of Representational Style by Service Years from Board Member Data

	Count						
Row Pct		1 YEAR	2 TO 4	5 TO 8	9 TO 12	OVER 12	
Col Pct		OR LESS	YEARS	YEARS	YEARS	YEARS	
Residual		1	2	3	4	5	Total
	1	39	67	40	13	17	176
TRUSTEE		22.2%	38.1%	22.7%	7.4%	9.7%	76.2%
		90.7%	81.7%	67.8%	65.0%	63.0%	
		6.2	4.5	-5.0	-2.2	-3.6	
	2	4	15	19	7	10	55
DELEGATE		7.3%	27.3%	34.5%	12.7%	18.2%	23.8%
		9.3%	18.3%	32.2%	35.0%	37.0%	
		-6.2	-4.5	5.0	2.2	3.6	
Column		43	82	59	20	27	231
Total		18.6%	35.5%	25.5%	8.7%	11.7%	100.0%
Chi-Square		Value		DF		Significance	
Pearson		12.64074		4		.01317	
Likelihood Ratio		13.29080		4		.00994	
Cramer's V		.23393				.01317	
Minimum Expected Frequency -		4.762					
Cells with Expected Frequency < 5 -				1 OF	10 (10.0%)		
Number of Missing Observations:		12					

In Table 20, a high row percentage of 38%, a high column percentage of 82%, and a positive residual of 4.5 in cell 1-2 indicate that board members who have 2 to 4 service years are more likely to have a Trustee representational style. However, higher than expected observations or positive residuals display a pattern along rows. Residuals in cells 1-1 and 1-2 show that board members with 4 service years or less are more likely to be Trustees. Positive residuals in cells 2-3, 2-4, 2-5 indicate that some board members with more than 5 service years are more likely to be Delegates.

Table 21. Crosstabulation of Representation (Recoded for outliers) by Education from Superintendent Data

		Count			
Row Pct		MASTERS	ED.S	DOCTORATE	
Col Pct		DEGREE	DEGREE	DEGREE	Row
Residual		1	2	3	Total
COMMUNITY INTERESTS	1	68	68	54	190
		35.8%	35.8%	28.4%	63.1%
		73.1%	62.4%	54.5%	
		9.3	-.8	-8.5	
DISTRICT INTERESTS	2	25	41	45	111
		22.5%	36.9%	40.5%	36.9%
		26.9%	37.6%	45.5%	
		-9.3	.8	8.5	
Column		93	109	99	301
Total		30.9%	36.2%	32.9%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	7.14600	2	.02807
Likelihood Ratio	7.25715	2	.02655
Cramer's V	.15408		.02807
Minimum Expected Frequency - 34.296			
Number of Missing Observations: 17			

In Table 21, a high column percentage of 73% and higher than expected responses or residuals of 9.3 in cell 1-1 describe superintendents that have a Master's Degree education level as more likely to believe that school boards should represent the Community. A high row percentage of 41% and a high residual of 8.5 in cell 2-3 show that superintendents with a Doctoral education level are more likely to support a position that school boards should represent District interests.

Table 22. Crosstabulation of Role by Education from Grouped Board Data

		Count					
Row Pct	Col Pct	HS	BACHELOR	MASTERS	DOCTORATE	Row	
	Residual	DIPLOMA	DEGREE	DEGREE	DEGREE	Total	
		1	2	3	5		
LEGISLATIVE	1	143	154	103	28	428	
		33.4%	36.0%	24.1%	6.5%	86.6%	
		80.3%	91.7%	89.6%	84.8%		
		-11.2	8.4	3.4	-.6		
JUDICIAL	2	12	7	6	4	29	
		41.4%	24.1%	20.7%	13.8%	5.9%	
		6.7%	4.2%	5.2%	12.1%		
		1.6	-2.9	-.8	2.1		
ADMINISTRATIVE	3	23	7	6	1	37	
		62.2%	18.9%	16.2%	2.7%	7.5%	
		12.9%	4.2%	5.2%	3.0%		
		9.7	-5.6	-2.6	-1.5		
Column		178	168	115	33	494	
Total		36.0%	34.0%	23.3%	6.7%	100.0%	
Chi-Square		Value		DF		Significance	
Pearson		15.93001		6		.01413	
Likelihood Ratio		15.07497		6		.01968	
Cramer's V		.12698				.01413	
Minimum Expected Frequency -		1.937					
Cells with Expected Frequency < 5 -				2 OF		12 (16.7%)	
Number of Missing Observations:		30					

Legislative role is the majority choice. In Table 22, a high row percentage of 36%, a high column percentage of 91%, and a positive residual of 8.4 in cell 1-2 indicate that board presidents and members who have a Bachelors Degree are more likely to take on a Legislative role. However, a high row percentage of 62% and high grid residual of 9.7 in cell 3-1 suggest that some presidents and board members who have a High School Diploma are more likely to assume an Administrative role.

ORGANIZATIONAL BELIEF, DECISION PROCESS, AND CHANGE

The two hypotheses in this section were structured to investigate the variables of organizational structure and decision process. The intention was to find out if there is a relationship between these two variables and what connection there may be to change.

3. Hypothesis: There is no significant relationship between the two factors of decision process, and organizational belief in the perceptions of school board members, school board presidents, and superintendents.

Crosstabulation tests were run on the two variables of decision process and organizational belief. In seven files, tests were found to be significant at the .05, .01, and .001 alpha levels. However only one test met the researcher's criteria for this dissertation. Since all of the crosstabulations contained a large number of cells, the number of observations per cell as well as row and column percentages tended to be lower. Some grids contained open cells. Significance tests were found to be stronger when the larger groups of data were used. The strongest test is presented in Table 23 and contains one open cell in a grid of 40 cells. However, the percentage of cells with expected frequency of less than 5 was 15% and within the criteria. The null hypothesis is not retained.

In Table 23, cell 3-4 contains a high row percentage of 45%, a high column percentage of 29%, and higher than expected frequencies or residuals of 11.8 which shows that the Approval decision process is more likely to be used with a Traditional organizational belief. Cell 8-1 contains a high row percent of 44%, a high column percentage of 30%, and the highest grid residual of 20.7 which shows that the Rational decision process is more likely used with a Contingency organizational

belief. There is also good evidence that the Rational decision process is likely used with a Systems organizational belief due to a high row percentage of 43% and a high residual of 13.6 found in cell 6-1. The significance level of this test which is suggestive evidence for an association between decision process and organizational structure is less than .001 alpha. A recoded version of this test which places the category of Site-based management data into its parent organizational structure of Human Resource is found in the appendix.

4. Hypothesis: School board members, board presidents, and superintendents do not desire a change in the decision process or in the organizational structural belief that they currently use.

In order to investigate this hypothesis of desired change, the variables of Preferred decision process and Preferred organizational belief were each crosstabulated by all respondents in order to determine the overall and individual opinion of each group. A marginal row percentage in Table 24 illustrates that a majority of 46% of all respondents as one group do not desire change in the Decision process. Likewise a marginal row percentage in Table 25 shows that a 46% majority of all respondents do not desire a change in their district's Organizational belief. On surface inspection, it would seem that the hypothesis could not be retained. However individual column percentages suggest that this is not the case for individual sample groups.

In Table 24, column percentages in row 6 show that 47% of superintendents, 50% of board presidents and 40% of board members who responded do not desire a change in their decision process. Therefore, the hypothesis is not retained for board presidents on the variable of

Table 24. Crosstabulation of Preferred Decision Process by Respondent

	Count				
	Row Pct	SUPT.	B. PRES.	MEMBER	
	Col Pct				Row
	Residual	1	2	3	Total
RATIONAL	1	86	54	64	204
		42.2%	26.5%	31.4%	26.0%
		29.5%	20.4%	27.9%	
		10.2	-14.8	4.6	
SATISFICING	2	13	11	7	31
		41.9%	35.5%	22.6%	3.9%
		4.5%	4.2%	3.1%	
		1.5	.5	-2.0	
POLITICAL	3	5	7	8	20
		25.0%	35.0%	40.0%	2.5%
		1.7%	2.6%	3.5%	
		-2.4	.3	2.2	
APPROVAL	4	10	3	4	17
		58.8%	17.6%	23.5%	2.2%
		3.4%	1.1%	1.7%	
		3.7	-2.7	-1.0	
ANALYSIS	5	40	58	55	153
		26.1%	37.9%	35.9%	19.5%
		13.7%	21.9%	24.0%	
		-16.8	6.4	10.4	
NO CHANGE	6	138	132	91	361
		38.2%	36.6%	25.2%	45.9%
		47.3%	49.8%	39.7%	
		3.9	10.3	-14.2	
Column		292	265	229	786
Total		37.2%	33.7%	29.1%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
-----	-----	-----	-----
Pearson	21.94706	10	.01538
Likelihood Ratio	22.59641	10	.01234
Cramer's V	.11816		.01538
Minimum Expected Frequency - 4.953			
Cells with Expected Frequency < 5 -		1 OF	18 (5.6%)
Number of Missing Observations: 56			

decision process. It is not retained for 53% of superintendents and 60% of board members who do desire a change in their decision process. High residuals in each column also show individual group preferences in Table 24. A high residual of 10.2 in cell 1-1 indicates that superintendents are more likely to prefer a Rational decision process. A high residual of 10.4 in cell 5-3 suggests that board members are more likely to prefer an Analysis decision process. A high residual of 10.3 in cell 6-2 shows that board presidents are more likely not to prefer a change in the decision process.

In Table 25, column percentages in row 9 indicate that 40% of superintendents, 49% of board presidents, and 50% of board members do not desire a change in their organizational belief. Therefore, the hypothesis is retained for board members. It is not retained for the 60% of superintendents and 51% of board presidents who would like to change their organizational belief and thereby change the organizational structure of their district. Of those respondents who do desire a change in their organizational belief, Table 25 indicates that 19% of respondents would like to change to Contingency, 18% to Systems, 8% to Site-based management, 3% to Human resource, 2% to Legal-rational, 2% to Political, 1% to Traditional, and less than 1% to Symbolic organizational structures.

Table 25. Distribution of Preferred Organizational Belief by Respondent

Count		SUPT. B. PRES. MEMBER			Row Total
Col	Pct	1	2	3	
-----		+	-----	+	-----
1		5	7	2	14
LEGAL-RATIONAL		2.1	3.4	1.1	2.2
-----		+	-----	+	-----
2		7	5	7	19
HUMAN RESOURCES		2.9	2.5	3.8	3.0
-----		+	-----	+	-----
3		1	1	5	7
TRADITIONAL		.4	.5	2.7	1.1
-----		+	-----	+	-----
4		23	16	12	51
SITE-BASED MGT		9.5	7.8	6.5	8.1
-----		+	-----	+	-----
5		3	4	8	15
POLITICAL		1.2	2.0	4.3	2.4
-----		+	-----	+	-----
6		49	31	30	110
SYSTEMS		20.2	15.2	16.3	17.5
-----		+	-----	+	-----
7		4		1	5
SYMBOLIC		1.7		.5	.8
-----		+	-----	+	-----
8		54	40	28	122
CONTINGENCY		22.3	19.6	15.2	19.4
-----		+	-----	+	-----
9		96	100	91	287
NO CHANGE		39.7	49.0	49.5	45.6
-----		+	-----	+	-----
Column		242	204	184	630
Total		38.4	32.4	29.2	100.0

Number of Missing Observations: 212

However, since there seems to be strong opposition to change, what kinds of decision processes and organizational beliefs are these "no change" respondents currently using?

Table 26. Distribution of Decision Process by "No Change" in Preferred Decision Process from all Respondent Data

Count		RATIONAL SATISFIC POLITIC APPROVAL ANALYSIS					Row Total
Row	Pct	1	2	3	4	5	
PREFER	6	172	20	27	102	34	355
NO CHANGE IN		48.5	5.6	7.6	28.7	9.6	100.0
DECISION PROCESS							
Column		172	20	27	102	34	355
Total		48.5	5.6	7.6	28.7	9.6	100.0

Number of Missing Observations: 487

Table 26 shows a distribution of the "no change" category from the variable of Preferred decision process by the variable of current Decision process. Row percentages show that 49% of all respondents that do not want to change their decision process currently use a Rational decision process. Twenty-nine percent of these respondents currently use an Approval decision process. Ten percent of respondents use an Analysis decision process. Eight percent use a Political decision process, and 6% use a Satisficing decision process.

Similarly, Table 27 displays a distribution of the "no change" category from the variable of Preferred organizational belief by the variable of current Organizational belief. Row percentages illustrate that 34% of all respondents that do not want to change their organizational belief currently use a Contingency organizational belief.

Table 27. Distribution of Organizational Belief by "No Change" in Preferred Organizational Belief from all Respondent Data

	Count Row Pct	LEGAL-	HUMAN	TRADITION	SITE-	POLITICAL	Row Total
		RATIONAL 1	RESOURCE 2	3	BASED MGT 4	5	
PREFER							
NO CHANGE	9	16	31	28	13	11	266
IN ORGANIZATIONAL BELIEF		6.0	11.7	10.5	4.9	4.1	100.0
Column		16	31	28	13	11	266
(Continued) Total		6.0	11.7	10.5	4.9	4.1	100.0

	Count Row Pct	SYSTEMS	SYMBOLIC	CONTINGENCY	Row Total
		6	7	8	
PREFER					
NO CHANGE	9	75	3	89	266
IN ORGANIZATIONAL BELIEF		28.2	1.1	33.5	100.0
Column		75	3	89	266
Total		28.2	1.1	33.5	100.0

Number of Missing Observations: 576

Twenty-eight percent of these respondents currently use the Systems belief structure. Twelve percent of respondents use a Human Resource structure. Eleven percent use a Traditional structure, and 6% use a Legal-Rational belief structure. Less than 5% of respondents who do not desire a change in their organizational belief are currently using Site-Based Management, Political, or Symbolic organizational belief structures.

In an attempt to gauge the desirability or undesirability of Change, the variables of Preferred decision process and Preferred organizational belief were recoded to reflect a "yes change" category to add to the established "no change" category. The results of crosstabulating these two recoded variables are displayed in Table 28.

Table 28. Crosstabulation of Categories "Yes/No Change" in Preferred Decision Process by Categories "Yes/No Change" in Preferred Organization Belief from all Respondent Data.

	Count	NO	YES	
Row Pct		DECISION	DECISION	
Col Pct		CHANGE	CHANGE	Row
Residual		6	7	Total
	9	191	92	283
NO ORGANIZ		67.5%	32.5%	45.9%
CHANGE		70.7%	26.5%	
		67.2	-67.2	
	10	79	255	334
YES ORGANIZ		23.7%	76.3%	54.1%
CHANGE		29.3%	73.5%	
		-67.2	67.2	
Column		270	347	617
Total		43.8%	56.2%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	119.62877	1	.00000
Continuity Correction	117.85412	1	.00000
Likelihood Ratio	123.33871	1	.00000
Cramer's V	.44033		.00000
Minimum Expected Frequency - 123.841			
Number of Missing Observations: 225			

The row marginal percentages in Table 28, show that 54% of these respondents prefer some sort of organizational change and the column marginals show that 56% want some sort of decision process change. Further extremely strong evidence is displayed in two cells. A row percentage of 76%, a column percentage of 74%, and an extremely high residual of 67.2 in cell 10-7 show that those respondents who want a decision change are very likely to desire a change in their organizational belief. Likewise, the opposing cell 9-6 contains strong evidence of a row percentage of 68%, a column percentage of 71%, and a high residual of 67.2 which indicate that respondents who do not desire a change in their decision process are not very likely to want a change

Table 29 shows that the majority of all respondents would like additional information about decision processes according to the marginal

Table 29. Crosstabulation of Request for Additional Decision Information by Respondent

	Count				
	Row Pct	SUPT.	B. PRES.	MEMBER	
	Col Pct				Row
	Residual	1	2	3	Total
	1	169	170	162	501
YES:		33.7%	33.9%	32.3%	63.9%
ADDITIONAL		56.9%	65.9%	70.7%	
DECISION INFO		-20.8	5.1	15.7	
	2	128	88	67	283
NO:		45.2%	31.1%	23.7%	36.1%
ADDITIONAL		43.1%	34.1%	29.3%	
DECISION INFO		20.8	-5.1	-15.7	
	Column	297	258	229	784
	Total	37.9%	32.9%	29.2%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	11.39621	2	.00335
Likelihood Ratio	11.40066	2	.00334
Cramer's V	.12057		.00335
Minimum Expected Frequency -	82.662		
Number of Missing Observations:	58		

row percentage of 64%. However a row percentage of 45% and a high residual of 20.8 in cell 2-1 indicate that superintendents are more likely not to want additional decision process information. On the other hand, a high column percentage of 71% and a high residual of 15.7 in cell 1-3 illustrate that board members are more likely to want additional decision process information than other respondents. The significance level of this test is less than .01 alpha.

Likewise, Table 30 shows that the majority of all respondents would like additional information about decision processes according to a marginal row percentage of 65%. However a row percentage of 45% and a high residual of 19.8 in cell 2-1 indicate that some superintendents

Table 30. Crosstabulation of Request for Additional Organization Information by Respondent

	Count Row Pct Col Pct Residual	SUPT. 1	B. PRES. 2	MEMBER 3	Row Total
	-----+-----+-----+-----+				
	1	170	171	162	503
YES:		33.8%	34.0%	32.2%	65.0%
ADDITIONAL		58.2%	66.3%	72.3%	
ORGANIZATION		-19.8	3.3	16.4	
INFO		-----+-----+-----+-----+			
	2	122	87	62	271
NO:		45.0%	32.1%	22.9%	35.0%
ADDITIONAL		41.8%	33.7%	27.7%	
ORGANIZATION		19.8	-3.3	-16.4	
INFO		-----+-----+-----+-----+			
Column		292	258	224	774
Total		37.7%	33.3%	28.9%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
-----	-----	-----	-----
Pearson	11.36296	2	.00341
Likelihood Ratio	11.41778	2	.00332
Cramer's V	.12116		.00341
Minimum Expected Frequency - 78.429			
Number of Missing Observations: 68			

are more likely not to want additional organization information. On the other hand, a high column percentage of 72% and a high residual of 16.4 in cell 1-3 describe board members as the most likely of the three groups to want organizational information. The significance level of this test is less than .01 alpha.

REPRESENTATION, ROLE, AND AGREEMENT

The hypotheses in this section were structured to identify any possible relationships between all the main variables of representation, representational style, role, organizational structure and decision process. In testing four hypotheses, tests on two hypotheses were not found to be significant at all. Partial significance was found in testing two other hypotheses. Notably, more crosstabulations were found to be significant in relation to the main variables of representation and role than any other of the main variables.

5. Hypothesis: There is no significant relationship between the two factors of decision process, and representation in the perceptions of school board members, school board presidents, and superintendents.

No tests of significance were found among eight data files that achieved less than either the .10 or .05 alpha. The null hypothesis was retained.

6. Hypothesis: There is no significant relationship between the two factors of decision process, and role in the perceptions of school board members, school board presidents, and superintendents.

No tests of significance were found among eight data files that achieved less than either the .10 or .05 alpha. The null hypothesis was retained.

7. Hypothesis: There are no significant relationships among the four factors of role, decision process, organizational belief, and representation in the perceptions of school board members, school board presidents and superintendents.

Although significant association was found between decision process by organizations belief, see Table 23, no significant associations that withstood the criteria of this dissertation were found between decision process by representation, role, or representational style. Likewise no significant associations that withstood the criteria were found between organizational belief by representation, role, or representational style. However significant associations were found between representation by representational style, and representation by role. Since significant associations were found between some of the main variables, the hypothesis was not retained for role by representation as well as decision process by organizational structure.

In Table 31, Row percentages of 68% and 87% in column 1 show that board member Trustees can either represent the Community or the District. However, a column percentage of 77% and a higher than expected frequency residual of 10.3 in cell 2-2 indicate that board members who are Delegates are more likely to represent the Community. The significance of this test of association between the variables of Representation and Representational Style is less than .01 alpha.

In Table 32, a row percentages of 82%, a column percentage of 65%, and a positive residual of 7.4 in cell 2-1 describe board president Trustees as representing Community interests. A column percentage of 53% and a residual of 7.4 in cell 3-2 indicate that board presidents who use a Delegate representational style are more likely to represent their District. This is an opposite finding from the previous Table 31.

Table 31. Crosstabulation of Representation by Representational Style from Board Member Data

	Count	TRUSTEE DELEGATE		
	Row Pct			
	Col Pct			Row
	Residual	1	2	Total
	2	87	41	128
COMMUNITY INTERESTS		68.0%	32.0%	57.9%
		51.8%	77.4%	
		-10.3	10.3	
	3	81	12	93
DISTRICT INTERESTS		87.1%	12.9%	42.1%
		48.2%	22.6%	
		10.3	-10.3	
	Column	168	53	221
	Total	76.0%	24.0%	100.0%
Chi-Square		Value	DF	Significance
Pearson		10.81036	1	.00101
Continuity Correction		9.78659	1	.00176
Likelihood Ratio		11.42127	1	.00073
Cramer's V		.22117		.00101
Minimum Expected Frequency - 22.303 Number of Missing Observations: 22				

Table 32. Crosstabulation of Representation by Representational Style from Board President Data

	Count	TRUSTEE DELEGATE		
	Row Pct			
	Col Pct			Row
	Residual	1	2	Total
	2	122	27	149
COMMUNITY INTERESTS		81.9%	18.1%	60.3%
		64.2%	47.4%	
		7.4	-7.4	
	3	68	30	98
DISTRICT INTERESTS		69.4%	30.6%	39.7%
		35.8%	52.6%	
		-7.4	7.4	
	Column	190	57	247
	Total	76.9%	23.1%	100.0%
Chi-Square		Value	DF	Significance
Pearson		5.19644	1	.02263
Continuity Correction		4.51658	1	.03357
Likelihood Ratio		5.11244	1	.02376
Cramer's V		.14505		.02263
Minimum Expected Frequency -22.615 Number of Missing Observations: 34				

Tables 31 and 32 are interpreted as significant for their particular populations.

Table 33. Crosstabulation of Role by Representation from Board President Data

		Count				
		Row Pct	LEGISLAT	JUDICIAL	ADMINIST	
		Col Pct				Row
		Residual	1	2	3	Total
		-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	
COMMUNITY INTERESTS	2	146	10	1	157	
		93.0%	6.4%	.6%	59.5%	
		61.9%	76.9%	6.7%		
		5.7	2.3	-7.9		
		+-----+	+-----+	+-----+	+-----+	
DISTRICT INTERESTS	3	90	3	14	107	
		84.1%	2.8%	13.1%	40.5%	
		38.1%	23.1%	93.3%		
		-5.7	-2.3	7.9		
		+-----+	+-----+	+-----+	+-----+	
Column		236	13	15	264	
Total		89.4%	4.9%	5.7%	100.0%	
Chi-Square		Value	DF		Significance	
-----		-----	-----		-----	
Pearson		19.55580	2		.00006	
Likelihood Ratio		21.31163	2		.00002	
Cramer's V		.27217			.00006	
Minimum Expected Frequency -		5.269				
Number of Missing Observations:		17				

In Table 33, row percentages of 93% and 84% in column 1 show that board presidents who believe their role to be Legislative can represent the Community or the District. A column percentage of 62% and a positive residual of 5.7 in cell 2-1 indicate that board presidents who have a Legislative role are more likely to represent the Community. A column percentage of 77% and a positive residual of 2.3 in cell 2-2 suggest that board presidents who believe they have a Judicial role are more likely to represent the Community. However a column percentage of 93% and the highest grid residual of 7.9 in cell 3-3 suggest that board presidents who believe they have an Administrative

function are more likely to represent the District. The significance level for this association between role and representation is less than .001 alpha.

8. Hypothesis: There are no significant relationships between the perceptions of school board presidents, and superintendents from the same district on the four factors of role, representation, organizational belief, and decision process.

This hypothesis was structured to investigate the possibility of agreement between superintendents and board presidents from the same district. In order to determine significant agreement, a matched file of superintendent and board president respondents from the same district was produced from the raw data. Within the matched file, each pair of responses was coded 1 for agree and 2 for disagree for five main variables. These agreement variables were then crosstabulated with the five main variables. Significance tests that withstood the criteria were found between agreement variables and the main variables of representation and representational style. Therefore, the hypothesis is not retained for the variable of representation. Significance tests on variables of role, organizational belief and decision process did not withstand the criteria and the hypothesis is retained for those variables. Other tests of significance and interest that concern agreement are included in this section.

Table 34 shows that 176 district superintendents and their 176 board presidents were included in the significance testing for this hypothesis.

Table 34. Frequency of Matched Superintendent and President Responses

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
SUPERINTENDENT	1	176	50.0	50.0	50.0
PRESIDENT	2	176	50.0	50.0	100.0
		-----	-----	-----	
	Total	352	100.0	100.0	

Valid cases	352	Missing cases	0
-------------	-----	---------------	---

Table 35. Multi-frequencies of Agreement on Main Variables from Matched Superintendent and President Data

Category label	Code	Count	Pct of Responses	Pct of Cases
AGREE ON REPRESENTATION	1	172	20.8	50.6
AGREE ON BOARD ROLE	2	294	35.5	86.5
AGREE ON REPRESENTATIONAL STYLE	3	226	27.3	66.5
AGREE ON DECISION PROCESS	4	88	10.6	25.9
AGREE ON ORGANIZATIONAL BELIEF	5	48	5.8	14.1
		-----	-----	-----
	Total responses	828	100.0	243.5

12 missing cases; 340 valid cases

Table 35 displays the positive agreement of superintendents and board presidents on each of the five main variables. Eighty-seven percent of matched superintendents and board presidents agreed on board role, 67% agreed on representational style, 51% agreed on board representation, and 26% agreed on the decision process they use in a crucial situation. Only 14% agreed on the variable of organizational belief.

In Table 36, row 2 percentages are split equally between Community and District representation when superintendents and board

Table 36. Crosstabulation of Agreement on Representation by Representation from Matched Superintendent and President Data.

Count	REPRESENTATION:		
Row Pct	COMMUNITY DISTRICT		
Col Pct	INTEREST	INTEREST	Row
Residual	2	3	Total
-----+-----+-----+			
1	130	42	172
AGREEMENT ON	75.6%	24.4%	54.1%
REPRESENTATION	64.0%	36.5%	
	20.2	-20.2	
+-----+-----+			
2	73	73	146
DISAGREE	50.0%	50.0%	45.9%
	36.0%	63.5%	
	-20.2	20.2	
+-----+-----+			
Column	203	115	318
Total	63.8%	36.2%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
-----	-----	-----	-----
Pearson	22.38530	1	.00000
Continuity Correction	21.29090	1	.00000
Likelihood Ratio	22.55479	1	.00000
Cramer's V	.26532		.00000
Minimum Expected Frequency - 52.799			
Number of Missing Observations: 34			

presidents disagree. A column percentage of 63% and a residual of 20.2 in cell 2-3 illustrate that when superintendents and board presidents disagree, board presidents are more likely to represent the District or superintendents are more likely to support District representation than their presidents. On the other hand, a column percentage of 64% and a high residual of 20.2 in cell 1-2 show that when superintendents and board presidents agree on representation, board presidents are more likely to represent the Community and superintendents are more likely to support Community representation. The significance level for this crosstabulation is less than .001 alpha.

Table 37. Crosstabulation of Agreement on Representational Style by Representational Style from Matched Superintendent and President Data

Count		REPRESENTATIONAL STYLE:		
Row Pct		TRUSTEE	DELEGATE	
Col Pct				Row
Residual		1	2	Total
-----+-----+-----+-----+				
1		196	30	226
AGREEMENT ON		86.7%	13.3%	73.9%
REPRESENTATIONAL		83.1%	42.9%	
STYLE		21.7	-21.7	
+-----+-----+-----+-----+				
2		40	40	80
DISAGREE		50.0%	50.0%	26.1%
		16.9%	57.1%	
		-21.7	21.7	
+-----+-----+-----+-----+				
Column		236	70	306
Total		77.1%	22.9%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
-----	-----	-----	-----
Pearson	45.16990	1	.00000
Continuity Correction	43.11226	1	.00000
Likelihood Ratio	41.22356	1	.00000
Cramer's V	.38421		.00000
Minimum Expected Frequency - 18.301			
Number of Missing Observations: 46			

Row 2 percentages in Table 37 are equally split between Trustee and Delegate when superintendents and board presidents disagree on Representational Style. A column percentage of 57% and a residual of 21.7 in cell 2-2 illustrate that when superintendents and board presidents disagree, board presidents are more likely to use a Delegate style or superintendents are more likely to support a Delegate style. Conversely, a row percentage of 87%, a column percentage of 83%, and a high residual of 21.7 in cell 1-1 indicate that when superintendents and presidents agree on representational style, board presidents are more likely to use a Trustee style and superintendents are more likely to support a Trustee style. The significance level for this crosstabulation is less than .001 alpha.

Table 38. Crosstabulation of Agreement of Representation by Agreement of Representational Style from Matched Superintendent and President Data

	Count	REPRESENTATION:		
	Row Pct			
	Col Pct	AGREE	DISAGREE	
	Residual	1	2	Total
AGREE ON REPRESENTATIONAL STYLE	1	120	94	214
		56.1%	43.9%	75.9%
		83.3%	68.1%	
		10.7	-10.7	
DISAGREE	2	24	44	68
		35.3%	64.7%	24.1%
		16.7%	31.9%	
		-10.7	10.7	
Column		144	138	282
Total		51.1%	48.9%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	8.91761	1	.00282
Continuity Correction	8.10539	1	.00441
Likelihood Ratio	9.00927	1	.00269
Cramer's V	.17783		.00282
Minimum Expected Frequency - 33.277			
Number of Missing Observations: 70			

In Table 38, cell 1-1 contains a row percentage of 56%, a column percentage of 83%, and the high residual of 10.7 which suggests that when superintendents and presidents from the same district agree on Representation they are also likely to agree on Representational Style. if superintendents and their board presidents disagree on representation, they are also likely to disagree on representational style. The significance level for this crosstabulation is less than .01 alpha.

Table 39. Crosstabulation of Agreement on Representation by Class Size from Matched Superintendent and Board President Data

		Count					
		Row Pct	CLASS A	CLASS B	CLASS C	CLASS D	
		Col Pct					Row
		Residual	1	2	3	4	Total
AGREE ON REPRESENTATION	1	43	51	61	17	172	
		25.0%	29.7%	35.5%	9.9%	54.3%	
		64.2%	58.6%	57.0%	30.4%		
		6.6	3.8	2.9	-13.4		
DISAGREE	2	24	36	46	39	145	
		16.6%	24.8%	31.7%	26.9%	45.7%	
		35.8%	41.4%	43.0%	69.6%		
		-6.6	-3.8	-2.9	13.4		
Column		67	87	107	56	317	
Total		21.1%	27.4%	33.8%	17.7%	100.0%	
Chi-Square		Value	DF		Significance		
Pearson		16.54023	3		.00088		
Likelihood Ratio		16.74931	3		.00080		
Cramer's V		.22842			.00088		
Minimum Expected Frequency - 25.615							
Number of Missing Observations: 35							

In Table 39, high column percentages in row 1 and positive residuals show that superintendents and board presidents from Class A, B and C districts are more likely to agree on Representation. On the other hand, a column percentage of 70% and a high grid residual of 13.4 in cell 2-4 indicate that superintendents and their board presidents from Class D districts are more likely to disagree on Representation. The significance level for this crosstabulation is less than .001 alpha.

Table 40. Crosstabulation of Agreement on Representational Style by Size from Matched Superintendent and President Data.

	Count Row Pct Col Pct Residual	CLASS A	CLASS B	CLASS C	CLASS D	Row Total
		1	2	3	4	
AGREE ON REPRESENTATIONAL STYLE	1	53	67	66	40	226
		23.5%	29.6%	29.2%	17.7%	74.1%
		85.5%	78.8%	63.5%	74.1%	
		7.1	4.0	-11.1	.0	
DISAGREE	2	9	18	38	14	79
		11.4%	22.8%	48.1%	17.7%	25.9%
		14.5%	21.2%	36.5%	25.9%	
		-7.1	-4.0	11.1	.0	
Column Total		62	85	104	54	305
		20.3%	27.9%	34.1%	17.7%	100.0%
Chi-Square		Value		DF		Significance
-----		-----		-----		-----
Pearson		11.30725		3		.01018
Likelihood Ratio		11.45476		3		.00950
Cramer's V		.19254				.01018
Minimum Expected Frequency -		13.987				
Number of Missing Observations:		47				

In Table 40, a row percentage of 48% and a high residual of 11.1 in cell 2-3 show that Class C district superintendents and their board presidents are most likely to disagree on representational style. A column percentage of 86% and a residual of 7.1 in cell 1-1 describe Class A district superintendents and their presidents as more likely to agree on Representational Style.

TRAINING

All questions found in the training section of the survey were investigated for frequency and significance. During the exploration process training variables were found to be significant with many other variables. In this section the answers to most of the remaining questions found in the survey and particularly on training and trainers are answered.

Table 41. Frequency Distribution of School Code by Respondent

Count		SUPT.	B. PRES.	MEMBER	Row Total
Col	Pct				
		1	2	3	
YES PERSONAL	1	142	146	107	395
COPY OF SCHOOL		45.7	52.3	45.3	47.8
CODE					
	2	169	133	129	431
NO PERSONAL		54.3	47.7	54.7	52.2
COPY					
Column		311	279	236	826
Total		37.7	33.8	28.6	100.0

Number of Missing Observations: 16

In Table 41, a column percentage in cell 2-1 indicates that 54% of the superintendents that responded from the State of Michigan do not believe that school board members should have a copy of the school code. On the other hand, 52% of board presidents who answered said that they did have a copy of the school code, while 55% of board members do not have a copy of the Michigan school code.

Superintendents were also asked about their formal training.

Table 42 uses a multi-response format to combine the answers from two

Table 42. Multi-response Frequency of Formal Superintendent Training in the Subjects of Decision Making and School Boards from Superintendent Data

Category label	Code	Count	Pct of Responses	Pct of Cases
SUPT TRAINING IN DECISION PROCESS	1	239	38.2	75.9
NO SUPT DECISION TRAINING	2	75	12.0	23.8
SUPT TRAINING ABOUT SCHOOL BOARDS	3	75	12.0	23.8
NO SUPT BOARD TRAINING	4	236	37.8	74.9
Total responses		625	100.0	198.4

3 missing cases; 315 valid cases

Table 43. Crosstabulation of Mandatory Training by Respondent

Count					
Row Pct		SUPT.	B. PRES.	MEMBER	
Col Pct					Row
Residual		1	2	3	Total
-----+					
YES:	1	208	131	123	462
SCHOOL BOARD		45.0%	28.4%	26.6%	56.7%
TRAINING SHOULD		67.3%	48.0%	52.8%	
BE MANDATORY		32.8	-23.8	-9.1	
+-----+					
	2	101	142	110	353
NO MANDATORY		28.6%	40.2%	31.2%	43.3%
TRAINING		32.7%	52.0%	47.2%	
		-32.8	23.8	9.1	
+-----+					
Column		309	273	233	815
Total		37.9%	33.5%	28.6%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance

Pearson	24.07301	2	.00001
Likelihood Ratio	24.37759	2	.00001
Cramer's V	.17186		.00001
Minimum Expected Frequency - 100.919			
Number of Missing Observations: 27			

questions. From the case percentages, 76% of superintendents are trained in decision process and 24% are trained about school boards.

The row marginal percentage of 57% in Table 43 describes a majority of all respondents as believing that school board training should be mandatory in Michigan. However a row percentage of 45%, a column percentage of 67%, and higher than expected frequencies of 32.8 in cell 1-1, show that superintendents are more likely to support mandatory school board training than board presidents or members. Further, a row percentage of 40%, a column percentage of 52%, and a high residual of 23.8 in cell 2-2 describe board presidents as being less likely to support mandatory training than superintendents or board members. The significance level of this test is less than .001 alpha.

Table 44 displays multiple frequencies of Wanted Training Areas from 477 respondents. Respondents were asked to write in one answer. Many respondents wrote down several areas of perceived training needs and 365 people left the question blank. Seventy-two percent of superintendent respondents, 47% of board member respondents, and 59% of board member respondents wrote at least one answer to survey Question 13. All answers were coded into 21 values and recorded. A multi-response frequency table is the result of the tabulation. The top six answers using percentage of responses are: Role 18%, Finance 15%, Negotiations 10%, Decision Making 9%, Curriculum 7%, and Policy versus Administration 6%. However a crosstabulation of all three sample groups by the top categories described different priorities held by each group.

Table 44. Multi-response Frequency of Wanted Training Areas from all Respondent Data

Category label	Code	Count	Pct of Responses	Pct of Cases
ROLE	1	107	17.8	22.4
FINANCE	2	87	14.5	18.2
NEGOTIATIONS	3	59	9.8	12.4
DECISION MAKING	4	54	9.0	11.3
CURRICULUM	5	44	7.3	9.2
POLICY VS ADMIN	6	35	5.8	7.3
SCHOOL LAW	7	32	5.3	6.7
PRESSURE	8	29	4.8	6.1
POLICY MAKING	9	25	4.2	5.2
COMMUNICATION	10	21	3.5	4.4
GROUP DYNAMICS	11	19	3.2	4.0
OTHER	12	17	2.8	3.6
PERSONNEL	13	12	2.0	2.5
COMMUNITY RELATIONS	14	11	1.8	2.3
ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE	15	9	1.5	1.9
EDUCATIONAL REFORM	16	9	1.5	1.9
LEGISLATURE	17	9	1.5	1.9
LEADERSHIP	18	8	1.3	1.7
ALL	19	7	1.2	1.5
REORGANIZATION	20	4	.7	.8
CHANGE	21	4	.7	.8
Total responses		602	100.0	126.2

365 missing cases; 477 valid cases

In Table 45 the top eleven categories are distributed according to respondent. In examining the highest row percentages different respondents seem to have different training priorities. In cell 5-2, a high row percentage of 43% indicates board presidents who responded to the question are more likely to want Curriculum training than other groups. Row percentages in cells 2-3, 3-3, 7-3, 10-3 indicate board members are more likely to want training in Finance, Negotiations, School Law, and Communications than the other two groups of respondents. Row percentages in cells 1-1, 4-1, 6-1, 8-1, 9-1, and 11-1 describe superintendents as more likely to want their boards to be

Table 45. Multi-response Distribution of Most Wanted Training by Respondent

	Count				Row
	Row pct	SUPT	B. PRES	MEMBER	Total
	Col pct	1	2	3	
ROLE	1	78	18	11	107
		72.9	16.8	10.3	20.9
		33.1	13.5	7.7	
FINANCE	2	18	29	40	87
		20.7	33.3	46.0	17.0
		7.6	21.8	28.0	
NEGOTIATIONS	3	14	21	24	59
		23.7	35.6	40.7	11.5
		5.9	15.8	16.8	
DECISION MAKING	4	37	5	12	54
		68.5	9.3	22.2	10.5
		15.7	3.8	8.4	
CURRICULUM	5	9	19	16	44
		20.5	43.2	36.4	8.6
		3.8	14.3	11.2	
POLICY VS ADMIN	6	30	4	1	35
		85.7	11.4	2.9	6.8
		12.7	3.0	.7	
SCHOOL LAW	7	5	13	14	32
		15.6	40.6	43.8	6.3
		2.1	9.8	9.8	
PRESSURE	8	15	11	3	29
		51.7	37.9	10.3	5.7
		6.4	8.3	2.1	
POLICY MAKING	9	14	5	6	25
		56.0	20.0	24.0	4.9
		5.9	3.8	4.2	
COMMUNICATION	10	4	6	11	21
		19.0	28.6	52.4	4.1
		1.7	4.5	7.7	
GROUP DYNAMICS	11	12	2	5	19
		63.2	10.5	26.3	3.7
		5.1	1.5	3.5	
Column		236	133	143	512
Total		46.1	26.0	27.9	100.0

Percents and totals based on responses

418 valid cases; 424 missing cases

trained in Role, Decision making, Policy versus Administration, Special Interest Pressure, Policy Making, and Group Dynamics more than the other respondents. High column percentages of 22% in cell 2-2 for board presidents and 28% in cell 2-3 for board members show that overall board respondents are more likely to desire training in Finance, while a high column percentage of 33% in cell 1-1 describes superintendents as believing that Role training is most needed for their school boards.

Respondents were also asked specifically if they had received training in role, organizational structure, and decision processes. Tables 46, 47, and 50 display the results of survey Question 8.

Table 46. Crosstabulation of Board Training in Role by Respondent

	Count				
	Row Pct	SUPT.	B. PRES.	MEMBER	
	Col Pct				Row
	Residual	1	2	3	Total
	1	195	230	177	602
YES: BOARD		32.4%	38.2%	29.4%	72.5%
ROLE TRAINING		62.7%	82.7%	73.4%	
		-30.6	28.4	2.2	
	2	116	48	64	228
NO BOARD		50.9%	21.1%	28.1%	27.5%
TRAINING		37.3%	17.3%	26.6%	
		30.6	-28.4	-2.2	
	Column	311	278	241	830
	Total	37.5%	33.5%	29.0%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	29.70887	2	.00000
Likelihood Ratio	30.24301	2	.00000
Cramer's V	.18919		.00000
Minimum Expected Frequency - 66.202			
Number of Missing Observations: 12			

The marginal row percentage of 73% in Table 46 indicates that the majority of opinion among all respondents is that school board

presidents and members have been trained in Role. If only grouped board opinion is considered, a separate calculation of 407 board respondents who said they were trained in role divided by 519, the total number of board respondents, shows that 78% of board respondents believe they are trained in Role. However, a row percentage of 51% and higher than expected responses or residual of 30.6 in cell 2-1 show that superintendents are more likely than board presidents or members to believe that their school boards have not received one full formal session of training in Role. On the other hand a high column percentage of 83% and a high residual of 28.4 in cell 1-2 describe board presidents as more likely than superintendents or board members to believe that they have received training in Role. The significance level of this test is less than .001 alpha. Nevertheless, significance was not found between role training by the main variables of role, representation, or representational style.

The marginal row percentages of 64% in Table 47 illustrates that the majority of respondent opinion is that school boards are not trained in different organizational structures for schools. If only grouped board opinion is considered, a separate calculation of 214 board respondents who said they were trained in organizational structure divided by 493, the total number of board respondents, shows that 43% of board respondents believe they are trained in organizational structure. However a row percentage of 47%, a column percentage of 51%, and a high residual of 38.6 in cell 1-2 show that board presidents are more likely to believe that they are trained in organizational structures. A row percentage of 45%, a column percentage of 75%, and

Table 47. Crosstabulation of Board Training in Organizational Structure by Respondent

	Count				
	Row Pct	SUPT.	B. PRES.	MEMBER	
	Col Pct				Row
	Residual	1	2	3	Total
-----+-----+-----+-----+					
1		77	136	78	291
YES: BOARD		26.5%	46.7%	26.8%	36.5%
ORGANIZATION		25.2%	50.9%	34.5%	
TRAINING		-34.2	38.6	-4.4	
+-----+-----+-----+-----+					
2		228	131	148	507
NO BOARD		45.0%	25.8%	29.2%	63.5%
TRAINING		74.8%	49.1%	65.5%	
		34.2	-38.6	4.4	
+-----+-----+-----+-----+					
Column		305	267	226	798
Total		38.2%	33.5%	28.3%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
-----	-----	----	-----
Pearson	41.07571	2	.00000
Likelihood Ratio	41.09111	2	.00000
Cramer's V	.22688		.00000
Minimum Expected Frequency -	82.414		
Number of Missing Observations:	44		

a high residual of 34.2 in cell 2-1 describe superintendents as more likely not to believe that their board members have received one full formal session of training in organizational structure. This test is interpreted to mean that board presidents are likely to believe they are trained in organizational structure, while superintendents and board members are likely not to believe that this training has been accomplished. The significance level of this test is less than .001 alpha.

Significance was found between organizational training and organizational belief and is presented in Table 48. Higher than expected frequencies are found in row 1 for matched superintendent and board presidents responses. Cells 1-1, 1-4, 1-6, and 1-8 indicate

Table 48. Crosstabulation of Board Organizational Training by Organizational Belief from Matched Superintendent and President Data

	Count						
Row Pct		LEGAL-	HUMAN	TRADITION	SITE-	POLITICAL	
Col Pct		RATIONAL	RESOURCE		BASED MGT		Row
Residual		1	2	3	4	5	Total
YES:	1	7	10	17	7	8	101
ORGANIZATIONAL		6.9%	9.9%	16.8%	6.9%	7.9%	35.1%
TRAINING		53.8%	21.3%	26.6%	53.8%	28.6%	
		2.4	-6.5	-5.4	2.4	-1.8	
	2	6	37	47	6	20	187
NO TRAINING		3.2%	19.8%	25.1%	3.2%	10.7%	64.9%
		46.2%	78.7%	73.4%	46.2%	71.4%	
		-2.4	6.5	5.4	-2.4	1.8	
Column		13	47	64	13	28	288
(Continued) Total		4.5%	16.3%	22.2%	4.5%	9.7%	100.0%

Count		SYSTEMS SYMBOLIC CONTINGENCY			
Row Pct	Col Pct				Row
Residual		6	7	8	Total
YES:	1	19	5	28	101
ORGANIZATIONAL		18.8%	5.0%	27.7%	35.1%
TRAINING		39.6%	33.3%	46.7%	
		2.2	-.3	7.0	
	2	29	10	32	187
NO TRAINING		15.5%	5.3%	17.1%	64.9%
		60.4%	66.7%	53.3%	
		-2.2	.3	-7.0	
Column		48	15	60	288
Total		16.7%	5.2%	20.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	14.49879	7	.04299
Likelihood Ratio	14.58568	7	.04169
Cramer's V	.22437		.04299
Minimum Expected Frequency -	4.559		
Cells with Expected Frequency < 5 -		2 OF	16 (12.5%)
Number of Missing Observations:	64		

that those respondents who use Legal-Rational, Site-Based Management, Systems, and Contingency organizational structures are more likely to have had organizational training or believe that their boards have had organizational training. A high row percentage of 28% and a residual of 7.0 in cell 1-8 suggest that matched superintendents and their board presidents who use a Contingency organizational structure in their district are more likely to have had organizational training. High column percentages of 79% and 73% as well as residuals of 6.5 and 5.4 in cells 2-2 and 2-3 respectively indicate that superintendents and board presidents who use a Human Resource or Traditional organizational structure are less likely to have had training in organizational structure.

In Table 49, a high marginal row percentage of 63% indicates that the majority of respondents believe they or their boards have not received training in organizational structure. A high row percentage of 42%, a high column percentage of 70%, and positive residual of 18.5 in cell 2-4 describe respondents who use an Approval process as less likely to have had organizational training. A high column percentage of 67% and positive residual of 4.5 suggest that respondents who use a Political decision process are less likely to have had training in organizational structure. On the other hand, a high row percentage of 35% and residual of 13.3 in cell 1-1 indicate that respondents who use a Rational decision process are more likely to have received organizational structure training. A high column percentage of 56% and a residual of 8.4 describe some respondents who use an Analysis decision process as more likely to have received organizational training. This test is interpreted to mean that respondents who use a Rational or

Table 49. Crosstabulation of Board Organizational Training by Decision Process from all Respondent Data

	Count	RATIONAL SATISFIC POLITIC APPROVAL ANALYSIS					
	Row Pct						
	Col Pct						
	Residual	1	2	3	4	5	Row Total
YES:	1	99	34	36	90	25	284
ORGANIZATIONAL		34.9%	12.0%	12.7%	31.7%	8.8%	36.8%
TRAINING		42.5%	38.2%	32.7%	30.5%	55.6%	
		13.3	1.3	-4.5	-18.5	8.4	
	2	134	55	74	205	20	488
NO TRAINING		27.5%	11.3%	15.2%	42.0%	4.1%	63.2%
		57.5%	61.8%	67.3%	69.5%	44.4%	
		-13.3	-1.3	4.5	18.5	-8.4	
Column		233	89	110	295	45	772
Total		30.2%	11.5%	14.2%	38.2%	5.8%	100.0%
Chi-Square		Value		DF		Significance	
Pearson		15.93163		4		.00311	
Likelihood Ratio		15.72686		4		.00341	
Cramer's V		.14366				.00311	
Minimum Expected Frequency - 16.554							
Number of Missing Observations: 70							

Analysis decision process are more likely to have had organizational training than respondents who use an Approval or Political decision process. Because a significant relationship was found between organizational training and decision process, this test suggests that the subject of decision process has been included in past organizational training. The significance of this test is less than .01 alpha.

In Table 50, the row marginal percentage of 59% describes a majority opinion that school boards are trained in decision processes. If only grouped board opinion is considered, a separate calculation of 333 board respondents who said they were trained in decision processes divided by 507, the total number of board respondents, shows that 66%

Table 50. Crosstabulation of Board Training in Decision by Respondent

	Count Row Pct Col Pct Residual	SUPT. B. PRES. MEMBER			Row Total
		1	2	3	
YES: BOARD DECISION TRG	1	144	203	130	477
		30.2%	42.6%	27.3%	58.5%
		46.6%	73.3%	56.5%	
		-36.6	41.1	-4.4	
NO BOARD TRAINING	2	165	74	100	339
		48.7%	21.8%	29.5%	41.5%
		53.4%	26.7%	43.5%	
		36.6	-41.1	4.4	
Column Total		309	277	230	816
		37.9%	33.9%	28.2%	100.0%
Chi-Square		Value		DF	Significance
-----		-----		----	-----
Pearson		43.31670		2	.00000
Likelihood Ratio		44.36282		2	.00000
Cramer's V		.23040			.00000
Minimum Expected Frequency -		95.551			
Number of Missing Observations:		26			

of board respondents believe they are trained in decision processes. A row percentage of 43%, a column percentage of 73%, and a high grid residual of 41.1 in cell 1-2 illustrate that board presidents believe they have received decision training. However, a row percentage of 49%, a column percentage of 53%, and a high residual of 36.6 in cell 2-1 describe superintendents as more likely to believe that their school boards have not received one full formal session of training in decision processes. The significance level of this test is less than .001 alpha.

Significance was also found between decision training and decision process and presented in Table 51. A high marginal row percentage of 59% describes respondents as having at least one formal session of decision process training. A high row percentage of 35%, a high

Table 51. Crosstabulation of Board Decision Training by Decision Process from all Respondent Data

	Count	RATIONAL SATISFIC POLITIC APPROVAL ANALYSIS					
	Row Pct						
	Col Pct						
	Residual	1	2	3	4	5	Row Total
YES: DECISION TRAINING	1	161	56	64	154	27	462
		34.8%	12.1%	13.9%	33.3%	5.8%	58.5%
		67.9%	60.9%	55.7%	51.2%	60.0%	
		22.4	2.2	-3.3	-22.0	.7	
NO TRAINING	2	76	36	51	147	18	328
		23.2%	11.0%	15.5%	44.8%	5.5%	41.5%
		32.1%	39.1%	44.3%	48.8%	40.0%	
		-22.4	-2.2	3.3	22.0	-.7	
Column Total		237	92	115	301	45	790
	Total	30.0%	11.6%	14.6%	38.1%	5.7%	100.0%
Chi-Square		Value			DF		Significance
Pearson		15.99654			4		.00302
Likelihood Ratio		16.16600			4		.00280
Cramer's V		.14230					.00302
Minimum Expected Frequency - 18.684							
Number of Missing Observations: 52							

column percentage of 68%, and a higher than expected frequency residual of 22.4 in cell 1-1 indicate that respondents who use a Rational decision process are more likely to have had decision training or believe that their boards have had decision training. On the other hand, a high row percentage of 45% and higher than expected observations or residual of 22.0 in cell 2-4 designate those respondents who use an Approval decision process as less likely to have had decision training. This test suggests that a Rational decision process is more likely to be taught in decision training than an Approval decision process. The significance level of this test is less than .01 alpha.

In the following Table 52, representational style was found to have a significant relationship to decision training. A high row percentage of 86% and higher than expected observations or residual of

Table 52. Crosstabulation of Board Decision Training by Representational Style from Matched Board President and Member Data

Count		TRUSTEE		DELEGATE	Row Total
Row Pct	Col Pct				
Residual		1	2		
-----+-----+-----+					
1		116	44		160
YES: DECISION		72.5%	27.5%		63.0%
TRAINING		58.9%	77.2%		
		-8.1	8.1		
-----+-----+-----+					
2		81	13		94
NO TRAINING		86.2%	13.8%		37.0%
		41.1%	22.8%		
		8.1	-8.1		
-----+-----+-----+					
Column		197	57		254
Total		77.6%	22.4%		100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance

Pearson	6.35757	1	.01169
Continuity Correction	5.59641	1	.01800
Likelihood Ratio	6.71171	1	.00958
Cramer's V	.15821		.01169
Minimum Expected Frequency - 21.094			
Number of Missing Observations: 22			

8.1 in cell 2-1 indicate that board presidents and members from the same district who assume a Trustee representational style are more likely not to have had decision training. A high column percentage of 77% and residual of 8.1 in cell 1-2 show that matching board respondents who assume a Delegate representational style are more likely to have had decision training. The significance level of this test is less than .05 from the Pearson Chi Square and less than .01 from the Likelihood Ratio. Significance was not found between representational style and role training or organizational training. Therefore this test suggests that representational style may be included as a subject in decision training.

Board Trainers

Role training, Organizational training, and Decision training were all found to be significant at less than .001 for all trainer variables of District trainers, Intermediate School District Trainers, Michigan Association of School board trainers, and Other trainers in all eight data files. This suggests that each identified trainer teaches school board respondents role, organizational structure and decision process subjects in some fashion. However, not every category of trainer was found to be significant with the main variables of representation, role, representational style, organizational structure, and decision process. This suggests that certain trainers may be more associated with specific subject matter. Therefore, this question was investigated by crosstabulating the main variables of this research with the variables of District trainers, ISD trainers, MASB trainers, and Other trainers.

Significant results for Representation, Representational Style, and Role were found only in relation to MASB trainers and training. Significant relationships were not found for the variables of Representation, Representational Style, and Role with the categories of District, ISD, or Other trainers. Results of the MASB trainer variable tests of significance are found in the MASB Training section.

Significance was found between the variable of Organizational belief by District trainers and presented in Table 54. Significance was not found in conjunction with ISD, MASB, or Other trainers by Organizational belief. Significant relationships were also found between Decision process by District trainers and ISD trainers, which are

presented in Tables 55 and 56. Significance was not found between Decision process by the categories of MASB trainers or Other trainers.

Table 53. Multi-response Distribution of Board Trainers by Respondent

	Count Col pct	SUPT. 1	B. PRES. 2	MEMBER 3	Row Total
	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	
DISTRICT TRAINERS	1	179 26.9	157 24.2	111 23.7	447 25.1
	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	
ISD TRAINERS	2	141 21.2	129 19.9	97 20.7	367 20.6
	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	
MASB TRAINERS	3	234 35.1	239 36.9	181 38.7	654 36.7
	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	
OTHER TRAINERS	4	112 16.8	123 19.0	79 16.9	314 17.6
	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	
Column Total		666 37.4	648 36.4	468 26.3	1782 100.0

Percents and totals based on YES responses
757 valid cases; 85 missing cases

Table 53 is a composite grid of all yes answers given by respondents to survey questions concerning board trainers. The original Question 7 was an attempt to determine which trainers are used most by school boards for a half to a full day of formal instruction. According to marginal row percentages, respondents believe that school boards are trained by all four categories of trainers. Column percentages remain fairly even across all respondents for all trainers. A high marginal row percentage of 37% and row three column percentages of 35% for superintendents, 37% for presidents, and 39% for board members describe the Michigan Association of School Boards as the primary organization to train school boards in Michigan. Marginal row percentages and column percentages rank District trainers as

second in order of use with 25% of the response. ISD trainers were ranked third with 21% of the response, and Other trainers were last as least used school board trainer with 18% of the response.

In Table 54, marginal row percentages show that 58% of all respondents have either had at least one formal session of training from District trainers or believe their board was trained by their District superintendent or central office personnel. A high column percentage of 69% and higher than expected observations or residual of 11.2 in cell 1-6 indicate that those respondents who use a Systems organizational belief are more likely to have had training from District trainers. A high row percentage of 29% and higher than expected frequencies or residual of 12.0 suggest that those respondents who use a Traditional organizational belief are less likely to have had District trainers for training. Positive residuals in cells 1-4, 1-5, 1-6, and 1-8 also show that respondents who have used District trainers are more likely to use Site-Based Management, Political, Systems, and Contingency organizational structures. On the other hand positive residual is cells 2-1, 2-2, 2-3. and 2-7 show that respondents who use Legal-Rational, Human Resource, Traditional and Symbolic organizational structures are less likely to have had training from District trainers. This test is interpreted to mean that District trainers are more likely to include Systems, Contingency, Site-based management, and Political organizational structures into their school board instruction. The significance of this test is less than .001 alpha.

Table 54. Crosstabulation of District Trainers by Organizational Belief from all Respondent Data

		Count						
Row	Pct		LEGAL-	HUMAN	TRADITION	SITE-	POLITICAL	
Col	Pct		RATIONAL	RESOURCE		BASED	MGT	Row
Residual			1	2	3	4	5	Total
YES: DISTRICT TRAINERS	1	20	48	81	17	45		382
		5.2%	12.6%	21.2%	4.5%	11.8%		57.8%
		44.4%	53.3%	50.3%	77.3%	63.4%		
		-6.0	-4.0	-12.0	4.3	4.0		
NO TRAINERS	2	25	42	80	5	26		279
		9.0%	15.1%	28.7%	1.8%	9.3%		42.2%
		55.6%	46.7%	49.7%	22.7%	36.6%		
		6.0	4.0	12.0	-4.3	-4.0		
Column		45	90	161	22	71		661
(Continued)	Total	6.8%	13.6%	24.4%	3.3%	10.7%		100.0%

		Count				
Row	Pct		SYSTEMS	SYMBOLIC	CONTINGENCY	
Col	Pct					Row
Residual			6	7	8	Total
YES: DISTRICT TRAINERS	1	69	18	84		382
		18.1%	4.7%	22.0%		57.8%
		69.0%	41.9%	65.1%		
		11.2	-6.9	9.4		
NO TRAINERS	2	31	25	45		279
		11.1%	9.0%	16.1%		42.2%
		31.0%	58.1%	34.9%		
		-11.2	6.9	-9.4		
Column		100	43	129		661
Total		15.1%	6.5%	19.5%		100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	24.50710	7	.00093
Likelihood Ratio	24.84208	7	.00081
Cramer's V	.19255		.00093
Minimum Expected Frequency - 9.286			
Number of Missing Observations: 181			

Table 55. Crosstabulation of District Trainers by Decision Process from all Respondent Data

		Count	RATIONAL SATISFIC POLITIC APPROVAL ANALYSIS					
		Row Pct						Row
		Col Pct						Total
		Residual	1	2	3	4	5	
YES: DISTRICT TRAINERS	1		148	38	63	157	22	428
			34.6%	8.9%	14.7%	36.7%	5.1%	57.7%
			66.1%	45.2%	56.8%	56.1%	51.2%	
			18.8	-10.5	-1.0	-4.5	-2.8	
NO TRAINERS	2		76	46	48	123	21	314
			24.2%	14.6%	15.3%	39.2%	6.7%	42.3%
			33.9%	54.8%	43.2%	43.9%	48.8%	
			-18.8	10.5	1.0	4.5	2.8	
Column Total			224	84	111	280	43	742
			30.2%	11.3%	15.0%	37.7%	5.8%	100.0%
Chi-Square			Value			DF		Significance
-----			-----			-----		-----
Pearson			12.87265			4		.01192
Likelihood Ratio			12.93276			4		.01161
Cramer's V			.13171					.01192
Minimum Expected Frequency -			18.197					
Number of Missing Observations:			100					

In Table 55, a high column percentage of 66% and higher than expected frequencies or residual of 18.8 in cell 1-1 indicate that respondents who use a Rational decision process are more likely to have had at least one full formal session of training from their District. On the other hand, a high column percentage of 55% and higher than expected observations of 10.5 suggest that respondents who use a Satisficing decision process are more likely not to have had training from District trainers. Further analysis of positive and negative residuals within the grid suggests that Rational decision is more likely to be taught by District trainers than any other decision process.

Table 56. Crosstabulation of Intermediate School District Trainers by Decision Process from all Respondent Data

		Count	RATIONAL SATISFIC POLITIC APPROVAL ANALYSIS					
		Row Pct						Row
		Col Pct						Total
		Residual	1	2	3	4	5	
YES: ISD TRAINERS	1		121	43	61	105	20	350
			34.6%	12.3%	17.4%	30.0%	5.7%	48.4%
			55.0%	51.8%	55.5%	39.0%	48.8%	
			14.5	2.8	7.7	-25.2	.2	
NO TRAINERS	2		99	40	49	164	21	373
			26.5%	10.7%	13.1%	44.0%	5.6%	51.6%
			45.0%	48.2%	44.5%	61.0%	51.2%	
			-14.5	-2.8	-7.7	25.2	-.2	
Column			220	83	110	269	41	723
Total			30.4%	11.5%	15.2%	37.2%	5.7%	100.0%
Chi-Square			Value		DF		Significance	
-----			-----		----		-----	
Pearson			15.86682		4		.00320	
Likelihood Ratio			15.96276		4		.00307	
Cramer's V			.14814				.00320	
Minimum Expected Frequency -			19.848					
Number of Missing Observations:			119					

Similarly, Table 56 displays a significant relationship between ISD trainers and Decision process. High marginal row percentages show that 52% of all respondents either have not had ISD trainers or believe their boards have not had one full session with ISD trainers. A high row percentage of 35%, a high column percentage of 55%, and a positive residual of 14.5 in cell 1-1 indicate that respondents who use a Rational decision process are more likely to have had training with ISD trainers. Likewise, a high column percentage of 56% and positive residual of 7.7 in cell 1-3 describe those respondents who use a Political decision process as more likely to have had training from ISD trainers. A high row percentage of 44%, a high column percentage of 61%, and a higher

than expected frequency of 25.2 in cell 2-4 point out that respondents who use an Approval decision process are less likely to have had training with ISD trainers. An analysis of positive and negative residuals suggests that the respondents who use a Rational, Political, or Satisficing decision process are more likely to have had training with ISD trainers. This test is interpreted to mean that ISD trainers are more likely to include Rational and Political decision processes into their school board instruction. The significance of this test is less than .01 alpha.

MASB TRAINING

In this section, the Michigan Association of School Board's voluntary training program for school boards is explored. The main variables used in this section are MASB Trainers, and MASB Certification.

Of the 505 board presidents and board members included in the crosstabulation in Table 57, 83% have received instruction from MASB Trainers according to marginal row percentages. A row percentage of 57%, a column percentage of 87%, and higher than expected frequencies or residual of 10.3 in cell 1-1 illustrate that board presidents are more likely to have received training from MASB Trainers than board members. A high row percentage of 57% and a positive residual of 10.3 in cell 2-3 show that board members are less likely to have training from MASB Trainers than board presidents.

Table 57. Crosstabulation of MASB Trainers by Board Respondents

		Count			
		Row Pct			
		Col Pct	B. PRES	MEMBER	Row
		Residual	2	3	Total
YES: MASB TRAINERS	1		239	181	420
			56.9%	43.1%	83.2%
			86.9%	78.7%	
			10.3	-10.3	
NO: MASB TRAINERS	2		36	49	85
			42.4%	57.6%	16.8%
			13.1%	21.3%	
			-10.3	10.3	
Column			275	230	505
Total			54.5%	45.5%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	6.03578	1	.01402
Continuity Correction	5.46331	1	.01942
Likelihood Ratio	6.01601	1	.01418
Cramer's V	.10933		.01402
Minimum Expected Frequency - 38.713			
Number of Missing Observations: 19			

Table 58 displays an intermittent pattern in the data. A high row percent of 35%, a high column percentage of 87%, and a residual of 6.5 in cell 1-3 indicate that board presidents and members are more likely to have had MASB training if they have 5 to 8 years of service. The negative residuals of -9.1 and -3.4 in cells 1-1 and 1-2 respectively show that MASB training is less likely for those board presidents and members who have 4 years or less of service. A residual of 9.1 with low row and column percentages in cell 2-2 may point out that board presidents and members with one year or less of service are least likely to have MASB training. On the other hand, a high column percentage of 91% and a positive residual of 6.2 in cell 1-5 show that presidents and members who have over 12 years of service

Table 58. Crosstabulation of MASB Trainers by Service Years from Grouped Board Data

	Count						
	Row Pct	1 YEAR	2 TO 4	5 TO 8	9 TO 12	OVER 12	
	Col Pct	OR LESS	YEARS	YEARS	YEARS	YEARS	Row
	Residual	1	2	3	4	5	Total
		-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+					
YES: MASB TRAINERS	1	30	103	147	68	71	419
		7.2%	24.6%	35.1%	16.2%	16.9%	83.1%
		63.8%	80.5%	87.0%	82.9%	91.0%	
		-9.1	-3.4	6.5	-.2	6.2	
		+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+					
NO: MASB TRAINERS	2	17	25	22	14	7	85
		20.0%	29.4%	25.9%	16.5%	8.2%	16.9%
		36.2%	19.5%	13.0%	17.1%	9.0%	
		9.1	3.4	-6.5	.2	-6.2	
		+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+					
	Column	47	128	169	82	78	504
	Total	9.3%	25.4%	33.5%	16.3%	15.5%	100.0%
Chi-Square		Value		DF		Significance	
-----		-----		----		-----	
Pearson		18.39261		4		.00103	
Likelihood Ratio		16.66446		4		.00225	
Cramer's V		.19103				.00103	
Minimum Expected Frequency - 7.927							
Number of Missing Observations: 20							

are more likely to have had MASB training. This data is interpreted to mean that board presidents and board members with 4 years of service or less are less likely to have had MASB Trainers than board respondents with more service years. Board presidents and members with 5 to 8 years and over 12 years of service are most likely to have had training from MASB. The significance level of this test is less than .01 alpha.

Table 59. Crosstabulation of MASB Trainers by Education from Grouped Board Data

		Count					
Row Pct	Col Pct	HS	BACHELOR	MASTERS	DOCTORATE	Row	
	Residual	DIPLOMA	DEGREE	DEGREE	DEGREE	Total	
		1	2	3	5		
YES: MASB TRAINERS	1	142	148	90	25	405	
		35.1%	36.5%	22.2%	6.2%	83.0%	
		83.0%	89.7%	76.3%	73.5%		
		.1	11.1	-7.9	-3.2		
NO: MASB TRAINERS	2	29	17	28	9	83	
		34.9%	20.5%	33.7%	10.8%	17.0%	
		17.0%	10.3%	23.7%	26.5%		
		-.1	-11.1	7.9	3.2		
Column		171	165	118	34	488	
Total		35.0%	33.8%	24.2%	7.0%	100.0%	
Chi-Square		Value		DF		Significance	
Pearson		11.18821		3		.01075	
Likelihood Ratio		11.31190		3		.01015	
Cramer's V		.15142				.01075	
Minimum Expected Frequency -		5.783					
Number of Missing Observations:		36					

In Table 59, a high column percentage of 90%, a row percentage of 37%, and high grid residual of 11.1 in cell 1-2 describe board presidents and members with a Bachelor's Degree as more likely to have MASB training. However, positive residuals in cells 2-3 and 2-5 show that board presidents and members with Master's and Doctorate Degrees may be less likely to use MASB Trainers. These data are interpreted to mean that board presidents and members are likely to use MASB Trainers if they have a Bachelor's Degree or less education, while board presidents and members with a Master's Degree or a higher education level are less likely to have had MASB training. Thus board presidents and members educational level seems to be separated into two groups in relation to using MASB Trainers.

Table 60. Crosstabulation of MASB Certification by Board Respondents

	Count			
	Row Pct			
	Col Pct	B.PRES	MEMBER	Row
	Residual	2	3	Total
	-----+	-----+	-----+	
1	126	75	201	
YES: CERTIFIED	62.7%	37.3%	38.4%	
	45.0%	30.9%		
	18.4	-18.4		
	+-----+	+-----+	+-----+	
2	154	168	322	
NOT CERTIFIED	47.8%	52.2%	61.6%	
	55.0%	69.1%		
	-18.4	18.4		
	+-----+	+-----+	+-----+	
Column	280	243	523	
Total	53.5%	46.5%	100.0%	

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
-----	-----	----	-----
Pearson	10.98639	1	.00092
Continuity Correction	10.39710	1	.00126
Likelihood Ratio	11.07196	1	.00088
Cramer's V	.14494		.00092
Minimum Expected Frequency - 93.390			
Number of Missing Observations: 1			

In Table 60, a high row percentage of 63% and a high grid residual of 18.4 in cell 1-2 describe board presidents as more likely to have MASB Certification. The high row percentage of 52%, a high column percentage of 69%, and high grid residual of 18.4 in cell 2-3 show that board members are less likely to have MASB certification than board presidents. The significance level of this test is less than .001 alpha.

Table 61. Crosstabulation of MASB Certification by Class Size from Board President Data

	Count					
	Row Pct	CLASS A	CLASS B	CLASS C	CLASS D	
	Col Pct					
	Residual	1	2	3	4	Row Total
	1	32	43	33	17	125
YES:		25.6%	34.4%	26.4%	13.6%	45.0%
MASB		59.3%	53.1%	36.3%	32.7%	
CERTIFICATION		7.7	6.6	-7.9	-6.4	
	2	22	38	58	35	153
NOT CERTIFIED		14.4%	24.8%	37.9%	22.9%	55.0%
		40.7%	46.9%	63.7%	67.3%	
		-7.7	-6.6	7.9	6.4	
	Column	54	81	91	52	278
	Total	19.4%	29.1%	32.7%	18.7%	100.0%
Chi-Square		Value		DF		Significance
Pearson		12.56673		3		.00567
Likelihood Ratio		12.66531		3		.00542
Cramer's V		.21261				.00567
Minimum Expected Frequency - 23.381						
Number of Missing Observations: 3						

In Table 61, the marginal row percentage of 55% describes the majority of board presidents who responded to the survey as not having MASB certification. A high row percentage of 34%, a high column percentage of 53%, and a positive residual of 6.6 in cell 1-2 show that board presidents are more likely to have MASB certification if they come from Class B sized districts. A high column percentage of 59% and a positive residual of 7.7 in cell 1-1 also describe board presidents as more likely to have certification if they come from Class A sized districts. However, a high row percentage of 38%, a high column percentage of 64%, and a high grid residual of 7.9 in cell 2-3 report board presidents as less likely to have MASB certification if they come

from Class C districts. Further, a high column percentage of 67% and a positive residual of 6.4 in cell 2-4 show that board presidents from Class D districts are also less likely to have MASB certification. These data are interpreted to mean that most board presidents do not have MASB certification. Board presidents who come from Class A and Class B districts are more likely to have MASB Certification than board presidents from Class C or D districts. The significance level of this test is less than .001 alpha.

Table 62. Crosstabulation of MASB Certification by Service Years from Grouped Board Data

	Count						
	Row Pct	1 YEAR	2 TO 4	5 TO 8	9 TO 12	OVER 12	
	Col Pct	OR LESS	YEARS	YEARS	YEARS	YEARS	Row
	Residual	1	2	3	4	5	Total
YES:	1	4	37	70	41	48	200
MASB		2.0%	18.5%	35.0%	20.5%	24.0%	38.3%
CERTIFICATION		8.3%	27.8%	40.2%	48.2%	58.5%	
		-14.4	-14.0	3.3	8.4	16.6	
NOT CERTIFIED	2	44	96	104	44	34	322
		13.7%	29.8%	32.3%	13.7%	10.6%	61.7%
		91.7%	72.2%	59.8%	51.8%	41.5%	
		14.4	14.0	-3.3	-8.4	-16.6	
Column		48	133	174	85	82	522
Total		9.2%	25.5%	33.3%	16.3%	15.7%	100.0%
Chi-Square		Value		DF		Significance	
Pearson		42.45151		4		.00000	
Likelihood Ratio		46.52861		4		.00000	
Cramer's V		.28517				.00000	
Minimum Expected Frequency -		18.391					
Number of Missing Observations:		2					

The marginal row percentage of 62% in Table 62 denotes the majority of board president and members at not having MASB Certification. A high column percentage of 59% and a high grid residual of 16.6 in cell 1-5 suggest that presidents and members are

most likely to have MASB Certification if they have over 12 years of service. A pattern of increasing positive residuals is also found in cells 1-3, 1-4, and 1-5 which seems to indicate that board presidents and members are more likely to have MASB certification after 5 years of service. High column percentages of 92% and 72% with high residuals of 14.4 and 14.0 in cells 2-1 and 2-2 respectively describe board presidents and members who have 4 years or less of service as unlikely to have MASB certification. The significance level of this test is less than .001 alpha.

Table 63. Frequency of MASB Certified Board Presidents and Members per School Board from Superintendent Data

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
BOARDS W/ 0 MEMBERS CERTIFIED	0	79	24.8	25.9	25.9
BOARDS W/ 1 MEMBER CERTIFIED	1	59	18.6	19.3	45.2
BOARDS W/ 2 MEMBERS CERTIFIED	2	45	14.2	14.8	60.0
BOARDS W/ 3 MEMBERS CERTIFIED	3	40	12.6	13.1	73.1
BOARDS W/ 4 MEMBERS CERTIFIED	4	25	7.9	8.2	81.3
BOARDS W/ 5 MEMBERS CERTIFIED	5	23	7.2	7.5	88.9
BOARDS W/ 6 MEMBERS CERTIFIED	6	25	7.9	8.2	97.0
TOTAL BOARD CERTIFICATION	7	9	2.8	3.0	100.0
	.	13	4.1	Missing	
	Total	318	100.0	100.0	
Mean	2.285	Median	2.000	Mode	.000
Sum	697.000				
Valid cases	305	Missing cases	13		

Table 63 describes the amount of certified school board members per board. Three hundred and five superintendents answered Question 9B on the survey. They reported a total of 697 Certified board members in their districts. The mean of this total is 2.285 certified board members per district. The median is 2 certified board members per district. The mode is 0 certified board members per district.

Frequency percentages show that 25% of superintendents reported no certified members in their district and 19% reported only 1 certified member in their district. A total of 58% of superintendents from 183 districts reported 2 or less certified school board members in their district. This accounts for 149 certified school board members, which is 21% of the certified members reported.

9. Hypothesis: School board members do not believe that MASB certification training has helped them make better decisions, and there is no relationship between MASB training and the factor of decision process.

According to the results of Table 64, 86% of certified school board members believe that MASB Certification has helped them make better decisions. However, a significant relationship at less than .05 alpha was not found through all eight data files in attempting crosstabulations of Decision process by the variables of MASB Certification, MASB Trainers, or Better Decisions due to certification. Therefore, the first part of the hypothesis is not retained as certified school board members do believe they make better decision due to MASB certification. But, the second half of the hypothesis is retained, as there is no evidence of a relationship between MASB Training and the variable of Decision process. This lack of relationship suggests that although decision making may be taught by MASB trainers, the different Decision processes are not part of that training.

In Table 65, the marginal row percentage of 77% describes all certified respondents and superintendents as believing that school board members make better decisions as a result of MASB Certification. High column percentages of 85% and 88% and high residuals of 10.1 and 7.7 for board presidents and members in cells 1-2 and 1-3 respectively,

Table 64. Frequency of Better Decisions due to MASB Certification from Certified Grouped Board Data

Value Label	Value	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cum Percent
YES	1	172	32.8	86.0	86.0
NO	2	28	5.3	14.0	100.0
	.	324	61.8	Missing	
	Total	524	100.0	100.0	

Valid cases 200 Missing cases 324
(Of missing cases: 298 are not certified; 26 did not answer the question)

Table 65. Crosstabulation of Better Decisions due to MASB Certification by Respondent

Count		SUPT. B. PRES. MEMBER			Row Total
Row Pct	Col Pct	1	2	3	
Residual					
1		131	108	64	303
YES: BETTER DECISIONS DUE MASB CERTIF.		43.2%	35.6%	21.1%	77.1%
2		62	19	9	90
NO: DECISIONS ARE NOT BETTER		68.9%	21.1%	10.0%	22.9%
		32.1%	15.0%	12.3%	
		17.8	-10.1	-7.7	
Column Total		193	127	73	393
		49.1%	32.3%	18.6%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	18.45527	2	.00010
Likelihood Ratio	18.87999	2	.00008
Cramer's V	.21670		.00010

Minimum Expected Frequency - 16.718
Number of Missing Observations: 449

illustrate that these two groups are likely to believe that they make better decision due to MASB Certification. However a high row percentage of 69% and a high grid residual of 17.8 in cell 2-1 indicate that superintendents are less likely than board presidents and board members to believe that their boards make better decisions due to MASB Certification. The significance level of this test is less than .001 alpha.

10. Hypothesis: There is no significant relationship between completing the MASB certification training and the three factors of representation, role, and organizational belief.

Crosstabulations were attempted through all eight data files in investigating this hypothesis. Significant results at less than .05 alpha were found for the variable of MASB Training and the variables of Representational Style and Role. Significance was also found for the variable of MASB Certification and the variables of Representation and Role. No significant relationships were found for the variables of MASB Training, MASB Certification, or Better Decision due to certification by the variable of Organizational Belief. Therefore, the hypothesis is not retained for the variables of Representation and Role. However, the hypothesis is retained for the variable of Organizational Belief as no significant evidence was found.

Table 66 displays the only test in eight data files to be significant at the .05 alpha for the variables of MASB Certification by Representation. Significance therefore is limited to the sample group of board members only. A marginal row percentage of 58% describes the majority of board members as representing Community interests. A

**Table 66. Crosstabulation of MASB Certification by Representation
(Recoded for outliers) from Board Member Data**

	Count			
	Row Pct	MASB	NO MASB	
	Col Pct	CERTIF.	CERTIF.	Row
	Residual	1	2	Total
	-----+-----+-----+-----+-----			
COMMUNITY INTERESTS	2	35	100	135
		25.9%	74.1%	58.2%
		47.9%	62.9%	
		-7.5	7.5	
	-----+-----+-----+-----+-----			
DISTRICT INTERESTS	3	38	59	97
		39.2%	60.8%	41.8%
		52.1%	37.1%	
		7.5	-7.5	
	-----+-----+-----+-----+-----			
	Column	73	159	232
	Total	31.5%	68.5%	100.0%
Chi-Square		Value	DF	Significance
-----		-----	-----	-----
Pearson		4.59475	1	.03207
Continuity Correction		4.00089	1	.04548
Likelihood Ratio		4.56377	1	.03266
Cramer's V		.14073		.03207
Minimum Expected Frequency - 30.522				
Number of Missing Observations: 11				

high row percentage of 74%, a high column percentage of 63%, and a high grid residual of 7.5 in cell 2-2 show that board members who do not have MASB Certification are more likely to represent Community Interests. A high column percentage of 52% and positive residual of 7.5 in cell 3-1 report that board members who have MASB Certification are more likely to represent District Interests.

In Table 67, a high column percentage of 93% and a high grid residual of 12.5 in cell 1-1 illustrate that board presidents and board members who have MASB Certification are most likely to assume a Legislative Role. However, high row percentages of 74% and 84% with positive residuals of 4.1 and 8.4 in cells 2-2 and 3-2 respectively, point

Table 67. Crosstabulation of MASB Certification by Role from Grouped Board Data

		Count			
Row Pct		MASB	NOT		
Col Pct		CERTIF.	CERTIF.		
Residual		1	2	Row	
				Total	
LEGISLATIVE	1	185	257	442	
		41.9%	58.1%	86.7%	
		93.0%	82.6%		
		12.5	-12.5		
JUDICIAL	2	8	23	31	
		25.8%	74.2%	6.1%	
		4.0%	7.4%		
		-4.1	4.1		
ADMINISTRATIVE	3	6	31	37	
		16.2%	83.8%	7.3%	
		3.0%	10.0%		
		-8.4	8.4		
Column		199	311	510	
Total		39.0%	61.0%	100.0%	
Chi-Square		Value		DF	Significance
Pearson		11.85408		2	.00267
Likelihood Ratio		13.04824		2	.00147
Cramer's V		.15246			.00267
Minimum Expected Frequency -		12.096			
Number of Missing Observations:		14			

out that board presidents and members who do not have MASB Certification may be more likely to assume Administrative or Judicial roles than certified board presidents and members. The significance level of this test is less than .01 alpha.

Significance was also found between MASB Trainers and Role with equal results. It should be noted that MASB Trainers was the only category of board trainers which had a significant relationship to Role at less than .05 alpha. Likewise, significance was found between MASB trainers in relation to the variable of Representational Style.

Table 68. Crosstabulation MASB Trainers by Representational Style from Grouped Board Data

	Count	YES	NO	
	Row Pct	MASB	MASB	
	Col Pct	TRAINERS	TRAINERS	Row
	Residual	1	2	Total
TRUSTEE	1	295	71	366
		80.6%	19.4%	77.4%
		75.1%	88.8%	
		-9.1	9.1	
DELEGATE	2	98	9	107
		91.6%	8.4%	22.6%
		24.9%	11.3%	
		9.1	-9.1	
Column		393	80	473
Total		83.1%	16.9%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	7.11306	1	.00765
Continuity Correction	6.35266	1	.01172
Likelihood Ratio	8.07232	1	.00449
Cramer's V	.12263		.00765
Minimum Expected Frequency -	18.097		
Number of Missing Observations:	51		

In Table 68, a high column percentage of 89% and a higher than expected responses or residual of 9.1 in cell 1-2 suggest that board presidents and board members who do not have MASB Training are more likely to have a Trustee Representational Style. In cell 2-1, a high row percentage of 92% and a high grid residual of 9.1 illustrate that those presidents and members who have MASB Training are more likely to use a Delegate Style. The significance level of this test is less than .01 alpha using Pearson's Chi Square and the Likelihood Ratio.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This chapter summary is composed of two parts. Because these research results are somewhat numerous, a complete listing of specific findings is found in Table 69. A list of ten major findings concerning the hypotheses follows. Conclusions based on these test results are presented in Chapter VII.

Table 69. Chapter V Summary of Findings

Table #	Finding/Result
District Demographics	
4	462 or 88% of Michigan school districts represented in the survey.
5	31% Class B; 28% Class C; 21% Class D; 19% Class A districts.
6	46% of districts from rural locations.
7	35% majority of districts funded in the \$3501-4000 per pupil range.
Personal Demographics	
8.	842 individual responses in the survey: 318 or 61% of superintendents; 281 or 54% of board presidents; 243 or 46% of board members who were sent surveys.
9	30% of respondents from Class B; 30% from C districts; 22% from Class D; and 18% from Class A sized districts.
10	50% of supt in rural areas, 38% of presidents & 39% of members in cities.
11	31% of respondents have 5 to 8 years of service; Superintendents and board members likely to have 4 service years or less. Presidents likely to have 5 service years or more.
12	35% of superintendents have Ed.S; 33% Doctorates; 31% Masters. 36% of presidents have Bachelors; 33% HS Diplomas; 25% Masters. 40% of members have HS Diplomas; 31% Bachelors; 23% Masters.
13	31% of respondents come from districts within \$3501-4000 funding.
Main Variables	
Hypothesis 1.	
14	62% of superintendents, 60% presidents, 57% members favor Community representation; 37% of superintendents, 40% presidents, 41% members favor District representation.
15	76% of respondents favor Trustee Representational Style.

Table 69. Continued

-
- 16 89% of all respondents believe board has Legislative Role. Superintendents more likely to support Legislative role than board.
- 17 25% of respondents use a Traditional Organizational Belief.
- 18 39% of respondents use an Approval Decision Process. Superintendents more likely to believe board use a Political decision process.

Demographic Relationship**Hypothesis 2**

- 19 Class A districts more likely to use a Political decision process. Class B districts more likely to use an Approval decision process. Class D districts more likely to use a Satisficing decision process. Class C districts least likely to use a Political decision process.
- 20 Members with 5+ service years are more likely to have a Delegate representational style. Members with 4 service years or less are likely to have a Trustee style.
- 21 Superintendents with a Masters degree are more likely to support Community Representation. Superintendents with a Doctorate are more likely to support District Representation.
- 22 Presidents and board members with a Bachelors Degree are more likely to assume a Legislative Role. Some presidents and members with a HS Diploma are more likely to assume an Admin Role.

Organizational Belief, Decision Process, and Change**Hypothesis 3.**

- 23 Traditional organizational belief likely used with Approval decision. Contingency organizational belief likely used with Rational decision. Systems organizational belief likely used with Rational decision.

Hypothesis 4

- 24 46% of respondents do not desire a change in their Decision process. Superintendents are more likely to prefer a Rational decision process. Presidents are more likely not to desire a change in Decision process. Members are more likely to prefer an Analysis decision process.
- 25 46% of respondents do not desire a change in their Organizational belief. Of those who desire change: 19% prefer Contingency; 18% Systems; 8% Site-based management; 3% Human Resource; 2% Legal-Rational; 2% Political; 1% Traditional; and 1% Symbolic organizational beliefs.
- 26 49% of "no change in Decision" respondents use Rational Decision.

Table 69. Continued

-
- 27 34% of "no change in Organizational Belief" respondents use Contingency. 28% of "no change in Organizational Belief" respondents use Systems.
- 28 Respondents who desire Change in their Decision process are more likely to want to change their Organizational belief; those that do not want change in their decision process are also likely to not want to change their Organizational belief.
- 29 64% of respondents want additional information on Decision Process. Superintendents are less likely than boards to want Decision information.
- 30 65% of respondents want additional information on Organization. Superintendents are less likely than boards to want Organizational information.

Representation, Role, and Agreement**Hypothesis 7**

- 31 Board members with a Trustee representational style are more likely to represent the District. Members with a Delegate style are more likely to represent the Community.
- 32 Presidents with a Trustee representational style are more likely to represent the Community. Presidents with a Delegate Style are more likely to represent the District.
- 33 Presidents with a Legislative Role are more likely to represent the Community. Presidents with an Administrative Role are more likely to represent the District.

Hypothesis 8

- 34 176 districts represented in matching superintendent & president data.
- 35 87% of matched superintendents and presidents agreed on board Role; 67% agreed on Style; 51% agreed on Representation; 26% agreed on Decision process; 14% agreed on Organizational belief.
- 36 If superintendents and presidents Disagree on Representation, presidents are more likely to represent District. If Agree on Representation, presidents likely represent Community.
- 37 When there is disagreement on Style, presidents are likely to have a Delegate representational style. When there is agreement on Style, presidents are likely to have a Trustee style.
- 38 If Agreement on Style, there is likely Agreement on Representation.
- 39 Class D supt & pres are more likely to Disagree on Representation.
- 40 Class C supt & pres are more likely to Disagree on Rep Style.

Table 69. Continued**Training**

-
- 41 54% of superintendents do not believe boards should have a copy of the School Code, 52% presidents have the Code, 55% of members do not have a personal copy of the School Code.
- 42 76% of superintendents are trained in Decision Process. 24% of superintendents are trained about School Boards.
- 43 57% of all respondents favor Mandatory Training for board. Superintendents are more likely to support Mandatory Training.
- 44 Wanted Training: Role, Finance, Negotiations, Decision Making, Curriculum, Policy vs. Admin, School Law, Pressure, Policy Making.
- 45 Training Priorities: superintendents & Role; board & Finance.
- 46 73% of respondents believe boards are trained in Role. Superintendents are more likely to believe their boards are not trained in Role.
- 47 64% of respondents believe their boards are not trained in Organizational structure. Presidents more likely to believe they are trained in Organizational structure.
- 48 Matched superintendents & presidents who have had organization training are more likely to use Contingency organizational structure; more likely to use Human Resource or Traditional without organizational training.
- 49 Respondents who have had organization training are more likely to use Rational decision process. Likely to use Approval without decision training.
- 50 59% of respondents believe that boards are trained in Decision processes. Superintendents likely to believe boards are not trained in Decision. Presidents most likely to believe they have training in Decision.
- 51 Respondents who have had training in decision are more likely to use a Rational decision process. More likely to use Approval without training.
- 52 Matched board respondents who have decision training are more likely to be Delegates. More likely to be Trustees without training.
- 53 Board Trainers: MASB 37%, District 25%, ISD 20%, Other 18%.
- 54 Respondents who have received training from District trainers are more likely to use Systems or Contingency organizational structure. More likely to use Traditional or Symbolic without District trainers.

Table 69. Continued

-
- 55 Respondents who have had training from District trainers are more likely to use a Rational decision process. More likely to use a Satisficing decision process without District trainers.
- 56 Respondents who have had training from ISD trainers are more likely to use a Rational decision process. More likely to use an Approval process without ISD trainers.

MASB Training

- 57 83% of presidents and members have received training from MASB. Presidents more likely to have received MASB Training than board members.
- 58 Presidents & members with 5 to 8 Service years likely to have MASB Training. Presidents and board members with 4 years or less unlikely to have MASB Training.
- 59 Presidents & members w/Bachelors or less education are more likely to have MASB Training. Board respondents w/Masters or higher education are less likely to have MASB Trainers.
- 60 62% of board respondents are not MASB certified; President more likely to have MASB Certification than board members.
- 61 55% of presidents are not certified.
Class A & B districts more likely to have Certified board presidents. Class C & D districts less likely to have Certified board presidents.
- 62 Presidents and members with 4 or less Service years more likely not to be Certified. Presidents and board members with over 5 Service years are more likely to be Certified.
- 63 26% of superintendents have no Certified members on their school board, 19% have 1 Certified member, 14% have 2 Certified members.

Hypothesis 9

- 64 86% of presidents and board members who are Certified believe they make Better Decision due to MASB Certification.
- 65 Superintendents are less likely to believe their boards make Better Decisions due to MASB Certification.

Hypothesis 10

- 66 Board members who are Certified are more likely to represent the District. Board members who are not Certified are likely to represent the Community.
- 67 Certified presidents and board members are likely to have Legislative Roles.
- 68 Some certified presidents and board members are likely to use a Delegate Style. Non-Certified presidents and board members are more likely to use a Trustee Style.
-

Major Findings

1. Frequency information was found that indicates primary Representation, Representational Style, Role, Organizational Structure, and Decision Process in Michigan school boards and districts.
2. Significant relationships were found between the demographic variables of class size, service years, and education level by the variables of representation, representational style, role, and decision process. No significant relationships stood the test of the criteria with the demographic variable of funding. Significance was found with the variable of location, but not included in this report. The variable of organizational belief was not found to be significant with any demographic variable.
3. Significant relationships were found between the categories of organizational structural belief and the categories of decision processes in Michigan school districts.
4. Significant findings were found in the analysis of the variable of preferred decision process by the variables of decision process change and organizational structure change.
5. No significance was found between the variables of representation by decision process. No significance was found between the variables of representation by organizational belief.
6. No significance was found between the variables of role by decision process. No significance was found between the variables of role by organizational belief.
7. Significant relationships were found between specific representation categories and specific representational styles in Michigan school board presidents and members. Significant relationships were also found between representation and role.
8. Significant findings and relationships were found among the variables of matched Michigan superintendent and board president agreement and the variables of representation and representational style. Significance was not found for the variables of role, organizational belief and decision process by the variables of agreement.
9. Significant relationships were found between training variables of school boards and many other variables. These provide a description of school board training in Michigan.

10. Significant relationships were found between variables of: District trainers by the variables of organizational structure and decision process; ISD trainers by the variable of decision process; MASB trainers and the variable of representational style; MASB certification training and the variables of representation, and role. However significance was not found between MASB training or trainer variables and the variables of decision process or organizational belief.

CHAPTER VI

ANALYSIS OF DECISION THEORY DATA

The output of any study, to be useful, does not consist, essentially, of a specification of optimal means. It must propose, rather, an argument in favour of accepting some particular definition of the problem which leads to a corresponding means of solutions.

Rosenhead, 1989

In Chapter V, the data concerning the successes and failures of the hypotheses were explored. Those results described school boards in Michigan today. However certain significant patterns were also found in the data analysis which pertain to decision theory. These significant relationships are presented in this chapter and seem to suggest:

1. some plausible reasons for school board behavior;
2. some comparisons between the elements of decision theory and the reported behavior of a decision making body;
3. some significant relationships between decision theory variables, and
4. some implications about decision theory as a whole.

In the investigation into decision theory, described in Chapter III, three notions seemed to surface repeatedly in the literature. These were Incrementalism, Consensus, and special interest influence or Pressure. Incrementalism and consensus were discussed by Janis and Mann (1977) and Janis (1989). These authors defined incrementalism as a succession of small satisficing policy changes over time and consensus as a simple criterion or primary decision rule in making decisions. Further, the subject of influential pressure and special interest groups were discussed in the literature by Simon (1979) and Mullen and Roth

(1991). Simon believed that decision making is intimately related to organizational structure due to the influence from communication lines within and without the organization. Mullen and Roth feel that influence is a byproduct of human approval and belonging needs which is a major tenet of their theory of decision. All three notions of Incrementalism, Consensus, and Pressure have authors that defend supporting or opposing viewpoints on the value of each of the variables. Each of the following three sections includes a brief synopsis of these theoretical viewpoints. These three notions were included in the survey because the researcher was interested in a comparison between the decision theory literature and reported reality.

All parameters of the sample groups, significance testing, criteria and analysis are identical to those used throughout this study. The data presented in this chapter consist of 842 valid survey answers received from 318 superintendents, 281 board presidents and 243 board members in Michigan. All crosstabulations are tested for significance at the alpha of .05 using Pearson's Chi Square, Cramer's V, and the Likelihood Ratio. Significance tests were eliminated as evidence if one open cell was found in a crosstabulation grid of less than 10 cells; more than one open cell was found in any larger crosstabulation grid; and if more than 20% of the cells in each crosstabulation contained less than 5 expected frequencies. No open cells are found in any crosstabulation in this chapter. All criteria are presented with each crosstabulation. Data are presented as distributions and crosstabulations. Distributions contain marginal and column percentages. Crosstabulations contain marginal, row, and column percentages as well as residuals.

Crosstabulations are interpreted by judging the value of row, column and residual information. Rounded percentages are used in discussion.

INCREMENTALISM

According to Janis and Mann (1977) in the discussion on normative decision theory in Chapter III, incremental or small sequential change is used to alleviate shortcomings in a present policy in order to put out the "fires" of complaint. Since Janis and Mann believe that incrementalism uses a satisficing decision process, they feel that this eliminates any effort to specify major goals, or spend the effort to find the best means for achieving set objectives. On the other hand, Beach (1993) believes that incremental change is necessary. He advocates incremental change as the best way to promote long term change, because change threatens long held beliefs that make up the organizational culture. He says that if you mandate change or use a crisis situation to promote change then you also risk either overt or covert rebellion. Rather he believes that small incremental changes over time in the activities of an organization will promote change in the organizational culture and then ultimate change in the organization. Neither Janis and Mann nor Beach allied their views on incrementalism with other variables or presented specific documentation.

Therefore, incrementalism was investigated in this exploratory study and crosstabulated with all other variables in eight data files. Significance at less than .05 alpha was not found between incrementalism and the variables of representation, representational style, role, organizational belief, consensus, or pressure. Nor were

significant relationships found with the demographic variables of location, years in service, education, or funding.

Significant relationships were found between the variable of incrementalism and the variables of class size and decision process. A pattern of significance at less than .05 alpha was also found between incrementalism and the training variables of superintendent training about school boards, board district trainers, other trainers, role training, and organizational training. All interpretations concerning training variables were found to be similar in that if boards or superintendents were trained, they were also more likely not to prefer incrementalism. A brief summary is found at the end of this section.

Table 70. Distribution of Incrementalism by Respondent

Count		SUCT. B. PRES. MEMBER			Row Total
Col	Pct	1	2	3	
-----+-----+-----+-----+					
1		225	183	149	557
YES: PREFER		75.0	68.8	65.6	70.2
SMALL CHANGES		-----+-----+-----+			
2		75	83	78	236
NO: PREFER		25.0	31.2	34.4	29.8
MAJOR CHANGE		-----+-----+-----+			
Column		300	266	227	793
Total		37.8	33.5	28.6	100.0

Number of Missing Observations: 49

In Table 70, a marginal row total of 70% indicates that the majority of respondents answered in favor of incrementalism. The column percentages in row one of 69% and 66% describe the majority of board presidents and board members as preferring incrementalism. The highest column percentage is found in cell 1-1 and shows that 75%

of superintendents believe their boards prefer small changes in district policy over time rather than major changes.

Table 71. Crosstabulation of Incrementalism by Class Size from Matched Superintendent and President Data.

Count	CLASS A CLASS B CLASS C CLASS D				
Row Pct					
Col Pct					
Residual	1	2	3	4	Row Total
-----+					
1	41	61	80	52	234
YES: PREFER	17.5%	26.1%	34.2%	22.2%	70.1%
INCREMENTALISM	64.1%	64.9%	69.6%	85.2%	
	-3.8	-4.9	-.6	9.3	
-----+					
2	23	33	35	9	100
NO: PREFER	23.0%	33.0%	35.0%	9.0%	29.9%
MAJOR CHANGE	35.9%	35.1%	30.4%	14.8%	
	3.8	4.9	.6	-9.3	
-----+					
Column	64	94	115	61	334
Total	19.2%	28.1%	34.4%	18.3%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
-----	-----	----	-----
Pearson	9.01341	3	.02911
Likelihood Ratio	9.90018	3	.01943
Cramer's V	.16427		.02911
Minimum Expected Frequency - 18.263			
Number of Missing Observations: 18			

In Table 71, high column percentages in row one for all class size categories and a high marginal row percentage of 70% indicate that the majority of matched superintendents and board presidents believe that their districts prefer incrementalism. A high column percentage of 85% and higher than expected observations or residual of 9.3 in cell 1-4 suggest that Class D school districts are more likely to prefer incrementalism than other class size districts.

Table 72. Crosstabulation of Incrementalism by Role Training from Grouped Board Data

	Count	YES: PREFER INCREM. CHANGE	NO: PREFER MAJOR CHANGE	Row Total
	Row Pct	Col Pct	Residual	
	1	2		
YES: ROLE TRG	1	245	134	379
	64.6%	35.4%	77.7%	
	74.7%	83.8%		
	-9.7	9.7		
NO: ROLE TRG	2	83	26	109
	76.1%	23.9%	22.3%	
	25.3%	16.3%		
	9.7	-9.7		
Column Total	328	160	488	
	67.2%	32.8%	100.0%	
Chi-Square	Value		DF	Significance
Pearson	5.08292		1	.02416
Continuity Correction	4.57434		1	.03245
Likelihood Ratio	5.29516		1	.02138
Cramer's V	.10206			.02416
Minimum Expected Frequency -	35.738			
Number of Missing Observations:	36			

In Table 72, a marginal row percentage of 78% and a marginal column percentage of 67% describe the majority of board presidents and board members as believing that they are trained in role and prefer incrementalism. However, a high row percentage of 76% and a high grid residual of 9.7 in cell 2-1 indicate that most board respondents who do not have role training are more likely to prefer incrementalism. A high column percentage of 84% and a high grid residual of 9.7 in cell 1-2 demonstrate that most board respondents who do have role training are more likely to prefer major change. This test is interpreted to mean that when board respondents receive role training they are more

likely to prefer major change. Significance was also found between the variable of incrementalism by the variable of training in organizational structure at .04724 with similar results. However, significance was not found between incrementalism and decision training.

Table 73. Crosstabulation of Incrementalism by District Trainers from Matched Superintendent and President Data

	Count	YES: PREFER INCREM. CHANGE	NO: PREFER MAJOR CHANGE	Row Total
	Row Pct	1	2	
	Col Pct			
	Residual			
	1	123	66	189
YES:		65.1%	34.9%	61.6%
DISTRICT		56.9%	72.5%	
TRAINERS		-10.0	10.0	
	2	93	25	118
NO:		78.8%	21.2%	38.4%
DISTRICT		43.1%	27.5%	
TRAINERS		10.0	-10.0	
	Column	216	91	307
	Total	70.4%	29.6%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	6.57042	1	.01037
Continuity Correction	5.92838	1	.01490
Likelihood Ratio	6.76495	1	.00930
Cramer's V	.14629		.01037
Minimum Expected Frequency - 34.977			
Number of Missing Observations: 45			

In Table 73, the marginal row percentage of 62% and the marginal column percentage of 70% describe the majority of matched superintendents and board presidents as believing that their boards use district trainers and prefer incremental change. However, a high row percentage of 79% and a high grid residual of 10.0 in cell 2-1 indicate that boards who do not use district trainers are more likely to prefer

incrementalism. A high column percentage of 73% and a high grid residual of 10.0 in cell 1-2 suggest that boards who use district trainers are more likely to prefer major change. Significance was not found for the variable of incrementalism by the variables of ISD trainers or MASB trainers.

Table 74. Crosstabulation of Incrementalism by Other Trainers from all Respondent Data

	Count	YES: PREFER SMALL CHANGE	NO: PREFER MAJOR CHANGE	Row Total
	Row Pct			
	Col Pct			
	Residual	1	2	
	-----+-----+-----+-----			
YES: OTHER TRAINERS	1	192	103	295
		65.1%	34.9%	42.3%
		39.0%	50.2%	
		-16.2	16.2	
	+-----+-----+-----+-----			
NO TRAINERS	2	300	102	402
		74.6%	25.4%	57.7%
		61.0%	49.8%	
		16.2	-16.2	
	+-----+-----+-----+-----			
Column		492	205	697
Total		70.6%	29.4%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
-----	-----	----	-----
Pearson	7.46194	1	.00630
Continuity Correction	7.00940	1	.00811
Likelihood Ratio	7.41511	1	.00647
Cramer's V	.10347		.00630
Minimum Expected Frequency - 86.765			
Number of Missing Observations: 145			

In Table 74, marginal row percentages show that 58% of respondents believe that they or their boards have not received training from Other trainers. A high row percentage of 75%, a high column percentage of 61%, and higher than expected observations or residual of 16.2 in cell 2-1 indicate that respondents who have not had

training from Other trainers are more likely to prefer incrementalism. Although more than expected frequencies are found in cell 1-2, this researcher cannot interpret this crosstabulation in favor of an impact by Other trainers. The column percentages in row 2 are 50% and 50%. Therefore, this test is interpreted to mean that respondents who do not have training are more likely to prefer small incremental change. The significance level of this test is less than .01 alpha.

Table 75. Crosstabulation Incrementalism by Decision Process from Board Member Data

	Count	RATIONAL SATISFIC POLITIC APPROVAL ANALYSIS					
	Row Pct						Row
	Col Pct						Total
	Residual	1	2	3	4	5	
-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----							
1		53	15	10	49	17	144
YES:		36.8%	10.4%	6.9%	34.0%	11.8%	65.5%
PREFER SMALL		70.7%	71.4%	55.6%	56.3%	89.5%	
CHANGES OVER		3.9	1.3	-1.8	-7.9	4.6	
TIME		-----+-----+-----+-----+-----					
2		22	6	8	38	2	76
NO:		28.9%	7.9%	10.5%	50.0%	2.6%	34.5%
PREFER MAJOR		29.3%	28.6%	44.4%	43.7%	10.5%	
CHANGE		-3.9	-1.3	1.8	7.9	-4.6	
		-----+-----+-----+-----+-----					
Column		75	21	18	87	19	220
Total		34.1%	9.5%	8.2%	39.5%	8.6%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
-----	-----	----	-----
Pearson	10.06943	4	.03927
Likelihood Ratio	10.99416	4	.02663
Cramer's V	.21394		.03927
Minimum Expected Frequency -	6.218		
Number of Missing Observations:	23		

High marginal percentages in Table 75 reiterate that board members prefer incrementalism and an approval or rational decision process. A high row percentage of 50% and higher than expected frequencies or residual of 7.9 in cell 2-4 show that board members who

prefer major change are more likely to have an approval decision process. A high row percentage of 37%, a high column percentage of 71%, and a positive residual of 3.9 in cell 1-1 indicate that board members who prefer incrementalism are more likely to have a rational decision process. A high column percentage of 90% and residual of 4.6 in cell 1-5 suggest that some board members who prefer incrementalism are also likely to use an Analysis decision process. The pattern of positive residuals describe board members who prefer incrementalism as more likely to have a rational, satisficing, or analysis decision process. Board members who prefer major change are more likely to have a political or approval decision process.

Summary on Incrementalism

These research findings indicate that 70% of respondents prefer incrementalism and Class D school districts are more likely to prefer small changes over time. Respondents are more likely to prefer incremental small changes when they have not had role training or training in organizational structure. Matched superintendent and board president respondents are likely to prefer major change when they have had training by district trainers. Lastly, board members who prefer major change are more likely to come from boards who use an Approval decision process, while members who prefer incrementalism are more likely to have boards who use a Rational decision process.

Considering the wide range of testing that was accomplished, the variable of incrementalism seems to have little impact on the main variables of this research with the exception of decision process and

training. However the effects of incrementalism may provide some reasoning why board members may use certain decision processes.

CONSENSUS

As noted in Chapter III on descriptive decision theory, conscious or unconscious decision rules are very powerful notions in decision making. Janis and Mann (1977), define the most commonly used decision rule as consensus and believe it is used primarily in a satisficing decision process. This decision is "good enough" if the majority supports it. The desire for unanimous consensus is described as a coping defense which people use to escape or avoid stress. Janis and Mann believe that the desire for unanimity can override realistic and careful consideration of alternatives and thereby cause defective decision making. They have labeled this type of defensive-avoidance as "groupthink." This implies that school board members or other groups of decision makers become so enmeshed in the process or politics of consensus that they exclude their own ability to form rational or analytical decisions. Instead they may go along with those leaders of their group due to pressure rather than contribute independent or opposing views. Janis and Mann believe that this leads to incomplete alternatives and an incomplete review of all consequences. On the other hand, "consensus building" is endorsed by the American Association of School Administrators and the National School Boards Association in Holding Effective Board Meetings (1984) as the main decision method for school boards. This "Team Decision Making" is described as a discussion method of decision making where board members are equals and view the superintendents as a resource for

information and advice. Although unanimity is not required, unanimous consensus frequently occurs. This team decision making does not seem to use any other decision making strategy other than discussion and is not a recommended practice by any decision theorists known to this author. Lastly, Iannaccone and Lutz (1970) believe that consensus itself is not the issue, but the appearance of consensus and lack of conflict is. They feel when school boards model unanimous agreement, it becomes a vehicle to protect the symbolic image of the board. This modeling of a lack of debate among board members can in turn discourage positive debate within the organization as a difference in opinion becomes politically incorrect. According to the Iannaccone and Lutz description, it is conceivable that consistent use of consensus might produce a primarily symbolic organizational structure.

Therefore, consensus was investigated in this exploratory study and crosstabulated with all other variables in eight data files. Significance at .05 alpha that met the established criteria was not found between consensus and the variables of representational style, role, decision process, or incrementalism. Demographic variables of location, education, and funding were also not found to have a relationship to consensus. However, significance relationships were found between consensus and the variables of representation, other trainers, role training, certification, better decisions, mandatory training, and organizational belief. Finally, relationships between consensus and the demographic variables of class size and years in service were also found to be significant. A brief concluding summary is found at the end of this section.

Table 76. Crosstabulation of Consensus by Respondent

Count				
Row Pct	SUPT.	B. PRES.	MEMBER	
Col Pct				Row
Residual	1	2	3	Total
-----+-----+-----+-----+				
1	54	35	21	110
YES: CONSENSUS	49.1%	31.8%	19.1%	13.5%
	17.5%	12.8%	9.0%	
	12.4	-1.8	-10.6	
-----+-----+-----+-----+				
2	254	238	213	705
NO: CONSENSUS	36.0%	33.8%	30.2%	86.5%
	82.5%	87.2%	91.0%	
	-12.4	1.8	10.6	
-----+-----+-----+-----+				
Column	308	273	234	815
Total	37.8%	33.5%	28.7%	100.0%
-----+-----+-----+-----+				
Chi-Square	Value		DF	Significance
-----+-----+-----+-----+				
Pearson	8.50261		2	.01425
Likelihood Ratio	8.66039		2	.01316
Cramer's V	.10214			.01425
-----+-----+-----+-----+				
Minimum Expected Frequency - 31.583				
Number of Missing Observations: 27				

In Table 76, the high marginal row percentage of 87% shows that the majority of all respondents do not believe that school board members should achieve a unanimous 7-0 vote in making decisions. The highest column percentage of 91% and residual of 10.6 in cell 2-3 indicate that board members are least likely to prefer consensus than superintendents or board presidents. However, a high row percentage of 49% and a high grid residual of 12.4 in cell 1-1 describes superintendents as more likely to prefer board consensus than board presidents or board members.

Table 77. Crosstabulation of Consensus by Class Size from Matched Board President and Member Data.

	Count					
	Row Pct	CLASS A	CLASS B	CLASS C	CLASS D	
	Col Pct					Row
	Residual	1	2	3	4	Total
	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	
	1	10	12	12	1	35
YES: CONSENSUS		28.6%	34.3%	34.3%	2.9%	13.2%
		15.9%	15.6%	17.4%	1.8%	
		1.7	1.9	2.9	-6.5	
	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	
	2	53	65	57	56	231
NO: CONSENSUS		22.9%	28.1%	24.7%	24.2%	86.8%
		84.1%	84.4%	82.6%	98.2%	
		-1.7	-1.9	-2.9	6.5	
	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	
Column		63	77	69	57	266
Total		23.7%	28.9%	25.9%	21.4%	100.0%
Chi-Square		Value	DF		Significance	
-----		-----	-----		-----	
Pearson		8.37230	3		.03891	
Likelihood Ratio		11.54888	3		.00910	
Cramer's V		.17741			.03891	
Minimum Expected Frequency - 7.500						
Number of Missing Observations: 10						

In Table 77 the marginal row percentage of 87% and high column percentages of 84%, 84%, 83%, and 98% found in row two describe the majority of matching board presidents and members from all class sized districts as not believing that their boards should achieve unanimous consensus in making decisions. In addition, a high grid residual of 6.5 in cell 2-4 indicates that Class D districts are more likely to place the least amount of value on consensus than other sized districts. However positive residuals in row one describe some Class A, Class B, and Class C district boards as more likely to support the concept of consensus.

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Table 78. Crosstabulation of Consensus by Service Years from Grouped Board Data

	Count						
	Row Pct	1 YEAR	2 TO 4	5 TO 8	9 TO 12	OVER 12	
	Col Pct	OR LESS	YEARS	YEARS	YEARS	YEARS	Row
	Residual	1	2	3	4	5	Total
1		3	13	13	10	17	56
YES: CONSENSUS		5.4%	23.2%	23.2%	17.9%	30.4%	11.1%
		6.5%	9.8%	7.7%	12.3%	21.8%	
		-2.1	-1.7	-5.6	1.0	8.4	
2		43	120	155	71	61	450
NO: CONSENSUS		9.6%	26.7%	34.4%	15.8%	13.6%	88.9%
		93.5%	90.2%	92.3%	87.7%	78.2%	
		2.1	1.7	5.6	-1.0	-8.4	
Column		46	133	168	81	78	506
Total		9.1%	26.3%	33.2%	16.0%	15.4%	100.0%
Chi-Square		Value		DF			Significance
Pearson		12.33798		4			.01501
Likelihood Ratio		10.92595		4			.02741
Cramer's V		.15615					.01501
Minimum Expected Frequency - 5.091							
Number of Missing Observations: 18							

The variables of Consensus by Service years is presented in Table 78. A high row percentage of 34%, a column percentage of 92%, and a high grid residual of 5.6 in cell 2-3 suggest that board presidents and members with 5 to 8 service years are more likely not to support the concept of consensus. However, a high row percentage of 30% and a high grid residual of 8.4 in cell 1-5 indicate that board presidents and members who have over 12 service years are more likely to believe that school boards should achieve a unanimous 7-0 vote in making decisions.

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Table 79. Crosstabulation of Consensus by Role Training from Grouped Board Data

		Count			
		Row Pct	YES:	NO:	
		Col Pct	CONSENSUS	CONSENSUS	Row
		Residual	1	2	Total
			-----+	-----+	
YES: ROLE TRG	1		50	342	392
			12.8%	87.2%	78.1%
			89.3%	76.7%	
			6.3	-6.3	
			-----+	-----+	
NO: ROLE TRG	2		6	104	110
			5.5%	94.5%	21.9%
			10.7%	23.3%	
			-6.3	6.3	
			-----+	-----+	
Column			56	446	502
Total			11.2%	88.8%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
-----	-----	----	-----
Pearson	4.61925	1	.03162
Continuity Correction	3.91200	1	.04794
Likelihood Ratio	5.32293	1	.02105
Cramer's V	.09593		.03162
Minimum Expected Frequency - 12.271			
Number of Missing Observations: 22			

In Table 79, a high marginal row percentage of 78% and a high marginal column percentage of 89% show that the majority of board presidents and members believe that they are trained in role and do not support consensus. However, a high row percentage of 95% and a high grid residual of 6.3 in cell 2-2 indicate that board presidents and members who have no role training are also more likely not to support consensus. On the other hand, a column percentage of 89% and a high grid residual of 6.3 in cell 1-1 suggests that some board presidents and members who have role training are also likely to support consensus. This test is interpreted to mean that if board presidents and members

are not trained in role then they are more likely to not support consensus for school boards.

Table 80. Crosstabulation of Consensus by Other Trainers from Matched Board President and Member Data

Count		YES:		NO:		Row
Row Pct	Col Pct	Row	Col	Row	Col	
Residual		1	2	1	2	Total
-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----						
YES: OTHER TRAINERS	1	21	88	109		
		19.3%	80.7%	47.2%		
		65.6%	44.2%			
		5.9	-5.9			
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----						
NO TRAINERS	2	11	111	122		
		9.0%	91.0%	52.8%		
		34.4%	55.8%			
		-5.9	5.9			
+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----+-----						
Column		32	199	231		
Total		13.9%	86.1%	100.0%		

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance

Pearson	5.06774	1	.02438
Continuity Correction	4.24525	1	.03936
Likelihood Ratio	5.11021	1	.02379
Cramer's V	.14812		.02438
Minimum Expected Frequency - 15.100			
Number of Missing Observations: 45			

In Table 80, the marginal row percentage of 53% depicts the majority of board presidents and members from the same district as not trained by Other trainers. A high row percentage of 91%, a high column percentage of 56%, and a positive residual of 5.9 in cell 2-2 indicate that matched board presidents and members who have not had training from Other trainers are more likely to not believe that their boards should achieve a 7-0 vote in making decisions. A high column percentage of 66% and residual of 5.9 in cell 1-1 suggest that some board presidents and members who have had training from Other

trainers are more likely to believe that their boards should achieve unanimous consensus. This test is interpreted to mean that board presidents and members from the same district who have not been trained by Other trainers are more likely to not support unanimity. It should be noted that significance was not found between the variable of consensus and District trainers, MASB trainers, or ISD trainers.

Table 81. Crosstabulation of Consensus by MASB Certification from Matched Board President and Member Data

	Count	YES	NOT	
Row Pct		MASB	CERTIFIED	
Col Pct		CERTIFIED		Row
Residual		1	2	Total
-----+-----+-----+-----+				
1		20	15	35
YES: CONSENSUS		57.1%	42.9%	13.1%
		18.7%	9.3%	
		6.0	-6.0	
+-----+-----+-----+-----+				
2		87	146	233
NO: CONSENSUS		37.3%	62.7%	86.9%
		81.3%	90.7%	
		-6.0	6.0	
+-----+-----+-----+-----+				
Column		107	161	268
Total		39.9%	60.1%	100.0%
-----+-----+-----+-----+				
Chi-Square		Value	DF	Significance
-----+-----+-----+-----+				
Pearson		4.97561	1	.02571
Continuity Correction		4.18419	1	.04080
Likelihood Ratio		4.86510	1	.02741
Cramer's V		.13626		.02571
Minimum Expected Frequency -		13.974		
Number of Missing Observations:		8		

The high marginal row percentage of 87% and the high marginal column percentage of 60% in Table 81 show that the majority of matched board presidents and members from the same district do not support consensus and are not certified. A high row percentage of 63%, a high column percentage of 91%, and a high grid residual of 6.0 in cell 2-2

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also indicate that board presidents and members who are not certified do not support consensus for board decisions. However, a high row percentage of 57% and residual of 6.0 in cell 1-1 suggest that some board presidents and members from the same district who are MASB certified are more likely to believe that their boards should achieve unanimous consensus when making decisions.

Table 82. Crosstabulation of Consensus by Mandatory Training from Grouped Board Data

		Count			
		Row Pct	YES:	NO:	
		Col Pct	CONSENSUS	CONSENSUS	Row
		Residual	1	2	Total
-----+-----+-----+					
YES:	1		38	205	243
SCHOOL BOARD			15.6%	84.4%	49.7%
TRAINING SHOULD			70.4%	47.1%	
BE MANDATORY			11.2	-11.2	
+-----+-----+-----+					
	2		16	230	246
NO MANDATORY			6.5%	93.5%	50.3%
TRAINING			29.6%	52.9%	
			-11.2	11.2	
+-----+-----+-----+					
Column			54	435	489
Total			11.0%	89.0%	100.0%
-----+-----+-----+					
Chi-Square			Value	DF	Significance
-----			-----	-----	-----
Pearson			10.38173	1	.00127
Continuity Correction			9.47276	1	.00209
Likelihood Ratio			10.64817	1	.00110
Cramer's V			.14571		.00127
Minimum Expected Frequency -			26.834		
Number of Missing Observations:			35		

In Table 82, a marginal column percentage of 89% maintains that board presidents and members do not support consensus for their school boards. Marginal row percentages are closely split between supporting or not supporting board member Mandatory training in Michigan. A high column percentage of 70% and a high grid residual of

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11.2 in cell 1-1 show that some board presidents and members who support consensus for board decisions are also more likely to support mandatory training. A high row percentage of 94%, a high column percentage of 53%, and a high grid residual of 11.2 in cell 2-2 indicate that those board presidents and members who do not support consensus for board decisions are less likely to support mandatory training.

Significance for this test is less than .01 alpha.

Table 83. Crosstabulation of Consensus by Representation (recoded) from Superintendent Data

Count		COMMUNITY DISTRICT		Row Total
Row Pct	Col Pct	INTEREST	INTEREST	
Residual		2	3	
-----+-----+-----+-----+				
1		26	26	52
YES: CONSENSUS		50.0%	50.0%	17.7%
		14.0%	24.1%	
		-6.9	6.9	
+-----+-----+-----+-----+				
2		160	82	242
NO: CONSENSUS		66.1%	33.9%	82.3%
		86.0%	75.9%	
		6.9	-6.9	
+-----+-----+-----+-----+				
Column Total		186	108	294
		63.3%	36.7%	100.0%
Chi-Square		Value		DF
-----		-----		-----
Pearson		4.78330		1
Continuity Correction		4.11500		1
Likelihood Ratio		4.65121		1
Cramer's V		.12755		
Minimum Expected Frequency -		19.102		
Number of Missing Observations:		24		
				Significance

				.02874
				.04250
				.03103
				.02874

A marginal row percentage of 63% and a marginal column percentage of 83% in Table 83 depict the majority of superintendent respondents who support Community representation as not supporting Consensus for board decisions. A high row percentage of 66%, a high column percentage of 86%, and a residual of 6.9 in cell 2-2 show that

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superintendents who do not believe boards should achieve consensus are also more likely to support Community representation. On the other hand, row one percentages show an even split between community and district interests by superintendents who support consensus for boards. A high positive residual of 6.9 in cell 1-3 depicts some superintendents who support district representation as more likely to believe their school boards should achieve unanimous decision making.

In Table 84, a marginal row percentage of 87% and marginal column percentages suggest that the majority of all respondents do not support unanimous consensus for Michigan school boards regardless of organizational belief. The row percentage of 26% and a positive residual of 4.9 found in cell 2-3 indicate that those respondents who do not favor consensus are more likely to have a Traditional organizational belief. However, high row percentages of 23% and 21% with positive residuals of 2.8 and 6.9 found in cells 1-8 and 1-6 respectively, indicate that those respondents who do favor consensus are more likely to have a Contingency or Systems organizational belief. Since the data are distributed heavily in favor of no consensus, interpretation is made on the pattern of positive residuals. Positive residuals are found in cells 2-1, 2-2, 2-3, and 2-4 which imply that those respondents who do not support consensus may be more likely to have Legal-Rational, Human Resource, Traditional, and Site-Based organizational beliefs. Positive residuals in cells 1-5, 1-6, 1-7 and 1-8 denote respondents who support consensus and are more likely to have Political, Systems, Symbolic, or Contingency organizational beliefs.

Table 84. Crosstabulation of Consensus by Organizational Belief from all Respondent Data

	Count						
Row	Pct	LEGAL-	HUMAN	TRADITION	SITE-	POLITIC	
Col	Pct	RATIONAL	RESOURCE		BASED		Row
Residual		1	2	3	4	5	Total
1		2	9	19	2	11	95
YES: CONSENSUS		2.1%	9.5%	20.0%	2.1%	11.6%	13.5%
		4.1%	9.5%	10.7%	9.1%	14.1%	
		-4.6	-3.8	-4.9	-1.0	.5	
2		47	86	158	20	67	608
NO: CONSENSUS		7.7%	14.1%	26.0%	3.3%	11.0%	86.5%
		95.9%	90.5%	89.3%	90.9%	85.9%	
		4.6	3.8	4.9	1.0	-.5	
Column		49	95	177	22	78	703
(Continued) Total		7.0%	13.5%	25.2%	3.1%	11.1%	100.0%

	Count				
	Row Pct	SYSTEMS	SYMBOLIC	CONTING	
	Col Pct				Row
	Residual	6	7	8	Total
	1	20	10	22	95
YES: CONSENSUS		21.1%	10.5%	23.2%	13.5%
		20.6%	23.3%	15.5%	
		6.9	4.2	2.8	
	2	77	33	120	608
NO: CONSENSUS		12.7%	5.4%	19.7%	86.5%
		79.4%	76.7%	84.5%	
		-6.9	-4.2	-2.8	
	Column	97	43	142	703
	Total	13.8%	6.1%	20.2%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	14.77509	7	.03899
Likelihood Ratio	15.20380	7	.03347
Cramer's V	.14497		.03899
Minimum Expected Frequency -	2.973		
Cells with Expected Frequency < 5 -		1 OF	16 (6.3%)
Number of Missing Observations:	139		

Table 85. Crosstabulation of Consensus by Pressure from Superintendent Data

Count			
Row Pct	YES:	NO:	
Col Pct	PRESSURE	PRESSURE	Row
Residual	1	2	Total
-----+-----+-----+			
1	21	31	52
YES: CONSENSUS	40.4%	59.6%	17.2%
	12.5%	23.0%	
	-7.8	7.8	
+-----+-----+-----+			
2	147	104	251
NO: CONSENSUS	58.6%	41.4%	82.8%
	87.5%	77.0%	
	7.8	-7.8	
+-----+-----+-----+			
Column	168	135	303
Total	55.4%	44.6%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
-----	-----	-----	-----
Pearson	5.76392	1	.01636
Continuity Correction	5.05144	1	.02461
Likelihood Ratio	5.73691	1	.01661
Cramer's V	.13792		.01636
Minimum Expected Frequency - 23.168			
Number of Missing Observations: 15			

In Table 85, a significant relationship was found between the variables of consensus by pressure. The variable of special interest pressure is taken from survey question 18 and is discussed in some detail in the next section. The high marginal row percentage of 82% shows that the majority of superintendents do not support consensus for school board decisions. The high marginal column percentage of 55% indicates that the majority of superintendents also believe that their boards have changed a tentative decision due to pressure from a special interest group. A high row percentage of 59%, a high column percentage of 88%, and a residual of 7.8 in cell 2-1 show that superintendents who do not support consensus also have boards that

yield to pressure. However, a high row percentage of 60% and a high grid residual of 7.8 in cell 1-2 indicate that some superintendents who support consensus are also likely to have school boards who have not changed their tentative decisions due to pressure. This test is interpreted to mean that superintendents who do not believe their boards should achieve 7-0 votes are more likely to believe that their boards have changed tentative decisions due to pressure.

Summary on Consensus

Research findings indicate that 87% of respondents do not believe in unanimous decision making for their boards. Class D districts are least likely to value unanimous decision making. School board presidents and members with 5 to 8 service years are least likely to support unanimity, while those with over 12 service years are most likely to believe boards should achieve a 7-0 vote in making decisions. The majority of superintendents who support community representation are less likely to support unanimous board decisions. Respondents who have a Traditional organizational belief are least likely to support consensus, while respondents who have a Systems organizational belief are more likely to support unanimous decision making. The board presidents and members who are not trained in role are more likely to not prefer unanimous decision making. Board presidents and members from the same district who have not had training from Other trainers are more likely not to support consensus. Matched board presidents and members who are MASB certified are more likely to believe that their boards should achieve a 7-0 vote in decisions. Presidents and members who do not support unanimous consensus are less likely to

support mandatory training. Finally, superintendents who believe their boards should not achieve a unanimous vote are more likely to have boards who have changed their tentative decisions due to special interest pressure.

Considering the wide range of testing that was accomplished, the variable of consensus seems to have little impact on the main variables of this research with the exception of organizational belief. However, findings seem to indicate that a desire for consensus is a learned response. It also seems especially important to note that no significant relationship was found between the variable of consensus and the variable of decision process.

PRESSURE

The growing influence of special interest pressure on school board decision making was discussed in Chapter II in relation to school board representation and in Chapter III as an element of the formal or informal influence structure of the organization. It is also applied in the empirical decision theory of Mullen and Roth (1991). Special interest groups are defined as any coalition or faction within or without the organization that attempts to influence the decision making body of the organization. Many authors such as Gross (1958) and Goldhammer (1964) seem to feel that school board members are misguided if they are influenced by these special interest groups which in turn can produce conflict and restrict the decision making function of the board. On the other hand authors such as Davies (1984) and Zerchykov (1984) believe that school board members should represent special interest constituencies or voting blocks and become more responsive. Griffiths

(1969) believes that an informal internal organization composed of special interest groups formed to affect decisions are found in every organization. He says that these factions are developed because people either feel omitted from the formal organizational scheme or are brought together in opposition to the formal organizational structure. Simon (1979) believes that decision making is intimately related to organizational structure due to the influence and communication lines within and without the organization. Lastly, Mullen and Roth believe that human beings have group and approval needs and can be influenced by the expectations of whatever group they feel that they belong. These authors feel that humans have a general tendency to conform and avoid confrontation. Thus, deciders are always susceptible to influence.

Special interest pressure was investigated in this exploratory study and crosstabulated with all other variables in eight data files. Significance at .05 alpha was not found between the variable of pressure by the variables of trainers, superintendent training, MASB certification, better decisions, board decision training, representational style or incrementalism. Likewise significance was not found between pressure and the demographic variables of location or service years. However significance was found within the established criteria in crosstabulations between special interest pressure and all other variables including the main variables of representation, role, decision process, preferred decision process, organizational belief, and training. Further, significant associations were found between the demographic variables of class size, education, and funding by the variable of

pressure. A brief concluding summary is found at the end of this section.

Table 86. Crosstabulation of Pressure by Respondent

Count		SUCT. B. PRES. MEMBER			
Row Pct	Col Pct				Row
Residual		1	2	3	Total
-----+-----+-----+-----+					
YES: PRESSURE	1	170	94	81	345
		49.3%	27.2%	23.5%	42.0%
		54.5%	33.9%	34.9%	
		38.9	-22.4	-16.5	
+-----+-----+-----+-----+					
NO: PRESSURE	2	142	183	151	476
		29.8%	38.4%	31.7%	58.0%
		45.5%	66.1%	65.1%	
		-38.9	22.4	16.5	
+-----+-----+-----+-----+					
Column		312	277	232	821
Total		38.0%	33.7%	28.3%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
-----	-----	-----	-----
Pearson	32.14503	2	.00000
Likelihood Ratio	32.08665	2	.00000
Cramer's V	.19787		.00000
Minimum Expected Frequency - 97.491			
Number of Missing Observations: 21			

A marginal row percentage of 58% in Table 86 shows that the majority of respondents believe that special interest pressure is not a problem in their district. A row percentage of 38%, a high column percentage of 66%, and a high positive residual of 22.4 in cell 2-2 indicate that board presidents are more likely to believe that their boards do not change tentative decisions due to special interest pressure. A high column percentage of 65% and a high residual of 16.5 in cell 2-3 maintain the same interpretation for board members. However, a high row percentage of 49%, a high column percentage of 55%, and the highest grid residual of 38.9 in cell 1-1 demonstrate that

superintendents are more likely to believe that their boards change tentative decisions due to special interest pressure. The significance level of this test is less than .001 alpha.

Table 87. Crosstabulation of Pressure by Class Size from all Matched District Respondent Data

	Count					
Row Pct	CLASS A	CLASS B	CLASS C	CLASS D		
Col Pct					Row	
Residual	1	2	3	4	Total	
	1	38	34	27	19	118
YES: PRESSURE	32.2%	28.8%	22.9%	16.1%		47.6%
	66.7%	47.2%	42.2%	34.5%		
	10.9	-.3	-3.5	-7.2		
	2	19	38	37	36	130
NO: PRESSURE	14.6%	29.2%	28.5%	27.7%		52.4%
	33.3%	52.8%	57.8%	65.5%		
	-10.9	.3	3.5	7.2		
Column	57	72	64	55		248
Total	23.0%	29.0%	25.8%	22.2%		100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	12.82198	3	.00504
Likelihood Ratio	13.00813	3	.00462
Cramer's V	.22738		.00504

Minimum Expected Frequency = 26.169

Number of Missing Observations: 10

In Table 87, a column percentage of 66% and a high positive residual of 7.2 in cell 2-4 show that Class D sized district boards are least likely to change their decisions due to special interest pressure. On the other hand, a high row percentage of 32%, a high column percentage of 67%, and a high grid residual of 10.9 in cell 1-1 indicate that Class A sized district boards are more likely than other districts to change tentative decisions due to special interest pressure. Further, the pattern of increasing row percentages and residuals suggests that

more pressure is felt from special interest groups as the district size increases. The significance level of this test is less than .01 alpha.

Table 88. Crosstabulation of Pressure by Education from All Matched District Respondent Data

	Count						
	Row Pct	HS	BACHELOR	MASTERS	ED.S	DOCTORATE	
	Col Pct	DIPLOMA	DEGREE	DEGREE	DEGREE	DEGREE	Row
	Residual	1	2	3	4	5	Total
	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	
YES: PRESSURE	1	19	19	40	19	20	117
		16.2%	16.2%	34.2%	16.2%	17.1%	47.4%
		33.9%	38.8%	57.1%	59.4%	50.0%	
		-7.5	-4.2	6.8	3.8	1.1	
	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	
NO: PRESSURE	2	37	30	30	13	20	130
		28.5%	23.1%	23.1%	10.0%	15.4%	52.6%
		66.1%	61.2%	42.9%	40.6%	50.0%	
		7.5	4.2	-6.8	-3.8	-1.1	
	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	-----+	
Column		56	49	70	32	40	247
Total		22.7%	19.8%	28.3%	13.0%	16.2%	100.0%
Chi-Square		Value		DF	Significance		
-----		-----		-----	-----		
Pearson		10.15259		4	.03793		
Likelihood Ratio		10.26089		4	.03626		
Cramer's V		.20274			.03793		
Minimum Expected Frequency - 15.158							
Number of Missing Observations: 11							

In Table 88, a high row percentage of 34%, a high column percentage of 57%, and a high positive residual of 6.8 in cell 1-3 describe respondents from the same district that have a Master's Degree as more likely to acknowledge that their boards have changed tentative decisions due to special interest pressure. Equal column five percentages depict respondents with Doctorate degrees as equally divided on the effect of special interest pressure. A high row percentage of 29%, a high column percentage of 66%, and a high grid residual of 7.5 in cell 2-1 indicate that those respondents with a HS

Diploma level of education are more likely to believe that their boards have not changed tentative decisions due to special interest pressure. Further, the pattern of the residuals illustrates that respondents with a Bachelor's Degree or less education are less likely to acknowledge the influence of pressure in their board decisions, while those respondents with a Master's Degree or higher educational level are more likely to perceive or acknowledge special interest pressure. However, some caution must be taken in evaluating this crosstabulation since superintendents do not have less than a Master's Degree. This test is therefore interpreted to mean that board presidents and members with a Bachelor's Degree or less are least likely to believe that pressure is influential in their district decisions.

In Table 89, a significant relationship was found between pressure and the demographic variable of funding. According to a row percentage of 33%, a high column percentage of 71%, and a positive residual of 4.1 in cell 2-3 board presidents who are in districts with 1992-93 funding levels of \$3501-4000 per student are less likely to experience special interest pressure. Similarly a high column percentage of 84% and a high grid residual of 8.1 in cell 2-4 show that board presidents with district funding of \$4001-4500 per student are less likely to believe that their board has changed its tentative decisions due to special interest pressure. However a high column percentage of 52% and a positive residual of 4.8 in cell 1-5 indicate that some board presidents in districts with a \$4501-5000 funding level are more likely to believe that their boards do change tentative decisions due to special interest pressure. This test is interpreted to mean that

Table 89. Crosstabulation of Pressure by 1992-93 Funding per student from Board President Data

		Count					
		Row Pct	\$3000	\$3001-	\$3501-	\$4001-	\$4501-
		Col Pct	OR LESS	3500	4000	4500	5000
		Residual	1	2	3	4	5
			1	2	3	4	5
YES: PRESSURE	1		4	22	24	7	14
			4.4%	24.2%	26.4%	7.7%	15.4%
			50.0%	37.3%	29.3%	15.9%	51.9%
			1.3	1.8	-4.1	-8.1	4.8
NO: PRESSURE	2		4	37	58	37	13
			2.3%	21.1%	33.1%	21.1%	7.4%
			50.0%	62.7%	70.7%	84.1%	48.1%
			-1.3	-1.8	4.1	8.1	-4.8
Column			8	59	82	44	27
(Continued) Total			3.0%	22.2%	30.8%	16.5%	10.2%
							266
							100.0%

		Count		
		Row Pct	OVER	Row
		Col Pct	\$5000	Total
		Residual	6	Total
YES: PRESSURE	1		20	91
			22.0%	34.2%
			43.5%	
			4.3	
NO: PRESSURE	2		26	175
			14.9%	65.8%
			56.5%	
			-4.3	
Column			46	266
Total			17.3%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	14.06122	5	.01523
Likelihood Ratio	14.66293	5	.01190
Cramer's V	.22992		.01523
Minimum Expected Frequency - 2.737			
Cells with Expected Frequency < 5 - 1 OF 12 (8.3%)			
Number of Missing Observations: 15			

pressure from special interest groups seems to have the least influence in districts that are in the \$3501-4500 funding levels.

Table 90. Crosstabulation of Pressure by Role Training from Matched Superintendent and President Data

	Count			
	Row Pct	YES:	NO:	
	Col Pct	PRESSURE	PRESSURE	Row
	Residual	1	2	Total
		-----+		
YES: ROLE TRG	1	100	151	251
		39.8%	60.2%	73.6%
		67.1%	78.6%	
		-9.7	9.7	
		-----+		
NO: ROLE TRG	2	49	41	90
		54.4%	45.6%	26.4%
		32.9%	21.4%	
		9.7	-9.7	
		-----+		
Column		149	192	341
Total		43.7%	56.3%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
-----	-----	-----	-----
Pearson	5.74269	1	.01656
Continuity Correction	5.16444	1	.02305
Likelihood Ratio	5.71036	1	.01687
Cramer's V	.12977		.01656
Minimum Expected Frequency - 39.326			
Number of Missing Observations: 11			

In Table 90, a marginal row percentages of 74% and a marginal column percentage of 56% illustrate that matched superintendents and board presidents believe that their boards have been trained in role and have not changed their tentative decisions due to special interest pressure. This determination is also upheld by a row percentage of 60%, a high column percentage of 79%, and a high grid residual of 9.7 in cell 1-2. However a row percentage of 54% and a residual of 9.7 in cell 2-1 also suggest that some matched superintendents and presidents who do not have role training are more likely to have boards who have

changed their tentative decisions due to special interest pressure. This test is interpreted to mean that respondents who have had role training are more likely not to change decisions due to special interest pressure. This implies that role training may be a deterrent to the effects of special interest pressure.

Table 91. Crosstabulation of Pressure by Organizational Training from all Respondent Data.

	Count			
	Row Pct	YES:	NO:	
	Col Pct	PRESSURE	PRESSURE	Row
	Residual	1	2	Total
		+-----+		
	1	101	183	284
YES:		35.6%	64.4%	36.5%
ORGANIZATIONAL		31.1%	40.3%	
TRAINING		-17.5	17.5	
		+-----+		
	2	224	271	495
NO TRAINING		45.3%	54.7%	63.5%
		68.9%	59.7%	
		17.5	-17.5	
		+-----+		
	Column	325	454	779
	Total	41.7%	58.3%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
-----	-----	-----	-----
Pearson	6.96775	1	.00830
Continuity Correction	6.57496	1	.01034
Likelihood Ratio	7.02514	1	.00804
Cramer's V	.09458		.00830
Minimum Expected Frequency - 118.485			
Number of Missing Observations: 63			

In Table 91, although marginal percentages of 64% and 58% show that the majority of respondents believe that their boards do not change tentative decisions due to pressure and do not have training in organizational structure, this is not indicated by further analysis. Cell 1-2 contains a row percentage of 64% and a residual of 17.5, which indicate that respondents who have boards who have not changed

tentative decisions due to pressure are more likely to have had organizational training. A column percentage of 69% and a positive residual of 17.5 in cell 2-1 further suggest that some respondents who are not trained in organizational structure, also have boards which are more likely to change decisions due to special interest pressure. These results imply that organizational training is a deterrent to special interest pressure. The significance of this test is less than .01 alpha according to Pearson Chi-Square test of significance. Further, significance was not found between the variables of pressure by decision training, District trainer, ISD trainer, MASB trainer, or Other trainer.

In Table 92, high marginal percentages of 57% and 58% suggest that a majority of respondents that have boards who have not changed tentative decisions due to special interest pressure, support mandatory training. However, a high column percentage of 64% and a high grid residual of 23.0 in cell 1-1 indicate that respondents who believe that training should be mandatory are also more likely to have boards who have changed a tentative decision due to special interest pressure. Similarly, a high row percentage of 65% and a high grid residual of 23.0 in cell 2-2 maintains that respondents who have not changed their decisions due to pressure are more likely not to support mandatory training for school boards. This test is interpreted to mean that respondents who have board who have changed decisions due to pressure are more likely to support mandatory training than respondents who have boards who resist pressure. The significance level of this test is less than .001 alpha according to Pearson Chi Square and less than .01 using SPSS Continuity Correction.

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Table 92. Crosstabulation of Pressure by Mandatory Training from All Respondent data

Count				
Row Pct	YES:	NO:		
Col Pct	PRESSURE	PRESSURE	Row	
Residual	1	2	Total	
-----+-----+-----+				
1	215	240	455	
YES: MANDATORY	47.3%	52.7%	57.3%	
TRAINING FOR	64.2%	52.3%		
SCHOOL BOARDS	23.0	-23.0		
+-----+-----+-----+				
2	120	219	339	
NO MANDATORY	35.4%	64.6%	42.7%	
TRAINING	35.8%	47.7%		
	-23.0	23.0		
+-----+-----+-----+				
Column	335	459	794	
Total	42.2%	57.8%	100.0%	

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
-----	-----	----	-----
Pearson	11.19288	1	.00082
Continuity Correction	10.71212	1	.00106
Likelihood Ratio	11.26673	1	.00079
Cramer's V	.11873		.00082
Minimum Expected Frequency -	143.029		
Number of Missing Observations:	48		

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Table 93. Crosstabulation of Pressure by Representation (Recoded for outliers) from Grouped Board Data

Count		COMMUNITY DISTRICT		Row Total
Row Pct	Col Pct	INTEREST	INTEREST	
Residual	2	3		
-----+-----+-----+				
1	86	80		166
YES: PRESSURE	51.8%	48.2%		34.3%
	30.1%	40.4%		
	-12.1	12.1		
+-----+-----+-----+				
2	200	118		318
NO: PRESSURE	62.9%	37.1%		65.7%
	69.9%	59.6%		
	12.1	-12.1		
+-----+-----+-----+				
Column	286	198		484
Total	59.1%	40.9%		100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
-----	-----	-----	-----
Pearson	5.54482	1	.01854
Continuity Correction	5.09571	1	.02399
Likelihood Ratio	5.51302	1	.01888
Cramer's V	.10703		.01854
Minimum Expected Frequency - 67.909			
Number of Missing Observations: 40			
Recoded for outliers: Representation variable categories 1 and 4			

In Table 93, a high row percentage of 63%, a high column percentage of 70%, and a high grid residual of 12.1 in cell 2-2 indicate that board presidents and members who represent community interests are more likely to believe that their boards do not change tentative decisions due to special interest pressure. Another interpretation might be that boards who are not under special interest pressure are more likely to represent the community. A positive residual of 12.1 in cell 1-3 also suggests that boards who are under special interest pressure are more likely to represent the district interests.

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Table 94. Crosstabulation of Pressure by Role from Grouped Board Data

		Count			
		Row Pct	YES:	NO:	
		Col Pct	PRESSURE	PRESSURE	Row
		Residual	1	2	Total
			-----+	-----+	
LEGISLATIVE	1		146	285	431
			33.9%	66.1%	86.5%
			85.9%	86.9%	
			-1.1	1.1	
			-----+	-----+	
JUDICIAL	2		16	15	31
			51.6%	48.4%	6.2%
			9.4%	4.6%	
			5.4	-5.4	
			-----+	-----+	
ADMINISTRATIVE	3		8	28	36
			22.2%	77.8%	7.2%
			4.7%	8.5%	
			-4.3	4.3	
			-----+	-----+	
Column			170	328	498
Total			34.1%	65.9%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
-----	-----	-----	-----
Pearson	6.49716	2	.03883
Likelihood Ratio	6.43437	2	.04007
Cramer's V	.11422		.03883
Minimum Expected Frequency - 10.582			
Number of Missing Observations: 26			

In Table 94, high marginal percentages of 87% and 66% describe the majority of board presidents and members as believing that they have legislative roles and have boards who have not changed decisions due to pressure. However a high row percentage of 52% and residual of 5.4 in cell 2-1 indicate that some board presidents and members who assume a judicial role are more likely to have boards who change decisions due to pressure. A high row percentage of 78% and a residual of 4.3 in cell 3-2 suggest that board presidents and members who assume administrative roles are more likely to have boards who resist special interest pressure.

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Table 95. Crosstabulation of Pressure by Role from President Data

Count	LEGISLAT	JUDICIAL	ADMINIST	
Row Pct				
Col Pct				
Residual	1	2	3	Row Total
1	76	9	6	91
YES: PRESSURE	83.5%	9.9%	6.6%	33.6%
	31.5%	64.3%	37.5%	
	-4.9	4.3	.6	
2	165	5	10	180
NO: PRESSURE	91.7%	2.8%	5.6%	66.4%
	68.5%	35.7%	62.5%	
	4.9	-4.3	-.6	
Column	241	14	16	271
Total	88.9%	5.2%	5.9%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	6.48022	2	.03916
Likelihood Ratio	6.04965	2	.04857
Cramer's V	.15464		.03916
Minimum Expected Frequency - 4.701			
Cells with Expected Frequency < 5 - 1 OF 6 (16.7%)			
Number of Missing Observations: 10			

According to a high row percentage of 92%, a high column percentage of 69%, and a residual of 4.9 in cell 2-1 from Table 95, board presidents who assume legislative roles are least likely to have boards who change decisions due to special interest pressure. A high column percentage of 64% and a positive residual of 4.3 in cell 1-2 also indicate that board presidents who assume judicial roles are more likely to have boards who change tentative decisions due to special interest pressure.

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Table 96. Crosstabulation of Pressure by Decision Process from Superintendent Data

Count		RATIONAL SATISFIC POLITIC APPROVAL ANALYSIS					Row
Row Pct	Col Pct	1	2	3	4	5	
Residual		-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	Total
1	YES: PRESSURE	26 16.0% 32.9% -16.7	30 18.5% 65.2% 5.2	50 30.9% 78.1% 15.4	52 32.1% 49.5% -4.7	4 2.5% 66.7% .8	162 54.0%
2	NO: PRESSURE	53 38.4% 67.1% 16.7	16 11.6% 34.8% -5.2	14 10.1% 21.9% -15.4	53 38.4% 50.5% 4.7	2 1.4% 33.3% -.8	138 46.0%
Column	Total	79 26.3%	46 15.3%	64 21.3%	105 35.0%	6 2.0%	300 100.0%
Chi-Square		Value		DF		Significance	
-----		-----		----		-----	
Pearson		32.70422		4		.00000	
Likelihood Ratio		33.99445		4		.00000	
Cramer's V		.33017				.00000	
Minimum Expected Frequency -		2.760					
Cells with Expected Frequency < 5 -		2 OF		10 (20.0*)			
Number of Missing Observations:		18					

According to marginal row percentages in Table 96, 54% of the superintendents who responded believe that their boards have changed tentative decisions due to special interest pressure. A column percentage of 65% and a positive residual of 5.2 in cell 1-2 show that some superintendents who believe their boards use a Satisficing decision process are more likely to believe that special interest pressure is effective. Similarly a high column percentage of 78% and a high positive residual of 15.4 in cell 1-3 indicate that some superintendents whose boards use a Political Decision process are likely to believe that special interest group pressure is effective. On the other hand, high row two percentages are split with 38.4% displayed in Rational and Approval categories. A high column percentages of 67% and 50% with

positive residuals of 16.7 and 4.7 in cells 2-1 and 2-4 respectively, describe some superintendents whose boards use a Rational or Approval decision process as more likely to believe that special interest pressure is not effective. This test is interpreted to mean that there is a relationship between pressure and decision process and that perhaps due to pressure, some boards are more likely to use certain decision processes over others. Significance level of this test is less than .001 alpha.

Table 97. Crosstabulation of Pressure by Decision Process from Grouped Board Data

Count		RATIONAL SATISFIC POLITIC APPROVAL ANALYSIS					Row Total
Row Pct	Col Pct						
Residual		1	2	3	4	5	
-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	
YES: PRESSURE	1	43	19	22	78	5	167
		25.7%	11.4%	13.2%	46.7%	3.0%	33.6%
		26.4%	43.2%	43.1%	38.6%	13.5%	
		-11.8	4.2	4.9	10.1	-7.4	
		-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
NO: PRESSURE	2	120	25	29	124	32	330
		36.4%	7.6%	8.8%	37.6%	9.7%	66.4%
		73.6%	56.8%	56.9%	61.4%	86.5%	
		11.8	-4.2	-4.9	-10.1	7.4	
		-----	-----	-----	-----	-----	-----
Column		163	44	51	202	37	497
Total		32.8%	8.9%	10.3%	40.6%	7.4%	100.0%
Chi-Square		Value		DF		Significance	
-----		-----		-----		-----	
Pearson		16.66492		4		.00225	
Likelihood Ratio		17.74247		4		.00139	
Cramer's V		.18311				.00225	
Minimum Expected Frequency - 12.433							
Number of Missing Observations: 27							

The marginal row percentage of 66% in Table 97 depicts the majority of board presidents and members who responded to the survey as not believing that their boards have changed tentative decisions due to special interest pressure. A high column percentage of 74% and a

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residual of 11.8 in cell 2-1 show that board presidents and members who use a Rational decision process are more likely to have boards who do not change tentative decisions due to special interest pressure. A high row percentage of 47% and a residual of 10.1 in cell 1-4 indicate that those presidents and board members who use an Approval process are more likely to have boards who change their decisions due to pressure. Positive residuals show that more than the expected frequencies are found for presidents and members who have experienced special interest pressure and use the decision processes of Satisficing, Political, and Approval decision processes. Those presidents and board members who have boards who have not changed decisions due to special interest pressure are more likely to use Rational or Analysis decision processes. The significance level of this test is less than .01 alpha.

Table 98 illustrates a significant relationship between Pressure and the variable of Preferred Decision Process. According to a marginal row percentage of 58%, the majority of all respondents believe that their boards have not changed a tentative decision due to special interest pressure. A high row percentage of 56%, a high column percentage of 70%, and a high residual of 41.8 in cell 2-6 indicate that more than the expected number of respondents believe that pressure is not a problem for their boards and that they prefer not to change their decision process. On the other hand, high row one percentages of 33% are split between Rational and No change decision categories. A high column percentage of 54% and a high residual of 24.2 in cell 1-1 describe some respondents who have boards who change tentative

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Table 98. Crosstabulation of Pressure by Preferred Decision Process from All Respondent Data

		Count	RATIONAL SATISFIC POLITIC APPROVAL ANALYSIS					
	Row Pct							Row
	Col Pct							Total
	Residual	1	2	3	4	5		
YES: PRESSURE	1	107	14	9	10	74		321
		33.3%	4.4%	2.8%	3.1%	23.1%		41.8%
		54.0%	46.7%	47.4%	62.5%	49.7%		
		24.2	1.5	1.1	3.3	11.7		
NO: PRESSURE	2	91	16	10	6	75		447
		20.4%	3.6%	2.2%	1.3%	16.8%		58.2%
		46.0%	53.3%	52.6%	37.5%	50.3%		
		-24.2	-1.5	-1.1	-3.3	-11.7		
Column		198	30	19	16	149		768
(Continued)	Total	25.8%	3.9%	2.5%	2.1%	19.4%		100.0%

		Count	NO CHANGE	
	Row Pct			Row
	Col Pct			Total
	Residual	6		
YES: PRESSURE	1	107		321
		33.3%		41.8%
		30.1%		
		-41.8		
NO: PRESSURE	2	249		447
		55.7%		58.2%
		69.9%		
		41.8		
Column		356		768
Total		46.4%		100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	39.51786	5	.00000
Likelihood Ratio	39.97923	5	.00000
Cramer's V	.22684		.00000
Minimum Expected Frequency - 6.688			
Number of Missing Observations: 74			

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decisions due to special interest pressure as more likely to wish to change to a Rational decision process. Further, analysis of positive residuals in row one shows that higher than expected frequencies are found in all change categories of decision process when the respondents have experienced effective special interest pressure. Positive residuals in row 2 are only found in the No Change category which is interpreted to mean that if respondents have not experienced special interest pressure than they are more likely not to want to change their decision process. The significance level of this test is less than .001 alpha.

In Table 99, marginal column percentages show that 25% of respondents use a Traditional organizational belief. A high row percentage of 26% and a residual of 3.5 in cell 1-3 suggest that some respondents who use a Traditional organizational belief are more likely to have boards that have changed tentative decisions due to special interest pressure. Similarly, a high column percentage of 58% and a high residual of 10.9 in cell 1-5 illustrate that some respondents who have a Political organizational belief are also more likely to have boards who have changed decisions due to pressure. On the other hand, high column percentages of 64% and 66% with positive residuals of 7.6 and 13.3 in cells 2-6 and 2-8 respectively show that respondents who use a Systems or Contingency organizational belief are less likely to change their tentative decisions due to special interest pressure. One interpretation of these results in relation to decision theory is that decision makers who use a Political organizational belief are more responsive to the effects of influence and pressure than those

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Table 99. Crosstabulation of Pressure by Organizational Belief from all Respondent Data

	Count							
	Row Pct	LEGAL-	HUMAN	TRADITION	SITE-	POLITICAL		
	Col Pct	RATIONAL	RESOURCE		BASED			Row
	Residual	1	2	3	MGT 4	5		Total
YES: PRESSURE	1	26	46	80	8	45		309
		8.4%	14.9%	25.9%	2.6%	14.6%		43.7%
		54.2%	46.9%	45.7%	34.8%	57.7%		
		5.0	3.2	3.5	-2.1	10.9		
NO: PRESSURE	2	22	52	95	15	33		398
		5.5%	13.1%	23.9%	3.8%	8.3%		56.3%
		45.8%	53.1%	54.3%	65.2%	42.3%		
		-5.0	-3.2	-3.5	2.1	-10.9		
	Column	48	98	175	23	78		707
(Continued)	Total	6.8%	13.9%	24.8%	3.3%	11.0%		100.0%

	Count							
	Row Pct	SYSTEMS	SYMBOLIC	CONTINGENCY				
	Col Pct					Row		
	Residual	6	7	8		Total		
YES: PRESSURE	1	37	20	47		309		
		12.0%	6.5%	15.2%		43.7%		
		36.3%	44.4%	34.1%				
		-7.6	.3	-13.3				
NO: PRESSURE	2	65	25	91		398		
		16.3%	6.3%	22.9%		56.3%		
		63.7%	55.6%	65.9%				
		7.6	-.3	13.3				
	Column	102	45	138		707		
	Total	14.4%	6.4%	19.5%		100.0%		

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
-----	-----	-----	-----
Pearson	17.30434	7	.01554
Likelihood Ratio	17.39270	7	.01503
Cramer's V	.15645		.01554
Minimum Expected Frequency - 10.052			
Number of Missing Observations: 135			

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	Count						
	Row Pct	LEGAL-	HUMAN	TRADITION	SITE-	POLITIC	
	Col Pct	RATIONAL	RESOURCE		BASED		Row
	Residual	1	2	3	4	5	Total
	1	13	30	37	4	23	154
YES: PRESSURE		8.4%	19.5%	24.0%	2.6%	14.9%	56.6%
		72.2%	61.2%	57.8%	30.8%	79.3%	
		2.8	2.3	.8	-3.4	6.6	
	2	5	19	27	9	6	118
NO: PRESSURE		4.2%	16.1%	22.9%	7.6%	5.1%	43.4%
		27.8%	38.8%	42.2%	69.2%	20.7%	
		-2.8	-2.3	-.8	3.4	-6.6	
	Column	18	49	64	13	29	272
(Continued)	Total	6.6%	18.0%	23.5%	4.8%	10.7%	100.0%

	Count				
	Row Pct	SYSTEMS	SYMBOLIC	CONTING	
	Col Pct				Row
	Residual	6	7	8	Total
	1	14	9	24	154
YES: PRESSURE		9.1%	5.8%	15.6%	56.6%
		42.4%	47.4%	51.1%	
		-4.7	-1.8	-2.6	
	2	19	10	23	118
NO: PRESSURE		16.1%	8.5%	19.5%	43.4%
		57.6%	52.6%	48.9%	
		4.7	1.8	2.6	
	Column	33	19	47	272
	Total	12.1%	7.0%	17.3%	100.0%

Pearson	15.81994	7	.02681
Likelihood Ratio	16.40494	7	.02166
Cramer's V	.24117		.02681
Minimum Expected Frequency -	5.640		
Number of Missing Observations:	46		

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respondents who use other organizational structures. Decision makers who use Contingency or Systems organizational structures are least likely to be effected by special interest pressure.

In Table 100, the marginal column percentages show that 24% of superintendents believe that their boards use a Traditional organizational belief. A high row percentage of 24%, a high column percentage of 58%, and a positive residual of .8 suggests that some superintendents who perceive their boards as using a Traditional organizational belief are also more likely to believe that their boards have changed their tentative decisions due to special interest pressure. Similarly, a high column percentage of 79% and a grid residual of 6.6 in cell 1-5 indicate that some superintendents believe that their boards who use a Political organizational structure have also changed their decisions due to pressure. On the other hand a high column percentage of 58% and a residual of 4.7 in cell 2-6 suggest that some superintendents believe that their boards who use a Systems organizational belief are more likely not to change their decisions due to pressure. An analysis of positive residuals suggest that according to superintendents the organizational structures of Legal-Rational, Human Resource, Tradition, and Political are more likely not to be effective against special interest pressure.

Summary on Pressure

These research findings indicate that 42% of respondents believe that their boards have changed a tentative decision due to special interest pressure. Pressure from special interest groups seems to increase with the size of the district. Pressure seems to be least

influential in districts with funding levels in the \$3501-4500 per student range. Respondents who have received training in role or organizational structure are less likely to have boards who change decisions due to pressure. No significant relationships were found between Pressure and decision training or any Trainer variable. Respondents who have boards who change decisions are more likely to support mandatory training for board members. Board presidents and members who represent the community or assume administrative roles are less likely to have boards who change tentative decisions due to pressure. Board presidents who assume legislative roles are less likely to have boards which submit to pressure. Board presidents and members who assume judicial roles are more likely to have boards who change decisions.

Board presidents and members who use an Approval decision process are more likely to have boards who change tentative decisions due to pressure. Boards who use a Rational decision process are least likely to change decisions. Respondents whose boards have not experienced or withstood pressure, are more likely not to want a change in their decision process, while respondents that have boards who change decisions due to pressure, are more likely to prefer a Rational decision process. Superintendents who believe their boards use a Political decision process are more likely to believe that their boards are susceptible to special interest pressure. Superintendents that believe their boards use a Rational decision process are more likely to feel that their boards have withstood special interest pressure.

Respondents who use a Political organizational belief are more likely to have boards who change decisions due to special interest

group pressure. Those that use a Contingency or Systems organizational belief are less likely to have boards who change tentative decisions. Superintendents whose districts use a Political organizational belief are more likely to have boards that have changed tentative decisions due to pressure. Decision makers who use a Contingency or Systems organizational belief are least likely to have boards who have changed their decisions due to pressure.

Of the three notions discussed so far in this chapter, special interest pressure has proved to be the most significant in terms of the number of associations found. Pressure seems to have a major impact on the main variables of this research. The effect of pressure may provide some reasons why board members or other decision making bodies assume certain representations, roles, decision processes, and organizational beliefs.

CHAPTER SUMMARY

This summary is composed of two parts. A listing of specific findings is found in Table 101. A list of major findings concerning incrementalism, consensus and pressure follow. Conclusion based on the results of this research are found in Chapter VII.

Table 101. Chapter VI Summary of Findings

Table #	Finding/Result
Incrementalism	
70	70% of respondents believe their boards prefer incrementalism.
71	Matched superintendents and presidents from Class D districts are more likely to prefer incrementalism.
72	Board presidents and members who have received training in role are more likely to prefer major change.
73	Matched superintendents and presidents who use district trainers are more likely to prefer major change.

Table 101. Continued

74 Respondents who have not had training from Other trainers are more likely to prefer incrementalism.

75 Board members who use an Approval decision process are more likely to believe their boards prefer major change. Board members who use a Rational decision process are more likely to believe their boards prefer incrementalism.

Consensus

76 87% of respondents do not believe in unanimous decision making Superintendents more likely to prefer unanimous votes than boards.

77 Class D districts least likely to value unanimous decision making.

78 Presidents and board members with 5 to 8 service years are least likely to support unanimity; with over 12 service years most likely to support unanimity.

79 Some presidents and members who are trained in role are more likely to support unanimous consensus in decision making.

80 Matched board respondents who have not had training from Other trainers are more likely to not support unanimous consensus.

81 Matched presidents and members who are MASB certified are more likely to believe that their boards should achieve 7-0 decisions.

82 Presidents and members who do not support unanimous consensus are more likely to not support mandatory training.

83 Superintendents who support community representation are less likely to support unanimous board decisions.

84 Respondents who have a Traditional organizational belief are least likely to support consensus; respondents who have a Systems organizational belief are more likely to support unanimous decisions.

85 Superintendents who believe their boards change their decisions due to pressure are more likely to believe their boards should not achieve unanimous consensus in decision making.

Pressure

86 42% of respondents believe that their boards have changed a tentative decision due to special interest pressure. Superintendents more likely to believe that their boards have changed decisions due to pressure than board respondents.

87 Pressure from special interest groups increases as district size increases. Boards from Class A district most likely to change decisions due to pressure; Class D districts least likely.

88 Presidents & members with a Bachelors or less educational level are least likely to believe that their boards have changed tentative decisions due to pressure.

Table 101. Continued

-
- 89 Pressure seems to be least influential in districts with funding in the \$3501-4500 range.
- 90 Superintendents who believe their boards are trained in role and their presidents who have received role training are more likely to believe that their boards do not submit to pressure.
- 91 Respondents who are not trained in organizational structure are more likely to have boards who change decisions due to pressure.
- 92 Respondents who have boards who change decisions due to pressure are more likely to support mandatory training.
- 93 Board presidents and members who support community representation are less likely to have boards who change decisions due to pressure.
- 94 Some board presidents and members who assume judicial roles are more likely to have boards who change decisions due to pressure; those who assume administrative roles are least likely to have boards who yield to pressure.
- 95 Board presidents who assume legislative roles are more likely to have boards who do not change decisions due to pressure.
- 96 Superintendents who believe that their boards use a Political decision process are more likely to believe that their boards change decisions due to pressure. Superintendents whose boards use a Rational decision process are more likely to believe that their boards do not change decisions due to pressure.
- 97 Board presidents & members who use an Approval decision process are more likely to have boards who change decisions due to pressure. Boards with a Rational decision process are least likely to change decisions due to pressure.
- 98 Respondents who have boards who have not changed decisions due to pressure are more likely to prefer no change in their decision process. Those that have boards who have changed decisions due to pressure are more likely to prefer a change to a Rational decision process.
- 99 Respondents who use a Political organizational belief are more likely to have boards who change decisions due to pressure. Those that use a Contingency or Systems organizational belief are least likely to have boards who change decisions.
- 100 Superintendents whose districts use a Political organizational belief are more likely to have boards who change their decisions due to pressure. Those districts that use a Systems organizational belief are least likely to have boards that change decisions.
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Major Findings

1. Unanimous consensus was not found to be a predominate factor among Michigan school boards. Significance within the established criteria was not found between the variable of consensus by the variables of representational style, role, or decision process.
2. A significant relationship was found between consensus by representation. Superintendents who support Community representation are more likely to believe their boards should not use unanimous consensus.
3. There is a relationship between consensus and organizational belief. Positive residuals indicating higher than expected frequencies for consensus were found among those respondents who have Political, Systems, Symbolic, and Contingency organizational beliefs.
4. Incrementalism was found to be highly favored by Michigan school boards. However, no relationship at .05 alpha was found between incrementalism and the variables of representation, representational style, role, or organizational belief.
5. There is a relationship between incrementalism and decision process. Board members who prefer major change are more likely to use an Approval or Political decision process.
6. A significant relationship was found between incrementalism and training. When school boards are trained by district trainers or receive training in role or organizational structure they are more likely to prefer major change.
7. A significant relationship was found between special interest pressure by the variable of representation. Board respondents who represent Community interests are more likely have boards who do not change decision due to pressure. A significant relationship was also found between the variables of pressure by the variable of role. Board presidents who assume legislative roles are more likely to have boards who do not change decisions due to pressure. Board respondents who assume Judicial roles are more likely to have boards who change decisions due to pressure. Significance was not found in relationship to representational style.

8. A significant relationship was found between the variables of pressure by decision process. Presidents and board members who have boards who do not change tentative decisions due to Pressure are more likely to use a Rational or Analysis decision process.

9. A significant relationship was found between pressure by organizational belief. Respondents whose districts use a Political organizational belief are more likely to have boards who change decisions due to pressure. Those that use a Systems organizational belief are less likely to have boards who experience pressure.

10. There is a relationship between pressure and certain types of training. Respondents who have had role training or organizational training are less likely to have boards who change decisions due to pressure. Respondents who have boards who change decisions are more likely to support mandatory training for school boards. Surprisingly, decision training was not found to be significant in relation to pressure at the .05 alpha level.

CHAPTER VII

SUMMARY, FINDINGS, CONCLUSIONS

Literally, every step we take in life is determined by a series of interlocking concepts and conceptual schemes. Every goal we formulate for our actions, every decision we make, be it trivial or momentous, involves assumptions about the universe and about human beings.
Conant, 1953

This chapter contains the summary, findings, and conclusions of this dissertation. The previous six chapters are summarized in order to highlight the basic themes of this dissertation and bring clarity to the analysis. The major findings and conclusions of this project, which are a result of the thought and research that went into this dissertation, are also presented. Implications for future research complete this work.

SUMMARY

Purpose of the Study

The researcher's purpose of this exploratory study was to gain a more comprehensive understanding of K-12 school board members and school board decision making processes. Through the literature review on past and current school board behavior presented in Chapter II, four major areas of debate were found and discussed:

1. The dilemma of representation: Who should the school board represent when making decisions, the State, community, district, special interest, or other power structure?
2. The consequence of roles: Should school board members choose a legislative, administrative, or judicial role? What are the consequences of role choice?

3. The issue of organizational structure and its relationship to school board decision making: Do school boards understand which organizational structure they are using? Which organizational structure is primarily used in schools? Which decision process is associated with which organizational structure?

4. The direction of school board member training: Are Michigan school board members trained in representation, role, organizational structure, and decision making? Should school board members receive voluntary or mandatory training? Who is responsible for the training and what should be taught?

These four variables of representation, role, organizational belief, and training in addition to the variable of decision process became the main focus of the research. The main question in the researcher's mind was: What is the school board situation in Michigan regarding these variables and were these variables related?

However, after the data were examined certain patterns appeared in relation to decision theory and are analyzed in Chapter VI. These findings on incrementalism, consensus, and special interest pressure formed a second level of purpose to this exploratory study. New questions emerged in the researcher's mind: What are the associations between these notions and other main variables? What can this part of the data analysis suggest about the reasons for board member behavior or add to the knowledge about decision theory?

Theoretical Rationale

Since school boards are primarily the decision making body for their districts, decision theory was used as the main theoretical rationale and basis for understanding school board behavior. Although decision theory is the main theoretical rationale of this dissertation, representation theory, role theory, organizational structure theory, and

training were reviewed in Chapter II in order to understand those concepts, how they might apply to the other main variables of this research, or aid in understanding school board behavior. Decision theory was reviewed in Chapter III.

Representation Theory

Pitkin (1967) in The Concept of Representation, states that the word representation cannot be easily defined. For this report, Pitkin's "substantive representation context" was chosen as a definition where the representative is seen as "acting in the interest of the represented" with good conscience, good reasons and good explanations. The representative must either use his own best judgement or be the voice of a constituency:

The majority of theorists argue that the representative must do what is best for those in his charge, but that he must do what he thinks best, using his own judgement and wisdom, since he is chosen to make decisions for (that is, instead of) his constituents. But a vocal minority maintain that the representative's duty is to reflect accurately the wishes and opinions of those he represents. (Pitkin, 1967, p.4)

Pitkin points out that there are some drawbacks to either position. When a representative does what is best, s/he is also limited by obligations in their activity. When a representative attends to the wishes of a constituency, there are no standards or guidelines of representation because their "conduct becomes irrelevant to representation." Mann (1976) labels this representational dilemma as "representational style." He uses the word "trustee" to denote a representative whose decisions are based on their own values and beliefs, even though the represented may disagree. The word

"delegate" is used to define a representative that is guided by the expressed citizen preferences even at the expense of his or her own best judgment. A further review of the literature suggested that school board members should represent one of four interests. The interest of the state as the legal school board representation is stated by: Ashe, McGrath, and Palmer, 1964; Briggs, 1873; Garber and Edwards, 1963; Gatti and Gatti, 1990; Goldhammer, 1964; Hillway, 1961; Iannaccone and Lutz, 1970; Boardsmanship, 1961; Reeves, 1954; Meeting the Challenges of School Board Leadership, 1973; and Valente, 1980. The interests of the community in school board representation were referred to by: Danzberger, 1992; The Improvement of Public Education in Michigan, 1944; Gross 1958; Howe and Shannon, 1987; Putnam 1904; Reeves 1954; and Tuttle, 1958. The interests of the district as represented by school board members were mentioned by Davies and Hosler, 1949; Jackson, 1926. The interests of a group or constituency in school board representation were discussed by: Davies, 1984; Goldhammer, 1964; Gross, 1958; and Zerchykov, 1984.

Role Theory

According to Bolman and Deal (1991), a role is a position in a group that is defined by expectations. The person is expected to behave in a way that fits the role. Getzels and Guba (1954) explain role as "a set of complementary expectations regarding the actor in his interactions with other individuals." They believe that the person modifies his or her behavior in terms of the expectations he perceives in order to assure approval or at least avoid active disapproval. The person will also feel an "internal obligation to conform to the role" since

s/he is also a member of the group which sets the expectations. However, if the person attempts to fill more than one role to meet the expectations of more than one group then, according to Getzels and Guba, role conflict is inevitable and the person will be judged ineffective.

That is, the situations are so ordered that an actor is required to fill simultaneously two or more roles that present inconsistent, contradictory, or even mutually exclusive expectations. The actor cannot realistically conform to these expectations. He is then forced to choose one of several alternatives: he may abandon one role and cling to the other, he may attempt some compromise between the roles, or he may withdraw either physically or psychologically from the roles altogether. In any event, over any long-term period he cannot fully meet the expectations of all roles, and to the extent that he fails to meet the expectations, he is judged ineffective in the management of one or another of the roles by the defining groups. (Getzels and Guba, 1954, p.165)

Therefore, school board members may need to choose one role to be considered effective. Through a review of the literature on school board behavior three distinct roles were identified. A legislative role to decide and enact district school policy was discussed by: Ashe, McGrath, and Palmer, 1964; Boardsmanship, 1955; Brodinsky, 1977; Carpenter, 1989; Clemmer 1990; Goldhammer, 1964; Reeves, 1954; Wilson, 1976. A judicial role to decide on issues and concerns involving community or individual cases was described by: Ashe, McGrath, and Palmer, 1964; Goldhammer, 1964; and Zerchykov, 1984. School board members who assume an administrative role were reported by: Goldhammer, 1964; Gross, 1958; McGonagill, 1987; Ross, 1987; Wilson, 1976. Other consequences of role choice were found in the literature. School board members and their superintendents are often in conflict if school board members choose other than a legislative role. If school

board members choose an administrative role, there can be detrimental effects to the organizational structure depending on the extent that they infuse themselves in administrative areas. If school board members chose a judicial role, there is a possibility that board members may lose their objectivity or form alliances with constituents against staff members, leading to a breakdown of the organization as staff feel untrusted and see their best efforts undercut.

Organizational Structure Theory

The investigation into the theory of organizational structure incorporated the views of many authors in an attempt to get the best descriptions of known organizational structures. What was universal to every organizational structure was that each contained positive and negative elements and each was based on a particular belief. The views of Max Weber translated by Henderson and Parsons (1947) was used to describe the Legal-Rational organizational structure which is based on a great belief in laws, rules and regulations. However, according to Blau (1963) it does not and cannot encourage willingness to work hard or exercise initiative. In Weber's Traditional organizational structure referred to as the Sacred Community by Iannaccone and Lutz (1970) there is a strong belief in tradition, making change extremely difficult. Gossip and favoritism are usually evident. Bolman and Deal (1991) and Morgan (1986) provided descriptions of the Political, Human Resource, and Symbolic organizational structures. In Political organizational structure, the belief is that everyone has different interests and conflict is inevitable. Cooperation and consensus are achieved through the uses of power, coalitions, bargaining, and conflict. Factions are formed to press for certain decisions. There is little trust throughout

the organization. The Human Resource organizational structure has the belief that the worker is the most important resource. Staff participation, empowerment and worker needs are emphasized. However, a few influential workers can gain substantial power. In Symbolic structure, the belief is that symbols have impact and appearances are important. The organization conforms to the expectations of the external environment. There is usually a lack of clear goals and direction for meaningful change. Site-based management described by Chapman (1990) and Harrington-Lueker (1990) is a derivative of Human Resource organizational structure. It has a belief that the decisions should be made at the lowest level of the formal hierarchy. It usually employs a council of workers and middle management to decide for the unit. However site-based approaches may be short on particulars, contingencies, and consistency. Rist (1990) reported that conflict, power struggles, and power plays may still be prevalent. Knezevich (1984) and von Bertalanffy (1968) described the Systems organizational structure which has the belief that the organization is an interrelated set of subsystems. Change is recognized as normal. This structure uses objective research and data to evaluate goals. However, the computations can be complicated, and the data may be misleading. Burns and Stalker (1961) provided a model of the Contingency organizational structure which is an outgrowth of Systems and has the belief that every subsystem has different needs, tasks, and strategies. Each subsystem is allowed to use any organizational structure to achieve a balance between output, strategy, needs of people, and the external environment. However, the overall organizational design can be difficult to control and balance.

Throughout the literature, authors do not agree on which structure is prevalent in schools. Iannaccone and Lutz (1970) believe it is the Traditional Structure; Bolman and Deal (1991) think it is Symbolic; Cusick (1992) describes it as Political; and Knezevich (1984) recommends a Systems organizational structure for schools. A full description and explanation of all organizational structures used in this report are available in Chapters II.

Decision Theory

In the literature review on normative and descriptive decision theory discussed in Chapter III, it became apparent that there is no comprehensive, integrated, or pragmatic decision theory. Because the science of decision is so new, there are elements, concepts, and processes divided into normative and descriptive schools of thought. The normative study of decision making attempts to recommend how a decision ought to be made. It is concerned with the process of decision and the interaction with the organization in terms of influence on the decision process. The descriptive study of decision theory, sometimes called empirical or behavioral, is concerned with how people actually do make decisions. It attempts to explain people's beliefs, preferences, and biases in decisions of uncertainty. However, both normative and descriptive decision theory branches are also divided by theorists who either recommend a rational approach to decision making or those that believe in Simon's "bounded rationality."

In normative decision making, the rational proponents recommend Rational decision making. Knezevich (1984) believes this process seems to have originated from John Dewey in How We Think. In a Rational

decision process, there must be a situation that needs a decision, a diagnosis of the problem, and a collection of data about the problem. Alternatives are generated and each alternative is analyzed to determine consequences. Each alternative is compared to each other, one alternative is chosen, and the decision is evaluated after the fact. More complex decision processes are recommended for some organizational structures. For instance an Analysis decision process is recommended for a Systems organizational structure. It may contain a more analytical and comprehensive data collection, "models" or diagrams of alternatives, or decision "trees" which are diagram of alternatives, events, or consequences that stem from a decision problem. However, rational decision making is not always used. There are time constraints, cost restraints, communication problems, unavailable or incomplete information, pressures to compromise and cause less resentment, as well as sequential decisions which may be the result of a group or committee viewpoint.

Problems with rational decision making were explained by Herbert Simon (1977, 1986, 1992) with his version of a subjective or "bounded rationality." Simon says that there is a discrepancy between the principles of rational decision making and actual observed human behavior. He feels that people are bounded by the reality of their own limitations to choose alternatives that are "good enough" to meet the limited number of needs that they can perceive. A bounded or subjective rationality decision process is called "satisficing" in which a selective search is carried out for a few alternatives that may meet a decision rule, sometimes called a heuristic or rule of thumb. The sequential search through alternatives stops when the first satisfactory

solution is found. Simon believes that satisficing is used in all decisions and defines two types. Programmed decisions are routine, repetitive and made in accordance with rules or procedures. Non-programmed decisions are made to resolve unique problems where there are no predefined solutions. Glasman and Nevo (1988) believe that school systems use "satisficing" for the majority of their decisions.

Janis and Mann (1977) believe that most people use a single decision rule, such as consensus, to make "satisficing" decisions. The decision becomes "good enough" if the majority supports it. Incrementalism is another heuristic, where deciders make a succession of small changes over time rather than major change. Each small change is "good enough" and used to put out any "fires" of current complaint. Janis and Mann feel that little deliberation or thought is given to goals when consensus or incrementalism is used. However, other authors may feel differently. Beach (1993) finds that incrementalism is useful and necessary to promote long term organizational change. He says that if you mandate change or convince people there is a crisis to promote change, it will cause overt or covert rebellion because long term values and beliefs are threatened. He believes that making specific incremental change in the activities of the members will promote change in the organization without this confrontation.

Simon also believes that decisions are intimately related to the organizational structure. He feels that the "task of deciding" is integrally tied to the entire organization. Simon says that decisions may follow informal communication lines as well as the formal hierarchy. Pfiffner and Sherwood (1960) say that these patterns of communication,

both formal and informal, set the influence structure for the organization. Iannaccone and Lutz (1970) note that unrecognized informal communication channels are present in school organizations. Griffiths (1969) believes that informal organization is present in every formal organization. He says that it is a structure composed of special interest groups formed to affect decisions, because those factions either feel omitted from the formal scheme or are brought together in opposition to the formal organizational structure. He also feels that the differences in organizational structures are accounted for by the different decision processes used. Most authors, such as Feldman and Lindel (1990) point out that the less cognitive involvement a decision maker has in forming a decision, the more likely it is for that decision maker to be influenced. They believe that the complexity of the decision process may provide some barrier to influence because it provides a specific structure for behavior.

In the descriptive theory of decision making, the focus is on the individual making nonprogrammed decisions involving ambiguity and risk. The resulting stress from such decisions either produces certain biases in defective decision making or promotes creativity and adaptation. Jungermann (1986) explains that there are "two camps" of theorists. He calls them the pessimists and the optimists. The pessimists (Janis and Mann, 1977; Janis, 1989; Kahneman and Tversky, 1986; Simon, 1992) believe that biases exist in people and that decision making under uncertainty often produces systematic and serious errors. They believe people are inherently limited in judgement and decision making ability due to "bounded rationality" and psychological characteristics of the human cognitive system. Their main arguments

are that people have judgmental biases, representational faults, and coping defects. Judgmental biases are choices based on heuristics or simplistic decision rules, such as past experience or first impressions which may not be valid or representative of the current situation. Representational faults are different frames of reference or priorities. For example school board members may view education in one frame of reference with certain priorities and the superintendent may view education in another context and prioritize different elements. If they view a problem together it is likely that they may code the alternative solutions differently due to their individual notions. Coping defects are a result of coping defenses people use in handling stress. Sometimes called defensive avoidance, it is an escape from anxiety and stress.

In groups, such as school boards, biases can occur where the desire for unanimous decisions or consensus can override realistic and careful consideration of alternatives. Janis and Mann have labeled this concept "groupthink," a collective pattern of defensive avoidance where dissenting opinion is unwelcome. Mullen and Roth (1991) believe that groupthink constitutes a real threat to decision making because the majority may be wrong. They feel that the serious dissenter may have valuable points of view to offer. Iannaccone and Lutz (1970) point out that when school boards symbolically model unanimous agreement, discussion and debate throughout the entire school district can be discouraged as politically incorrect. Further, it is conceivable that consistent use of consensus by school boards might promote a primarily symbolic organizational structure.

One author who has attempted a pragmatic model based on decision rules and defective decision making is Irving Janis. In Crucial

Decisions: Leadership in Policymaking and Crisis (1989), Janis says that decision makers have difficulty in keeping to decision processes such as vigilant information processing. He redefines judgmental biases, faults, and coping defects into categories of cognitive, affiliative, and ego-centric constraints. Each group of constraints is associated with specific and simplistic decision rules, like incrementalism, consensus or groupthink, which deciders use in place of formal decision processes and skills. He believes deciders place a priority on these constraints at the time a problem is recognized.

Other authors have described psychological decisional defects primarily due to stress. Three such areas of induced conflict are called Approach-Avoidance Conflict, Approach-Approach Conflict and Avoidance-Avoidance Conflict. In Approach-Avoidance Conflict, something in a choice both attracts and repels us at the same time. In Approach-Approach Conflict, there may be two equally desirable but mutually exclusive courses of action. In Avoidance-Avoidance Conflict we might have to choose between the lesser of two evils. All three conflicts can produce a "fight or flight" physiological response where the decider might emotionally withdraw or become aggressive.

On the other hand, the decision theory optimists (Edwards, 1986; Einhorn, 1982; Feldman and Lindell, 1990; Humphreys, 1983), believe biases during decisions of uncertainty are not in human observed behavior but in the analysis of that behavior by the pessimist researchers. The optimist researchers see human beings as rational. Their three arguments are called meta-rational, continuity, and structural. Each argument seems to be based on the idea that people do things for a reason. In the meta-rational argument, all decision

strategies are considered valid. People choose decision strategies based on time and resources available. In the continuity argument, judgement and decisions are seen as a continuous process in a real world environment. Optimists point out that pessimist research models have been tested with the assumption of a stable environment, while people live and work in a continuously changing environment. The structural argument is based on the pessimist research model and interpretation of observed behavior. It is possible that the model presented to the subject defines the basis for the rational choice, containing boundaries, goals and contexts which may be cues for behavior as well as interpretation. Therefore, the pessimist researchers may make erroneous assumptions from faulty data.

Optimist researchers prefer to consider that human beings are capable of adaptation. Feldman and Lindell (1990) believe that adaptation requires flexibility, being able to visualize problems in a new frame of reference, produce new scripts for action and new modes of understanding the world. They feel that people are capable of visualizing the goal first and then moving backward to the solution to make that goal a reality. Their advice is that organizational environments should be nurturing creativity and using two way "in-put" and "out-put" communication channels, self-regulation and adaptation. These recommendations bear a striking resemblance to a description of Systems organizational structure.

Nevertheless, Jungermann (1986) proposes a different point of view. He argues for a middle ground solution between the pessimists and the optimists, which he calls "substantive rationality." He says

that the emphasis should be on the preferences and beliefs the person holds when making decisions in the real world:

The issue is not anymore what the limitations of the human cognitive system are. All approaches assume that there are boundaries for rationality in situations of cognitive overload due to the capacity and processing limits of the system. The issue is how people form judgements and make decisions, and particularly whether they operate rationally within the constraints...Rationality is not only a question of whether a choice is in line with a person's beliefs and preferences, but also a question of what sort of preferences and beliefs the person holds.... (Jungermann, 1986, p. 639, 641)

Many researchers (Brehmer, 1986; Feldman and Lindell, 1990; Lock, 1983; Montgomery, 1983; Mullen and Roth, 1991; von Winterfeldt, 1983), and others already cited, have found that beliefs, values, goals, objectives, experience, and other factors may all play a part in how a person or group reaches a decision.

Mullen and Roth (1991) in Decision Making: Its Logic and Practice have devised a pragmatic model of understanding how people make decisions. They call this mode of investigation empirical or behavioral decision theory and have four postulates:

1. We belong to groups and communities that demand loyalty in matters of action and belief, and whose opinions matter to us.
2. When important values and goals are threatened we often seek quick solutions to decrease stress, thereby causing various distortions and errors that can act as powerful barriers to rational thought.
3. Difficulties arise from our need to have a coherent and consistent view of the world and our place in it. When we discover inconsistencies in our original understanding we may engage in irrational attempts to preserve our original understanding rather than struggle to develop new ones.

4. Problems arise in our attempt to structure a decision problem in a meaningful way.

Like Getzels and Guba in role theory, Mullen and Roth feel that human beings are social creatures with group and approval needs. Humans can therefore be influenced toward the expectations of the group. The authors say that there is a human general tendency toward conformity and avoidance of disapproval and confrontation. They also believe that when a human's values are threatened, stress is produced and our "fight or flight" physiology mechanism takes over which may make reflective thought difficult. Lastly, Mullen and Roth believe that humans form value hierarchies, where they choose what is important to them. If this hierarchical understanding is flawed then the same cognitive, affiliative, and egocentric constraints as cited by Janis are possible. This is their explanation for such defective decision practices such as incrementalism, groupthink, and the power of special interest pressure. Mullen and Roth advise that decision makers design a model of the problem which includes all the relevant properties of rational decision making and choose some decision process to use. They suggest that deciders should be trained in decision skills. They believe that the more a person understands the different decision procedures and processes, the more likely they will make better decisions with successful outcomes.

Paradigm of School Board Decision Making

School boards themselves may not know how they come to make decisions or they may follow a ritualized pattern or paradigm. Traditionally, school boards have believed that "best available information," open-mindedness, a discussion dialogue, and how meetings

should be conducted, have been enough to make "good" decisions. Although helpful, these concepts are not true decision making skills. Currently, common decision making paradigms are typified by boards who divide themselves into factions or boards who rubber stamp superintendent or committee recommendations. The latest paradigm is "consensus building" or "team building" which is based on discussion and utilizes the superintendent as the information source. It is recommended by the National Association of School Boards and the American Association of School Administrators. However, Team building may or may not include decision making skills or processes, and its main element of consensus is not recommended in decision theory literature.

Training

Through the literature review, it was found that there are few initial qualifications for school board members. Usually being a resident voter of the school district is the only prerequisite. Board members learn what they are supposed to do from various sources, such as on the job training, inservices, consultants, or state associations. Voluntary versus mandatory school board training is a debated subject. Twelve states have mandated school board training, while sixteen state school board associations offer voluntary programs. The National School Board Association objects to mandatory training on the grounds of cost, lack of necessity, ability of the State to enforce a mandated law, negative impact on prospective board members, and a perceived threat to representative government. Holwey (1992) recommended a curriculum for school boards which consists of subjects in: Leadership,

Decision making, Finance, Policy, Communications, School Law, Instruction/Curriculum and Administration. No mandatory or voluntary program appears to incorporate this entire curriculum. No training program seems to incorporate organizational structure as part of the curriculum. Few programs seem to contain decision making in any comprehensive manner.

Design of the Study

The population used in this exploratory analysis are all school board presidents, superintendents, and school board members from the 524 K-12 school districts in the State of Michigan. Surveys were sent to all superintendents, board presidents, and one randomly selected board member from each district. Eight hundred and forty-two surveys were returned which accounted for 462 or 88% of the Michigan school districts. Samples consisted of 318 or 61% of the superintendents, 281 or 54% of board presidents, and 243 or 46% of board members who received a survey. District demographic data showed that 31% of responding districts were Class B in size and 46% of districts participating were from rural locations. Thirty-five percent of respondent districts were funded in 1992-93 at \$3501-4000 per student range. Personal demographics revealed that 60% of respondents were from Class B sized districts. Half of the superintendent respondents were from rural locations while a slight majority of presidents and board members were located in cities or towns. Thirty-one percent of all respondents have 5 to 8 service years. In education, superintendents are equally divided between those that have Masters Degrees, Educational Specialist Degrees, and Doctorates. Thirty-six percent of

board presidents have Bachelor Degrees while 40% of responding board members have a High School diploma as the highest educational level attained. (Tables 1 through 13, Chapter V)

Instruments

Two survey instruments, one for board members and one for superintendents, were designed by the researcher to be extremely similar. The wording was different to reflect the respondent. Each questionnaire consisted of three sections and twenty-five total questions. Each section was designed to focus on different variables. Section I consisted of 6 questions devoted to demographics. Section II included 7 questions designed to provide information on school board training. Section III contained 12 questions to gather information on school board and superintendent perceptions on the main variables of representation, role, decision process, and organizational belief.

Procedures

Planning took place over a nine month period and included investigating the literature, formulating the problem, defining the parameters, designing the instrument, writing the proposal, requesting approvals, completing the pilot study, and sending out the main research project. Survey instruments were designed because comprehensive instruments that could measure organizational structure or identify specific decision processes were not found. A pilot study was conducted in the summer of 1993. Five school superintendents and their school boards participated in filling out the surveys and commenting on potential survey problems. All school board member input has been taken into account and discussed in Chapter IV. For

the main body of research, a letter of introduction, a survey, and stamped self-addressed envelope were sent by first class mail to each of the 1572 potential respondents on August 25, 1993. Returned surveys were mailed directly to School Board Research, a post office box title invented by the researcher. Complete confidentiality has been maintained. Only one major mailing was made.

Statistical Treatment of the Data

Once all the data were received by the beginning of November 1993, all survey answers were coded by the researcher into numerical values and typed into the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS). Any unsolicited comment written by the respondents to qualify their answers were not considered in the coding procedures. All codes and values were double checked for accuracy. Eight data files were established which included a file for each sample, matched respondents from the same district, grouped respondents, and combined files. Frequencies, distributions, crosstabulations, and Pearson's Chi-square test of significance were the main statistical procedures used in exploring all data files for significance at the .10 level. All variables were crosstabulated with all other variables in eight data files. Over 900 crosstabulations were found to be significant. The criterion was strengthened to .05 alpha. Cramer's V and the Likelihood Ratio significance tests were added as further barriers. Tests were eliminated as evidence if one open cell was found in a crosstabulation grid of less than 10 cells; more than one open cell was found in any larger crosstabulation grid; and if more than 20% of the cells in each crosstabulation contained less than 5 expected frequencies.

Basic statistical percentages from frequency distributions were tabulated in order to find the majority answer to the twenty-five survey questions. A summary of these percentages are found below in Table 102. Ten hypotheses were tested for acceptance or rejection at less than the .05 level of significance within the established criteria. Interpretation of test results were made through column and row percentages, marginal and residual information. A full description of the hypotheses testing is found in Chapter V. In addition, patterns of significance were found in relation to the variables of consensus, pressure, and incrementalism. A discussion of these significant crosstabulations is found in Chapter VI. A summary of all hypotheses and other testing results and the conclusions derived from this project are found in the final sections of this chapter.

Table 102. Statistical Findings from Survey

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1. 30% of respondents are from Class B districts; 30% Class C; 22% Class D; 18% Class A districts.
 2. 42% of respondents are from rural areas; 33% from cities or towns; 23% from suburban areas.
 3. 29% of respondents have 2-4 service years; 31% have 5-8 service years; 29% have 9 years or more.
 4. Highest education level: 33% of presidents have a H.S. Diploma; 36% Bachelors; 25% Masters. 40% of board members have H.S. Diplomas, 31% Bachelors; 23% Master Degrees.
 5. 2% of respondent districts were funded in the \$3000 or less per pupil range; 17% in \$3001-3500; 35% in \$3501-4000; 19% in \$4001-4500; 9% in \$4501- 5000; and 18% funded over \$5000.
 6. Superintendent training: 76% formally trained in decision process; 24% trained about school boards.
 7. Board Trainers in order of most use are: MASB; District; ISD; or Other.
 8. 73% of all respondents believe they or their boards are trained in Role; 59% trained in decision processes; 36% trained in organizational structure.
 9. 62% of responding board presidents and members are not MASB certified.
 10. Of those board respondents who are MASB Certified, 86% believe they make better decisions due to MASB Certification training.

Table 102. Continued

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11. 53% of presidents have a copy of the school code; 55% of members don't. 54% of superintendents do not believe each school board member should have a personal copy of the school code.
 12. 67% superintendents; 48% presidents; 53% members favor board mandatory training in Michigan..
 13. Identified training needs in order are: Role, Finance, Negotiations, Decision Making, Curriculum, Policy versus Administration, School Law, Pressure, Policy Making. 33% of Superintendents chose Role. 22% of presidents and 28% of members chose Finance.
 14. 62% of superintendents, 60% presidents, 57% members favor Community Representation. District representation was the only other category chosen.
 15. 76% of all respondents favor a Trustee representational style
 16. 89% of all respondents believe board has a Legislative policy making role
 17. 87% of all respondents do not believe in unanimous decision making.
 18. 55% of superintendents, 34% of presidents, 35% of board members believe that their boards have changed a tentative decision due to special interest pressure.
 19. 75% of superintendents, 69% of presidents, 66% of board members believe that their boards prefer incrementalism or small changes over time rather than major change.
 20. 39% of all respondents use an Approval decision process; 30% Rational; 15% Political; 11% Satisficing; and 6% use an Analysis decision process.
 21. Of the 54% of respondents who would like to change their decision process: 26% would like to change to a Rational decision process; 20% to an Analysis process; 4% to Satisficing; 2% to Political, 2% to an Approval process.
 22. 25% of all respondents use a Traditional organizational structure; 20% use Contingency; 14% Systems; 14% Human Resource; 11% Political; 7% Legal-Rational; 6% Symbolic; and 3% use Site-based management.
 23. Of the 54% of respondents who would like to change their organizational structure: 19% would like to change to Contingency organizational belief; 18% to Systems; 8% to Site-based management; 3% to Human Resource; 2% to Legal-Rational; 2% to Political; 1% to Traditional, and 1% to Symbolic organizational structure.
 24. 64% of all respondents want additional information on Decision process.
 25. 65% of all respondents want additional information on Organizational Structure.
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Legal Opinion on School Board Representation

In Chapter II, the literature on school board representation revealed a serious debate concerning this topic. Authors seemed to believe that the school board should represent either the State, the Community, the District, or special Constituency.

The data analysis presented in Chapter V on the question of representation by Michigan school boards revealed that 99% of respondents chose only two categories (Table 14). They apparently believed that school boards should primarily represent the community interests or district interests when they make decisions. The possibility of sociological bias of these answers was discussed in Chapter V, where it was suggested that school board respondents may feel that it is socially or politically unacceptable to primarily represent State or constituency interests in Michigan. However, these results were also in direct opposition with the opinion held by most authors who believe that school boards legally represent State interests. Therefore, in an effort to clarify this confusion and determine the truth of this issue for further data analysis, a legal opinion was requested. It was the intention of the researcher to determine if school boards are indeed legally required to represent state interests in the State of Michigan at this time and if they were legally required to represent any other interests. With these intentions, legal opinions were requested in early March 1994 from three Michigan law firms who specialize in educational law. Each law firm was asked the same survey question on representation. One law firm consented to answer the question and confirmed that school boards are legally bound to uphold State interests. Further, there is no legal requirement for school boards to represent or take community, district, or special group interests into consideration in their decisions. It is the school board's prerogative to consider the interest of any party that is concerned in a particular decision. A true copy of this legal opinion follows. A full true copy of the legal explanation is found in the appendix.

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As a public body, the decision-making authority of a school board is required to be exercised in open session pursuant to the Open Meetings Act, MCL 15.261 et seq. The decision making of a school board is a collective process, since the majority of members may vote for a particular policy for differing reasons. The actions of a school board are presumed to be reasonable and proper unless there is a clear showing of abuse. Hiers v Detroit Superintendent of Schools, 376 Mich 225; 136 NW 2d 10 (1965). Review of school board decisions are limited to whether the board's actions were arbitrary and unreasonable.

In view of the foregoing, it is our opinion that in those areas where the State Department of Education has determined appropriate state policy by the issuance of rules and regulations, a local board of education is required to follow those policies. In areas where the legislature has delegated the decision making to a local board of education, that board of education can determine educational matters utilizing those lawful criteria which it deems appropriate. The school board is generally allowed to take into consideration the opinions and interests of state, local, and special interest groups, and may grant such weight to those interests as it deems appropriate. Input regarding these decisions can also be received through the use of advisory committees.⁵

While there is a presumption that local values will be a significant factor in the decision making process of a local school board, there is no legal requirement that such factors be the primary consideration upon which decisions of the board of education are founded. Since individuals passing through a local educational system will eventually be required to participate and compete in a broader spectrum of American life than their local community, these decisions cannot be made without some consideration for the state and national policies. Ultimately, the proper allocation of the weight to be given to particular criteria is a political determination to be made by electors of the local school district in their annual school board election.

⁵ In some cases the legislature has required the creation of advisory committees. See, MCL 380.1277 (1) which requires that "school board members, school building administrators, teachers and other school employees, pupils, parents of pupils attending that school, and other residents of the school district shall participate in the planning, development, implementation, and evaluation of the district school improvement plans.

MAJOR FINDINGS

Hypothesis 1: There is no primary role, representation, organizational belief, or decision process that is identified by school board members, school board presidents, or superintendents.

Analysis of the data for all board president, board member, and superintendent responses indicated that only two categories of representation were considered by respondents. Sixty percent of respondents chose community interests as the primary school board member representation, the remainder of respondents chose district interests. Seventy-six percent of respondents chose a Trustee over a Delegate representational style. A Legislative role was picked by 89% of respondents in lieu of a Judicial or Administrative role. Superintendents were more likely to support a Legislative role for board members than board presidents or members at .001 alpha.

The choice of organizational structure and decision process was distributed widely among respondents. Twenty-five percent of respondents believe they use a Traditional organizational structure. The Approval Decision Process is used most in crucial decisions by 39% of the respondents. Superintendents are more likely to believe their boards use a Political Decision Process at .001 alpha. Since primary use was found for all main variables the hypotheses is not retained. (Tables 14, 15, 16, 17, and 18)

Hypothesis 2: There are no significant relationships between the demographic variables and the four factors of decision process, role, organizational belief, and representation as perceived by school board members, school board presidents, and superintendents.

Data from this analysis came from four different data files. Analysis of the data of superintendent, board president, and member responses from the same district showed that Class A districts are more

likely to use a Political Decision process. Class B districts are most likely to use an Approval decision process, while Class D districts are more likely to use a Satisficing Decision process. Class C districts were found to be the least likely of all class sized districts to use a Political decision process at .001 alpha.

A significant relationship was found between representational style by service years. Board members with more than five service years were more likely to have a Delegate representational style while board members with less than four years of service were more likely to have a Trustee representational style at less than the .05 level of significance.

A relationship was found between representation and education as well as role and education. Superintendents with a Master's Degree are more likely to support Community representation for their boards, while superintendents with Doctorate degrees are more likely to support District representation for their boards. Board respondents with Bachelor degrees are more likely to assume a Legislative role, while some board respondents with a high school diploma educational level were more likely to assume an Administrative role. Therefore, the hypothesis is not retained for the demographic variables of class size, service years, and education. It is retained for location and funding. (Tables 19, 20, 21, and 22)

Hypothesis 3: There is no significant relationship between the two factors of decision process, and organizational belief in the perceptions of school board members, school board presidents, and superintendents.

Data analysis of all combined respondent data indicated a significant relationship between decision process and organizational belief at less than .001 alpha. The hypothesis is not retained. School

boards that use a Traditional organizational belief are more likely to use an Approval decision process. Contingency organizational belief is likely used with a Rational decision process. Likewise, a Systems organizational belief is associated with a Rational decision process.

(Table 23) A recoded crosstabulation which adds Site-based management data into its parent category of Human Resource is found in the appendix for those readers primarily interested in decision theory. (Table 103)

Hypothesis 4: School board members, board presidents, and superintendents do not desire a change in the decision process or in the organizational belief that they currently use.

Analysis of all respondent data indicated that 54% of all respondents would like to change their decision process. Twenty-six percent of respondents prefer a Rational decision process. Twenty percent prefer an Analysis decision process. Four percent would like to change to Satisficing, 3% to Political, and 2% to an Approval decision process. Superintendents are more likely to choose a Rational decision process and board members are more likely to prefer an Analysis decision process. Board presidents are least likely than either of the other two sample groups to wish to change their current decision process at .05 alpha. Of the 46% of respondents who do not desire a change in decision process, 49% currently use a Rational decision process, while 29% use Approval, 10% use Analysis, 8% use Political, and 6% use a Satisficing decision process. However, individual column percentages show that 47% of superintendents, 50% of board presidents, and 40% of board members do not desire to change their decision process. Therefore, the hypothesis is not retained for the 53%

of superintendents and 60% of board members who do desire to change their decision process, but it is retained for the 50% of board presidents who do not want to change their decision process. (Tables 24, 26)

In the investigation of organizational belief, 54% of all respondents do desire a change in their district. Nineteen percent of pro-change respondents prefer Contingency organizational belief, while 18% prefer Systems organizational structure. Eight percent prefer Site-based management, while 3% would like to change to Human Resource. Two percent would like to change to a Legal-Rational organizational belief, 2% to Political, 1% to Traditional, and less than 1% of all respondents prefer a Symbolic organizational belief. Of those respondents who do not desire a change in their organizational belief, 34% currently use Contingency and 28% use a Systems organizational belief. However, column percentages indicate that 40% of superintendents, 49% of board presidents, and 50% of board members do not desire a change in their organizational belief. Therefore, the hypothesis is retained for board members. It is not retained for the 60% of superintendents and 51% of board presidents who do wish to change their organizational belief. (Tables 25, 27)

Other findings suggest that respondents who desire Change in Decision process are more likely to want a Change in Organizational belief at .001 alpha. In addition, 64% of all respondents want additional information on Decision process and 65% want additional information on Organization. Superintendents are less likely to want additional information on either subject at less than .01 alpha level. (Tables 28, 29, 30)

Hypothesis 5: There is no significant relationship between the two factors of decision process, and representation in the perceptions of school board members, school board presidents, and superintendents.

No tests of significance were found among eight data files that achieved less than .05 alpha. The null hypothesis is retained.

Hypothesis 6: There is no significant relationship between the two factors of decision process, and role in the perceptions of school board members, school board presidents, and superintendents.

No test of significance were found among eight data files that achieved less than .05 alpha. The null hypothesis is retained.

Hypothesis 7: There are no significant relationships among the four factors of role, decision process, organizational belief, and representation in the perceptions of school board members, school board presidents, and superintendents.

Although significant association has been found between decision process by organizational belief, no significant relationships that withstood the criteria of this dissertation were found between decision process by representation, role, or representational style. Likewise no significant associations that withstood the criteria were found between organizational belief by representation, role, or representational style.

However, analysis of board member data and board president data indicated significant relationships between representation by representational style and representation by role. Board members who represent Community interests are more likely to assume a Delegate representational style at the .01 alpha level. Board presidents who represent Community interest are more likely to assume a Trustee representational style at the .05 alpha. Presidents with a Legislative role are more likely to represent the Community at less than .001 alpha. Therefore, the hypothesis is not retained because relationships were

found between the variables of: decision process by organizational belief; representation by representational style; and representation by role. (Tables 23, 31, 32, 33)

Hypothesis 8: There are no significant relationships between the perceptions of school board presidents, and superintendents from the same district on the four factors of role, representation, organizational belief, and decision process.

This hypothesis was structured to investigate the possibility of agreement between superintendents and board presidents from the same district. Data analysis of matched superintendent and board president responses from 176 districts and 352 cases indicated that there was primary agreement by 87% of respondents on board role, 67% on representational style, 51% on representation, 26% on decision process, and 14% on organizational belief. If there is disagreement on Representation, the president likely represents District interests at less than .001 alpha level. If there is disagreement on representational style, the president likely assumes a Delegate style at less than .001 alpha. If there is agreement on representation, superintendents and their board presidents are more likely to agree on representational style as well at less than .01 alpha. Class D superintendents and presidents are more likely to disagree on representation at less than .001 alpha than other sized districts. Class C superintendents and presidents are more likely to disagree on representational style at .05 alpha. Since a relationship of agreement was found between the variables of representation and representational style, the hypothesis is not retained for those variables. It is retained for the variables of role, decision process, and organizational belief.

(Tables 34, 35, 36, 37, 38, 39, 40)

Training

Although a hypothesis was not written to investigate an overall training description in Michigan, nonetheless a pattern of significant relationships were found in the research data that describes current school board training in Michigan.

Data analysis of all respondent data shows that in order of use, Michigan school boards are primarily trained by the Michigan Association of School Boards, the district superintendent or central office staff, the Intermediate School District personnel, or Other organizations.

Respondents who have received training from District trainers are more likely to use a Systems or Contingency organizational structure. Those respondents who have not received training from District trainers are more likely to use a Traditional or Symbolic organizational structure at less than .001 alpha. Respondents who have had training from District trainers are more likely to use a Rational decision process. Those respondents who have not had training from District trainers are more likely to use a Satisficing decision process at .05 alpha. Respondents who have had training from Intermediate School District trainers are more likely to use a Rational decision process. Those respondents who have not received training from ISD trainers are more likely to use an Approval decision process at less than the .01 alpha.

Seventy-three percent of respondents believe boards are trained in role and 59% believe they are trained in decision processes. Superintendents are more likely to believe their boards are not trained in role or decision processes at less than the .001 alpha level. Further significance was not found between the variables of role training and

role. Respondents who have received decision training or believe that their boards have, are more likely to use a Rational decision process. Respondents who are not trained in decision processes are more likely to use an Approval process at less than the .001 alpha level. Matched board presidents and members who have had decision training are more likely to be Delegates at less than the .05 alpha and less than .01 alpha using the Likelihood Ratio test of significance.

Sixty-four percent of respondents believe boards are not trained in organizational structure. Board presidents are more likely to believe they are trained in the different organizational structures of schools at less than .001 alpha. Respondents who have had organizational training are more likely to use a Rational decision process; those who have not had organizational training are more likely to use an Approval decision process at less than the .01 alpha. Matched superintendents and presidents who have had organizational training are more likely to use a Contingency organizational structure. Those with no organizational structure training are more likely to use a Human Resource or Traditional organizational structure at .05 alpha. Seventy-six percent of superintendents are trained in decision processes but only 23% of superintendents reported that they had formal training about school boards.

Superintendents chose Role as the most needed training for school boards, while school boards chose Finance. Fifty-seven percent of all respondents favor mandatory training for Michigan school boards. However, superintendents are more likely to support mandatory training than board presidents or members at less than .001 alpha. Lastly, 54% of superintendents do not believe that individual board members should

have a copy of the school code. Fifty-two percent of presidents have a personal copy of the school code; 55% of board members do not.

(Tables 41, 42, 43, 44, 45, 46, 47, 48, 49, 50, 51, 52, 53, 54, 55, 56)

Hypothesis 9: School board members do not believe that MASB certification training has helped them make better decisions, and there is no relationship between MASB training and the factor of decision process.

Data analysis of grouped board responses, board president, and superintendent responses indicates that 83% of board presidents and members have received some MASB Training. However, 62% of board presidents and members are not MASB certified. Although 55% of board presidents are not MASB Certified, they are more likely to have received MASB Training at less than .05 alpha and MASB Certification at less than .001 alpha than school board members. Presidents and members with four service years or less are more likely not to be Certified at less than .001 alpha level. Of the 38% of total board respondents who have received MASB certification, 86% believe they make better decisions due to MASB Certification. Superintendents are more likely to believe that their boards do not make better decisions due to MASB certification at less than the .001 alpha level. The mean of certified board members per board is 2.2, the median is 2 and the mode is 0. Twenty-five percent of superintendents report that there are no MASB certified board members serving in their districts. Class A and B sized districts are more likely to have certified board presidents than Class C and D districts at less than the .01 alpha level. Therefore, the first half of the hypothesis is not retained since Certified school board presidents and members believe that MASB

certification training has helped them make better decisions. (Tables: 57, 58, 59, 60, 61, 62, 63, 64, 65)

A relationship at less than .05 alpha was not found to validate an association between MASB Training or MASB Certification with the variable of decision process. Therefore, the second half of the hypothesis is retained. A relationship does not seem to exist at this time between MASB Training or Certification and the variable of decision process.

Hypothesis 10: There is no significant relationship between completing the MASB certification training and the three factors of representation, role, and organizational belief.

Data analysis of board member and grouped board responses indicate that MASB certified board members are more likely to represent the District while uncertified board members are likely to represent the Community at the .05 alpha level. MASB certified board presidents and members are more likely to assume a Legislative role at less than the .01 alpha level. However certified board presidents and board members are more likely to use a Delegate representational style at less than the .01 alpha level, while uncertified presidents and members are more likely to use a Trustee representational style. Since significant relationships were found between MASB Certification by representation, role, and representational style, the hypothesis is not retained for those variables. (Tables 66, 67, 68)

However, no significance was found between MASB training or MASB certification by decision process or organizational structure. The hypothesis is retained for these two variables.

Incrementalism

Although a hypothesis was not written to investigate Incrementalism in Michigan school boards, nonetheless a pattern of significant relationships was found that describes current school board incrementalism in Michigan.

Significant relationships were found in crosstabulating the variable of incrementalism by Class size, District trainers, Role training, and decision process in the data files of all responses, matched superintendent and president, as well as board member response files. An analysis of the data indicates that 70% of all respondents believe that their boards prefer incrementalism to major change. Matched superintendent and board presidents responses from the same district show that Class D superintendents and presidents are more likely to prefer incrementalism than other sized districts at the .05 alpha level. However matched superintendents and presidents who use district trainers are more likely to prefer major change at the .05 alpha level. Grouped board data indicate that presidents and members who have received Role training are more likely to prefer major change at the .05 alpha level. (Tables 70, 71. 72, 73, 74)

A significant relationship was found between the variables of incrementalism and decision process. Board members who use an Approval decision process are more likely to believe their boards prefer major change. Board members who use a Rational decision process are more likely to believe their boards prefer incrementalism. This significance of this test is less than .05 alpha. (Table 75)

Consensus

Although a hypothesis was not written to investigate Consensus in Michigan school boards, nonetheless a pattern of significant relationships was found that describes current school board consensus in Michigan.

Significant relationships were found between the variable of Consensus by the variables of Class size, Service years, Role training, MASB Certification, and Mandatory training. Data analysis of all respondents, matching presidents and board members, grouped board responses, and superintendent data indicated that 87% of respondents do not believe that their boards should achieve a unanimous 7-0 vote in making decisions. Superintendents are more likely to believe their boards should make unanimous votes at the .05 alpha level. Class D districts are least likely to support unanimous decision making. Grouped board respondents with five to eight service years are least likely to support unanimous decision making, while board respondents with over twelve service years are most likely to prefer consensus. Grouped board respondents who have Role training and matched president and members from the same district who are MASB Certified are more likely to believe boards should achieve unanimous decisions at .05 alpha. Grouped board respondents who do not support consensus for their board decisions are less likely to support mandatory training at less than the .01 alpha level. (Tables 76, 77, 78, 79, 80, 81, 82)

Significant relationships were also found between Consensus by the variables of Representation, Organizational belief, and Pressure. Data analysis indicated that superintendents who supported Community representation for boards were less likely to believe boards should

achieve unanimous decision making at .05 alpha. All respondents who use a Traditional organizational structure are least likely to support unanimous consensus; those that have a Systems organizational belief are more likely to support unanimous decision making at .05 alpha. Superintendents who do not believe that their boards should achieve unanimous consensus are more likely to have boards who change their tentative decisions due to pressure at the .05 alpha level of significance. (Tables 83, 84, 85)

Pressure

Although a hypothesis was not written to investigate Pressure in Michigan school boards, nonetheless a pattern of significant relationships was found that describes current special interest pressure on school boards in Michigan.

Significant relationships were found between the variable of Pressure and the variables of Class size, Education level, Funding level, Role training, Organizational training, and Mandatory training. Data analysis showed that 58% of all respondents do not believe that their boards have changed a tentative decision due to special interest pressure. Superintendents are more likely to believe that their boards have changed tentative decisions due to special interest pressure at less than the .001 alpha level. Pressure from special interest groups increases as the size of the district increases. Boards from Class A sized district school boards are more likely to change decisions at less than .01 alpha. Pressure seems to be least influential with districts that have a \$3501-4500 per pupil funding range at .05 alpha. Grouped board respondents with Bachelor's Degrees or less educational level are

less likely to believe that their boards have changed tentative decisions. Superintendents who believe their boards have role training and matched presidents who have received role training are less likely to believe their boards change decisions due to pressure at .05 alpha. Respondents who are not trained in organizational structure are more likely to have boards who change tentative decisions due to pressure at less than .01 alpha. Respondents who have boards who changed decisions due to pressure are more likely to support mandatory training for school board members at less than .001 alpha. (Tables 86, 87, 88, 89, 90, 91, 92)

Significant relationships were found between the variable of Pressure and the variables of Representation, and Role. Data analysis indicated that grouped board respondents who represent Community interests are less likely to have boards who change decisions due to special interest pressure at .05 alpha. Board presidents who assume Legislative roles are more likely not to have boards who change decisions due to pressure.

Significant relationships were found between the variable of Pressure and the variables of Decision process, and Preferred decision process. Superintendents who believe that their boards use a Political decision process are more likely to have boards that have changed decisions due to special interest pressure; superintendents whose boards use a Rational decision process are more likely to believe that their boards do not change decisions due to pressure at less than the .001 alpha level. Board presidents and members who use an Approval decision process are more likely to have boards who change their decisions due to pressure, while board respondents who use a Rational

decision process are least likely to have boards who change decisions due to pressure at less than the .01 alpha level. Respondents who have boards who have not changed decisions due to special interest pressure are more likely to prefer to retain their current decision process. Those that have boards who changed decisions due to pressure, would prefer to change to a Rational decision process at less than the .001 alpha level.

Significant relationships were found between the variable of Pressure and the variable of Organizational belief. Respondents who use a Political organizational belief are more likely to have boards who change decisions due to special interest pressure. Those that use a Contingency belief or systems organizational belief are least likely to have boards who change decisions due to special interest pressure at the .05 alpha level. Superintendents who use a Political organizational belief are more likely to have boards who change their decisions due to special interest pressure. Those that use a Systems organizational belief are least likely to have boards that change decisions due to pressure at the .05 alpha level. (Tables: 93, 94, 95, 96, 97, 98, 99, 100)

CONCLUSIONS

The following major conclusions were drawn from the study findings.

Representation, Representational Style, and Role

1. There is a major misconception about school board representation among board respondents and superintendents. Ninety-nine percent of all respondents report that they or their boards primarily represent the Community or the District. The school board is only legally required to represent State interests.

The debate found in the literature on Representation indicated that the vast majority of authors believe that school board presidents and members should choose one out of four possible interest groups to represent. The four choices were: State interests, Community interests, District interests, and Constituency interests. Survey question 14 was written to reflect those admonitions. Research results show that 99% of all respondents believe they or their boards should represent Community or District interests. Forty-nine percent of matched superintendents and presidents from the same district disagreed on representation which indicates that this is a debated topic in Michigan. On the other hand, legal opinion maintains that board members must represent the State of Michigan when decisions concern State policy or interests. The school board members have the discretion to represent the community, district, or constituency interests when those decisions concern those parties. School board members are not legally bound in any way to represent the community, district, or any constituency. It is the conclusion of this researcher that there is a major misconception among school board presidents, members, superintendents, and perhaps other support or training

organizations concerning school board member representation. This confusion could be a primary cause of school board conflict when members of the same board or district perceive the board's duty of representation differently. Descriptive decision theory labels a difference of frame of reference as a representational fault which can impair decision making. Lastly, if representation is discretionary and contingent upon a particular issue, then representation could or should be part of the process of school board decision making.

2. There are indications that board members do not maintain a Trustee representational style throughout their board service. It may erode with time or change due to representation or position on the board.

The findings of this dissertation show that 77% of board respondents favor a Trustee representational style and 67% of matched superintendents and presidents agree on board representational style. This confirms Schmidt's 1980 study which described 65% of Michigan school board members as indicating a "trustee-type" position. The 12% increase from 1980 to 1993 in Michigan board member choice of trustee style refutes the 1986 Institute for Educational Leadership report School Boards: Strengthening Grass Roots Leadership that cites a growing trend away from the trustee model toward a delegate model. However, there are indications that board members may not maintain a Trustee representational style throughout their board service. The results of this study demonstrate that a trustee style may erode with time, and it may also change due to choice of representation or position on the school board. Findings indicate that board members and presidents with five or more years of service are more likely to have a Delegate style. Board members who represent the Community are more likely to

have a Delegate representational style. Board Presidents who represent the District are more likely to have a Delegate style. These findings are in direct opposition to the 1984 Zerchykov conclusion that "new members are more likely to have a delegate orientation, and that the longer they serve, the more likely it is that they will be socialized into the culture of trustee representation typical of long-time incumbents." Although Zerchykov believes that board members should have a Delegate style and therefore advocates a single-term of office, he seems to agree that board representational style may change with the amount of years served on the board.

3. Current overall role training does not address the subject matter of board representation, representational style, or board role as these subjects are described in the literature. This confusion could increase the possibility for conflict between board members and superintendents on the subject of board role.

Research findings concerning board role appear to be contradictory. On one hand, results show that 89% of all respondents believe that the school board members should have a Legislative (policy making) role rather than a Judicial or Administrative role. Eighty-seven percent of matched superintendents and their presidents agree on board role. In addition, 83% of board presidents and 74% of board members believe they have received at least one formal training session in Role. On the surface, these findings indicate that the Legislative role is the role most accepted and approved by board members as well as superintendents in Michigan. One could also speculate that most board members have an understanding of board role because of the high percentage of board respondents trained in role. These findings do not seem to support Van Kampen's 1989 Michigan study that both board

members and superintendents believe that their major area of conflict is board role and responsibility.

On the other hand, findings also indicate that superintendents are more likely to believe that their boards are not trained in Role. Role was found to be the primary request for needed training from all respondents and the topic most chosen by superintendents. Policy versus Administration was the sixth overall selection for wanted training which may indicate conflict within districts over board role. Results also show that superintendents are more likely to support a Legislative policy role for board members than board presidents or members themselves. These findings may indicate that board role may still be an area of conflict in Michigan as stated by Van Kampen.

Further, significance was found between the variable of Role and the variable of Education level. Board presidents and members who have a high school education level are more likely to assume an Administrative role, while board respondents with a Bachelors education level are more likely to assume a Legislative role. Demographic statistics show that 33% of board presidents and 40% of board members have a high school education level. These statistics may indicate a potential for conflict between those board members who assume Administrative roles and those superintendents and board members who believe that boards should have Legislative roles.

However, the most interesting finding is the lack of significance found in relationship of role training to other variables. Significance was not found between the variables of role training and role. Significance was not found between the variables of role training and representation or representational style. If one assumes that school

board role, representation, and representational style are subjects that should be discussed in role training, then one might expect that those variables would be found to be significant in research testing. Since this did not happen, it is possible that these subjects are not consistently discussed during role training. It is possible that role, representation and representational style are displaced in discussion by other unknown subject matter. This inconsistency could be one reason why role remains a conflict area in Michigan school districts. Board members may be receiving "role training" but are not receiving instruction in board roles.

These findings lead the researcher to conclude that the possibility for conflict in the area of role is still a problem between superintendents and board members and may continue to be one as long as consistent role training is not a requirement for board service in Michigan schools.

Decision Process

4. More than one-third of Michigan school boards are using an Approval decision process which is not considered an effective practice by known authoritative or theoretical sources.

Different authors have different theories about how to make good decisions and what factors are significant. All agree that the more time and deliberation used, the better the decision. Most authors believe that the use of a Rational decision process or any type of Analysis decision process will most likely lead to the best successful outcome. However, results show that Approval is the most used decision process in Michigan school districts at this time, according to 39% of all respondents. An Approval process is a means of approving one

recommendation from the superintendent or committee. Called "rubber stamping" by the National Association of School Boards, Approval is not a recommended practice or considered an effective decision process by known authoritative or theoretical sources. Further, this study has indicated that although board members who use an Approval process believe their boards prefer major change, board presidents and members who use an Approval process are more likely to change their tentative decisions due to special interest pressure. Since school boards are the legal decision making body for school districts, it is the conclusion of this researcher that those respondents who are using an Approval process are not making those crucial decisions effectively even though they may believe that using an Approval process leads to major change. Results indicate that Class B sized districts are more likely to use an Approval decision process than other class sized districts.

Organizational Structure

5. A clear understanding of how the district really works in relation to organizational structure is lacking between superintendents and their boards. Forty-nine percent of board presidents and 66% of board members are not trained in organizational structure.

In this research, eight categories of organizational structure were discussed. An organizational structure is the framework based on a particular belief of how things get done, responsibilities, communication, and relationships. Each organizational structure contains positive and negative elements. Authors could not agree on the best organizational structure or which one was predominate in schools. The results of this study indicate that all organizational beliefs are practiced in Michigan school districts in varying degrees,

with 25% of respondents choosing a Traditional organizational belief. However, only 14% of matched superintendents and board presidents could agree on which organizational belief was used in their own districts. It seems evident that a clear understanding of the district's organizational structure is lacking between superintendents and their boards. Superintendents may not be discussing how the district really works with their boards because they may not believe that their board have a working knowledge of organizational structure. According to the findings of this research, 49% of board presidents, and 66% of board members are not trained in the different organizational structures of schools. Seventy-five percent of superintendents do not believe that their boards are trained in organization. Further organizational structure may impact the decision process. Results indicate a strong significant relationship between decision process and organizational structure. A Traditional organizational belief is more likely to be used with an Approval decision process, while a Systems organizational belief is more likely to be used with a Rational decision process. If certain organizational structures are used with certain decision processes, it seems rather important to know both concepts. It also seems important that those individuals who make the decisions which impact their organization ought to at least theoretically know how things get done in that organization and be able to conceptualize how alternative decisions will impact their particular organizational structure.

Incrementalism

6. Incrementalism is a factor in Michigan school board decision making. Seventy percent of respondents believe their boards prefer small changes in district policy over time rather than major change.

According to Janis and Mann (1977), incrementalism is defined as small sequential change used to alleviate shortcomings in present policy in order to put out "fires" of complaint. They believe that incrementalism is used in conjunction with a Satisficing decision process which may eliminate any effort to specify major goals or find the best means for achieving set objectives. Findings indicate that 70% of all respondents favor incrementalism to major change, but only 11% of respondents use a Satisficing decision process. Class D sized districts are more likely to use a Satisficing decision process and prefer incrementalism. Therefore Class D districts are more likely to fulfill the expectations of Janis and Mann. Significant relationships were also found between incrementalism and decision process. Evidence suggests that board members who use Rational, Satisficing, and Analysis decision processes are also more likely to prefer to make small changes over time. Since Rational and Analysis decision processes are regarded as effective decision practices, there may be other reasons for boards who use these decision practices to value incrementalism.

Beach (1993) advocates the use of incrementalism as a means to long term change. He feels that major change threatens long held beliefs that make up the organizational culture and either overt or covert rebellion will develop. It was the assumption of this researcher that Beach was centering his point of view on Traditional organizational structure which naturally opposes change rather than a Systems organizational structure which is more amendable to change. However,

no relationship was found between the variables of incrementalism and organizational belief in this study to support Beach's concept.

Nonetheless, it is the opinion of this researcher that boards value incrementalism because they believe it will produce less conflict which they want to avoid.

Consensus

7. Unanimous consensus and possible detrimental effects of "groupthink" were not found to be highly significant in Michigan school board decision making.

In decision theory literature, the concept of consensus was defined as the most commonly used decision rule. The decision is "good enough" if the majority supports it. A desire for unanimous consensus is described as a coping defense with detrimental consequences and labeled "groupthink" by Janis and Mann (1977). On the other hand, "consensus building" is endorsed by the American Association of School Administrators and the National School Boards Association in Holding Effective Board Meetings (1984) as the main decision method for school boards. "Team Decision Making" is described as a discussion method where board members are equals and view the superintendent as a resource for information and advice. Although unanimity is not required, unanimous consensus frequently occurs. However, no relationship was found in this study between the variables of consensus and decision process. Further, 87% of respondents do not believe in unanimous decision making and Class D districts are least likely to support unanimous decision making. Superintendents are more likely to prefer unanimous votes as are board presidents and members with over twelve service years. However, superintendents who support

Community representation or have boards who have changed decisions due to special interest pressure are more likely to believe that their boards should not achieve unanimous voting.

Iannaccone and Lutz present a third viewpoint that consensus itself is not the issue but the appearance of board consensus that may discourage debate within the organization and therefore effect the organizational structure. Research findings indicate a significant relationship between consensus and organizational belief. Positive residuals indicating higher than expected frequencies for consensus were found in relation to Political, Systems, Symbolic, and Contingency organizational beliefs. However, contrary to Iannaccone and Lutz's observations of the Traditional or Sacred Community organizational structure, the findings of this study show that respondents who have a Traditional organizational belief are less likely to support consensus, while respondents who have a Systems organizational belief are more likely to support unanimous decisions.

Pressure

8. Special interest pressure is a factor in Michigan school board representation, role, organizational structure, and may account for the choice of decision process. Forty-two percent of all respondents believe that their boards have changed a tentative decision due to special interest pressure.

Authors believe that the influence of special interest pressure from within and without the district organization is having more and more of an effect on school board decision making. Many authors feel that school boards are misguided if they are influenced by special interest groups which can produce conflict and restrict the decision making function of the board. On the other hand Davies (1984) and

Zerchykov (1984) believe school board members should represent certain special interest constituencies and be more flexible. Mullen and Roth (1991) may provide an explanation that special interest group pressure is effective as a result of group and approval needs. They feel human beings can be influenced toward the expectations of their identified group. These authors feel that humans therefore have a general tendency to conform and avoid confrontation. The results of this study show that 55% of superintendents, 34% of board presidents, and 35% of board members believe that their boards have changed tentative decisions due to special interest pressure. Pressure from special interest groups is more likely to increase as the size of the district increases. Class A sized district boards are most likely to change decisions due to pressure. Class A district boards are also more likely to use a Political decision process.

Significant relationships were also found between the variables of pressure by representation, role, and organizational structure. Board presidents and members who represent District interests or assume Judicial roles are more likely to have boards who change decisions due to special interest pressure. Board presidents who assume Legislative roles are less likely to have boards who can be influenced by pressure. Respondents who use a Political organizational structure are more likely to have boards who change decisions due to pressure, while those who use a Contingency or Systems organizational structure are least likely to have boards who yield to pressure.

Significant relationships were found between the variables of pressure and decision process. Superintendents are more likely to believe that their boards change decisions due to special interest

pressure when a Political decision process is used, while board respondents indicate that their boards are more likely to change decisions due to pressure when an Approval decision process is used. In Political decision making an idea is introduced early on and then negotiation, bargaining, and compromise is used to reach consensus. Fifteen percent all respondents reported using a Political decision process. Superintendents are more likely to believe that their school boards use a Political decision process rather than the Approval process. Since these findings indicate that boards are more likely to change decisions with Approval process, yet superintendents believe they change decisions with a Political process, it seems possible to this researcher that this difference in opinion may partially account for choosing a particular decision process or may be one reason why the use of the Approval decision process appears to be so widespread. Superintendents may be promoting the use of an Approval process because they may see less confrontation with its use, even though board respondents may see more. It should also be noted that both the Approval and Political decision processes have commonalities. Each process only considers one alternative or course of action and neither are recommended in decision theory literature as effective decision processes. Other findings indicate that superintendents, presidents, and members who use a Rational decision process are least likely to change decisions due to special interest pressure.

Change

9. Most respondents who do not desire a change in their decision process currently use a Rational decision process, those respondents who do desire a change prefer a Rational or Analysis decision process.

In a Rational decision process, the problem is diagnosed, data are collected, alternatives are generated, each alternative is analyzed for positive and negative consequences, and each alternative is compared to the other in order to choose the optimum means of solving the problem. The choice is evaluated after the fact. Survey results show that 30% of all respondents believe their boards use a Rational decision process in Michigan districts. Forty-six percent of all respondents do not want to change their decision process. Of this "no change" category, 49% currently use a Rational decision process, 29% use an Approval process, 10% use an Analysis decision process, 8% use a Political process, and 6% use Satisficing. Of the 54% of respondents who do desire a change in their decision process, 26% chose Rational, 20% chose Analysis, 4% chose Satisficing, 3% chose Political, and 2% chose Approval. Findings further indicate superintendents who would like to change their board's decision process are more likely to prefer a Rational decision process.

Respondents whose boards have changed their decisions due to special interest pressure are more likely to want to change their board's decision process to a Rational process. Board members who would like to change their decision process are more likely to want to change to an Analysis decision process.

10. Most respondents who do not desire a change in their district's organizational structure currently use Contingency or Systems organizational structure. Those respondents who do desire a change prefer a Contingency or Systems organizational structure.

In a Systems organizational structure, school districts are viewed as delivery systems. Subsystems may be individual schools or interdisciplinary grade levels. There is a mission statement, performance based objectives, and short and long term goals. Change is considered normal and decisions are based on accumulated data from the input and output needs of each subsystem. Contingency organizational structure is derived from Systems but allows each subsystem to use whatever organizational structure is deemed appropriate for the function of the subsystem. Survey results indicate that 46% of all respondents do not wish to change their district's organizational structure. Of this "no change" category 34% use a Contingency organizational belief, 28% use Systems, 12% use Human Resources, 11% use Traditional, 6% use Legal-Rational, 5% use Site-based management, 4% use Political, and 1% use a Symbolic organizational structure. Of the 54% of respondents who would like a change in their organizational structure, 19% chose Contingency, 18% chose Systems, 8% chose Site-based management, 3% chose Human Resource, 2% chose Legal-Rational, 2% chose Political, 1% chose Traditional, and less than 1% chose Symbolic organizational structure.

Training

11. Boards trained by their own districts are more likely to use a Rational decision process, a Systems or Contingency organizational structure, and prefer major change.

According to Holwey (1992) school board members need to know the following eight skills: Leadership, Decision-making, Finance, Policy,

Communications, School Law, Instruction/Curriculum, and Administration. Holwey found that Finance was the primary choice for needed training in Arkansas, while Decision-making was the most wanted training area in Kentucky and Georgia. Kerrins (1984) and Kleinstiver (1986) found that Role and Responsibility was the most indicated training need by board members in Colorado and Arizona. In Michigan, survey results show that the most wanted training areas are currently: Role, Finance, Negotiations, Decision Making, Curriculum, Policy versus Administration, School Law, Pressure, and Policy Making. Superintendents chose Role as the primary training need, while school board respondents chose Finance.

In this report, the question of school board training focused on Role training, Decision process training, and Organizational structure training. Findings indicate that the majority of board presidents and members believe they have received at least one formal training session in Role and decision making. However, superintendents are less likely to believe that their boards are trained in either area. The majority of respondents do not believe they or their boards have received one formal training session in organizational structure, although board presidents are more likely to believe they have received training in organizational structure.

Nonetheless, some unanticipated effects of training were found in this research. Respondents who believe they or their boards have received role training or training in organizational structure are less likely to change decisions due to special interest pressure. Board presidents and members who have received role training are more likely to prefer major change but may also prefer unanimous consensus.

Michigan school boards are trained, in order of use, by the Michigan Association of School Boards, District trainers, Intermediate School District trainers, and Other trainers. Each category of trainer was found to be significant with each of the variables of role training, organization training, and decision process training. However, only some categories of trainers were found to be significant with some main variables of this report. For instance, the variables of organizational belief, decision process, and incrementalism were found to be associated with District trainers. Respondents who have had training with their own District trainers were more likely to use a Systems or Contingency organizational structure, a Rational decision process, and prefer major change. Respondents who have not received training from their own District trainers are more likely to use a Traditional organizational structure, a Satisficing decision process, and prefer incrementalism. The variable of Decision process was also found to be associated with ISD trainers. Respondents who have had training with ISD trainers are more likely to use a Rational or Political decision process. Respondents who have not received training from ISD trainers are more likely to use an Approval decision process. The variable of Consensus was also found to be associated with Other Trainers. Matched board respondents from the same district who have had training from Other trainers are more likely to prefer unanimous consensus. Finally, significant relationships were found between the variables of Representation, Representational Style, and Role by the variables of MASB trainers and MASB certification training. These findings are discussed in the following section.

MASB Training

12. Boards trained by the Michigan Association of School Boards are more likely to represent the District, assume a Legislative role, use a Delegate representational style, and achieve a 7-0 vote in making decisions.

According to the literature review, at least twelve states have mandated school board training and 16 states have school board association voluntary programs. Survey results show that 67% of superintendents, 48% of board presidents, and 53% of board members support mandatory training for school board members in Michigan. Board respondents who believe that their boards prefer major change are more likely not to support mandatory training for Michigan school boards. Respondents who have boards who changed decisions due to special interest pressure are more likely to support mandatory training for all Michigan school board members.

Currently, the Michigan Association of School Boards has a voluntary school board member training program. As of January 1993, the MASB curriculum contained subjects in: Leadership Skills, Policy, Finance and Budget, School Law, Curriculum and Instruction, Community Relations, Labor Relations, and Legislation. Findings indicate that 83% of board respondents have received some MASB training but only 38% have received full MASB certification. Board presidents are more likely to have received MASB training and certification than board members. Class A and B sized districts are more likely to have certified board presidents than Class C and D sized districts. More than one fourth of superintendent respondents report that there are no certified presidents or members in their districts.

Of the certified board members 86% believe they make better decisions as board members due to MASB certification. However, superintendents are less likely to believe their board members make better decisions due to MASB certification. Certified board members are more likely to represent the District. Certified board respondents are more likely to assume Legislative roles. Board respondents who have had training from MASB trainers are more likely to use a Delegate representational style. Matched board presidents and members from the same district who are MASB certified are more likely to believe that their boards should achieve unanimous consensus.

No significance was found between the variables of decision process by MASB training or MASB certification. No significance was found between the variables of organizational belief by MASB training or MASB certification. Decision making and organizational structure are not listed as main subject titles in the MASB curriculum. Therefore, it is the conclusion of this researcher that the subjects of decision process and organizational structure may not be taught as full subjects by the Michigan Association of School Boards.

Theoretical Conclusions

13. There is a relationship between the variables of role and representation as well as between the variables of representational style and representation.

A significant relationship was found between role and representation at less than .01 in a combined sample group and less than .001 for board presidents. Different roles were found to be associated with either Community or District representation. School board presidents who chose Legislative or Judicial roles were more

likely to represent the Community, while presidents who assumed an Administrative role were more likely to represent the District. Thus a different representational allegiance may lead to assuming a different type of role.

A significant relationship was also found between representational style and representation at less than .01 for board members and less than .05 for board presidents. Board members who represent Community interests are more likely to have a Delegate representational style, while board presidents who represent the Community are more likely to have a Trustee style. Any board member may become president by board election, thus the change of representational style seems to be primarily due to attaining a different position on the board.

14. There is a relationship between the variables of representation and special interest pressure as well as between the variables of role and pressure.

In this study, special interest pressure was found to have a significant relationship with the variables of representation and role. It is possible that certain representations and/or roles are chosen in order to defend against special interest pressures or attempt to work with them. In the school board example of this report, board presidents may choose a Community representation in order to align themselves with the priorities of the community rather than district priorities in order to avoid confrontation with special interest groups who may not agree with district priorities. A Judicial role might be chosen in order to have the maneuverability to change decisions according to evidence from special interest groups. A Legislative role may insulate the decider as a "policy maker" rather than one who is primarily concerned

with individual problems or cases. This choice of representation may substantiate a Mullen and Roth postulate that people belong to groups and communities that demand loyalty in matters of action and belief, and whose opinions matter to them. Deciders may either choose roles that are expected by their particular affiliates or choose roles that insulate the decider from the influence of their affiliates.

15. There is a relationship between the variable of decision process and the variable of organizational structure.

A significant relationship was found between decision process and organizational structure at less than .001 alpha. This is the first known evidence of such an association. Although organizational theorists advise using certain types of decision processes for certain organizational structures, decision theorists seem only interested in the influence of organizational communication lines. It is conceivable that a particular type of organizational structure may influence the use of a particular decision process. For instance, results show that an Approval decision process is more likely to be used with a Traditional organizational structure, while a Rational decision process is more likely to be used with a Contingency or Systems organizational belief. Thus, organizational structure may be more of an integral piece to the problem of decision theory than has been acknowledged by decision theorists.

16. There is a relationship between the variables of pressure and decision process as well as between the variables of incrementalism and decision process.

Pressure was found to have a significant relationship with the variable of decision process. Deciders who use an Approval, Political, or Satisficing decision process are more likely to change their tentative

decisions due to special interest pressure. It is possible that decision makers may use these decision processes as a defensive tactic to reduce stress when they believe special interest pressure is imminent. Since there is little personal involvement in these processes, deciders can easily change tentative decisions or recommendations received from committees or from administration. On the other hand, decision makers who use a Rational or an Analysis decision process may be less likely to change their decisions due to the amount of time and effort they have expended into decision process. Further, because deciders who use a Rational or Analysis decision process are familiar with all the aspects that went into the decision, they have the knowledge to defend against untoward pressure. Further, findings show that respondents who have boards who changed their tentative decision due to pressure, would like to change to a Rational decision process.

According to the results of the data analysis, incrementalism is also a widely accepted practice in Michigan and most likely used in conjunction with Rational, Satisficing, and Analysis decision processes. Decision makers who use a Rational or Analysis decision process may believe they are using incrementalism as a tool such as advocated by Beach. They may think that they are following a cautious but planned change toward long term goals. Deciders who use a Satisficing decision process and incrementalism confirm the expectations of Janis and Mann (1977) who believe that these deciders are just attempting to put out fires and are unlikely to specify major goals or find the best solution.

On the other hand, Political and Approval processes are more likely associated with decision makers who prefer major change. One plausible explanation may be that respondents wish to avoid

confrontation as explained by Guba and Getzels in role theory as well as Mullen and Roth in decision theory. For instance, it is possible that the Approval decision process is used to diffuse possible rebellion within the organization or political ramifications from the outside environment by using large committees composed of members from both inside and outside groups. This would provide an arena to alleviate conflict and air concerns. Political decision making is also amendable to compromise and conflict is expected. Thus deciders who prefer major change may also expect confrontation. They may feel that the Approval or Political decision processes provide more compromise and flexibility.

17. There is a significant relationship between the variables of pressure and organizational belief as well as between the variables of consensus and organizational belief

Deciders who use Political, Legal-Rational, Traditional, or Human Resource organizational structures are more likely to change decisions due to pressure. For example, in a Political organizational structure factions of support for or against issues are naturally expected. On the other hand, a Systems organizational structure is based on data rather than conjecture and its deciders are less likely to change decisions due to pressure. This line of reasoning confirms Simon's notion of association between influence and organizational structure. Again, it seems as if the more a decision maker is personally involved in the decision or the data as they would be in a Systems organizational structure, then the less likely s/he is to yield to special interest pressure.

A significant relationship was also found between consensus and organizational belief. Positive residuals indicating higher than expected

frequencies for unanimous consensus were found in relation to Political, Systems, Symbolic, and Contingency organizational beliefs. This result is expected in relation to Political organizational structure because cooperation and consensus are the goals achieved through power, coalitions, bargaining, negotiation, and conflict. Consensus could also be expected in a Symbolic organization structure where the main purpose is to keep up appearances. A unanimous appearance would be obligatory. An association between consensus and Systems or Contingency organizational structures is possible because those structures are based on facts and data which could be easily understood and appreciated.

IMPLICATIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

1. The subject of school boards in any line of inquiry other than training is under researched. This makes any worthwhile suggestions impossible, because those recommendations would be supported by only one or a few studies at best. More overall research is needed in the areas of school board representation, role, organizational structure, and especially decision making.

2. Results indicate that only 25% of superintendent respondents are formally trained about the subject of school boards. Since school boards have traditionally looked to superintendents for information and guidance, this researcher wonders what misinformation may have resulted from the lack of superintendent knowledge. Significance was found between the variable of District trainers and the variables of decision process and organizational structure, which suggests that

superintendents are instructing their boards in these areas. However, no significance was found between District trainers and the variables of representation, representational style, or role. It seems possible that the lack of superintendent knowledge about school boards may be one reason why district trainers do not seem to be instructing their school boards in these last areas. More research is needed to determine if a lack of knowledge about school boards on the part of superintendents has a detrimental effect on district training programs for school boards.

3. A significant relationship was found between decision process and organizational structure at less than .001 alpha. More research is needed to determine if decision process or organizational structure is the independent variable, and if possible to determine how one variable effects the other.

4. This dissertation has shown that the variables of representation and role have a significant relationship. There is some indication in the data at the .10 alpha level that the variable of role is also associated with organizational structure. This suggests that role may be the connecting element between the variable of representation and the variable of organizational structure. More research is needed to establish or eliminate this possibility.

5. A significant relationship was found between representational style and representation. A change of representational style by a decider may be primarily due to attaining a different position on the board. More research is needed to determine if board presidents on other types

of decision boards such as corporations also change allegiances upon assuming office.

6. According to the findings, incrementalism is a widely accepted practice in Michigan. It might be used to avoid confrontation or viewed as a cautious planned change strategy toward long term goals. More research is needed to determine why such a large portion of respondents prefer to make incremental change.

7. Pressure was found to have a significant relationship with decision process. More research is needed to determine if certain decision processes are visualized by decision makers as defense mechanisms against special interest pressure.

8. There is a significant relationship between the variable of pressure and the variables of decision process and organizational belief. It seems as if the more a decider is involved in the decision process or in the data, the less likely s/he is to yield to special interest pressure. More research is needed to determine the specifics and amount of involvement needed to deter special interest pressure.

Reflections for Future Researchers

The advice of this researcher is not to attempt to recreate this entire research project with both school board and decision theory conclusions in mind. Not only were the four main variables of school board investigation complicated but the serendipity finding involving decision theory added enormously to the pressure that this researcher

felt. It may be a wiser course of action to focus on one area of school board behavior or one area of decision theory. If you choose to use the survey or parts of it for either research purpose, the following changes are suggested:

1. Superintendents should be asked if they have had formal training in organizational structure in question 6 of the superintendent's survey.
2. A fifth category of e. ALL OF THE ABOVE could be added to question 14. on School Board Representation on both questionnaires.
3. Eliminate the word "policy" in question 15a. It should state:
 - a. Deciding on the overall guidelines of the district.
4. There should be some indication in question 22 to prospective respondents that all organizational structures contain negative elements as well as positive elements. Further some thought should be given to eliminating category d Site based management and devoting a single yes/no question for this category since the parent organizational structure Human Resource is already included. Lastly, category h. Contingency Theory might be eliminated to prevent a possibility of an "all of the above" category.

APPENDIX

SAO
JAN 1991

APPROVAL OF DISSERTATION PROPOSAL
To
Student Affairs Office

(To be submitted by doctoral
student immediately following
approval by the Guidance Committee)

Student's Name: ADAMKIEWICZ, CHERYL St. Number A04629382
Last First Middle Initial

Title of the Dissertation
(may be tentative but should be accurate and descriptive)

Michigan K-12 Public School Board Members Decision Processes
and Factors of Representation, Role, Training, and Organizational
Structure.

Anticipated date of completion January 5, 1994

Guidance Committee Members (Signatures required)

Chairperson Louis G. Roman

Director Louis G. Roman

Date approved by the Guidance Committee 5-18-93

Federal and University regulations require that all proposed research
projects involving human subjects be reviewed and approved by the University
Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects (UCRIHS).

Will your research involve human subjects ☒ Yes ☐ No

If yes, date your proposal was sent to the UCRIHS for review 6 8 93
Mo/ Day/ Year

(Do not file this form with Student Affairs Office until the proposal has
been sent to UCRIHS)

I understand that the research cannot begin until approval is granted by the
UCRIHS.

Cheryl A. Adamkiewicz 5/18/93
Student's signature Mo/Day/Year

Date received in SAO _____

APPLICATION FOR REVIEW OF A PROJECT INVOLVING HUMAN SUBJECTS

UCRIHS - Michigan State University

David E. Wright, Ph.D., Chair

225 Administration Building

East Lansing, MI 48824-1046

(517) 355-2180

(517) 336-1171 - FAX

Office Hours: M-F (8:00 A.M.-Noon & 1:00-5:00 P.M.)

DIRECTIONS: Please complete questions on this application using the instructions and definitions found on the salmon sheets (revised October 1992).

1. **RESPONSIBLE PROJECT INVESTIGATOR(S)**
(Faculty or staff supervisor)
Dr. Louis Romano

Faculty ID#: _____
(Social Security #) _____

(Signature)
- ADDITIONAL INVESTIGATOR(S)**
Cheryl A. Adamkiewicz

Fac./Stu. ID#: A04629382

Fac./Stu. ID#: _____

Fac./Stu. ID#: _____
2. **ADDRESS**
(for comments/approval letter)
419 Erickson Hall

Michigan State University

E. Lansing, MI 48824

Phone #: 353-5461
FAX #: _____
- ADDRESS**
(for comments/approval letter)
933K Cherry Lane

E. Lansing, MI 48823

Phone #: 355-8086
FAX #: _____
3. **TITLE OF PROPOSAL** MICHIGAN K-12 PUBLIC SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS:
DECISION PROCESSES AND FACTORS OF REPRESENTATION, ROLE,
TRAINING, AND ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE.
4. **PROPOSED FUNDING AGENCY** (if any) None
5. **DOES THIS PROJECT UTILIZE AN INVESTIGATIONAL DRUG, DEVICE OR PROCEDURE?**
Yes ☐ No ☒ If yes, is there an IND #? Yes ☐ No ☐
6. **DOES THIS PROJECT INVOLVE THE USE OF HUMAN BLOOD OR TISSUE?**
Yes ☐ No ☒
7. **DOES THIS PROPOSAL HAVE AN MSU ORD NUMBER?** Yes ☐ # _____ No ☒
8. **WHEN WOULD YOU PREFER TO BEGIN DATA COLLECTION?** July 1, 1993
Please remember you may not begin data collection without prior UCRIHS approval.
9. **CATEGORY** (Circle A, B or C below. See instructions.)
a. This proposal requires review by a full sub-committee.
b. This proposal is eligible for expedited review. Specify category or categories _____
c. ☒ This proposal is exempted from full sub-committee review. Specify category or categories 1-C.

FOR OFFICE USE ONLY

Subcommittee _____

Agenda _____

MICHIGAN STATE UNIVERSITY

June 18, 1993

TO: Cheryl Adamkiewicz
933K Cherry Ln
East Lansing, MI 48823

RE: **IRB #:** 93-294
TITLE: MICHIGAN K-12 PUBLIC SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS: DECISION
PROCESSES AND FACTORS OF REPRESENTATION, ROLE,
TRAINING, AND ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURE
CATEGORY: 1-C
REVISION REQUESTED: N/A
APPROVAL DATE: June 18, 1993

The University Committee on Research Involving Human Subjects' (UCRIHS) review of this project is complete. I am pleased to advise that the rights and welfare of the human subjects appear to be adequately protected and methods to obtain informed consent are appropriate. Therefore, the UCRIHS approved this project including any revision listed above.

UCRIHS approval is valid for one calendar year, beginning with the approval date shown above. Investigators planning to continue a project beyond one year must seek updated certification. Request for renewed approval must be accompanied by all four of the following mandatory assurances.



OFFICE OF
**RESEARCH
AND
GRADUATE
STUDIES**

University Committee on
Research Involving
Human Subjects
(UCRIHS)

Michigan State University
225 Administration Building
East Lansing, Michigan
48824-1046
517/355-2180
FAX 517/336-1171

1. The human subjects protocol is the same as in previous studies.
2. There have been no ill effects suffered by the subjects due to their participation in the study.
3. There have been no complaints by the subjects or their representatives related to their participation in the study.
4. There has not been a change in the research environment nor new information which would indicate greater risk to human subjects than that assumed when the protocol was initially reviewed and approved.

There is a maximum of four such expedited renewals possible. Investigators wishing to continue a project beyond that time need to submit it again for complete review.

UCRIHS must review any changes in procedures involving human subjects, prior to initiation of the change. Investigators must notify UCRIHS promptly of any problems (unexpected side effects, complaints, etc.) involving human subjects during the course of the work.

If we can be of any future help, please do not hesitate to contact us at (517) 355-2180 or FAX (517) 336-1171.

Sincerely,

David E. Wright, Ph.D.
UCRIHS Chair

DEW:pjm

cc: Dr. Louis Romano

K-12 PUBLIC SCHOOL BOARD MEMBER RESEARCH

P.O. Box 164, East Lansing, 48826

August 24, 1993

Dear School Board Member,

This is an important request to join a cooperative effort in expanding the available knowledge and understanding of K-12 public school board members. Increasing attention and pressures are placed on today's dedicated board. However, current data on Michigan school boards is lacking as a basis to generate ways to help. Only you can provide this needed and important information.

All Michigan school board presidents and one school board member from each district are being asked to fill out a brief survey, and return it in the envelope provided. An estimated ten minutes is all the time that is needed to answer the 25 questions.

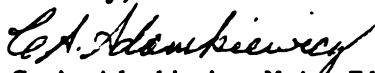
This state-wide study, approved by the Michigan Association of School Boards and the Michigan Association of School Administrators, is conducted within the strict procedures, confines, and consent of Michigan State University. You indicate your voluntary agreement to participate by completing and returning this questionnaire. This survey is not a test nor does it measure administrative or district ability. Total confidentiality will be maintained. The name of any participant or district will not be divulged. The information you give will be clustered with other district responses in a doctoral dissertation and examined as Michigan school board member data. As more surveys are returned, the data base becomes more useful and helpful in determining the perceptions of school board members as a group.

YOUR RESPONSE IS CRUCIALLY IMPORTANT!

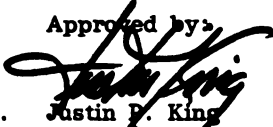
PLEASE TAKE THE FEW MINUTES TO COMPLETE AND RETURN THE SURVEY.

Thank you for your willingness to help and your prompt reply. Upon completion of this study, your participating district will receive an abstract of the results.

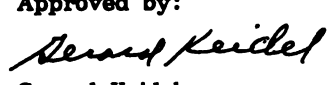
Sincerely,


C. A. Adamkiewicz, M.A., Ed.S.
Michigan State University
Ph.D Candidate

Approved by:


Justin P. King
Executive Director
MASB

Approved by:


Gerard Keidel
Executive Director
MASA

K-12 PUBLIC SCHOOL BOARD MEMBER RESEARCH

P.O. Box 164, East Lansing, 48826

August 24, 1993

Dear Superintendent,

Very little is known about how school board members function. The Institute for Educational Leadership stated in School Boards: Strengthening Grass Roots Leadership that:

"Problems of some magnitude, however, are emerging with regard to the role and operations of boards. Recent, in-depth research is lacking. Some descriptive accounts of the work of boards and superintendents can be found in the literature, but there is no recent solid data base upon which to generate recommendations for change, in either this relationship or the role, functions and operating structures of boards themselves." (1986)

Michigan school boards are no exception. In order to build a data base for school board improvement, all Michigan superintendents are being asked to please fill out the enclosed survey and return it in the envelope provided. An estimated ten minutes or less is needed to answer the 25 questions. This is an opportunity to join a cooperative effort in expanding the available knowledge and understanding of Michigan K-12 public school board members.

This state-wide study, approved by the Michigan Association of School Administrators and the Michigan Association of School Boards, is conducted within the strict procedures, confines, and consent of Michigan State University. You indicate your voluntary agreement to participate by completing and returning this questionnaire. This survey is not a test nor does it measure administrative or district ability. Total confidentiality will be maintained. The name of any participant or district will not be divulged in this study. The information you give will be clustered with other district responses in a doctoral dissertation and examined as Michigan school board member data. As more surveys are returned, the data base becomes more useful and helpful in understanding school board members. Your response is important.

Thank you for your willingness to help and your prompt reply. Upon completion of this study, your participating district will receive an abstract of the results.

Sincerely,


C. A. Adamkiewicz, M.A., Ed.S.
Michigan State University
Ph.D Candidate

Approved by:


Gerard Keidel
Executive Director
MASA

Approved by:


Justin B. King
Executive Director
MASB

K-12 PUBLIC SCHOOL BOARD MEMBERS RESEARCH SUPERINTENDENT SURVEY

Section I Demographic Background

- | | | |
|---|--|--|
| 1. District high school classification is:
☐ a. Class A
☐ b. Class B
☐ c. Class C
☐ d. Class D | 3. How long have you been superintendent in this district?
☐ a. 1 yr. or less
☐ b. 2-4 yrs.
☐ c. 5-8 yrs.
☐ d. 9-12 yrs.
☐ e. Over 12 yrs. | 5. Total district funding per student in 1992-93:
☐ a. \$3000 or less.
☐ b. \$3001 to \$3500.
☐ c. \$3501 to \$4000.
☐ d. \$4001 to \$4500.
☐ e. \$4501 to \$5000.
☐ f. over \$5000. |
| 2. Your school district is located in:
☐ a. Large urban center
☐ b. Suburban area
☐ c. Small city or town
☐ d. Rural area | 4. Highest education level attained:
☐ a. Masters Degree
☐ b. Educational Specialist
☐ c. Doctorate Degree | 6. Are you formally trained in:
a. Decision making processes? yes___ no___
b. Study of school boards? yes___ no___ |

Section II Identify all training for board service that your school board has received:

7. Inservices and seminars: a half to a full day of formal instruction per session:
- | | |
|---|--------------|
| a. from you or your central office personnel? | yes___ no___ |
| b. from the Intermediate School District consultants? | yes___ no___ |
| c. from the Michigan Association of School Boards? | yes___ no___ |
| d. from district paid consultants or other organizations? | yes___ no___ |
8. Do you believe that your school board has received one full formal session of training in each of these specific topics:
- | | |
|--|--------------|
| a. the role and responsibility of a school board member? | yes___ no___ |
| b. the different organizational structures of schools? | yes___ no___ |
| c. the decision-making processes of school boards? | yes___ no___ |
9. How many of your board members have completed the MASB certification program? #___
10. Does your school board make better decisions as a result of members completing the Michigan Association of School Boards' certification program? *Check N/A if no board members are certified. yes___ no___ *N/A___
11. Should each school board member have a copy of the Michigan School Code? yes___ no___
12. Should school board training be mandatory in Michigan? yes___ no___
13. In what one area do you think your school board needs training? _____

Section III Decision Process (check only one answer per question)

14. Who should a board member primarily represent in making decisions?
- ☐ a. The interests of the State of Michigan in education.
- ☐ b. The interests of the entire local community.
- ☐ c. The interests of the district, ie. students, teachers, and staff.
- ☐ d. The interests of a group or constituency, ie. community leaders, senior citizens, a section of the community, etc.
15. What do you believe a board member's primary role should be?
- ☐ a. Deciding on policy?
- ☐ b. Deciding on issues and concerns involving community interests?
- ☐ c. Personally making sure the schools are managed correctly?
16. Which one decision style is dominant on your board when making significant, strategic decisions for the district?
- ☐ a. Decisions are based on the board's own values, even though who they represent may disagree.
- ☐ b. Decisions are guided by expressed preferences of the represented even at the expense of the board's best judgement.
17. Should school board members achieve a unanimous 7-0 vote in making decisions? yes___ no___
18. Has your board changed a tentative decision due to pressure from a special interest group? yes___ no___
19. Does your board prefer to make small changes in district policy over time rather than major changes? yes___ no___

Please complete the six questions on the back of this form.

K-12 PUBLIC SCHOOL BOARD MEMBER RESEARCH SURVEY

Section I Demographic Background

- | | | |
|---|--|--|
| 1. District high school classification is:
☐ a. Class A
☐ b. Class B
☐ c. Class C
☐ d. Class D | 3. How many years have you served on the school board?
☐ a. 1 yr. or less
☐ b. 2-4 yrs.
☐ c. 5-8 yrs.
☐ d. 9-12 yrs.
☐ e. Over 12 yrs. | 5. Total district funding per student in 1992-93:
☐ a. \$3000 or less.
☐ b. \$3001 to \$3500.
☐ c. \$3501 to \$4000.
☐ d. \$4001 to \$4500.
☐ e. \$4501 to \$5000.
☐ f. Over \$5000. |
| 2. Your school district is located in:
☐ a. Large urban center
☐ b. Suburban area
☐ c. Small city or town
☐ d. Rural area | 4. Highest education level attained:
☐ a. High School Diploma
☐ b. Bachelors Degree
☐ c. Masters Degree
☐ d. Doctorate Degree | 6. a. Are you a current Board Member? yes___ no___
b. Are you the Board President? yes___ no___ |

Section II Please identify all formal training for board service that you have received:

7. Inservices and seminars: a half to a full day of formal instruction per session:
- | | |
|---|--------------|
| a. from your superintendent or central office personnel? | yes___ no___ |
| b. from the Intermediate School District consultants? | yes___ no___ |
| c. from the Michigan Association of School Boards ? | yes___ no___ |
| d. from a district paid consultant or other organization? | yes___ no___ |
8. Have you received one full formal session of training in each of these specific topics:
- | | |
|--|--------------|
| a. the role and responsibility of a school board member? | yes___ no___ |
| b. the different organizational structures of schools? | yes___ no___ |
| c. the decision-making processes of school boards? | yes___ no___ |
9. Have you completed the MASB certification program? yes___ no___
10. Do you make better decisions as a result of completing the Michigan Association of School Boards' voluntary certification program? *Check N/A if not certified. yes___ no___ *N/A___
11. Do you have a personal copy of the Michigan School Code? yes___ no___
12. Should school board training be mandatory in Michigan? yes___ no___
13. In what one area would you like to receive more training?_____

Section III Decision Process (please check only one answer per question)

14. As a board member, who do you primarily represent in making decisions?
- ☐ a. The interests of the State of Michigan in education.
- ☐ b. The interests of the entire local community
- ☐ c. The interests of the district, ie. students, teachers, and staff
- ☐ d. The interests of a group or constituency, ie. community leaders, senior citizens, section of the community, etc.
15. As a school board member what do you believe is your primary role?
- ☐ a. Deciding on school policy?
- ☐ b. Deciding on issues and concerns involving community interests?
- ☐ c. Personally making sure the schools are managed correctly?
16. As a board member which one decision style is dominant when making significant, strategic decisions for the district?
- ☐ a. Decisions are based on your own values, even though who you represent may disagree.
- ☐ b. Decisions are guided by expressed preferences of those you represent even at the expense of your best judgement.
17. Should school board members achieve a unanimous 7-0 vote in making decisions? yes___ no___
18. Has your board changed a tentative decision due to pressure from a special interest group? yes___ no___
19. Do you prefer to make small changes in district policy over time rather than major changes? yes___ no___

Please complete the six questions on the back of this form.

20. When making a crucial decision, which ONE DEFINITION IS CLOSEST to describing your board's decision process?

() a. The board identifies the related goals and objectives. The problem is diagnosed, and data is collected. Many alternatives are developed and considered for pros and cons. Each alternative is compared to each of the other alternatives in relation to the goals and objectives. The best alternative is selected and the solution is evaluated.

() b. There is a problem and the focus is on the main requirements needed to solve the problem. A number of alternatives are generated. The alternatives are reviewed in order and eliminated if main requirements are not met. The process stops when a satisfactory alternative is found.

() c. An idea is introduced early on by a board member or the administration. It is publicized and talked about with board members, administration and the public. It may be modified to satisfy concerns. There may be lobbying, negotiation, pressure, or trading votes to reach consensus.

() d. The school board approves decisions or recommendations made by the administration, district-wide committees, or school-based committees. Usually only one solution is presented to the school board.

() e. The board defines and prioritizes goals. Alternatives are identified to achieve a goal. A diagram is designed that shows the relationship of goals, resources, and parameters to help predict the consequences of each alternative in terms of the goal. A decision rule is made for selecting the preferred alternative by evaluating the consequences of each alternative on a common scale of value. The alternative is selected whose net benefit is highest.

21. If you could change the decision process, which ONE DEFINITION from question 20 would you prefer?

() a. () b. () c. () d. () e. () f. no change

22. In your opinion, which ONE STATEMENT IS CLOSEST to describing your district's belief in how things get done?

() a. There is a great belief in laws, rules, and regulations. The school board sets the policies and the goals, but the staff doesn't seem to work hard or have initiative to make those goals a reality.

() b. The belief is that teachers are the most critical resource. Staff participation, empowerment and teacher needs are emphasized. However, a few influential teachers seem to have more power than they should.

() c. This district is stable with a strong belief in tradition. Yet, change is extremely difficult in the district. It's almost as if there is a sacred belief in the status-quo. Gossip and favoritism could be evident.

() d. The belief is all decisions should be made at the lowest level. Each school council of three teachers, two parents, and the principal manage the school. Conflict, community politics, and power struggles may still be present.

() e. The belief is that everyone has different interests and conflict is inevitable. Uses consultation, bargaining and negotiation to come to a consensus. Staff or parents join groups to press for certain decisions. There may be little trust.

() f. The belief is that the district is an interrelated set of subsystems. Change is recognized as normal. Uses objective research and data to evaluate goals. However, the computations can be complicated; the data may be misleading.

() g. The belief is that symbols have impact and appearances are important. This district conforms to the way society thinks it should look and act. Yet, there could be a lack of clear goals and direction for meaningful change.

() h. Each school is different in needs, tasks, and strategies. Each school may use any one of the different beliefs described above to achieve a balance between strategy, needs of people, commitments and community. But the overall district design could be difficult to control and balance.

23. If you could change the district organizational belief, which ONE STATEMENT listed in question 22 would you prefer?

() a. () b. () c. () d. () e. () f. () g. () h. () i. no change

24. Would you like additional information on the decision processes described in question 20?

yes___ no___

25. Would you like additional information on the organizational structures represented in question 22?

yes___ no___

Used for both Superintendent and Board Member surveys.

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March 8, 1994

Ms. Cheryl Adankiewicz
933 K Cherry Lane
East Lansing, Michigan 48823

Re: School Board Decision-Making Process

Dear Ms. Adankiewicz:

This letter is in response to our telephone conference on March 4, 1994, when we discussed the legal requirements for decision making by boards of education. During the telephone conference you requested advice concerning "whose interest should a board of education primarily consider when making decisions: the interests of the State of Michigan; the interests of the individuals within their particular local school district; or the interests of special groups that may have elected particular board members." As we discussed, the answer to this question is a mixed legal and factual determination that requires some understanding of the structural underpinnings of the educational system in Michigan.

Article 8, § 2 of the Michigan Constitution of 1963 provides:

"The Legislature shall maintain and support a system of free public elementary and secondary schools as defined by law. . . ."

This section continued the commitment contained in the 1908 Constitution which placed responsibility on the Legislature to provide for education.

The status of education as the state rather than local concern is a well-established principle in Michigan jurisprudence.¹ In Ira School District No. 1 Fractional v Chesterfield School District No. 2 Fractional, 340 Mich 678, 689-690; 66 NW 2d 72 (1954), the Michigan Supreme Court stated:

¹ This concept should not be confused with the issue of funding of public education, since the state can use a combination of state and local sources to satisfy this obligation.

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"Fundamentally, provision for and control of our public school system is a state matter, delegated to and lodged in the state legislature by the constitution in a separate article entirely distinct from that relating to local government. The general policy of the state has been to retain control of its school system, to be administered throughout the state under state laws by local state agencies organized with plenary powers independent of the local government with which, by location and geographic boundaries, they are necessarily closely associated and to a greater or less extent authorized to cooperate. Education belongs to the state. It is no part of the local self government inherent in the township or municipality except so far as the legislature may choose to make it such. The general school laws were carefully planned and enacted to guard that distinction; provision was made for organization of the common school districts, with officers elected at school meetings by electors with defined qualifications, and who as a school board were given large plenary powers and control of school matters, practically independent from the local government of municipalities in which the schools were situated."

The fact that education is primarily a state concern does not fully answer your question since through the enactment of the School Code of 1976, MCLA 380.1 et seq., and other statutory provisions, the legislature has divided the authority to act in educational matters between the State Board of Education and local school boards.

The primary responsibility for the supervision of school districts is set forth in Article 8, § 3 of the Michigan Constitution, which provides in pertinent part:

"Sec.3. The leadership and general supervision over all public education, including adult education and instructional programs in state institutions, except as to institutions of higher education granting baccalaureate degrees, is vested in a state board of education. It shall serve as a general planning and coordinating body for all public education, including higher education, and shall advise the legislature as to the financial requirements in connection therewith."

"The State Board of Education shall appoint a Superintendent of Public Instruction whose term of office shall be determined by the Board. He shall be the Chairman of the Board without the right to vote, and shall be responsible for the execution of his policies. He shall be the

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principal executive officer of a State Department of Education and shall have the powers and duties provided by law."

This provision places initial authority to control public education in our State Board of Education and the Superintendent of Public Instruction.

Pursuant to this authority, the State Board of Education and the Superintendent of Public Instruction have issued numerous regulations governing the operation of local school districts. See generally, R 340.1 et seq. In areas where the State Board of Education has determined policy, a local board of education is required to follow that policy. However, in instances where the State Board of Education has not elected to exercise this policy making authority, local school districts are not required to take any specific actions. See, The State Board of Education v Houghton Lake Community Schools, 430 Mich 658, 425 NW 2d 80 (1988).²

The legislative scheme creating local school districts has always envisioned local control over many of the aspects of educational programming. This local control is clearly embodied throughout the School Code and is illustrated by §§ 1282 and 1300 which state as follows:

"Sec.1282. The board of a school district shall establish and carry on the grades, schools, and departments it deems necessary and desirable for the maintenance and improvement of the schools, determine the course of study to be pursued, and cause the pupils attending school in the district to be taught in the schools or departments the board deems expedient. MCL 380.1282."

"Sec.1300. The board of a school district shall make reasonable regulations relative to anything necessary for the proper establishment, maintenance, management, and carrying on of the public schools of the district, including regulations relative to the conduct of pupils concerning their safety while in attendance at school or en route to and from school. MCL 380.1300."

² The Michigan Supreme Court held that there was no clear duty on the part of local districts to provide 180 days of instruction, and those districts willing to forego state financial aid may exercise their discretion to schedule a lesser number. The State Board of Education could therefore not receive a court order requiring Houghton Lake Schools to reschedule days lost due to bad weather.

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As noted by the Michigan Supreme Court in Durant v State Board of Education, 424 Mich 364, 386; 381 NW 2d 662 (1985).

"The board of education in each of the school districts is directly responsible to the local voters and, with their input, determines what courses will be offered, what the goals of the school system will be, how much teachers will be paid, the number of schools, the requirements for graduation, the number of teachers and administrators, transportation matters, and almost every other matter necessary to the proper running of the school district. . ."

"Theoretically, the State could become inextricably involved in every aspect of the school board's role, determining the number of pencils required on the one hand and computing the necessary teachers' salaries on the other. Such a result is inconsistent with the historic ability of school districts to use funds as they see fit; a system of local control and local accountability is in keeping with the clear desire of the voters in passing the Headley Amendment."

It is within this scope of delegated authority that local school districts are empowered to act.³

The authority to operate a local school district is vested in its school board, since it is "the governing body of a local school district." MCL 380.3 (3).⁴ Members are elected to fill a set term and are required to subscribe to the following oath or affirmation:

"I do solemnly swear (or affirm) that I will support the Constitution of the United States and the Constitution of the State, and that I will faithfully discharge the duties of the office of a member of the Board of Education according to the best of my ability."

Elected board members are subject to recall as are other elected officers. MCL 380.1105.

³ This decision-making authority is also limited by statutory law, since Legislature has the authority to direct that local school boards take particular action.

⁴ By statute, day to day operational control is placed in the superintendent of the district.

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As a public body, the decision-making authority of a school board is required to be exercised in open session pursuant to the Open Meetings Act, MCL 15.261 et seq. The decision making of a school board is a collective process, since the majority of members may vote for a particular policy for differing reasons. The actions of a school board are presumed to be reasonable and proper unless there is a clear showing of abuse. Hiers v Detroit Superintendent of Schools, 376 Mich 225; 136 NW 2d 10 (1965). Review of school board decisions are limited to whether the board's actions were arbitrary and unreasonable.

In view of the foregoing, it is our opinion that in those areas where the State Department of Education has determined appropriate state policy by the issuance of rules and regulations, a local board of education is required to follow those policies. In areas where the legislature has delegated the decision making to a local board of education, that board of education can determine educational matters utilizing those lawful criteria which it deems appropriate. The school board is generally allowed to take into consideration the opinions and interests of state, local, and special interest groups, and may grant such weight to those interests as it deems appropriate. Input regarding these decisions can also be received through the use of advisory committees.⁵

While there is a presumption that local values will be a significant factor in the decision making process of a local school board, there is no legal requirement that such factors be the primary consideration upon which decisions of the board of education are founded. Since individuals passing through a local educational system will eventually be required to participate and compete in a broader spectrum of American life than their local community, these decisions cannot be made without some consideration for the state and national policies. Ultimately, the proper allocation of the weight to be given to particular criteria is a political determination to be made by electors of the local school district in their annual school board election.

⁵ In some cases the legislature has required the creation of advisory committees. See, MCL 380.1277 (1) which requires that "school board members, school building administrators, teachers and other school employees, pupils, parents of pupils attending that school, and other residents of the school district shall participate in the planning, development, implementation, and evaluation of the district school improvement plans.

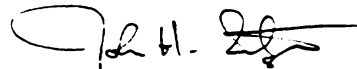
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If you have further questions regarding this matter, please
feel free to contact me.

Very truly yours,

CLARY, NANTZ, WOOD, HOFFIUS
RANKIN & COOPER

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "John H. Gretzinger", with a stylized flourish at the end.

John H. Gretzinger

JHG/bp
130718

SCHOOL BOARD RESEARCH: PILOT STUDY QUESTIONS

District _____

Date: _____

Amount of time to fill out the survey _____

Readability? Was the survey easy to understand? And fill out?

Were there any problems with the format? Should some questions come before others?

Were there any problems with the structure of the questions?

Does any question offend or annoy you in any way?

Did any of these questions strike you as particularly interesting or boring?

SPECIFIC QUESTIONS:

Survey Q#1. Does the athletic designations of district size in question #1 bother you?

Survey Q#14. If the word "parents" was added to question #14 would it go with the district or constituency category? Do you think board members would be confused? Would it change your answer?

Survey Q#15. Does the word "personally" in question 15c, immediately eliminate that choice from your selection? Are there any other role statements that you would add?

Survey Q#16. Do you have any comments or suggestions on question 16? Should there be a C category that states "Both a and b"?

Survey Q#17. Does the word "consensus" need more definition?

Survey Q#19. Should question 19 be stated the other way around?

Survey Q#20. Is it clearer if the wording was changed to "The process stops when the first satisfactory alternative is found?"

Survey Q#22. Does the sentence of 22d remind you of school improvement teams? Would you have a different perception if the selection read: "All decisions are made by.."

Survey Q#24 and #25. Would it be better to ask if you would like more information rather than ask if you have been trained in decision processes or organizational structure?

Survey Q#17-19 (16-20) Are there any questions in #16 through #20 that you would delete? Should questions 16 through 20 be true and false questions?

General comments and suggestions?

Would you fill out this form if it came in the mail and return it?

May I use the district name as mentioning that it was part of the pilot, no results would be connected to the district.

TABLE 103: Crosstabulation of Decision Process by Organizational Belief (recoded) from All Respondent data

	Count Row Pct Col Pct Residual	ANALYSIS					Row Total
		RATIONAL	SATISFIC	POLITIC	APPROVAL	ANALYSIS	
		1	2	3	4	5	
LEGAL-RATIONAL	1	13	7	7	20	2	49
		26.5%	14.3%	14.3%	40.8%	4.1%	6.9%
		6.3%	8.1%	6.3%	7.4%	5.3%	
		-1.3	1.1	-.6	1.5	-.6	
HUMAN RESOURCE	2	37	14	15	50	3	119
		31.1%	11.8%	12.6%	42.0%	2.5%	16.7%
		17.9%	16.3%	13.5%	18.6%	7.9%	
		2.4	-.4	-3.6	5.0	-3.4	
TRADITIONAL	3	31	28	30	78	8	175
		17.7%	16.0%	17.1%	44.6%	4.6%	24.6%
		15.0%	32.6%	27.0%	29.0%	21.1%	
		-19.9	6.8	2.7	11.8	-1.4	
POLITICAL	5	13	16	21	25	5	80
		16.3%	20.0%	26.3%	31.3%	6.3%	11.3%
		6.3%	18.6%	18.9%	9.3%	13.2%	
		-10.3	6.3	8.5	-5.3	.7	
SYSTEMS	6	43	6	16	28	8	101
		42.6%	5.9%	15.8%	27.7%	7.9%	14.2%
		20.8%	7.0%	14.4%	10.4%	21.1%	
		13.6	-6.2	.2	-10.2	2.6	
SYMBOLIC	7	8	5	10	21	1	45
		17.8%	11.1%	22.2%	46.7%	2.2%	6.3%
		3.9%	5.8%	9.0%	7.8%	2.6%	
		-5.1	-.4	3.0	4.0	-1.4	
CONTINGENCY	8	62	10	12	47	11	142
		43.7%	7.0%	8.5%	33.1%	7.7%	20.0%
		30.0%	11.6%	10.8%	17.5%	28.9%	
		20.7	-7.2	-10.2	-6.7	3.4	
Column		207	86	111	269	38	711
Total		29.1%	12.1%	15.6%	37.8%	5.3%	100.0%

Chi-Square	Value	DF	Significance
Pearson	70.72739	24	.00000
Likelihood Ratio	71.75322	24	.00000
Cramer's V	.15770		.00000
Minimum Expected Frequency - 2.405			
Cells with Expected Frequency < 5 - 3 OF 35 (8.6%)			
Number of Missing Observations: 131			

Recoded category 4 Site-based management added to parent organizational structure category 2 of Human Resource.

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