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Authority delegated to superintendents and superintendent effectiveness in selected Iowa school districts

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AUTHORITY DELEGATED TO SUPERINTENDENTS
AND SUPERINTENDENT EFFECTIVENESS
IN SELECTED IOWA SCHOOL DISTRICTS

by

Lyle William Kehm

A Dissertation Submitted to the
Graduate Faculty in Partial Fulfillment of
The Requirements for the Degree of
DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

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Approved:

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CHAPTER I. INTRODUCTION

The powers and responsibilities of boards of directors of Iowa's 453 local public school districts are painstakingly described in the Code of Iowa. It is clearly the intent of the law that the authority for the operation of local school districts be vested in local boards of directors, who are the elected representatives of the people.

The superintendent, on the other hand, appears not to be a local school district officer. The Code of Iowa (1) gives him no powers, and the only duty specifically assigned to him is that of cooperating with the State Labor Department in enforcing the child labor law. The local school superintendent as regarded by the Iowa Code is intended to be a servant of the local school board; and to function or perform his duties strictly in the manner desired and determined by the board which has hired him.

However, even the most casual observer of local school district operations would concede that the superintendent does in fact operate as an agent of the board, and that, under authority officially or by tacit agreement delegated to him by the school board, he does make decisions and take contractual actions for the board. He and his staff hire teachers, select textbooks, develop curriculum materials, and make purchases; reporting to the board on these actions. Board action, if taken tends on many items to be a

superficial approval of previously-made staff decisions and actions.

What is the nature and extent of this authority which school boards have delegated, either expressly or by implication, to their superintendents? Does it vary from school to school, and if so can the difference be discerned?

Does the superintendent's authority vary with the amount of time he has been employed in the district? Does his authority vary according to the size of the school district?

Finally, is there a relationship between the amount of authority delegated to the superintendent and that important outcome of his professional efforts -- the quality of the school which he superintends?

There are, of course, many factors which influence local school district quality, and which assist or hamper the superintendent in performing his duties. Among these may be listed the financial ability of the community to support its schools, the social and economic level of the community, community harmony, personalities and viewpoints of school board members, staff agreement on goals, size of school, degree of quality in neighboring school districts, and many others.

Despite the numerous influences on the quality of a school district, however, it is possible that the efforts of the superintendent do have some effect on quality; and that the degree of authority which the board has given him might

influence his ability to operate effectively.

If we assume there are differences from district to district in the superintendent's authority, and that these differences are observable or identifiable; and if we assume that there are differences in school district quality, also observable; then we are in a position to ask the question: Is there a relationship between the amount of authority delegated to the superintendent and the quality of the school?

The question might be posed in another manner: What is the most desirable amount of authority for a superintendent to have in order for him to exert optimum influence on school quality?

The above questions suggest a tentative theory of school administration which would state that in terms of the most successful operation of a given school district (i.e., in terms of school quality) there is a certain degree of authority delegated to the superintendent which is desirable.

Postulates to the theory might be:

1. The superintendent's authority increases with his tenure.
2. The superintendent's authority varies with the size of the school district.

Models to accompany the theory might be illustrated as follows: Figure 1, a line segment, represents strong school board control on the left, moderating toward strong

superintendent authority on the right. If it were possible to determine, by research, that schools operate more effectively at a certain point or in a certain sector on this continuum, then superintendents' job descriptions and school boards' policies could be deliberately drawn to achieve this desirable balance of authority.

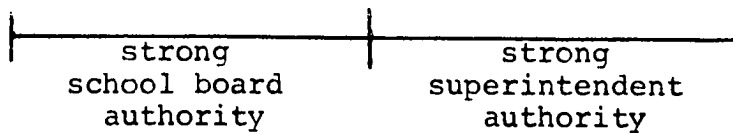


Figure 1. Linear representation of superintendent's authority

Figure 2 represents a theoretic cyclical progression of the superintendent's delegated authority, and is merely the line segment in Figure 1 closed to form a circle. If it can be demonstrated that the superintendent's authority increases with his tenure, then Figure 2 indicates this cyclical movement in a clockwise direction.

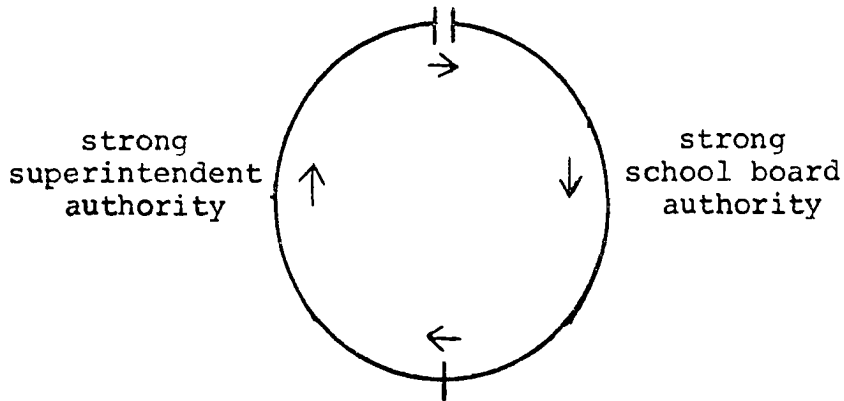


Figure 2. Cyclical representation of theoretical progression of superintendent's authority

At some point in the progression the amount of authority delegated to the superintendent becomes constant, consciously or unconsciously regulated by the school laws, the board's wishes, the superintendent's prudence, the trials and errors of daily school operation, and perhaps other factors.

If the superintendent's authority continues to grow beyond some point which is prudent, we have a situation illustrated in Figure 2 at the top of the circle, wherein the school board, stung by public accusations of "rubber stamp board" and "dictator superintendent", either replaces the superintendent or takes steps to curb markedly the authority delegated to him.

The Problem

Research problems posed by this theory are formidable. There were no instruments specifically designed to measure the degree of authority delegated to the superintendent, so it would be necessary to develop one. Moreover, the actual degree or amount of superintendent's authority manifests itself in day-to-day actions, and might in reality be markedly different from what written policy, job descriptions, the school board members, or the superintendent himself say it is.

Another problem is that there have not been developed universally acceptable evaluative criteria for good schools. Authorities differ, and their ventures into the jungle of school quality evaluation have been timid, tentative, inconclusive, and infrequent.

It would be presumptuous in this study to undertake the testing and proving of the theory of school administration posed above. Therefore, the effort was merely to explore the desirability of further consideration of the theory. A preliminary study and comparison of some of the facets of the theory in Iowa school settings were made, with an attempt to determine from this observation whether the theory merits further study.

The problem of this study was then to determine, by appropriate statistical methods, whether superintendents

having relatively high amounts of authority delegated to them by their boards tend to be associated with schools manifesting to a higher degree certain criteria associated with good schools.

At the same time the data collected made it possible also tentatively to examine two other closely associated areas: the relationships between superintendents' authority and superintendents' tenure, and between superintendents' delegated authority and size of school.

Briefly stated, the problems were:

1. In terms of successful school operation, as manifested by certain criteria commonly associated with good schools, is it desirable for the superintendent to have relatively high or low authority?
2. Does the superintendent's authority increase with tenure?
3. Does the superintendent's authority vary according to size of school district?

Objectives of the Study

The objectives of this study were:

1. To develop and administer a questionnaire which will indicate relative differences in the authority delegated to local school superintendents by local school boards.
2. To identify from the literature certain generally

- accepted criteria associated with good schools.
3. To determine, from data available from the Iowa Department of Public Instruction and other sources, the degree to which the schools in the study manifest these criteria.
 4. To test, by appropriate statistical process, hypotheses to indicate the following:
 - a. Whether, in terms of operating a good school district, it might be desirable for the superintendent to have more, or to have less, authority delegated to him.
 - b. Whether tenure, or length of term of service, is a determining factor in the amount of delegated authority given to local school superintendents.
 - c. Whether size of school district is a determining factor in the amount of delegated authority given to local school superintendents.
 5. Finally, to determine from the above whether the theory of school administration which relates superintendent's authority to effectiveness, as indicated by school quality, merits further investigation.

Hypotheses to be Tested

Stated in null form, the hypotheses to be tested were:

1. There is no significant difference in the quality of the schools, as determined by observing criteria

commonly associated with good schools, when categorized on the basis of relatively high or low degrees of authority delegated to the superintendent.

2. There is no significant difference in the amounts of authority delegated to superintendents when they are classified according to the amounts of time they have served in their school districts.
3. There is no significant difference in the amounts of authority delegated to the superintendents among school districts of different sizes.

Basic Assumptions

The basic assumptions for this study may be stated as follows:

1. That the board members selected as questionnaire respondents have served for a sufficient period of time to allow them to be familiar with the processes for dealing with problems and operation of their schools.
2. That there are criteria, commonly accepted by most authorities, associated with good or desirable schools.
3. That superintendents do, in fact, act as agents to make decisions and take contractual actions which by law are the sole province of the board.
4. That the amount of authority delegated by local

school boards to local superintendents does vary from school district to school district.

5. That it will be possible to identify, by questionnaire to board members, some degree of variation in the amount of authority delegated to superintendents.

Definition of Terms

For the purposes of this study, the following definitions of terms were made:

1. School, or school district: An Iowa local public school district as recognized by the Iowa Department of Public Instruction, typically offering a K-12 educational program, and having its own board of directors.
2. School board: the board of directors elected in the manner prescribed by law, in a local school district.
3. Superintendent: the chief administrative officer employed by the board of directors of a local school district. For the purposes of this study no distinction was made between the superintendent and other professional staff members; the assumption being that the superintendent as chief administrative person commonly delegates certain of his duties to other members of the staff.
4. Superintendent's authority: the policy-making or decision-making power delegated, either expressly or

by implication, to the local school superintendent by the local school board.

5. School quality: the manifestation, to a relatively high degree, of certain criteria generally associated by authorities in the field, with good schools.
6. Tenure: the length of time the superintendent has held his position as superintendent in the present local school district.
7. School size: the September, 1967, enrollment of the local school district.

Sources of Data

Data for this study were obtained from the Iowa Association of School Boards, the Iowa Department of Public Instruction, and from local school superintendents and local school board members.

From the Iowa Association of School Boards were obtained names, addresses, and lengths of term of office of local school board members, from which data was formed a mailing list of questionnaire respondents.

From the Iowa Department of Public Instruction were obtained a list of school districts and their enrollments, names and lengths of term of office of local school superintendents, and data for comparison with the commonly accepted criteria for good schools as used in this study.

From the local school superintendents and board members

were obtained, by questionnaire, the data indicating the superintendent's delegated authority.

Delimitations of the Study

The study was limited to local school districts in Iowa.

To test the first hypothesis, which compares superintendent authority and effectiveness, two further limitations were made:

1. The observation was limited to school districts with enrollments between 1,300 and 4,000 students. It seemed reasonable to assume that these schools, being for Iowa moderately large and uniform in size, would afford a satisfactorily homogenous group for comparison. The lower limit of 1,300 was selected because the schools of Iowa commonly have 13 grades, K-12, and a school with an enrollment of 1,300 would have an average of 100 students per grade. The higher limit of 4,000 was selected because of the definite demarcation in size at that point, the next larger school having an enrollment of 5,066, or 1,234 more students. Also the 20 largest schools -- those with enrollments of over 5,000 -- are for Iowa "big city" schools, and might have differences in organizational structure and operating method from the smaller schools.
2. The observation was limited to schools whose

superintendent had been in office three or more years, on the assumption that the influence of a new superintendent on the character and operation of a school is not immediately manifested.

To test the second hypothesis, which compares superintendent tenure and authority, school districts in which the incumbent superintendent had served three or more years were compared with districts in which the incumbent superintendent had served less than three years.

To test the third hypothesis, which compares school size with superintendent's authority, the very large schools with enrollments over 5,000 were compared with the small schools with enrollments of less than 1,300.

For the testing of all three hypotheses a stratified random sampling of schools, described in detail in Chapter III, was used.

CHAPTER II. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

The literature indicated that there was considerable concern about the evolving roles of school boards and superintendents, that much attention had been given to school board-superintendent relationships, and that the laws did not reflect these changing roles and relationships.

For the purposes of this study the following general areas of literature were reviewed:

1. History of school boards and superintendents.
2. Legal status of the superintendent.
3. Roles of boards and superintendents.
4. Evaluation of superintendents.
5. Criteria associated with good schools.

It was not considered essential, for the purposes of this study, to be concerned with such items as traits of board members, studies of organizational framework, democracy in school staff operation, or the techniques of administration.

History

The school board was described as "one of the most typical of all American institutions, and also perhaps one of the most ubiquitous" by Frederick E. Bolton et al. (7, p. 95).

Daniel E. Griffiths (22) pointed out that for the first two hundred years in American education there were no school

superintendents. All details of policy-making, administration, and financial management were the responsibility of the school board, or of committees composed of school board members.

According to Thomas M. Gilland (21) the first boards of education were as large as several hundred members, with many standing committees responsible for duties within the school system. Bolton et al. (7) reported that the first city superintendency was established in Buffalo in 1837. By 1870 there were only 29 city superintendents, while 226 cities each had a population of 8,000 or more. In 1870 there were city superintendents in only 13 of the 37 states. In Baltimore, in 1849, a school board member became school treasurer, and in 1866 the title of this position was changed from treasurer to superintendent (22).

Observing the establishment of the position of superintendent in the mid-nineteenth century, Griffiths et al. (23) gave two reasons why the board sought professional help: (1) School board members were too busy with their own affairs to devote the time necessary to see to all the details of school management, and (2) schools were becoming too complicated to be served adequately by part-time lay committees.

Gilland recounted that in about 1900 a reorganization began which reduced the size of school boards to seven, nine, or eleven members, which resulted in fewer standing committees. This, in turn, made it necessary to assign more

responsibilities to the superintendent of schools with the board assuming a legislative position and the superintendent becoming the executive officer. The reduction in size of school boards marked the beginning of real development in the office of superintendent of schools.

The history of the school superintendency in the United States was described by Griffiths (22) as being divided into three stages:

1. From the beginning of the position in the mid-nineteenth century until 1910 the superintendent was regarded as instruction-oriented. He has been described as a philosopher-superintendent and was frequently called "professor". He was expected to be highly educated in the subject matter being taught in his school, and was regarded as the authority in educational matters regarding the school.
2. From approximately 1910 until approximately 1945 marked the era of the businessman-oriented superintendent. This was the age of the efficiency expert, the stop-watch and clip-board, and of time-motion studies. The superintendent was expected to be first of all a capable businessman. Schools were "big business" and should be administered with business-like efficiency. Illustration of this concept was the Gary, Indiana, "platoon system"

developed by Superintendent William Wirt in 1907, in which students were formed into platoons and moved through a daily schedule designed to make maximum use of all teaching stations within the school building.

3. From approximately 1945 until the present time has seen the development of the professional administrator. In Griffiths' words (22, p. 41):

. . . the third period has been a move away from the businessman-superintendent although it has not brought about a return to the philosopher-superintendent of the nineteenth century.

The establishment of organizations for the study of school administration, the education and training of superintendents specifically for school administration, and the research-oriented approach to school administration have been typical of the third stage of development. The Kellogg Foundation efforts in the 1930's, the formation of the American Association of School Administrators at about the same time, the formation in 1947 of the National Conference of the Professors of Educational Administration, and the Committee for the Advancement of School Administration in 1955 are typical of the attention given to the role of the superintendent as a professional person.

In summary, Griffiths (22, p. 1) said:

. . . From an inauspicious beginning the position has grown to one of considerable responsibility and authority, though there still is doubt as to

the actual power held by school superintendents.

Legal Status

The powers of the state superintendent of schools, as described in the Iowa Code (1, p. 74) were as follows:

1. Exercise general supervision over the state system of public education, including public elementary and secondary schools, the junior colleges, and shall have educational supervision over the elementary and secondary schools under the control of the state board of education, and nonpublic schools to the extent that it is necessary to ascertain compliance with the provisions of the Iowa school laws.
2. Advise and counsel with the state board on all matters pertaining to education, recommend to the state board such matters as in his judgment are necessary to be acted upon, and when approved, to execute or provide for the execution of the same when so directed by the state board.
3. Recommend to the state board for adoption such policies pertaining to the state system of public education as he may consider necessary for its more efficient operation.
4. Carry out all orders of the state board not inconsistent with state law.
5. Organize, staff, and administer the state department so as to render the greatest service to public education in the state.

The Code then delineated more specifically the powers and duties of the state superintendent of schools to include the following (1):

1. Attend all state board of education meetings.
2. Keep the minutes of state board meetings.
3. Keep the seal of office.

4. Act as executive officer for the board in all vocational education.
5. Recommend and appoint educational committees.
6. Apportion state moneys to school districts.
7. Provide educational supervision of schools.
8. Recommend ways and means of cooperating with the federal government.
9. Recommend ways and means of cooperating with other agencies.
10. Advise and counsel, and adjust and settle controversies arising out of school law.
11. Prepare forms and procedures for local districts.
12. Inspect and supervise schools, and make recommendations for their improvement.
13. Preserve all documents and correspondence.
14. Keep a record of business transacted by him.
15. Promote an interest in education in the state.
16. Classify schools, formulate courses of study, and promote their use.
17. Report biennial school census to the comptroller.
18. Report biennially to the governor on the condition of the schools.
19. Formulate rules and regulations for the in-service training of teachers for the improvement of education.
20. Conduct a public relations program to promote

education among the people of the state.

21. Print the school laws each four years.
22. Print the changes in school law each year.
23. Submit to the general assembly the legislative recommendations of the state board of education.

The Iowa Code (1, pp. 73-74) enumerated the general powers and duties of the state board of education as follows:

1. Determine and adopt such policies as are authorized by law and are necessary for the more efficient operation of any phase of public education.
2. Adopt necessary rules and regulations for the proper enforcement and execution of the provisions of the school laws.
3. Adopt and prescribe any minimum standards for carrying out the provisions of the school laws.
4. Perform such duties prescribed by law as it may find necessary.

Continuing, specific powers and duties of the state board were listed by the Iowa Code (1) as follows:

1. Employ adequate clerical help.
2. Direct the distribution of all state and federal moneys for the local schools.
3. Adopt and transmit to the comptroller proposed budgets for all state educational functions and services.
4. Advise and counsel on school laws, and review as an appeal board decisions of the state superintendent.
5. Authorize and prescribe standard forms to be used

in the public schools of the state.

6. Approve plans for cooperating with the federal government.
7. Approve plans for cooperating with other governmental agencies.
8. Adopt a long-range program for the state system of public education based on appropriate research by the state superintendent.
9. Be a continuing research commission on public school matters, and make appropriate recommendations to the state legislature.
10. Be the state board for vocational education.
11. Be the board for certification of all education personnel.
12. Prescribe minimum standards, rules, and regulations for carrying out the school laws of Iowa.

On the county level the general powers and duties of the county board of education were described by the Iowa Code (1, pp. 92-93) as follows:

The county board shall exercise such powers as are specifically assigned to it by law. In general their powers and duties shall relate to matters affecting the county school system as a whole rather than specific details relating to individual schools or districts. It shall be the duty of the county board after considering the recommendations of the county superintendent to exercise the following general powers:

1. The county board shall determine and adopt such policies as are deemed necessary by it for the efficient operation and general

improvement of the county school system.

2. The county board shall adopt such rules and regulations as in its opinion will contribute to the more orderly and efficient operation of the county school system.
3. The county board shall adopt such minimum standards as are considered desirable by it for improving the county school system.
4. The county board shall have the power to perform those duties and exercise those responsibilities which are assigned to it by law and which are not in conflict with the powers and duties assigned to the local board by law, in order to improve the county school system and carry out the objectives and purposes of the school laws of Iowa.

The Code (1) further detailed the specific duties of county boards of education:

1. Appoint county superintendent of schools, and other personnel for that office.
2. Select a county attendance officer, as recommended by the county superintendent.
3. Approve the curriculum as recommended by the county superintendent.
4. Adopt textbooks and other instructional aids as recommended by the county superintendent.
5. Purchase and provide general supplies as needed.
6. Adopt rules and regulations for maintenance of county school libraries.
7. Enforce all laws, rules, and regulations for the transportation of students.
8. Act with the county superintendent as an appeal

board for all the schools in the county.

9. Cooperate with federal, state, county and municipal agencies in all matters relating to the improvement of education.
10. Propose its own budget.
11. Audit and pay all bills, and pay employees.
12. Promote reorganization of school districts.
13. Make an annual financial report.
14. In certain instances, provide for schooling in the county detention home.

At the local school district level the following powers of electors were described by the Iowa Code (1):

1. Direct a change of textbooks regularly adopted.
2. Direct the disposition of school property.
3. Determine upon additional branches that shall be taught.
4. Instruct the board on the use of school buildings for public meetings.
5. Direct the transfer of surplus moneys from the schoolhouse fund to the general fund.
6. Authorize the board to obtain and pay for roads for proper access to schoolhouses.
7. Vote, for a period of years, a 2 1/2 mill schoolhouse tax.
8. Authorize the district to establish and operate a junior college.

9. Authorize a change from five to seven directors.
10. Authorize the boundaries for director districts.
11. Approve a proposed general fund levy in excess of statutory limitations.

A perusal of the Code of Iowa (1) revealed that local school boards had the power to establish budgets and levy taxes, conduct school elections, establish and operate vocational schools, approve transfer of territory, sell land to the government, establish attendance centers and provide school buildings, appoint a secretary, appoint directors to fill board vacancies, suspend or expel students, hire and fire teachers and other personnel, hire a superintendent and prescribe his powers and duties, take a biennial school census, prescribe the curriculum, establish and operate special education programs, establish and operate school lunch programs, transport students to and from school, regulate societies and fraternities, establish and operate adult and evening schools, establish and operate public recreation programs and playgrounds, select and purchase textbooks, and condemn land under the power of eminent domain.

The Code made provision for the superintendent only as follows (1, p. 115):

The board of directors of any community or independent school district or school township where there is a township high school shall have power to employ a superintendent of schools for one year. After serving at least seven months, he may be employed for a term of not to exceed three years. He shall be the executive officer of the board and have such powers and

duties as may be prescribed by rules adopted by the board or by law. . .

Nowhere in the Code of Iowa was there to be found an enumeration of any powers or duties of the superintendent except that, under the child labor law, he should issue work permits to children and should, along with mayors and police officers, town and city marshals, sheriffs and their deputies, and school truant officers, cooperate in the enforcement of the child labor laws and furnish the labor commission with information coming to his knowledge of violations of the child labor laws.

In 1957 Glenn C. Parker (30) who studied the legal status of the district superintendent of schools in twelve states, attempted to answer the question, "Is the superintendent an officer or an employee?" He found that the courts have ruled both ways, but that courts in general have applied the following criteria to the question:

1. Official designation: Is the position designated by law as an office:
2. Compensation: Is the salary fixed by law?
3. Mode of selection: Is he selected by election or appointment, or by contract?
4. Permanence of duties.
5. Are creation and designation of powers and duties by law?
6. Are oath and/or bond required?

7. What are the importance, dignity, and independence of the position?

In five states, of which Iowa is one, Parker reported little or no tendency to specify the superintendent as an official. In two states there was some tendency to regard the superintendent as an official, and in five states there was a definite tendency. He concluded (30):

. . . The direction the superintendency will take in the future will depend upon the actions of the legislatures. Modern legislatures apparently intend that the board of education should bear legal responsibility for the schools, while leaving the administration of them to the professional administrator. . . The present legal status of the superintendent of schools is obscure. . . each state should study this problem in the light of its own needs and should seek to specify clearly the legal position of the superintendent of schools.

After analyzing the working relationships of superintendents and boards, Archie R. Dykes (16, p. 70) was even more critical:

School superintendents with no schools, school boards with no superintendents, school superintendents with no authority, and school boards that cannot appoint their executive officers -- such situations are not unknown in the United States. Such is the confusion surrounding the legal status of the local school superintendency. Despite more than a century of development, legal provisions for the office of school superintendent still leave much to be desired. . . . The statutory recognition afforded the superintendent leads to but one conclusion. His legal status is nebulous at best.

Gilland (21, p. 1) studied annual reports and minute books in 30 cities, analyzed 200 volumes of early periodicals and yearbooks, and concluded:

The nature of the authority conferred by legislatures on city boards of education through general law and special grants is generally known to the student of administration. The nature of the powers conferred by local boards of education on their superintendents and the origin and development of the duties performed by the superintendent are less definitely known.

He believed that this lack of definition existed because the office of the superintendent was developed in response to state and local conditions, with little guidance from any established agency. Practices were tried and passed on and later established, but no reliable account as to the development of the school board-superintendent relation or the powers and duties of the superintendent as an executive officer of the board had ever been printed.

There was a need, Dykes (16) indicated, for legal codes giving general provisions for separation of function indicating the role of the superintendent as an executive officer, and a brief description of the title. The advisability for the superintendent to be recognized as a part of the school system was illustrated by the fact that in some states the superintendents had been denied teacher benefits, such as tenure and retirement pension, on the assumption that he was not a teacher. Courts in other states saw him as a teacher. Some courts viewed the superintendent as a public officer, while others recognized him as an employee of the local school board.

Roles of Boards and Superintendents

The literature on the roles of boards and superintendents tended to be prescriptive rather than descriptive. Despite widespread recognition of the changing roles of superintendent and board, the authorities with few exceptions clung tenaciously to the venerable concept of the board as the policy-making body and the superintendent as executive officer. This concept was clearly evident in the following 1963 position statement of the American Association of School Administrators (4, p. 4):

Public education is the responsibility of the state. . . . A large measure of the responsibility for the public schools is vested in local school districts. . . . The board is charged with responsibility to interpret the educational needs and desires of the people and to translate them into policies and programs. . . . The superintendent of schools is employed by the board of education as its executive agent. He is the professional adviser of the board, the chief administrator of the schools, the leader of the staff, and the focal point of responsibility within the district.

It will readily be seen that the above statement in this decade differed little from the role of school boards as described by Counts thirty-seven years earlier in 1926 (13, p. 1):

The fundamental character of public education in the United States is in the last analysis determined by the board that controls the school. To be sure, back of the board stands the state, but to the board the state has delegated the practical control of public education. . . . The qualitative advance of public education must depend as much on the decisions of the board of education as on the development of the science and philosophy of education.

In 1935 Gilland (21) studied the power and authority of the first school superintendents. Out of 26 cities studied, 11 indicated the superintendent should be directed by and under the authority of the board of education, 5 designated him as the executive officer, and 3 listed him as the secretary of the board. Of the 401 specific responsibilities detailed in the study, 51.6 percent were found to be in the instruction and pupil personnel areas, and 48.4 percent were related to the administration of the school system. As an executive officer, the early superintendent's duties were to:

1. Write periodic reports, and possibly an annual report.
2. Attend meetings. Some boards stated: "Only when requested".
3. Enforce the rules and regulations of the board of education.
4. Suggest means of school improvement.
5. Assist standing committees when asked.
6. Make quarterly reports of financial conditions.
7. Assist in hiring teachers.
8. Assist in teacher education.
9. Assume other duties related to the school plant.

Writing in 1938, Chester I. Barnard (5, pp. 215-217) discussed the specialized function of an executive in an organization. There is a need, said Barnard, for coordination of efforts toward an organized system of communication.

The system implies that there are intercepting points, or centers, for information to flow, and that these centers can be operated only by persons who are called executives.

In Barnard's words:

Executive work is not that of the organization, but the specialized work of maintaining the organization in operation.

He compared the executive's functions to the human nervous system, wherein the brain, as the "executive organ" maintains the bodily system by directing the actions. . .

. . . which are necessary more effectively to adjust to the environment, but it can hardly be said to manage the body, a large part of whose functions are independent of it and upon which it in turn depends.

In defining the role of the superintendent it has been popular to categorize the duties, functions, or responsibilities, and to resort to educational generalities. The position of superintendent was divided into four categories of responsibility by Griffiths (22): (1) improving educational opportunity, (2) providing and maintaining funds and facilities, (3) securing and developing personnel, and (4) maintaining effective relationships with the community.

Campbell (11) listed three major functions of the superintendent:

1. He serves as a partner to the board of education in the formation of policy, and interprets this policy to the staff, the community, and also to the board of education. The author also pointed out that

nearly all policy decisions will be influenced by the information marshaled by the superintendent and by his value choices.

2. Within reasonable bounds and budget limitations he determines the organization of staff, and is responsible for development of staff so as to get the job done and for maintenance of staff morale.
3. He secures and allocates funds to operate the school. The money must be bargained for at the local, state, and national levels of government. Entering into this function inevitably places the superintendent in a political role. After getting the money, it must be allocated to promote the greatest educational benefit for the pupils.

In discussing the roles of the superintendent and board, Dykes (16, pp. 104-105) cited first two major aspects that need to be part of the plan to organize for public education: (1) establishment of the lay board, representing the people, to establish clear-cut theory of board responsibilities and functions, and (2) need for a technically trained officer, the superintendent.

The three functions of this officer, according to Dykes, were:

. . . to provide, through his abilities and those of his staff, the technical competence and know-how necessary to assist the board in policy functions, to implement the policies and directives of the board, and generally to operate the school.

Bowman (8), in his studies of the roles of board and superintendent, classified the superintendent's role into three categories which he called "modes of interaction":

1. Determining -- superintendent undertakes to solve a problem without board of education consultation.
2. Informing -- superintendent brings problems to the board, offers pertinent data, but is uncommitted to a course of action regarding the situation.
3. Advising -- superintendent gives his opinion to the board in respect to resolving a problem situation.

The role of modern administration in a society that is democratically oriented, as analyzed by Hugh M. Shafer in Frey and Getschman (20), was a dual function in that the superintendent participated in the formulation of major goals, purposes, and policies, although these were ultimately decided by the board; and that he then executed these policies.

However, Dykes (16, p. 67) observed that:

Long lists of duties of superintendents have been compiled. All these have value, but in the final analysis, the superintendent's job is what he and his school board perceive it to be.

There was not, however, complete agreement as to the importance of the superintendent's role. Earl H. Hanson, in "Does Education Need the Superintendent?" (26, p. 282),

discussed a trend toward wiping out the superintendency:

School teachers have become impatient of some superintendents, those pettifogging, pussyfooting, pusillanimous stuffed shirts who sit like the wizard of oz on the superintendent's throne.

According to Hanson, the teachers have nearly decided to remove all superintendents, even the good ones, so that they can deal directly with the school boards. The teachers feel that they are more than staff members. They are the public and the board should listen directly to them as they do the rest of the public.

Hanson concluded, however, in a further discussion that "Education Does Need the Superintendent" (27), and cited the possible consequences when there was a weak superintendent:

1. Boards must take over time-consuming administrative duties. Usually they are not professionally equipped nor do they have time to do so.
2. Standing committees are usually appointed to perform administrative functions.
3. Face-to-face negotiations drain the energy of board members.
4. There is a tendency toward "busybodies" on the board, often from the ranks of professional teachers, who tend to make trouble.
5. Finally: "If the board of education becomes dominated by opinionated members of the teaching profession, the public as a whole has lost its control

over the schools."

For the superintendent to win approval, and for successful and harmonious school operation, the authorities generally emphasized the necessity for a clear-cut definition and understanding of the roles of both board and superintendent.

Daniel E. Griffiths et al. (23), in discussing the necessity and use of job descriptions for superintendents, were of the opinion that the descriptions should be written before the superintendent is hired, and advocated allowing each prospective superintendent to write his own. Thus, the authors claimed, the board would be able to hire a superintendent who sees the situation and can fill the requirements of the job description. After hiring, modifications could be made to use all the talents of the incumbent to the best possible means.

Vernon O. Sletten (32) pointed to the division of functions to be performed by superintendents and board members which must be worked out before successful relationships can be made, and went on to say that successful relations between the school board and the superintendent depend upon mutual understanding in respect to duties and responsibilities.

The boundaries of his role should be recognized by the superintendent, according to Arnold L. Bradley (9, p. 27). The superintendent and school board must recognize and accept the framework of the existing organization, and that the

organization is concerned with not only local and regional needs but also national interest and aspirations. He summarized:

If an administrator recognizes the carefully drawn lines of regulations, as they pertain to his organization, he will realistically determine his own sphere of decision-making and that of education in general.

Although Griffiths et al. (23) still held to the concept that the board should establish and the superintendent administer policy as the most desirable division of roles, they recognized that the concept over-simplified what actually existed in practice. In the final analysis, they said that the successful superintendent is one who develops a strong working relationship with his board. The relationship should be based more upon teamwork than on strict demarcation of duties. They concluded that, while the superintendent is the executive officer, he also contributes greatly to policy making.

Bowman (8) conducted a study concerning the superintendent role perceptions of 109 superintendents and 386 board members from Illinois, and 32 professors of educational administration from major universities in the United States. He found that there was substantial agreement between incumbent board members and their superintendents as to the superintendent's role being advisory and informational. The professors of educational administration, however, showed significantly more preference for the superintendent to function in a determining role. He concluded that:

. . . while superintendents may place more emphasis on remaining in position by performing as board members expect, professors may place more emphasis on performing the job by providing professional leadership. . . . The collective opinion of any set of school board members regarding appropriate behavior for their superintendent does constitute the practical definition.

The professors, said Bowman, would tend to have a more idealistic view of the superintendent's performance than would board members or even superintendents themselves.

In his study of Montana school board members and superintendents in 1968, Sletten (32) examined their attitudes toward certain policy issues as follows:

1. Assignment and transfer of personnel.
2. School board committee practices.
3. Board membership.
4. Employment of personnel.
5. Budget practices.
6. Formation of regulations and rules.
7. Superintendent's function in advising the board.
8. Degree of emphasis on certain functions of the school.
9. Superintendent's relationship on policy matters with independent board members.
10. Recommendations to the community.
11. Attendance of the public at board meetings.
12. Use of advisory councils.
13. Superintendent's role in the community.

14. Staff presentations to the board.
15. Division of board time on educational business matters.
16. Continued employment of the superintendent.
17. Administrator support for staff.
18. Tenure of teachers.
19. Salary schedules.
20. Re-employment practices.
21. Communication to staff on administration problems.

Sletten found apparent conflicts, and little evidence that ideal understandings of policy matters exist. Superintendents without degrees in education or degrees in other fields tended to be in greater agreement with board member opinion patterns than superintendents with graduate degrees in education. Apparently as the superintendent became more aware of what his role should be, as defined by his professional group, the gulf between policy-makers and administrators widened. Superintendents with one to four years of experience contrasted sharply with superintendents with ten years or more. The longer the tenure the closer the superintendents' opinions on policy-making tended to correspond to the board members' opinions.

Policy-making roles, in Sletten's opinion, must be clearly defined. He suggested examination of the legal responsibility of boards, and of administrators' responsibilities, and recommended an in-service program in school

board membership and training programs for school administrators in which they are brought face-to-face with actual situations.

As to policy and what is included in it, Dykes (16, p. 11) observed:

A renowned jurist is reported to have said: 'The law is what I say it is.' So it is with a school board. Policy matters, for practical purposes, are what the board says they are.

It is essential, according to Bolton et al. (7, pp. 108-110) that the school head must command the respect of the board members, who are not directly associated with school matters. This can be done only "when the superintendent is thoroughly informed regarding his task, and has the necessary tact and diplomacy to guide and direct without giving offense or appearing to usurp the legal powers of the board itself." He thought it essential that the superintendent become the leader of the board in regard to school policies, and that in order to establish this leadership it was up to the superintendent to create an awareness among board members as to his concern for the schools and his actions regarding the entire system.

In discussing the political involvement of superintendents, John C. Walden (33, p. 214) observed that by the very nature of the superintendent's role as the chief school officer he was deeply involved in policy-making and must play the political game. In Walden's words:

The superintendent's role is better defined as a political role with educational underpinning.

In tracing the evolving roles of boards of education and superintendents, Dykes (16) said that early school committees were concerned with the actual school administration. Today's administrative matters have been turned over to professional staffs due to the growth and expansion of the public school system and the realization by board members that only trained personnel can successfully administer the system.

New boards are more concerned with such policy-making activities as establishing goals and objectives and determining how they can be achieved.

Dykes (16, pp. 17-31) commented on the necessity for the board to give responsibility to the superintendent as follows:

No school or school system is better than its personnel. The success with which the board discharges its personnel responsibilities influences greatly the quality of the educational program. A school system cannot provide adequate educational opportunities for children and young people without a well-trained, competent professional staff supported by capable people rendering necessary . . . services. . . . It is the board's responsibility to make sure the schools are properly administered, not to administer them. The continued growth and progress of public education depend upon how well the local school board discharges those responsibilities which belong to it and to what extent it permits the superintendent and the professional staff to perform their appropriate functions free of interference.

The board's duty, in Dykes' opinion, is to determine what it wants for its educational system, and then permit qualified people to carry it out.

Citing the need for board and superintendent to work

together, Dykes contended that even if a school had financial support, competent staff, modern school buildings, and other factors basic to a good program, these might be nullified if there were superintendent-board difficulties. In the majority of instances, however, where school districts were failing in their educational responsibilities there were no open differences, but merely inadequate attention paid to the problem of how they might best work together.

The matter, Dykes says, is far too important to be left to chance. He suggests six ways for better board-superintendent relationships:

1. Greater utilization of professional competence.
2. School board identification of its proper role.
3. Greater autonomy for the school superintendent.
4. Improved administrative leadership.
5. More democracy in decision-making.
6. Elimination of provincialism and traditionalism.

The vitality of local control is essential, and it is threatened if the above challenges are not satisfactorily met.

Griffiths et al., in discussing guidelines for organizing and staffing schools (23, pp. 71-72), pointed to the need for staff decision-making in successful school operation:

The role of the administrative staff in administration is to create an organization within which the decision-making process can operate effectively. The organization should permit decisions to be made as close to the source of effective action as possible.

Campbell (11, pp. 249-254), in contrasting the traditional view of the roles of board and superintendent with present day reality, was of the opinion that the board is expected to reflect the school's purpose in its policy decisions and the superintendent is expected to implement such policies. In gross terms he found some validity to this concept, but that. . .

. . . in the real world the superintendent and board are more nearly partners in both the establishment and implementation of policy. Most boards seek advice from their superintendents on policy questions.

John S. Benben (6) studied 21 comprehensive city surveys from 1920 to 1950 to contrast the recommendations at intervals of 10 years, and thus to determine the emerging roles of boards and superintendents, and found the concept that the board of education has to devote itself to every detail of administration was changing, and that the emphasis was being placed on the responsibility for the whole district and its larger problems. He pointed to the urgent need for clarification of the administrative structure, and the demarcation of the boards' and superintendents' responsibility.

He found that the concept of the superintendency and its role in the administration of the school was likewise changing, and that more and more duties and responsibilities had been transferred to the superintendency from the board of education. Because of the overlapping of board and

superintendent responsibilities the position of the superintendent remained somewhat indistinct, but Benben was convinced from his investigation that the role was not one of chief executive only, but that it was strengthened considerably by changing concepts over the period studied.

There was a tendency to give the superintendent greater responsibility in wider areas. Instead of being in charge of mere details he was becoming increasingly an official who directed and coordinated the broad aspects of personnel, finance, school plant, curriculum, and public relations. Benben thought these changing concepts gave the superintendent greater stature and placed him in a position of leadership to bring about a better attainment of the educational goals in American society.

He concluded that as yet, however, the role of the superintendent in the "perplexing state of educational affairs" in the late 1960's was vague and unclear. The inconsistency was that as a leader the superintendent should be able to take the necessary actions to cope with the problems growing out of demands for improved education conditions, but that he could not if his actions were blocked by the school board.

Impatience with school boards is historic, and has been sharply expressed.

Donald G. Nugent in Frey and Getschman (20, p. 138), in attempting to answer his own question, "Are local control and

lay boards obsolete?" quoted Mark Twain as follows:

In the first place God made idiots. That was for practice. Then he made school boards.

Continuing, Nugent quoted an anonymous critic:

The greatest single obstacle to revamping the education in this country lies in the fact that the control and financing of schools is in the hands of thousands of local boards.

William Evan (17, pp. 51-53) in discussing the concept of organizational lag in relation to the slowness of change in the administrative role, defined organizational lag as. . .

. . . a discrepancy in the rate at which new technical and administrative ideas are implemented in an organization.

Evan described two hypotheses of the functioning of the social system within the classes of technical and administrative innovation and related them to organizational lag. Hypothesis I contended that the slower moving classes of innovations tend in time, possibly because of negative feedback results, to retard the faster-moving class of innovations. Hypothesis II claimed that the greater the amount of organizational lag, the lower the rate of organizational growth. He then posed an analogous hypothesis to the effect that innovations in administration tend to lag behind technical innovations.

It is easy to agree with the above, said Evan, because most technical innovations can be seen as profit ones, whereas innovations in administration are less certain and observation of the effect of the change is likely to require much

more time.

Evan did, however, caution against the universal application of the cultural lag hypothesis, for the following reasons:

1. Cultural lag views technology as the sole determination of social change, and tends to overlook the effects of values built into a society which may foster or slow down technological change.
2. The difficulties of measuring non-technological changes in exact terms have made comparison with technical change inconclusive.
3. The concept of cultural lag, because of the difficulty in measuring, is used very loosely. Thus, all conceivable social ills have been attributed to cultural lag.

Arnold L. Bradley (9, p. 28), in discussing the difficulties experienced by superintendents in achieving innovations in school systems, called attention to the many systems with which the superintendent must deal. He quoted LuVern L. Cunningham (14, p. 156), who said that decisions by superintendents must. . .

. . . in reality deal with a multiplicity of partial systems, or subsystems, for value schemes, role expectation patterns, status relationships, and so on. . .

Bradley concluded that:

The very nature of the policy-making groups at the local level, who comprise most of our local boards of education, make innovation or change difficult.

In commenting on the inadequacy of local autonomy, Roald F. Campbell (11, pp. 249-254) suggested that school boards and administrators had considered themselves as operators of local institutions which have considerable independence and autonomy. However, administrators were more and more being required to collaborate with other agencies, and this had placed the administrator in a new role, with the following result:

While this kind of thrust may increase the opportunity of the local school district, it inevitably reduces local autonomy, and local district administrators have to become rather facile to keep up with the parade.

Nugent in Frey and Getschman (20, p. 138) aptly described the process of relinquishing local control by default as follows:

Recent developments -- such as teacher strikes and sanctions, state legislation in regard to course content and graduation requirements, federal legislation to encourage pupil testing programs and improve instruction in specific areas, and foundation-sponsored experiments in educational television, teaching machines, and ungraded schools -- demonstrate the growing importance of influences and controls from other than local sources. These developments also demonstrate that vacuums in local leadership are usually filled from other than local sources.

Archie R. Dykes (16, p. 213) summarized the growing dissatisfaction with local board autonomy:

Today in America, lay boards of education are at a crossroads. There are many who feel they have no place in modern-day education. They point to archaic practices of many boards, their seeming inability to cope with change and the problems which follow, and their tendency to degrade their important functions of goal setting and policy making

into involvement in trivia. Serious controversies and difficulties in many communities between the school boards and the school superintendents and subsequent disruption of the educational program are cited. The contention that local school boards, because of traditionalism and provincialism, prevent the attainment of quality education is increasingly articulated.

Parker (30) suggested that the change of the superintendent's status from employee to state officer might help the situation immensely. Such a change, however, is an extremely slow process, and he observed that at the present time it did not appear that either the legislature or the courts were inclined to interpret the superintendent's legal status as any but that of a school employee.

Benben's (6) opinion was:

The school superintendency has not reached full stature. The development appears to be toward a board-superintendent relationship that takes on more texture but is not, as yet, totally defined. It may be at a turning point, for such terms as 'educational expert', 'coordinating authority', and 'educational statesman' used in the surveys may be the harbingers of a newer status for the superintendent commensurate with the scope and importance of his responsibilities.

Natt B. Burbank (10, p. 8) described the superintendency as "a position that has never had time to congeal." The duties of the profession have grown faster than the required training allowed for. He warned that policies and practices devised on the spur of the moment do not always stand the test of basic soundness.

Other changes that affect the superintendency, in Burbank's view, were:

1. Increased level of educational attainment among

the public, such as more parents with college degrees.

2. Militancy of teachers.
3. The fact that boards of education no longer accept the superintendent as an authority, and that he must support his recommendations with solid justification.

Sletten (32) indicated that there was an administrator's drive to increase his scope of action, and a resistance on the part of board members to the delegation of authority to the administrator. This was not surprising, according to the author, because most board members felt a sincere responsibility for successful day-to-day operation of local school systems. Reasons given for the administrators' drive for more authority were:

1. They are expressing a natural desire any human expresses for power, authority, status, and prestige.
2. Administrators are professionally trained in a manner which contributes to this drive.
3. They seek "colleague approbation", a desire to look good in the eyes of their colleagues.

Seymour Evans (18) listed five logical options for the role of the superintendent:

1. He may be a non-participant or middleman and serve as a communication link between teachers and board.
2. He may negotiate for teachers.

3. He may advise teachers.
4. He may advise the school board.
5. He may negotiate for the board.

The author pointed out that only the first option allows the superintendent to satisfy his traditionally perceived role, but that with this role his effectiveness, power and prestige diminish.

The literature concerning the roles of school boards and superintendents, viewed broadly, would seem to lead to the following conclusions:

1. Legally the superintendent is definitely not a school official. He is an employee of the school board.
2. Traditionally the role of the school board has been regarded as policy-making, and that of the superintendent as carrying out board policy.
3. The traditional concept of board-superintendent roles, while still widely held, is not representative of actual practice. Increasingly superintendents are participating with boards in decision-making and formulation of policy, and are acting in roles of authority independent of school boards.
4. Difficulties occur in school districts where these evolving roles of board and superintendent are not spelled out clearly and understood by all parties.
5. With the intricacies of education today there is

need for a redefinition of the superintendent's role to give him official status and more authority. There is, however, little evidence that state legislatures or boards of education are willing to move in this direction.

Evaluation of Superintendents

If the school superintendent is the administrative head of a school district, it is reasonable to assume that the quality of the schools will reflect his effectiveness. In an editor's preface in Dykes (16, p. vii), Lee O. Garber pointed to this key relationship between superintendents and quality of schools. It is necessary, he said, to study the local unit of school administration when public education is to be improved, because "schools are a reflection of and can be no better than their administration".

In the literature on qualifications and characteristics of superintendents there has been little attempt to evaluate superintendent's effectiveness by the quality of their schools. Writers in the field have preferred to categorize superintendents by their leadership styles or by the ways in which they operate, by board members' or others' opinions of them, or by surveys to determine composite demographic descriptions.

In describing leadership styles, Don E. Hamachek in Frey and Getschman (20) placed leaders into three groups according

to the nature of their leadership power:

1. The charismatic leader -- derives his authority from his personality and ability to inspire and persuade others.
2. The authoritarian leader -- derives his authority through the organizational rules defining his office.
3. The therapeutic leader -- operates through altruistic guidelines and derives his authority through general support of his beneficial aims.

The leader's actions, in Hamachek's view, may be classified according to his orientation toward needs as follows:

1. Follower's personal needs -- the human material and personal needs of the personnel in the organization.
2. Situational needs -- the demands of the organization.
3. "Defining yourself to yourself" -- the individual needs of the leader himself.

Hamachek concluded by quoting Walter Lippman's definition of a good leader in Frey and Getschman (20, p. 270):

What is a good leader? Perhaps Walter Lippman has said it best: "The genius of a good leader is to leave behind him a situation with which common sense, without the grace of genius, can deal successfully."

In discussing the qualifications of superintendents, Earl H. Hanson (26, p. 382) contended that school boards must employ good superintendents and then force everybody to respect them. He described a good superintendent as follows:

1. Is able to orchestrate the forces of community, the faculty, and the board of education so that they work together for the improvement of education.
2. Understands human nature and practices common-sense rules of human behavior.
3. Knows education today and keeps abreast of it as it moves forward so that he can be an active agent in the leadership of local education.
4. Is a reasonably good manager so that there will be a minimum of anarchy and a maximum of teacher energy released to the instruction of children.

Bavelas in Frey and Getschman (20, pp. 255-261) had two categories of leadership:

1. Leadership as a personal quality.
2. Leadership as an organizational function.

In studying the patterns of power and authority in organizations, Bavelas saw a trend which placed less emphasis on decision-making and more on "uncertainty reduction":

More and more, organizations are choosing to depend less on the peculiar abilities of rare individuals and to depend instead on the orderly processes of research and analysis. The occasions and opportunities for personal leadership in the old sense still exist, but they are becoming increasingly rare and circumscribed.

This new emphasis had not eliminated the role of personal leadership, but it had significantly refined it. Under the normal conditions of operation, leadership in the modern organization consisted not so much in the making of decisions personally as it did of maintaining the operational effectiveness of the decision-making systems which comprise the management of the organization. The picture of the leader who

keeps his own counsel and in the nick of time pulls the rabbit out of a hat was out of date.

The popular stereotype now is the thoughtful executive discussing in committee the information supplied by a staff of experts.

Bavelas saw two dangers in this trend. First, the organization could achieve at best only a high level of mediocrity. Second, we may tend to shun the extraordinary.

There have been many studies to determine superintendents' effectiveness by others' opinions of them, particularly by board members' opinions. The two examples which follow are typical.

Harvard University initiated in 1952 a program of school executive studies, one of which was conducted by Neal Gross through the Center of Advanced Study in Behavioral Sciences in Stanford, California. Gross interviewed approximately 50 percent of the school superintendents and board members in Massachusetts in an attempt to answer the question: "How good a job are the superintendents doing?" (24). At the conclusion of his series of two-hour interviews he found that 62 percent of the board members thought their superintendents were doing a good job in financial administration, 59 percent had a favorable view of their superintendents' performance in personnel administration, and 54 percent thought the superintendents were performing well in school plant management. In two other important areas of responsibility the

superintendents did not fare so well. Only 46 percent of the board members thought their superintendents were doing a good job in instructional direction and curriculum planning, and in the vital area of public relations the superintendents received a favorable vote from only 40 percent of the board members.

Andrew W. Halpin (25) described one of the most ambitious attempts to evaluate the superintendent, the Leadership Behavior Description Questionnaire, a product of the Ohio State Leadership Studies which began in 1946. The purpose of the study was to investigate and analyze the behavior of persons in leadership positions in industrial, educational, and governmental organizations. From the investigation came a forty-item questionnaire which defined and identified two major dimensions of leadership behavior.

The first dimension, consideration, was defined as. . .

. . . behavior that reflects friendship, mutual trust, respect and warmth in the relationship between the leader and group members.

The second leadership component, called initiating structure-in-interaction, . . .

. . . refers to the leader's behavior in delineating the relationship between himself and the members of his group, and in endeavoring to establish well-defined patterns of organization, channels of communication, and ways of getting a job done.

L. B. D. Q. blanks and instruction manuals are available for purchase from the Bureau of Business Research, Ohio State University. However, the project may be administered only

by a qualified psychologist, and preferably by one from outside the area; and L. B. D. Q. materials will not be released to an organization until provisions for a psychologist to conduct the study have been satisfactorily met. Again, however, the L. B. D. Q. attempts to evaluate superintendents by others' opinions of them.

Frederick E. Bolton, Thomas R. Cole, and John H. Jessup (7) writing thirty years ago in 1937, described the desirable qualifications of a superintendent as follows: His training should be broad and accurate. He should have a four-year bachelor's degree plus a major in some academic field, plus minors which would acquaint him with the fields of literature, history, and science. He should be well enough versed in these fields to be able to counsel with teachers and pupils.

In addition, the authors continued, the superintendent should have an acquaintance with economics, sociology, and political science as a background for constructive educational leadership. He should possess scholarship and culture to mingle equally with the best educated community members.

The authors advised the superintendent to go on for his master's degree in education, with a minor in psychology, sociology, economics, or political science. This can, they were confident, be achieved through many summer sessions at outstanding learning centers.

In large systems, in the opinion of the authors, the

superintendent should continue his schooling until he receives his doctor's degree. Travel, and especially foreign travel is mentioned also as being very important to broaden the superintendent's outlook on life and education.

In 1933 the yearbook of the Department of Superintendents (2) tabulated the academic achievement of superintendents in a city school system as follows: 4 percent had no degree, 36 percent held a bachelor's degree, 57 percent had master's degrees, and 3 percent had a doctorate. In the larger cities, 10 percent to 13 percent held doctor's degrees. Many states had additional professional requirements. For example, the state of Washington prescribed certain courses to be taken and required a number of successful years of experience at both elementary and secondary levels.

For comparison, the following was a more recent empirical study of the qualifications of superintendents, performed by the Research Division of the National Education Association, in a study which began in 1958 (3). A questionnaire was sent to a sampling of 3,812 superintendents of urban districts with a population of over 2,500; to county school systems having an urban center of over 30,000; and to smaller county districts having over half urban population. Response to the questionnaire was 62.7 percent.

The survey found the median age of superintendents to be 51 years. Although there were some women superintendents, all of those who returned the questionnaire were men.

Seventy-two percent had graduated from high school in communities of under 10,000 population, and only 2 percent came from high schools in communities of over one-half million population.

Ninety percent of the superintendents had taken their first administrative or supervisory position before age 35, with the median age being 28. The age of first employment as superintendent ranged from 20 to over 55 years of age, with the average being 36.

It was found that 44 percent had held only one superintendency, and that 38 percent of the total had held the position for 10 or more years. Nine percent had held 3 or more superintendent's positions within the past 10 years. The "hoppers" -- those who had held 6 or more positions in the last 10 years -- constituted less than 3 percent of the total. The conclusion was that superintendents do not flit from one job to another.

In educational preparation, 98 percent held bachelor's degrees, although only 15 percent held bachelor's degrees in education. Seventeen superintendents reported that they held no degree.

The superintendents' major fields were reported as follows: 18 percent in behavioral science, 17 percent in education, and 15 percent in the physical and biological sciences.

Ninety-six percent of the superintendents held at least one advanced degree, and of these 15 percent held doctor of

philosophy degrees and 6 percent held doctor of education degrees.

A comparison of the 1933 and the 1958 studies indicated a trend toward a greater degree of "professionalization" and more formal training of a specialized nature in the preparation of superintendents.

Criteria Associated with Good Schools

In considering the difficult problem of evaluating quality in schools, Campbell (11) cited a great push toward rationality, and a consideration of input-output factors. More and more money was needed for schools, and legislative bodies and boards of education wanted to know if the greater expenditures would correspondingly increase the quality of teachers and students. Achievement tests, in Campbell's opinion, could not measure the output.

What legislative bodies seemed to be asking for was a formula that would predict educational outcomes for given inputs of dollars. Campbell referred to new tests of quality being devised by the Carnegie Foundation wherein they hope to relate achievement to cost.

Writing in the Peabody Journal of Education, Charles F. Faber (19, pp. 131-138) told of a study conducted in 1967 to attempt to determine quality in school district organization. Eighteen measures, all of which have some inferential relationship to school district adequacy were compared for 35

school districts in a midwestern state. The measures compared were:

1. Enrollment. Faber states that enrollment is an important measure of school district adequacy, the assumption being that the larger the enrollment the more able the school district is to provide an adequate school program.
2. Cost per pupil. Here the author quoted Maurice A. Lohman (29, p. 5) as follows:

Throughout the years, studies conducted by the Institute of Administrative Research and other research organizations have shown the expenditure level is more closely related to school system quality than any other single measure yet identified.

3. Curriculum waivers -- deficiencies in the course offerings required by state law or ruling, for which waivers have been applied for to the state department of public instruction. Obviously, said Faber, a waiver would indicate a lack of a basic subject considered essential.
4. Staff stability. The author stated that experience has shown that too frequent a turnover in the teaching staff may be disruptive of the educational process. He suggested a measurement criterion of 5 or more years' tenure.
5. Breadth of curriculum. The total number of units actually taught in each high school . . . provides

a measure of school district quality.

6. Teacher training index. The author suggested three indices of teacher training, and commented on one of them as follows:

Among 36 characteristics of school staffs which have been studied intensively over the last 25 years, the one most highly correlated with a criterion of school district quality is the percent of staff with five or more years of training.

Other indices of teacher training mentioned were the percent having M. A. or M. S. degrees, and the measurement of an undesirable factor -- the percent of teachers having no degree.

7. Tax rate. The tax rate was given as one of three measures of community potential which exert a direct influence on school quality. Another of these measures, enrollment, has already been listed above.
8. Valuation per pupil. This was another measure of community potential which exerted an influence on the dollars available for education, and thus on school quality.
9. Professional specialist ratio. The number of students divided by the professional specialists on the staff serves as a criterion of school quality.
10. Staff-pupil ratio. Two different indices were suggested here. One would use the total number of

staff including those holding certificates and all clerical, custodial, and other employees. The other would use only the total of certified staff members. In each instance the ratio would be obtained by dividing the total numbers of students enrolled by the total number of staff members employed.

11. Specialization. An index of specialization may be obtained by dividing the total number of teaching assignments by the staff members serving these assignments.
12. Teaching in major area. This index would be computed by the percent of assignments filled by teachers with 30 or more hours of college preparation in that subject.
13. School income from tax sources. Because schools still depend primarily on revenue from property taxes, the amount of money available from taxes is an indicator of ability to support good education. Total valuation is multiplied by the tax rate.
14. School income per student. The total income from local sources plus tuition received is divided by the total enrollment.
15. Average teacher salary. The author stated:

Payment of higher teacher salaries could be

instrumental in attracting and preparing higher quality teachers and thus could be an index of quality of instruction.

16. Average years of longevity in the district. It was presumed that longer tenure of teachers was desirable in that it reflected good morale and permitted more continuity of the educational program.

In summary, it may be said that the literature on superintendents and school quality reflected the following:

1. Superintendents have been evaluated according to leadership styles or by categorizing the variety of duties and responsibilities which it is considered desirable for them to perform.
2. Superintendents have been evaluated by others' -- and especially by board members' -- opinions of them.
3. Superintendents have been evaluated by comparison with a composite image of the superintendent obtained from empirical observation of demographic and personality traits.
4. Superintendents have not been evaluated by the quality of the schools which they superintend.

CHAPTER III. METHODS AND PROCEDURES

The problem of this study was to compare the authority delegated to local school district superintendents with: (1) superintendent effectiveness, (2) tenure of the superintendent, and (3) size of school.

This chapter describes the methods and procedures used to gather and analyze data for the study.

The chapter has been divided into five parts:

1. Description of the Population
2. Selection of the Sample
3. Description and Construction of the Instrument
4. Collection of Data
5. Treatment of Data

Description of the Population

The population to be considered for this study consisted of the 455 local public school districts of Iowa, as listed in the most recent Department of Public Instruction issue of Data on Iowa Schools (15).

Two of the smaller districts, Garrison and Roland, have recently merged with other districts, reducing the total to 453. This change, however, was a minor one and had no effect on the details of this study.

The school districts ranged in size of enrollment from Des Moines, with a total of 47,181 students, to Rembrandt

Consolidated, with a total of 192 students.

All of the districts offered K-12 programs; all had elected school boards; all employed a superintendent; and all were recognized as local school districts by the Iowa Department of Public Instruction.

Selection of the Sample

William G. Cochran (12) lists four advantages in the gathering of data by sampling techniques: (1) reduced cost, (2) greater speed, (3) greater scope, and (4) greater accuracy.

Of the 453 Iowa school districts a sample of approximately one-fourth, or 115 schools, was considered adequate for this study by Dr. Anton Netusil, Assistant Professor of Education at Iowa State University.

For the purposes of collecting data to test the first hypothesis, superintendent authority and effectiveness, it was desired to have a sample of schools homogenous enough in size so that their organization and operation might be comparable. Accordingly all schools with 1967-68 enrollments from 1,300 to 4,000 were included in the population stratum to be sampled. The lower limit was selected because an enrollment of 1,300 or more would place a minimum of 100 students on the average at each grade level, kindergarten through twelfth grade. The upper limit of 4,000 enrollment was chosen because of the sharp demarcation in school size at that point,

the enrollment of the largest school in the stratum being 3,832 and that of the next larger being 5,066, for a difference of 1,234 students. Also, all twenty schools in the stratum of schools larger than 4,000 in enrollment are considered for Iowa "big city" schools, and so might be presumed to differ somewhat in organizational structure and operation from the smaller schools.

After the selection of the stratum for testing the first hypothesis there were then for this study, three strata of schools by size in the total population: (1) 20 large schools, (2) 83 schools of moderate size, and (3) 352 small schools.

For the purposes of testing the second hypothesis of the study, that of superintendent authority and tenure, a sampling of the entire population of schools was used.

For the purpose of testing the third hypothesis, that of superintendent authority and school size, it was possible to compare the top stratum, large schools, with the bottom stratum, small schools.

There was need, then, for a stratified sample to be drawn. The Neyman allocation, as described by Cochran (12) was selected as an appropriate stratified sampling method to be used. Neyman's formula is as follows:

$$n_h = \frac{(n) (N_h S_h)}{\sum N_h S_h}$$

wherein:

n_h = number of units in the sample of stratum h

n = total number of units in the sample

N_h = total number of units in stratum h

S_h = true variance of stratum h

The results of the stratified sampling allocation are shown in Table 1.

Table 1. Allocation of units in stratified sample

Stratum	Population	Sample size
Group I, large schools	20	20
Group II, schools of moderate size	83	51
Group III, small schools	<u>352</u>	<u>44</u>
Totals	455	115

In order to select the sample, each school in the population of 455 schools was assigned a number. For this purpose the number indicating rank in enrollment size, as listed in the Data on Iowa Schools (15) was used.

Next, the table of random numbers, published by W. James Popham (28) was employed, reading horizontally, by selection of consecutive three-digit units of numbers until the listing of the sample for each stratum was complete.

Because the sample for the first stratum, large schools, included the total population, all twenty schools in that stratum were listed in the sample before selection of schools by random numbers table was begun.

Description and Construction of the Instrument

The instrument used to determine the relative degree of authority delegated by the board to the superintendent was an original evaluative instrument prepared for this study.

The literature reviewed indicated that the superintendent in actual practice does not perform according to his role as described by law, written board policy, or job description. For this reason written board policies and superintendent job descriptions, even if they did exist for all schools, were not considered satisfactory to obtain the information desired.

The literature indicated also a discrepancy between superintendents' role perceptions as seen by superintendents and as seen by board members, so that an outright request for information on the degree of authority delegated to the superintendent seemed also to be unsatisfactory.

For the construction of the evaluative instrument ten items, consisting of problems faced or projects commonly undertaken by all school districts, were chosen as follows:

1. Hiring a new high school principal.

2. Expelling a high school student.
3. Terminating a teacher's contract at the end of the school year.
4. Purchase of a new school bus which has been budgeted for.
5. Purchase of an unbudgeted but necessary capital outlay item.
6. Preparation of agenda for board meeting.
7. Dealing with a parent complaint to a school board member.
8. Preparation of the annual school calendar.
9. Investment of surplus school funds.
10. Selecting an architect.

For each item four descriptions of typical action taken were then prepared, ranging from strong superintendent decision-making and follow-through to strong board control of the decision and action. The four possible responses were then arranged randomly under each item. A letter explaining the purpose and instructions for completion of the evaluative instrument was then prepared and attached.

Respondents were requested to check the course of action, for each of the ten problems or projects, which most nearly described how the superintendent and board would function in that school district. A copy of the evaluative instrument keyed to show the scoring, and cover letter will be found in Appendices A and B.

Collection of Data

In selecting respondents it was decided that the most accurate answers would be given by school board members who had served on the board for several years and thus would be in a position to know best how the board and superintendent function in dealing with school problems.

It was decided also to ask superintendents of the districts surveyed to complete the instrument, as a check on the accuracy of the board members' responses.

Superintendents' and board members' responses were compared by means of a Spearman rank order coefficient of correlation.

To determine whether the instrument as prepared would discern degrees of authority delegated to the superintendent, it was pre-tested in twenty-five schools, none of which was included in the sample for the study.

Selection of respondents was made by obtaining from the Iowa Association of School Boards the names, addresses, and length of time served of board members in the list of schools in the sample. One board member who had served two or more years was randomly selected as respondent from each school.

Instruments and explanatory letters were mailed to respondents, with stamped and addressed return envelopes enclosed.

After two weeks, reminder letters were sent to all

persons who had not responded. With the reminder letter was sent a second copy of the instrument and another stamped and addressed return envelope. A copy of the reminder letter will be found in Appendix C.

For those persons who had not responded to the reminder letter after two weeks, telephone calls were used to complete the gathering of the data. A final response of 100 percent was received.

Recognizing that school quality has not been, and perhaps can not at this time be adequately defined; and that there must necessarily be a lack of agreement among the authorities as to the identification and weighting of the criteria commonly associated with quality; the following five criteria, selected from the existing literature dealing with quality, were considered practicable for use in this study. It should not be assumed that they comprise an exclusive list, or that they may in the future be regarded as foremost among the criteria associated with an evolving concept of school quality.

1. General fund dollar expenditure per pupil for the school year 1968-69. Expenditure per pupil was obtained by dividing the total general fund dollar expenditure for each school by the average daily membership for that school. These data were obtained from the secretaries' annual reports, copies of which are on file in the State Department of Public Instruction.
2. Breadth of high school curriculum. For this criterion

- the total number of high school units taught in 1968-69 by each school was used. The data were obtained from the annual evaluation report made by schools to State Department of Public Instruction consultants.
3. Staff stability. For this criterion average years of employment in the district of all members of the certificated staff was used. The data were obtained from the State Department of Public Instruction through the Iowa Professional School Employees Data (IPSED) reports.
 4. Teacher training index. Data used for this criterion were the percentages of teachers in each school holding graduate degrees beyond the baccalaureate. The necessary data were obtained from the schools' annual Iowa Professional School Employees Data (IPSED) reports to the State Department of Public Instruction.
 5. Professional staff-pupil ratio. The total number of pupils in average daily membership in 1968-69 for each school was divided by the total number of certificated staff members. These data were obtained from secretaries' annual reports, which are on file in the State Department of Public Instruction.

Treatment of Data

Chi square at the .05 level of significance was selected as the most appropriate method for statistical treatment of

the data.

In processing the evaluative instruments on authority, individual question responses were scored from "1" for high board authority to "4" for high superintendent authority. The score for each instrument was then totaled, and schools in each of the three strata were placed in two groups, one group containing the schools in that strata with stronger board control, and the other group containing the schools in the strata with stronger superintendent delegated authority.

In processing the data pertaining to superintendent effectiveness -- the criteria associated with school quality -- the schools in each stratum were ranked from "1" to "n" within each stratum for each of the five quality criteria. Means of the ranks of each school in the five criteria were then taken. Finally, the schools in each stratum were divided into two groups, one group containing the schools in that stratum having high rank totals in the criteria, and the other group in the strata containing the schools having low rank totals in the criteria.

For superintendent tenure, schools were divided into those whose superintendents had held their positions for three years or more, and those whose superintendents had held their positions less than three years.

For testing the first hypothesis, superintendent authority and effectiveness, only stratum II, moderately large schools, was used. The observation was further limited to only those

schools within the stratum whose superintendents had been in office three or more years. A 2 x 2 chi square table was prepared as shown in Figure 3.

For testing the second hypothesis, superintendent authority and superintendent tenure, data from all three strata were combined, and a 2 x 2 chi square table was prepared as shown in Figure 4.

High Superintendent Authority and High School Quality	Low Superintendent Authority and High School Quality
High Superintendent Authority and Low School Quality	Low Superintendent Authority and Low School Quality

Figure 3. Chi square table for testing first hypothesis -- superintendent authority and effectiveness

High Superintendent Authority and High Superintendent Tenure	Low Superintendent Authority and High Superintendent Tenure
High Superintendent Authority and Low Superintendent Tenure	Low Superintendent Authority and Low Superintendent Tenure

Figure 4. Chi square table for testing second hypothesis -- superintendent authority and superintendent tenure

For testing the third hypothesis, superintendent authority and school size, only stratum I, very large schools, and stratum III, small schools, were used. A 2 x 2 chi square table was prepared as shown in Figure 5.

High Superintendent Authority and Large Schools	Low Superintendent Authority and Large Schools
High Superintendent Authority and Small Schools	Low Superintendent Authority and Small Schools

Figure 5. Chi square table for testing third hypothesis -- superintendent authority and school size

CHAPTER IV. FINDINGS

Authority Delegated to Superintendents

The instrument for evaluating superintendent authority was pretested by a mailing to the superintendents of twenty-five schools, none of which was drawn in the stratified random sample used in the study. Twelve instruments were completed, for a return of 48 percent.

The primary objective of the pretest was to determine if the instrument, as developed, would discern to a useable degree differences in superintendent authority from school to school.

From a possible scoring of 10, which would represent extreme superintendent authority, to 40, which would represent extreme board authority, the pretest scores ranged from 16 to 26. The results of the pretest, shown in Table 2, indicated a probable range of scores to permit the instrument to be used for the purposes of this study.

A mailing to one board member and to the superintendent of each school in the sample of 115 school districts was made on January 10, 1970.

During the first week after mailing a total of 166 completed instruments, or 72.2 percent, were returned. Included in the first week returns were 62 school board members, or 53.9 percent; and 104 superintendents, or 90.4 percent.

Cumulative returns at the end of the second week were 197,

or 85.7 percent. Included in the two-week totals were 85 school board members, or 73.9 percent; and 112 superintendents, or 97.4 percent.

Table 2. Distribution of pretest scores on superintendent authority

Score	Frequency
26	1
25	1
24	1
23	4
22	
21	3
20	3
19	
18	
17	
16	1

At the end of two weeks, on January 23, 1970, a second mailing with a second letter of explanation and request was made to all persons who had not responded.

Returns of the second mailing yielded 8 additional responses, for a cumulative total of 218, or 94.8 percent. Total returns from the two mailings included 105, or 91.3 percent from school board members; and 113 or 98.3 percent, from superintendents.

The remainder of the instruments, 10 from board members and 2 from superintendents, were completed by telephone interviews.

Three board members refused outright to participate in

the study, and in each of these three instances another more cooperative board member from the same school district was substituted.

Total responses, as shown in Table 3, had a range of 17. Lowest score, indicating strongest superintendent authority, was 14; and highest score, indicating strongest board authority, was 31. Mean score for the total distribution was 22.13, and median score was 22.

Table 3. Total distribution of scores from superintendent authority instrument

Score	Frequency
31	1
30	3
29	3
28	9
27	12
26	13
25	16
24	22
23	24
22	19
21	28
20	28
19	16
18	19
17	9
16	3
15	4
14	1
	230

Mean: 22.13

Median: 22

Authority scores of responses from school board members, shown in Table 4, ranged from 15 to 31, with a mean of 23.36 and a median of 23.

Table 4. Distribution of board members' scores from superintendent authority instrument

Score	Frequency
31	1
30	2
29	1
28	7
27	11
26	9
25	8
24	14
23	14
22	11
21	16
20	11
19	7
18	1
17	1
16	
15	1
	115
Mean:	23.36
Median:	23

Scores on superintendents' responses, shown in Table 5, ranged from 14 to 30, with a mean of 20.90 and a median of 20.

It will be noted from the above that the mean of board members' responses was 23.36, while the mean of superintendents' responses was 20.90. Likewise the median of the board members' responses was 23, as compared to a median of 20 for the superintendents' responses. This would indicate that the

board members tended to think their superintendents had slightly less authority than the superintendents had indicated for themselves.

Table 5. Distribution of superintendents' scores from superintendent authority instrument

Score	Frequency
30	1
29	2
28	2
27	1
26	5
25	7
24	8
23	10
22	8
21	11
20	17
19	10
18	18
17	8
16	4
15	2
14	1
Mean:	20.90
Median:	20

In order to determine whether each board member's response might yield a dependable comparison of the superintendent authority factor for his district, the board members' responses were compared with their superintendents' responses by means of a Spearman rank-order coefficient of correlation as follows (31, p. 314):

$$r_s = 1 - \frac{6 \sum d^2}{n^3 - n}$$

wherein:

r_s = the Spearman rank-order coefficient of correlation

$\sum d^2$ = the sum of squared differences between ranks

n = the number of schools

The Spearman rank-order coefficient of correlation computed was .320, which was positive, though not strongly so. However, even if there had been a difference between board members' and superintendents' estimates of superintendent authority, data from board members would have been used in preference to data from superintendents, since by law and by practice the school board actually determines the extent of the superintendent's authority. Accordingly, data from board members' responses were used to proceed with the study.

School Quality Criteria

Data for the criteria on school quality, to be used with data on superintendent authority to test the first hypothesis, were gathered only for the sub-sample of schools with enrollments from 1,300 to 4,000 whose superintendents had been in office for three or more years. Forty-two school districts were included in this sub-sample.

Tables 6, 7, 8, 9 and 10, which follow, list the data

gathered for each quality criterion, and rank the schools according to each criterion of quality. Table 11 summarizes the rankings of schools on all five of the quality criteria.

Data on schools' per-pupil general fund expenditure were obtained from files in the offices of the State Department of Public Instruction. Per-pupil expenditure for the school year 1968-1969, shown in Table 6, had been computed by dividing each school's total general fund expenditure, as taken from the Secretary's Annual Report, by the school's average daily attendance, also from the Secretary's Annual Report. These data were reported in dollars and cents. For the purposes of this study high quality was associated with high per-pupil expenditure.

Data on the total 1968-1969 high school course offerings of each school district included in the sub-sample, as shown in Table 7, were compiled by the State Department of Public Instruction from the individual school evaluation reports to regional consultants, and filed in the Department library. The total number of different courses taught in senior high school, grades 9 through 12, was given in terms of year-long unit equivalents, quantitatively listed in units and tenths. For the purposes of this study high quality was associated with high number of course offerings.

The data on staff tenure, shown in Table 8, were compiled by the State Department of Public Instruction from information submitted by certificated staff members of the school districts

Table 6. Individual school per-pupil expenditure and rank, school year 1968-1969

School (coded by identification number)	Per-pupil expenditure	Rank
3001	672.73	19
3002	644.23	30
3003	638.39	31
3004	612.47	38
3005	589.89	40
3006	620.63	36
3007	619.96	37
3008	656.34	23
3009	621.07	35
3010	820.74	5
3011	550.57	42
3012	917.64	2
3013	673.02	18
3014	712.77	12
3015	652.47	25
3016	682.68	17
3017	636.91	32
3018	671.47	21
3019	964.68	1
3020	708.62	14
3021	695.02	15
3022	646.28	29
3023	590.77	39
3024	758.57	8
3025	868.37	4
3026	734.19	10
3027	646.92	28
3028	628.00	34
3029	904.43	3
3030	655.81	24
3031	649.15	26
3032	635.72	33
3033	776.97	6
3034	711.96	13
3035	648.49	27
3036	661.01	22
3037	747.63	9
3038	713.34	11
3039	766.68	7
3040	671.65	20
3041	584.91	41
3042	684.82	16

Table 7. Schools ranked according to variety of high school courses taught, 1968-1969

School (coded by identification number)	Courses taught	Rank
3001	65.3	2
3002	51.5	22.5
3003	61.0	5.5
3004	43.5	40
3005	60.0	8
3006	59.0	9.5
3007	54.0	15
3008	45.0	38.5
3009	51.0	24.5
3010	72.0	1
3011	42.0	41.5
3012	54.3	14
3013	57.0	11
3014	63.5	3.5
3015	47.0	36
3016	50.0	30.5
3017	49.0	33
3018	50.0	30.5
3019	63.5	3.5
3020	53.5	16.5
3021	59.0	9.5
3022	52.0	20.5
3023	42.0	41.5
3024	46.0	37
3025	53.0	18.5
3026	50.6	26
3027	45.0	38.5
3028	61.0	5.5
3029	60.5	7
3030	54.5	13
3031	51.0	24.5
3032	53.5	16.5
3033	53.0	18.5
3034	50.5	27.5
3035	52.0	20.5
3036	50.0	30.5
3037	51.5	22.5
3038	50.5	27.5
3039	47.5	35
3040	50.0	30.5
3041	56.5	12
3042	48.5	34

Table 8. School districts ranked according to average tenure of certificated staff, 1968-1969

School (coded by identification number)	Average tenure in years	Rank
3001	3	41
3002	7	11
3003	4	37.5
3004	4	37.5
3005	7	11
3006	5	33
3007	5	33
3008	4	37.5
3009	7	11
3010	6	23.5
3011	10	1.5
3012	3	41
3013	7	11
3014	8	4
3015	7	11
3016	6	23.5
3017	6	23.5
3018	8	4
3019	3	41
3020	6	23.5
3021	7	11
3022	8	4
3023	7	11
3024	6	23.5
3025	7	11
3026	6	23.5
3027	5	33
3028	7	11
3029	6	23.5
3030	4	37.5
3031	6	23.5
3032	5	33
3033	10	1.5
3034	6	23.5
3035	6	23.5
3036	7	11
3037	6	23.5
3038	5	33
3039	6	23.5
3040	6	23.5
3041	6	23.5
3042	7	11

Table 9. Schools ranked according to teacher training, 1969

School (coded by identification number)	Percent of advanced degrees	Rank
3001	20.6	17
3002	22.1	12
3003	20.3	20
3004	19.6	24
3005	22.3	10
3006	21.0	15
3007	22.1	12
3008	15.0	35.5
3009	16.5	30.5
3010	24.8	3.5
3011	15.2	34
3012	20.5	18.5
3013	13.3	38
3014	29.3	2
3015	20.5	18.5
3016	17.6	29
3017	15.0	35.5
3018	19.4	25
3019	32.7	1
3020	16.1	32
3021	24.1	5
3022	15.8	33
3023	19.8	23
3024	20.2	21
3025	23.1	7
3026	22.4	9
3027	14.1	37
3028	12.1	39
3029	17.9	28
3030	18.9	26
3031	16.5	30.5
3032	18.8	27
3033	20.0	22
3034	24.0	6
3035	20.7	16
3036	10.2	41
3037	10.6	40
3038	28.4	3.5
3039	22.9	8
3040	21.3	14
3041	22.1	12
3042	8.2	42

Table 10. Teacher-pupil ratio and school district rank,
school year 1968-1969

School (coded by identification number)	Pupil-teacher ratio	Rank
3001	20.91	19
3002	22.46	36
3003	21.93	32
3004	22.36	35
3005	21.54	26
3006	20.66	16
3007	22.26	34
3008	21.63	27
3009	21.11	23
3010	20.95	21
3011	24.12	42
3012	19.02	6
3013	21.81	30
3014	23.32	41
3015	21.41	24
3016	22.51	37
3017	21.75	29
3018	21.83	31
3019	15.84	1
3020	19.51	8
3021	20.72	17
3022	23.02	39.5
3023	22.94	38
3024	18.70	5
3025	19.72	11
3026	19.96	12
3027	21.52	25
3028	21.68	28
3029	16.43	2
3030	20.29	15
3031	19.33	7
3032	23.02	39.5
3033	20.85	18
3034	17.73	3
3035	21.03	22
3036	20.01	13
3037	19.52	9
3038	20.12	14
3039	19.67	10
3040	18.16	4
3041	22.11	33
3042	20.93	20

Table 11. Ranking of schools on five criteria of quality

School	Expend.	Courses	Tenure	Educ.	P-T ratio
3001	19	2	41	17	19
3002	30	22.5	11	12	36
3003	31	5.5	37.5	20	32
3004	38	40	37.5	24	35
3005	40	8	11	10	26
3006	36	9.5	33	15	16
3007	37	15	33	12	34
3008	23	38.5	37.5	35.5	27
3009	35	24.5	11	30.5	23
3010	5	1	23.5	3.5	21
3011	42	41.5	1.5	34	42
3012	2	14	41	18.5	6
3013	18	11	11	38	30
3014	12	3.5	4	2	41
3015	25	36	11	18.5	24
3016	17	30.5	23.5	29	37
3017	32	33	23.5	35.5	29
3018	21	30.5	4	25	31
3019	1	3.5	41	1	1
3020	14	16.5	23.5	32	8
3021	15	9.5	11	5	17
3022	29	20.5	4	33	39.5
3023	39	41.5	11	23	38
3024	8	37	23.5	21	5
3025	4	18.5	11	7	11
3026	10	26	23.5	9	12
3027	28	38.5	33	37	25
3028	34	5.5	11	39	28
3029	3	7	23.5	28	2
3030	24	13	37.5	26	15
3031	26	24.5	23.5	30.5	7
3032	33	16.5	33	27	39.5
3033	6	18.5	1.5	22	18
3034	13	27.5	23.5	6	3
3035	27	20.5	23.5	16	22
3036	22	30.5	11	41	13
3037	9	22.5	23.5	40	9
3038	11	27.5	33	3.5	14
3039	7	35	23.5	8	10
3040	20	30.5	23.5	14	4
3041	41	12	23.5	12	33
3042	16	34	11	42	20

on September, 1969, Iowa Professional School Employees Data Sheets (IPSEDS), and were available in tabulated form in the Department offices. Average years of employment for the certificated staff in each school district were given in whole numbers ranging from 3 years to 10 years. For the purposes of this study high tenure was associated with high quality.

To evaluate the schools in the sub-sample on teacher training, the percent of teachers in each district having degrees beyond the B.A. or B.S. was used. These data were available in tabulated form through the offices of the State Department of Public Instruction, having been processed from the September, 1969, Iowa Professional School Employees Data Sheets (IPSEDS). Table 9 preceding indicates the percent of degrees beyond the bachelor's held by teachers in each district. For the purposes of this study high percent of advanced degrees was associated with high quality.

The criterion on teacher-pupil ratio was determined from data obtained from the 1969 School Secretary's Annual Report forms, and had been processed and tabulated by the State Department of Public Instruction. Total average daily attendance for each district was divided by the total number of teachers, and the resultant data given correct to two decimal places. Table 10 preceding gives the pupil ratio per teacher in each of the school districts in the sub-sample. For the purposes of this study low pupil-teacher ratio was associated with high quality.

A compilation of the ranks of each of the school districts on each of the quality criteria is given in Table 11 preceding. Examination of the rankings of the schools seemed to indicate that the rankings on tenure of certificated staff tended often to disagree with rankings in the other criteria. It appeared that districts which ranked high in four of the quality criteria tended to rank low in tenure of certificated staff, and vice-versa.

Since a composite ranking on quality was to be developed for each district, it was feared that a criterion which produced contradictory results might serve to nullify to some extent the discriminatory ability of the procedure.

In order to evaluate the extent to which each of the five criteria on quality agreed, Spearman rank-order coefficients of correlation were obtained for each criterion as compared with each of the others -- a total of ten Spearman rank-order coefficients of correlation in all.

The resultant Spearman rank-order coefficients of correlation bore out the preliminary observations from visual comparisons of the data in Table 11. Coefficients of correlation were positive when comparing each of four quality criteria -- per-pupil expenditures, high school courses taught, teacher training, and pupil-teacher ratio -- with each other. However, the criterion of tenure of certificated staff correlated negatively with each of the other four. Table 12 is a matrix giving the coefficients of correlation developed for each of

the ten comparisons of quality criteria.

Table 12. Spearman rank-order coefficients of correlation for ten comparisons of criteria on school quality

	Courses	Training	P-T ratio	Tenure
Expenditures	.22	.28	.67	-.11
Courses		.38	.10	-.11
Training			.19	-.11
P-T ratio				-.24

In order to determine if use of the criterion on tenure of certificated staff would lessen or cancel the discriminatory power of the other four criteria, two rankings of schools were performed, one from a composite of the five criteria as originally planned, and one from four criteria and omitting tenure. As may be observed in Table 13, the only effect on the over-all ranking of schools in quality for the purposes of this study was to change one school from top half to bottom half, and one school from bottom half to top half.

In order to remove all question of whether or not the criterion of tenure should be used in the study, it was decided to eliminate from the sub-sample the two schools whose positions would be altered depending on the use of the tenure criterion. The resultant number of schools in the sub-sample for testing the first hypothesis, superintendent authority and school quality, was then 40.

Table 13. Comparison of ranks of school districts using four and five criteria of quality

Using five criteria	Using four criteria
3019	3019
3025	3010
3010	3029
3021	3012
3014	3025
3029	3021
3033	3034
3034	3038
3026	3026
3012 Top Half	3001 Top Half
3039	3014
3038	3039
3040	3033
3020	3040
3024	3020
3005	3024
3001	3006
3037	3030
3013	3037
3035	3005
3006	3035
3018	3031
3002	3003
3031	3013
3015	3007
3030	3041
3036	3002
3028	3015
3041	3036
3042	3028
3009 Bottom Half	3018 Bottom Half
3003	3042
3022	3009
3007	3016
3016	3032
3032	3022
3023	3008
3017	3027
3011	3017
3027	3004
3008	3023
3004	3011

Five school districts had a median score of 23 on the instrument to evaluate superintendent authority. For the purpose of testing the first hypothesis it was necessary to form a two by two chi square contingency table wherein schools were categorized "high" and "low". The five median schools on superintendent authority were eliminated, since by definition they could be classed neither "high" nor "low". Table 14 shows the distribution of scores on superintendent authority for the sub-sample used to test the first hypothesis, and the rank of each score.

Table 14. Distribution of scores from superintendent authority evaluation instrument used to test first hypothesis -- superintendent authority and school quality

Score	Frequency	Rank
30	1	40
29		
28	1	39
27	5	36
26	3	32
25	3	29
24	4	25.5
23 Median score	5	21
22	3	17
21	5	13
20	5	8
19	4	3.5
18		
17		
16		
15	1	1
	<u>40</u>	

Table 15. Designation of school districts on the bases of superintendent authority and school quality

School	Superintendent authority	Quality
3001	low	high
3002	low	low
3003	high	low
3004	high	low
3005	high	high
3006	high	high
3007	low	low
3008	low	low
3009	high	low
3010	low	high
3011	high	low
3012	high	high
3013	(eliminate on quality criteria conflict)	
3014	high	high
3015	high	low
3016	low	low
3017	high	low
3018	(eliminate on median authority score)	
3019	low	high
3020	(eliminate on median authority score)	
3021	high	high
3022	high	low
3023	low	low
3024	low	high
3025	low	high
3026	high	high
3027	low	low
3028	low	low
3029	high	high
3030	(eliminate on quality criteria conflict)	
3031	high	low
3032	low	low
3033	high	high
3034	high	high
3035	low	high
3036	(eliminate on median authority score)	
3037	(eliminate on median authority score)	
3038	low	high
3039	low	high
3040	low	high
3041	high	low
3042	(eliminate on median authority score)	

On the basis of board members' responses there were then 18 schools showing high superintendent authority and 17 schools showing low superintendent authority.

By reference to Table 13 each of the 35 schools was then assigned a "high" or "low" rating on the basis of its rank in a composite of the quality criteria. Table 15 indicates the "high" and "low" designations of each school which were then used to perform the chi square computation.

Table 16 is the chi square contingency table from which chi square computations were performed to test the first hypothesis.

Table 16. Chi square contingency table on superintendent authority and school quality.

		<u>SUPERINTENDENT AUTHORITY</u>		
		<u>High</u>	<u>Low</u>	
<u>SCHOOL QUALITY</u>	<u>High</u>	9	9	18
	<u>Low</u>	9	8	17
		18	17	35

Computed chi square was .0309. Tabular chi square for 1 degree of freedom at the .05 level of confidence was 3.84.

Chi square to test the first hypothesis was computed to be .0309, and was not significant at the .05 level of confidence. The findings of the study therefore failed to reject the null hypothesis and assumed no significant difference in the quality of school districts having high superintendent authority and those having low superintendent authority.

To test the second hypothesis, superintendent authority and superintendent tenure, the entire sample of 115 school districts was considered. There were 78 schools in which the superintendent had been in office three or more years and was considered, for the purposes of this study, to have tenure. In 23 schools the superintendent had been in office less than three years and was considered, for the purposes of this study, to be a new superintendent in his school.

Table 17 which follows is a list of the schools in which the superintendent had been in office for three or more years, and Table 18 lists the new superintendents.

From the data on superintendent authority given in Table 4 each school listed in Table 17 and Table 18 was marked either "high authority" or "low authority". Tables 17 and 18 indicate the "high" and "low" superintendent authority designations for the sample of 101 schools used to test the second hypothesis, superintendent authority and superintendent tenure. On Tables 17 and 18 are also indicated the 14 schools which were eliminated because of their median superintendent authority scores.

Table 17. Listing of school districts whose superintendents have been in office more than two years, and designations of superintendent authority scores

School	Superintendent authority	School	Superintendent authority
1001	high	3026	high
1002	high	3027	low
1003	high	3028	low
1004	low	3029	high
1005	(eliminate on median score)	3030	low
		3031	high
1006	high	3032	low
1007	high	3033	high
1008	high	3034	high
1009	low	3035	low
1010	high	3036	(eliminate on median score)
1011	low		(eliminate on median score)
1012	low	3037	(eliminate on median score)
1013	low		
3001	low	3038	low
3002	low	3039	low
3003	high	3040	low
3004	high	3041	high
3005	high	3042	(eliminate on median score)
3006	high		
3007	low	5001	low
3008	low	5002	high
3009	high	5003	high
3010	low	5004	high
3011	high	5005	low
3012	high	5006	high
3013	low	5007	high
3014	high	5008	high
3015	high	5009	high
3016	low	5010	low
3017	high	5011	(eliminate on median score)
3018	(eliminate on median score)		
		5012	low
3019	low	5013	low
3020	(eliminate on median score)	5014	(eliminate on median score)
			(eliminate on median score)
3021	high	5015	(eliminate on median score)
3022	high		
3023	low	5016	low
3024	low	5017	high
3025	low	5018	low

Table 17 (Continued)

School	Superintendent authority	School	Superintendent authority
5019	low	5026	low
5020	low	5027	high
5021	low	5028	high
5022	low	5029	high
5023	low	5030	low
5024	low	5031	low
5025	high	5032	low

Table 18. Listing of school districts whose superintendents have been in office less than three years, and designations of superintendent authority scores

School	Superintendent authority	School	Superintendent authority
2001	low	4009	high
2002	high	6001	low
2003	high	6002	low
2004	high	6003	(eliminate on median score)
2005	high		
2006	high	6004	low
2007	low	6005	(eliminate on median score)
4001	low		
4002	high	6006	(eliminate on median score)
4003	high		
4004	high	6007	low
4005	(eliminate on median score)	6008	low
		6009	low
4006	(eliminate on median score)	6010	low
		6011	high
4007	low	6012	low
4008	high		

From Tables 17 and 18 the contingency table, shown in Table 19, was developed, and chi square computations were made as follows:

Table 19. Chi square contingency table on superintendent authority and superintendent tenure

		<u>SUPERINTENDENT AUTHORITY</u>		
		<u>High</u>	<u>Low</u>	
<u>SUPERINTENDENT TENURE</u>	<u>High</u>	37	41	78
	<u>Low</u>	11	12	23
		48	53	101

		37.07	40.93	
		10.93	12.07	

Computed chi square was .0011. Tabular chi square for 1 degree of freedom at the .05 level of confidence was 3.84.

The computed chi square of .0011 on superintendent authority and superintendent tenure was not significant at the .05 level of confidence. The findings of the study therefore failed to reject the second null hypothesis, and the conclusion was drawn that, on the basis of this study, there was no significant difference in the authority delegated to superintendents who had been in office for three or more years and

those who had been in office for less than three years.

To test the third hypothesis, superintendent authority and school size, the sub-sample of 20 large school districts and the sub-sample of 44 small school districts were used. As in the previous computations, 7 school districts which had the median score in superintendent authority were eliminated. Table 20 which follows is a distribution of the superintendent authority scores for the sub-samples used to test the third hypothesis.

Table 20. Distribution of scores from superintendent authority evaluation instrument used to test the third hypothesis -- superintendent authority and school district size

Score	Frequency	Rank
31	1	64
30	1	63
29	1	62
28	4	59.5
27	6	54.5
26	6	48.5
25	5	43
24	8	36.5
23 Median score	7	29
22	7	22
21	9	14
20	5	7
19	3	3
18		
17	1	1
	64	

Table 21 which follows is a listing of the sub-sample of large school districts, each of which has been designated as having high or low superintendent authority from the information obtained from Table 20.

Table 21. Listing of large school districts and designation of superintendent authority

School	Superintendent authority
1001	high
1002	high
1003	high
1004	low
1005	(eliminate on median score)
1006	high
1007	high
1008	high
1009	low
1010	high
1011	low
1012	low
1013	low
2001	low
2002	high
2003	high
2004	high
2005	high
2006	high
2007	low

Table 22 which follows is a listing of the sub-sample of small school districts, each of which has been designated as having high or low superintendent authority from the information obtained from Table 20.

From Table 21 and Table 22 the contingency table, shown in Table 23, was developed, and chi square computations were made.

Table 22. Listing of small school districts and designation of superintendent authority

School	Superintendent authority
5001	low
5002	high
5003	high
5004	high
5005	low
5006	high
5007	high
5008	high
5009	high
5010	low
5011	(eliminate on median score)
5012	low
5013	low
5014	(eliminate on median score)
5015	(eliminate on median score)
5016	low
5017	high
5018	low
5019	low
5020	low
5021	low
5022	low
5023	low
5024	low
5025	high
5026	low
5027	high
5028	high
5029	high
5030	low
5031	low
5032	low
6001	low
6002	low
6003	(eliminate on median score)
6004	low
6005	(eliminate on median score)
6006	(eliminate on median score)
6007	low
6008	low
6009	low
6010	low
6011	high
6012	low

Table 23. Chi square contingency table on superintendent authority and school district size

		<u>SUPERINTENDENT AUTHORITY</u>		
		<u>High</u>	<u>Low</u>	
<u>SCHOOL SIZE</u>	<u>Large</u>	12	7	19
		8.33	10.67	
<u>Small</u>	13	25	38	
	16.67	21.33		
	25	32	57	

Computed chi square was 4.32*. Tabular chi square for 1 degree of freedom at the .05 level of confidence was 3.84.

The chi square value of 4.32 on superintendent authority and size of school district was significant at the .05 level of confidence. The findings of the study therefore rejected the third null hypothesis, and the conclusion was drawn that there was a significant difference between the authority delegated to superintendents of large schools and the authority delegated to superintendents of small schools. Examination of the contributions of each cell of the contingency table to the chi square value showed that superintendents in the large schools had more delegated authority than did the superintendents in the small schools.

CHAPTER V. SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary of Findings

The general problem of this study was to compare the aspects of school quality, tenure of the superintendent, and school size in relation to the varying amounts of authority delegated to the superintendent by the boards of education in the local school districts.

Three null hypotheses were tested:

1. There is no significant difference in the quality of the schools, as determined by observing criteria commonly associated with good schools, when categorized on the basis of relatively high or low degrees of authority delegated to the superintendent.
2. There is no significant difference in the amounts of authority delegated to superintendents when they are classified according to the amounts of time they have served in their school districts.
3. There is no significant difference in the amounts of authority delegated to the superintendents among school districts of different sizes.

The data to test the first hypothesis, superintendent authority and school quality, were gathered from the subsample of 42 school districts with enrollments ranging from 1,300 to 4,000 whose superintendents had been in office for three or more years. The resultant chi square value of .0309

was not significant at the .05 level of confidence. Therefore, the findings failed to reject the null hypothesis and the conclusion was drawn that the degree of authority delegated to the superintendent by the board does not, in and of itself, directly affect school quality as determined by the five criteria used in this study.

The data to test the second hypothesis, superintendent authority and superintendent tenure, were gathered from the complete stratified sample of 115 school districts. The resultant chi square value of .0011 was not significant at the .05 level of confidence. Therefore, the findings failed to reject the null hypothesis and the conclusion was drawn that superintendents who had been in office in their present districts for three or more years did not tend to have either more or less authority delegated to them than did superintendents who had been in office less than three years.

The data to test the third hypothesis, superintendent authority and school size, were gathered from the sub-sample of 20 large school districts and the sub-sample of 44 small school districts, a total of 64 schools in all. The resultant chi square value of 4.32 was significant at the .05 level of confidence. Therefore the null hypothesis was rejected, and the conclusion was drawn that superintendents in large school districts tended to have more authority delegated to them than did superintendents in small school districts.

Conclusions

Conclusions drawn from this study were listed in five categories as follows:

1. Conclusions drawn from gathering and processing data on authority delegated to superintendents.
2. Conclusions drawn from gathering data on school quality.
3. Conclusions drawn from testing the first hypothesis -- superintendent authority and school quality.
4. Conclusions drawn from testing the second hypothesis -- superintendent authority and superintendent tenure.
5. Conclusions drawn from testing the third hypothesis -- superintendent authority and school district size.

Authority delegated to superintendents

The evaluative instrument developed and used in this study did clearly indicate differences from school to school in the amounts of authority delegated by the school board to the superintendent. However, when the responses from board members and the responses from superintendents were compared, it was evident that the superintendents regarded themselves as having somewhat more authority than their board members indicated they had. This difference in opinion as to the actual delegation of authority within school districts points

to the possible need for more clearly-defined roles for board members and superintendents, either by statute or by locally developed policies and job descriptions.

As the instrument for evaluating superintendent authority was developed, and as data from the returns were processed, the view was strengthened that working arrangements between superintendents, school boards, and individual board members are complex, varied, sometimes impossible to define, and sometimes not understood by all parties involved.

Although the instrument did clearly indicate differences in superintendent authority from school to school, it remains a somewhat crude instrument, and the possibility exists that its discriminatory power could be somewhat superficial.

A more comprehensive instrument to evaluate superintendent authority would have been helpful. However, in view of the proliferation of data-gathering activities, and of the increasing inability and reluctance of respondents to participate in time-consuming surveys, it is doubtful that a more comprehensive and deeper-probing instrument would achieve a satisfactory rate of return, or that the responses would have been made with more than superficial attention to accuracy.

For the above reasons data on superintendent authority which could be gathered by personal interview, or by prolonged in-person observation of superintendents and school boards in action in their own districts, would have been desirable. However, the expense which would have been necessary,

and the time which would have been involved, made this type of observation unfeasible.

Of increasing concern to all investigators should be the reluctance of some respondents, as evidenced by this survey, to cooperate in supplying data needed for research. Three persons refused outright, after two mailed requests and one telephone entreaty, to respond, even though cooperation would have taken only five minutes of time. Two other board members expressed concern over the "confidential" nature of the information requested. One respondent commented with approval on the brevity of the instrument, and stated that it was the first reasonable questionnaire he had received in some time.

The implications would seem to be that, first of all, the burden placed on would-be respondents by rapidly-proliferating data gathering activities could be unreasonably time-consuming, and could be causing the development of an unfavorable attitude of non-cooperation. Secondly, respondents could be becoming frustrated by poorly-designed instruments which request information not readily available, or which do not provide for the responses which the respondent wishes to make. Thirdly, respondents -- bombarded on every hand by invasions of their privacy by an increasingly inquisitive society -- might be coming to resent even the most simple and straightforward requests for information. In the fourth place, respondents are being asked to provide information which, had

the investigator been more resourceful, could have been already gathered and available from some other source. Finally, a failure on the part of some investigators to feed back promptly the results to the cooperating respondents could have some effect of alienation.

School quality

The reluctance of authorities to come forward with definitions of school quality, or with criteria of quality, is understandable. The orientation of individual schools to varying educational goals, their varying resources and financial abilities, their different environmental settings, the wide variety of processes they employ, and finally the wide choice of criteria and the difficulties encountered in follow-up evaluation of the product make the task of comparative quality evaluation a formidable one.

On the basis of data gathered and processed for this study, one of the generally accepted criteria commonly associated with quality in schools should be suspect. Tenure of certificated staff, which in this study was defined as the average years of employment in the present school district of all certificated staff members, did not correlate positively with any of the other four criteria used.

From this experience a tentative conclusion is suggested, that staff turnover might in some situations be a beneficial phenomenon rather than one to be avoided.

The other criteria of quality used for this study -- per-pupil expenditure, high school courses offered, teacher education, and pupil-teacher ratio -- did correlate positively with each other, and were probably satisfactory for the purposes of this study.

It is not to be inferred, however, that the criteria used in this study are intended to constitute a complete listing of all the criteria relating to quality, or that some other different approach to the definition of quality in schools might not be more appropriate.

It is suggested also that, if a number of criteria are used to form a composite estimate of school quality, some form of weighting might be desirable.

Superintendent authority and school quality

The theory advanced in Chapter I, that there might exist some range of superintendent authority wherein he could be most effective -- that is, where he would be most apt to make a maximum contribution to school quality -- was not substantiated by the findings of this study.

The degree of authority delegated by school boards to superintendents does not, in and of itself, seem to exert any direct effect on school quality as defined and identified by this study.

Although it remains possible that the degree of authority delegated to the superintendent does in some way have an effect

on certain phenomena relating to school quality, the efforts of the superintendent within any given school district could be aided, limited, and overshadowed by a number of other factors. The district's ability to support its schools, as evidenced by its taxable valuation, its tax rate, and the level of income of its citizens is one such factor. Community environmental factors, such as socioeconomic level and mix, urban or rural setting, ethnic and religious background, and prevalence and type of business and industry could be contributing factors. Personnel policies, staff orientation and attitude, and makeup of staff could all contribute to or detract from the school's quality. Curricular offerings, classroom techniques, and organizational plans must certainly be regarded as having some effect on school quality.

A consideration of these and other phenomena which could possibly influence school quality could place the factor of superintendent authority in a role of relative impotence within the setting of any local school district.

It is suggested therefore, that the influence of superintendent authority might be studied within the context of a much more comprehensive view, using the statistical technique of multiple regression wherein the contribution made to school quality by each factor could be determined.

Superintendent authority and superintendent tenure

The findings of this study would seem to disprove the theory, advanced in Chapter I, that as the superintendent gains in tenure he gains also in the degree of authority delegated to him by the school board. The study showed that new superintendents -- those who had been in office less than three years -- had neither more nor less authority than old superintendents -- those who had been in office three or more years. Tenure does not seem to be a factor in determining the amount of authority delegated by the board to the superintendent.

Superintendent authority and size of school district

The findings of the study did indicate that the superintendents of Iowa's twenty large school districts had a greater degree of authority delegated to them by their school boards than did the superintendents of small schools with less than 1,300 enrollment.

It is possible that the larger districts, with total operations of a somewhat greater magnitude and complexity, would tend to rely more on professionals rather than lay boards to make decisions, solve problems, and carry out actions such as those contained in the instrument to evaluate superintendent authority which was used for this study.

It is also possible that, with the greater number of

administrative actions necessary in a larger district, and with the greater difficulty of communicating and coordinating, there could exist more comprehensive written policies. Thus the directions for action by the superintendent could be more clearly prescribed, and he could act with less frequent consultation with his school board than in the smaller districts. Comprehensive written policies would seem to be desirable.

Recommendations for Further Study

The instrument developed for this study to determine the degree of superintendent authority was somewhat crude, and was necessarily limited to the superficial aspects of administrative problem-solving and action. To probe the intricate aspects of superintendent-board working relationships it is suggested that a case-study technique might produce insights otherwise not obtainable, and might lead to some helpful conclusions on the ideal role of the superintendent in various administrative situations.

In an age when the public is increasingly demanding evaluative proof of school quality, there is a disappointing lack of authoritative definition of the factors which contribute to it, or of the techniques which can be accepted by the layman for measuring it. There is serious need for research leading to the definition of school quality, so that acceptable evaluation of schools -- their inputs, their processes, and

their products -- may be performed and interpreted to the general public.

From the tentative nature of the inquiries into school quality made by this study, one commonly accepted criterion of quality was revealed as being open to question. Staff tenure correlated negatively with the other criteria of school quality used in the study. The contradiction needs to be resolved by further inquiry.

Finally, it was apparent from the responses on the instrument for evaluating superintendent authority that superintendents are in fact making decisions and taking actions which are by law the sole province of the board. There is need for a continuing study aimed at defining by statute the evolving roles of school boards and school administration personnel to conform to desirable and effective practices in a changing and increasingly complex society.

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APPENDIX A: SUPERINTENDENT AUTHORITY EVALUATIVE
INSTRUMENT WITH SCORING KEY (Low scores
indicate high superintendent authority;
high scores indicate high board authority)

PLEASE CHECK THE COURSE OF ACTION WHICH MOST NEARLY RESEMBLES THE WAY EACH PROBLEM WOULD BE HANDLED IN YOUR SCHOOL.

1. Hiring a new high school principal.

- 2 Superintendent recruits and interviews, then recommends to board. Board approves. Superintendent then hires.
- 3 Superintendent recruits, interviews, and screens. Board then interviews screened candidates and offers contract.
- 1 Superintendent recruits, interviews, and hires; then reports to board. Board ratifies.
- 4 Superintendent recruits. Board, or board committee, screens applications. Board interviews applicants and offers contract.

2. Expelling a student from high school.

- 1 Superintendent expels student, then reports to board. Board ratifies.
- 3 Board meets with student. Superintendent presents facts. Student (and parents) reply. Board then expels.
- 2 Superintendent recommends expulsion to board. Board approves. Superintendent then expels.
- 4 Board conducts hearing. Superintendent presents case for expulsion. Student and parents present their case. Board then either expels or reinstates student.

3. Terminating a teacher's contract at end of year.

- 2 Superintendent reports unsatisfactory teacher to board and recommends termination. After discussion, board agrees to proceed with steps toward termination.
- 3 Unsatisfactory teacher is named by board member. Superintendent is consulted. After discussion board might or might not decide to proceed with termination.
- 1 Board names unsatisfactory teacher and instructs superintendent to prepare its case. Board proceeds to terminate contract.
- 4 Superintendent and administrative staff decide to terminate, and ask board to act. Board proceeds with necessary notices and hearings, then terminates contract.

(next page, please)

4. Purchasing a new school bus which has been budgeted.

- 3 Superintendent and staff prepare specifications and take bids. Board examines bids, interviews salesmen and examines models, then makes selection.
- 4 The board, or a board committee, supervises preparation of specifications, examines bids, and decides on purchase.
- 1 Superintendent and staff prepare specifications, take bids, and make selection; then report to board.
- 2 Superintendent and staff prepare specifications, take bids, and recommend choice to board. Board approves.

5. Purchase of unbudgeted but necessary capital outlay item.

- 2 Superintendent determines need and reports to board. Board approves, and superintendent proceeds with purchase.
- 1 Superintendent determines need, makes purchase, and reports to board.
- 3 Superintendent determines need and reports to board. Board instructs superintendent to get prices and information. Board and superintendent then discuss and make choice.
- 4 Board determines need and instructs superintendent to get prices and information. Board makes selection and places order.

6. Preparation of agenda for board meeting.

- 3 All board members and superintendent regularly submit agenda items from which agenda is made up.
- 1 Superintendent lists and arranges items, prints agenda, and sends it to board members in advance of the meeting.
- 4 Agenda is prepared at school board meeting from items brought by board members, school patrons, and superintendent.
- 2 Superintendent prepares agenda and submits it to board chairman for additions and revision, then sends it to board members.

7. A parent complains about school to a board member.

- 4 Board member hears complaint, and then either investigated it himself or else has it placed on the board meeting agenda.

(next page, please)

- 3 The board member hears complaint and takes it to the superintendent. Superintendent deals with complaint and reports back to board member. Board member then reports back to parent.
- 2 The board member hears the complaint and brings it to the superintendent. The superintendent then deals directly with the parent.
- 1 The board member refers the parent to the superintendent or to a principal.

8. Preparation of next year's school calendar.

- 3 Superintendent prepares several calendars or alternatives and explains them to board. Board makes selection.
- 2 Superintendent prepares calendar and recommends it to board. Board approves and adopts calendar.
- 1 Superintendent prepares calendar and reports to board. Board then ratifies.
- 4 Calendar is prepared by open discussion at board meeting.

9. Investment of surplus school funds.

- 3 Superintendent reports financial balances to board. Board then decides on investments, and gives instructions to superintendent.
- 4 A board member or committee, or board secretary or treasurer, decides on and handles investment of surplus funds.
- 1 Superintendent and staff direct investment and report regularly to board.
- 2 Superintendent makes recommendations for investment to board. Board approves. Superintendent and staff then invest.

10. Selecting an architect.

- 4 Board members submit names. Board interviews architects and makes final selection.
- 2 Superintendent investigates and interviews, then selects two or three architects and submits information about them to board. Board and superintendent then make final choice.
- 1 Superintendent investigates, interviews, makes selection, and reports to board for approval.
- 3 Board committee and superintendent investigate and interview, then make final recommendation to board.

(next page, please)

Would you like a summary of the results? If so, please check below.

_____ Please send a summary of the results.

APPENDIX B: LETTER OF EXPLANATION ACCOMPANYING FIRST MAILING
OF SUPERINTENDENT AUTHORITY EVALUATIVE INSTRUMENT

7102 Airline
Urbandale, Iowa 50322
January 10, 1970

Dear (superintendent or board member):

How do school districts deal with their day-to-day problems?

By law the board has a wide range of responsibilities. However, in actual practice many of these responsibilities have been delegated to the superintendent and staff.

This survey, undertaken as part of a graduate study in school administration at Iowa State University, Ames, Iowa, attempts to describe the schools' working arrangements between boards and superintendents.

Your identity, or the identity of your school, will not be used other than to account for return of questionnaires.

This questionnaire will take less than five minutes of your time. Will you please complete and mail it back today? A stamped and addressed return envelope is enclosed.

Very truly yours,

Lyle W. Kehm, Superintendent
Urbandale Community Schools

APPENDIX C: REMINDER LETTER ACCOMPANYING SECOND MAILING OF
SUPERINTENDENT AUTHORITY EVALUATIVE INSTRUMENT

7102 Airline
Urbandale, Iowa 50322
January 23, 1970

Last week you received the enclosed brief questionnaire. If you have already completed and returned it, please disregard this appeal.

My survey, part of a program of graduate studies in school administration at Iowa State University, Ames, attempts to determine the extent to which various school responsibilities have been delegated to the superintendent by the board.

The questionnaire takes only five minutes to complete, and I need yours. The sampling plan used requires 100 percent response in order to be accurate.

Please be assured that the identity of individual replies will not be divulged, nor will you or your school be embarrassed in any way. The code number on the questionnaire is merely to identify questionnaires as they are returned, so that 100 percent response may be obtained.

Please help me by completing and returning your questionnaire today. Stamped and addressed return envelope is enclosed.

Very truly yours,

Lyle W. Kehm, Superintendent
Urbandale Community Schools
Urbandale, Iowa 50322