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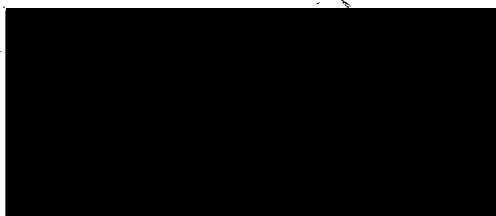
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A STUDY OF DECISION-MAKING ROLE PREFERENCES FOR
SUPERINTENDENTS AND SCHOOL TRUSTEES

by

John C. Cusack

B.Sc., University of Adelaide, 1954

A THESIS SUBMITTED IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF
THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF
MASTER OF ARTS (EDUCATION)

in the Faculty

of

Education

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ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study was to examine the perceptions of superintendents and school trustees for the preferred role of themselves and others in educational decision-making. The study was particularly appropriate because the roles of superintendent and school trustee in British Columbia are in a transitional phase as an increased number of school boards become eligible to employ their own superintendent. Other objectives of the study were to determine whether superintendent and trustee perceptions were related to the nature of the employment of the superintendent (board employed or ministry of education employed) and to a number of specific demographic variables.

A self-rating questionnaire modified from the Diedrich Decisional Influence Inventory was used. The questionnaire required respondents to indicate their ideal preferred level of influence for potential participants in making 30 educational decisions grouped into the following decisional areas: business management, curriculum and instruction, pupil personnel, school-community relations, personnel administration (administrators), personnel administration (teachers), pupil rules/organization, and school operations.

The sample consisted of 67 school superintendents in British Columbia and 132 school trustees, selected systematically by random sampling two from each school board in the province. Responses were obtained from 78% of the superintendents and 54% of school trustees. Data were analysed using t-tests, Pearson correlations and chi square tests of independence. The level of statistical significance used to test the hypotheses proposed was .05.

Significant differences were found between the perceptions of school trustees and superintendents for the decision-making role of the school board in all decisional areas except community relations and curriculum and

instruction. Perceptions of trustees and superintendents of the decision-making role of the superintendent were also found to be statistically different in most areas, the exceptions being curriculum and instruction and personnel administration. Superintendents indicated a preference for a higher level of influence for themselves than for school trustees in all areas except school-community relations and personnel administration (administrators). School trustees indicated a preference for a higher level of influence for themselves than for superintendents in business management, school-community relations and personnel administration (administrators).

Although a number of statistically significant differences were found between superintendent and school trustee perceptions of the preferred role for other groups and individuals, the general finding was that all other groups except the building principal were accorded a low level of influence in most areas of educational decision-making. A reasonably high level of influence was, however, ascribed to some groups in one or two decisional areas.

The relationship between superintendent and school trustee perceptions and a range of specific demographic variables was determined. The number of statistically significant results obtained was small leading to the general conclusion that demographic variables have little influence on the perceived ideal levels of influence for superintendents and school trustees in educational decision-making. Although some instances of statistically significant relationships were found, no strong relationships were established between perceptions of either superintendents or school trustees and the nature of the employer of the superintendent.

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

	<u>Page</u>
Approval	ii
Abstract	iii
Acknowledgements	v
Table of Contents	vi
List of Tables	ix
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Background	1
The Problem	2
Objectives	3
Significance of the Study	4
Limitations	4
Organization of the Thesis	5
II. BACKGROUND AND REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE	6
Local Governance of Education	6
School Boards and Superintendents - U.S.A.	8
School Boards and Superintendents - Canada	11
Changes in the Superintendency - British Columbia	13
Superintendent-School Board Relationships	16
The Nature of Conflict	16
Superintendent-School Board Conflict	19
The Situation in Canada	29
Politics and Participation in Decision-making	34
Rationale for the Study	42
Definition of Terms	44
Operational Definitions	45
Major Hypotheses	46

	<u>Page</u>
III. METHOD AND PROCEDURE	48
Population and Sample	48
Design	49
Instrumentation	50
Validity and Reliability	53
Procedure	54
Data Analysis	55
Characteristics of Respondents	55
Summary	59
IV. RESULTS	62
Comparison of Mean Responses of Superintendents	62
Influence of Participant Groups in Decision-making	62
Preferred Influence of Superintendents Within Decisional Areas	65
Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees	67
Influence of Participant Groups in Decision-making	67
Preferred Influence of School Trustees Within Decisional Areas	70
Summary	72
Role Perceptions and Decisional Influence	73
Preferred Roles for School Trustees and Superintendents	74
Preferred Role for Other Groups and Individuals	77
Preferred Roles and Superintendent Employer	93
Preferred Roles and Demographic Variables	98
Final Decision-Making Authority	109
Analysis of Responses	114
V. SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	117
Decisional Influence and Decision-making Authority	117
Decisional Influence and Demographic Variables	120

Comparison of Conclusions 124
Suggestions for Further Research 124

VI. APPENDICES

Appendix A: Permission to use Decisional Influence Inventory 126
Appendix B: Decisional Influence Inventory 128
Appendix C: Letter from Researcher to Superintendent and School Trustees 134
Appendix D: Letter from Director of Graduate Programs to School Trustees 136
Appendix E: Letter from Director of Graduate Programs to Superintendents 138
Appendix F: Follow-up Letter to Non-Respondents 140
Appendix G: Final Decision-making: Chi-Square Tests 142

VII. LIST OF REFERENCES AND BIBLIOGRAPHY

Reference Notes 147
List of References 148
Bibliography 156

LIST OF TABLES

	<u>Page</u>
1. Responses to Decisional Influence Inventory	57
2. Age of Respondents	57
3. Responses by School District Enrollment	58
4. Level of Formal Education of Respondents	59
5. Length of Experience of Respondents	60
6. Mean Responses of Superintendents for the Preferred Roles of Participants in Decision-making	63
7. Mean Responses of School Trustees for the Preferred Roles of Participants in Decision-making	68
8. Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees and Superintendents for the Preferred Role of the School Board in Decision-making	75
9. Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees and Superintendents for the Preferred Role of the Superintendent in Decision-making	76
10. Comparison of Mean Responses of Superintendents for the Preferred Roles of the School Board and Superintendent in Decision-making	78
11. Comparison of Mean Responses of the School Trustees for the Preferred Roles of the School Board and Superintendent in Decision-making	79
12. Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees and Superintendents for the Preferred Role of the Ministry of Education in Decision-making	81
13. Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees and Superintendents for the Preferred Role of the Secretary-Treasurer in Decision-making	82

	<u>Page</u>
14. Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees and Superintendents for the Preferred Role of Other Board Office Administrators in Decision-making	84
15. Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees and Superintendents for the Preferred Role of the Local Teachers Association in Decision-making	85
16. Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees and Superintendents for the Preferred Role of Community Groups in Decision-making	86
17. Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees and Superintendents for the Preferred Role of a School Council/Parent Teacher Association in Decision-making	87
18. Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees and Superintendents for the Preferred Role of the Building Principal in Decision-making	88
19. Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees and Superintendents for the Preferred Role of Teachers at Each School in Decision-making	90
20. Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees and Superintendents for the Preferred Role of Students at Each School in Decision-making	91
21. Summary of Significant Differences Between the Mean Responses of School Trustees and Superintendents for the Preferred Roles of Participants in Decision-making	92
22. Comparison of Mean Responses of School Board Employed and Ministry of Education Employed Superintendents for the Preferred Role of Superintendents in Decision-making	94

	<u>Page</u>
23. Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees (Board Employed Superintendent) and School Trustees (Ministry Employed Superintendent) for the Preferred Role of the School Board in Decision-making	96
24. Pearson Product Moment Correlations Between Mean Responses of Superintendents and School Trustees (Ministry Employed Superintendents) for the Preferred Roles of the Superintendent and School Board in Decision-making	97
25. Pearson Product Moment Correlations Between Mean Responses of Superintendents for the Preferred Role of the Superintendent in Decision-making and Specific Demographic Variables	99
26. Pearson Product Moment Correlations Between Mean Responses of School Trustees for the Preferred Role of the Superintendent in Decision-making and Specific Demographic Variables	100
27. Pearson Product Moment Correlations Between Mean Responses of Superintendents for the Preferred Role of the School Board in Decision-making and Specific Demographic Variables	102
28. Pearson Product Moment Correlations Between Mean Responses of School Trustees for the Preferred Role of the School Board in Decision-making and Specific Demographic Variables	103
29. Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees by Sex for the Preferred Role of the School Board in Decision-making	107

	<u>Page</u>
30. Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees by Sex for the Preferred Role of the Superin- tendent in Decision-making	108
31. Comparison of Mean Responses of Superintendents, Urban and Rural, for the Preferred Role of the Superintendent in Decision-making	110
32. Comparison of Mean Responses of Superintendents, Urban and Rural, for the Preferred Role of the School Board in Decision-making	111
33. Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees, Urban and Rural, for the Preferred Role of the Superintendent in Decision-making	112
34. Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees, Urban and Rural, for the Preferred Role of the School Board in Decision-making	113
35. Comparison of Percentage Responses of School Trustees and Superintendents for Final Decision-making Authority	115

Appendix G

36. Comparison of Percentage Responses of School Trustees and Superintendents for Final Decision-making Authority	143
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Chapter I

INTRODUCTION

The governance of education in North America is of considerable interest to writers and researchers. One characteristic of educational governance common to the United States and Canada is the nature and extent of local control. Although there are many similarities in the public school systems, there are also many differences attributable to the distinctive historical and cultural traditions of the two countries. In addition, although one can generalize to some extent in each country across state or provincial boundaries, there is considerable diversity within each country.

Background

School systems in North America in the 1960s were characterized by rapid growth in enrollments, student unrest, increased militancy amongst teachers, developing teacher professionalism, and increasing community apprehension about whether schools were achieving the intended goals (Cunningham, 1977; Marland, 1970; Mosher, 1977). Some of these movements appeared earlier and in greater intensity in the United States than in Canada.

Movement into the seventies brought with it a trend towards declining enrollments, increased expression of disenchantment, calls for a return to basics in education, cut-backs in funding and the expression of a desire for greater community or neighbourhood control of schools, particularly in large cities (Cistone, 1977a; Mosher, 1977). The process of collective bargaining between school boards and teacher unions has introduced a new and significant component into the decision-making process (Cheng, 1977).

The influence of state or provincial authorities is often quite significant and in recent years there has been an increased involvement in education by federal authorities, albeit through indirect methods of funding (Berke & Kirst, 1975; Hodgson, 1976; Wilson, Stamp & Audet, 1970). In U.S.A. in particular, decisions of the Supreme Court have had far-reaching implications on educational decision-making at the local level, particularly in cases involving civil rights, desegregation and affirmative action.

The Problem

Throughout all of these changes, the key actors have been the school board and the school superintendent. From one perspective, they share the responsibility for the provision of educational services in a school district and work in a partnership. From another perspective, they represent potentially conflicting interests -- lay versus professional -- for the control of the schools.

Educational governance and school board-superintendent relationships are topics which have generated considerable interest (Campbell & Mazzoni, 1976; Campbell, Cunningham & McPhee, 1965). Zeigler, Tucker and Wilson (1977b) maintain that the professionals have taken over control of educational governance from the public. Boyd (1975, 1976) contends that educational decision-making is too complex a process to be polarized in this way. A number of other writers (Cheng, 1977; Cistone, 1972, 1977a; Divoky, 1979) have suggested that the concept of bipartisan control is being challenged by teachers making a claim of expertise on one hand and by exercising strong interest group influence on the other. Although such questions have received most attention in the United States, they are of increasing interest in Canada (Coleman, 1974).

In British Columbia, the nature of the role of school superintendent has been undergoing change. Most school superintendents have been employed by the ministry of education and although some shift of perceived accountability of superintendents to school boards seems to have occurred, the dual nature of the role suggests that there could be a lack of congruence between the perceptions of differently appointed school superintendents of their role and that of the school board in decision-making. The opportunity existed for some data on these perceptions to be collected before a change was made to regulations, enabling a much larger proportion of superintendents to be employed by school boards instead of the ministry. The nature of the decision-making process in school districts is also subject to pressures for change as emergent interest groups are forcing the decision process to take on more of the characteristics of a political bargaining model. Differences in perception between superintendents and school board members of the roles various individuals and groups should ideally play in educational decision-making could become quite critical, given a change in the nature of the employment of the superintendent.

Objectives

The primary purpose of this study was to investigate whether or not there are significant differences in British Columbia between the preferred roles of school superintendents and members of boards of school trustees in decision-making. The study also attempted to determine whether these differences, if any, are related to whether the superintendent is an employee of the board or of the ministry of education.

A secondary purpose was to determine whether there are significant differences between the perceptions of school superintendents and school

trustees of the degree of influence other groups and individuals should have in decision-making.

Data were also collected to see if any significant relationships existed between the preferred roles in decision-making of both school superintendents and school trustees and specific demographic variables.

Significance of the Study

The significance of the study is that it will provide a better understanding of the potential for role conflict and role ambiguity in key positions in education. The study may also be of assistance to school boards in making a decision about the nature of employment appropriate for a school superintendent in particular districts. Finally, although there have been some studies in this area conducted in other provinces and in the United States, no recent study of perceptions of some aspects of the role of the school superintendent in British Columbia has been made. This study provides a basis from which a comparison with related studies may be made.

Limitations

The study is limited to British Columbia and there is no basis for extrapolating any results or conclusions beyond the province. The sample was not stratified on any demographic basis and because most school districts are small, the perceptions of superintendents and school trustees from small school districts may be over-represented.

A major assumption is that the decisional areas included in the study following a review of relevant literature really do constitute the major areas of concern in educational decision-making. Even if this assumption is correct, the results obtained cannot be extended to other areas of educational decision-making not investigated.

The study focusses on perceptions of ideal involvement in decision-making and therefore avoids possible discrepancies between what actually is and what is reported. The instrument used is a self-report questionnaire and this in itself imposes some limitations.

The perceptions of superintendents and school trustees were sought for the degree of influence of a number of individuals and groups in educational decision-making. The perceptions of these groups and individuals of the level of influence they would prefer to have were not sought and may well differ from those of the superintendents and school trustees.

Organization of the Thesis

In the first chapter, the background of the study is described and the objectives stated. Chapter II includes an outline of the development of local governance in North America followed by a review of literature pertaining to role conflict and ambiguity, with particular reference to relationships between superintendent and school board. The chapter concludes with a discussion of the politicization of the decision-making process. In Chapter III, the method and procedures used are described and the characteristics of the respondents reported. The results of the study are presented and analysed in Chapter IV and Chapter V is devoted to a summary and discussion of the results.

Chapter II

BACKGROUND AND REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

The development of local governance in North America is discussed as a background to an understanding of the recent changes to the superintendency in British Columbia. This is followed by a review of literature pertaining to superintendent-school board conflict and the additional potential for conflict generated more recently by trends towards greater politicization of education and expressed desires for wider participation in educational decision-making. Then follows a rationale for the study based largely on the literature review and the chapter concludes with a statement of the major hypotheses in the study.

Local Governance of Education

A review of literature on the role of the school superintendent and that of school boards tends to be heavily weighted by studies carried out in U.S.A. Although there are many similarities between the roles in U.S.A. and Canada and in the governance of education generally, there are sufficient differences to warrant caution in extrapolating conclusions from such studies into Canadian situations without due consideration of the different historical and cultural factors which have influenced the development of education.

Lipset (1968) has analysed the factors which have resulted in similarities and differences between the national character of the United States and Canada. He categorizes the United States as more achievement oriented, universalistic, egalitarian and self-oriented than Canada (p. 32), and ascribes the differences to three factors: the varying origins of their political systems and national identities, varying religious experiences and

different frontier experiences (p. 33). Thus, says Lipset,

the value orientations in English-speaking Canada stem from a counterrevolutionary past, a continuing need to differentiate itself from the United States, the influence of monarchical institutions, a dominant Anglican religious tradition, and a less individualistic and more governmentally controlled frontier expansion than was present on the American frontier (p. 33).

Lipset argues that Canadians show a greater respect than Americans for public authority and attributes this mainly to the influence of monarchical government. The lesser respect for public authorities in the United States is indicated by the extent to which public officials are elected to office rather than appointed. This has a considerable bearing on administrative practices and has undoubtedly contributed to the clearer identification of politics with administration than has occurred in Canada. Furthermore, the greater respect for government has resulted in a readier acceptance by Canadians of provincial control in areas considered as local matters in the United States. The maintenance of local control has been regarded as a treasured democratic right and can be traced back to the revolutionary history of the United States which achieved separation from Britain by fighting a war of independence.

Canada developed from colonial to dominion status by 1867 and although it became a fully self-governing nation in 1931, it still has constitutional links with Britain (Phillips, 1957, p. 174). The constitutional legality of federal and provincial government is determined by the British North America Act, an Act of the British parliament. Both U.S.A. and Canada developed a federation. In the United States, the powers of the federal government were embodied in the constitution and residual powers lie with the states. Education is not specifically included in the constitution and is, therefore,

a state responsibility (Campbell et al., 1965). In Canada, the powers of the federal government and the provinces are specified in the British North America Act and residual powers lie with the federal government (Katz, J., 1974, p. 25; Jacobs & Zink, 1966). Education is specifically designated as a provincial responsibility. It is noteworthy, however, that in both countries there has been a marked increase in the involvement of the federal government in education and this has had an effect on local decision-making in education (Hodgson, 1976; Zeigler, Tucker & Wilson, 1977a).

School Boards and Superintendents: U.S.A.

Public school education in U.S.A. has always been a state responsibility. According to Vlaanderen (1971), "the principle is well established that a local board of education is an agency of the state. Its officers are state, not county or municipal officers" (p. 7). However, the first appointments of superintendents were not established by constitution or statute, but relied on the implied authority of the board. Now, all but one state authorizes the position and stipulates various powers and duties (Vlaanderen, 1971, p. 21).

School districts are, in effect, extensions of state governments and, therefore, board members "owe allegiance to the state" (Campbell et al., 1965, p. 160). In practice, school board members are locally elected and must, therefore, be responsive to their constituencies. Under normal circumstances, the local role rather than state role tends to be dominant.

Early governance of schools was the responsibility of boards of education whose members performed all administrative tasks. Difficulties were experienced as population grew and urbanization increased. A partial solution was found by boards establishing standing committees specializing in some

aspect of administration but eventually it became clear that the appointment of a school superintendent was necessary to assist the lay boards. However, clear resolution of the respective functions did not occur and has been a continuing source of conflict (Griffiths, 1966, p. 8).

The first local superintendents were appointed in the latter part of the 1830s. It was not until some 30 years later, however, that the office became generally established in school district systems (Burbank, 1968). Griffiths (1966, p. 8) has identified three stages in the historical development of the superintendency up to 1965:

1. 1837 - 1910 ; institution oriented
2. 1910 - 1945 ; business oriented
3. 1945 - 1965 ; professional school administrator

The more recent period is probably best characterized by conflict resolution and coping with crises.

During the first phase, boards continued to be regarded as administrative bodies, assisted by the superintendent. As time passed, more and more boards designated the superintendent as executive officer; boards became smaller and standing committees less frequently used. A further development, arising from the so-called reform movement in municipal affairs, resulted in the election or appointment of board members at large rather than by wards. This led to a separation of the administration of schools from other municipal functions.

These changes reduced the abuse of political patronage, increased the visibility and authority of superintendents and increased the social distance between board members and the community. In effect, it caused a change in their role from that of a delegate to that of a trustee. Mann (1975b) describes a trustee as someone whose decisions are based on personal values even though

those being represented may disagree. On the other hand, a delegate is guided by expressed preferences of a constituency, even if this is contrary to the delegate's best judgment (p. 88). This period also saw a change in the orientation of the work of superintendents away from instruction and towards business management, finance and facilities and towards a concern with efficiency. Mosher (1977) notes that during this period

the part-time, non partisan school boards who embodied the reformist view of lay representation in educational management were, in the main, quite willing to assume a passive role and delegate policy planning and execution to their superintendents (p. 655).

In the third period identified by Griffiths, there was some movement away from the business executive approach as increased attention was given to the preparation and professional development of school administrators and as new social and economic circumstances impinged on the school systems. It was an era which included major curriculum projects, civil rights movements, teacher militancy, student unrest, a swing away from progressivism, an intense and critical interest of the public in education, increased federal involvement through funding and an explosive growth in student enrollments (Cistone, 1977a; Corwin, 1975; Mosher, 1977; Usdan, 1975). This era also includes the period of major school district consolidations, the number being reduced from 130,000 in 1930 to 100,000 in 1945, 37,000 in 1961, with the downward trend continuing and reaching 16,000 by 1977 (Griffiths, 1966, p. 35; Zeigler et al., 1977b, p. 534). This decline in numbers, the consequent increase in size of school districts and in complexity of administration, both during and after this third period, resulted in an increased demand for better trained administrators leading to a greater emphasis on credentialism and to enhanced status and authority for the superintendent. Zeigler et al. (1977b), keen protagonists of both local and lay control of schools, regard the development of the superin-

tendency as a major factor in the loss of lay control through the reduction in the number of the community actively involved, the reduced responsiveness of board members to their larger and more heterogeneous communities and to a progressive movement away from direct involvement in the administration of the schools (p. 534).

In spite of Zeigler's view of the dominance of the superintendent, there are other indications that the position is beset by tensions and is very vulnerable. The superintendency in America has been described by Mosher (1977) as a "profession in turbulence" and this view is supported by the recent high turnover rate. Statistics provided by Geisert (Note 1) show that for the six-year period, 1969-1975, the average tenure of the superintendent in twenty of the major U.S. city school systems was two years. Factors which may contribute to this situation are examined in more detail later in this chapter.

School Boards and Superintendents: Canada

Some notable differences between Canada and U.S.A. have emerged in the development of education and its governance. The existence of Quebec as a French colony prior to the defeat of the French by the British in 1763 and the continued existence of French culture in the confederation of Canada distinguishes Canada both culturally and in education. Firstly, it resulted in the principle of unity in diversity and the development of the Canadian mosaic rather than the essentially American melting pot approach to the assimilation of immigrants (Johnson, 1968). The same principle applied as other ethnic groups became established during various immigration phases, particularly in the prairie provinces. Secondly, partly arising out of the recognition of the religious rights of the French Catholics, the principle of separate schools and separate school districts supported by public funds was later established and applied in most of the eastern provinces and then in the prairies. This

was not achieved without much bitterness and undoubtedly influenced the decision to establish a specifically secular public school system in British Columbia by the time it was incorporated into the confederation in 1871.

Although early legislation (Common School Act, 1841) established a principle of local control by giving municipal councils the right to build schools and levy taxes (Johnson, 1968, p. 32), the development of provincial systems of education resulted in a highly centralized control of instruction (Wilson, Stamp & Audet, 1970). The credit for establishing this as a pattern in Canada is given to Egerton Ryerson, the architect of the Upper Canada school system. Thus, although Canadian provinces in general have local school boards, there is not the same degree of decentralization of control of instruction to be found in U.S.A. or Great Britain. As noted by Katz, M.B. (1972)

less hampered by an ideological defence of localism, the bureaucratic model could emerge in purer form in Ontario [and later in other provinces, particularly British Columbia] than in most places in America (p. 18).

By the time of confederation in 1867, both Lower Canada and Upper Canada had established dual systems of public and separate schools and the Atlantic colonies, except Newfoundland, had "well-established public school systems, two of which provided free common schooling for all" (Johnson, 1968, p. 57).

The relatively early establishment of the position of superintendent of schools in other than the very small school districts in U.S.A. introduced a professional educational component to local governance and limited, in many ways, the influence of state boards of education and that of their chief state school officer. In Canada, except for some school boards in larger cities, the general pattern was for local school boards to operate without this direct professional input. Supervision was achieved by a provincial education authority, initially through voluntary school visits and later through visits

of provincially appointed inspectors of schools (Phillips, 1957, p. 246). Gradually, the emphasis on inspection became less, more administrative duties were added, and closer relationships developed with school boards as consolidation of school districts progressed.

Using the term "superintendent" generically to include "inspectors" and "supervisors" (Newfoundland and Prince Edward Island), there were 750 "superintendents of schools" in Canada by 1956 with eighty-six percent employed by a provincial department of education (Flower & Stewart, 1958). The position of inspector of schools was renamed superintendent in Saskatchewan in 1939, New Brunswick in 1943 (Phillips, 1957, p. 250) and British Columbia in 1958. The general pattern throughout Canada by 1974 was for school districts other than small rural districts to employ a superintendent. (More recently, "Director of Education" in some provinces). Some provincial influence is exerted by provincial inspectors and ministry-employed regional superintendents (Monroe, 1974).

Changes in the Superintendency: British Columbia

British Columbia developed much later than eastern Canada. The colonies of Vancouver Island and British Columbia were amalgamated into the New British Columbia in 1866, one year before confederation. The Common School Ordinance of 1869 provided a grant towards a teacher's salary, and provided for the election of local boards but retained most control through the Governor-in-Council, setting a pattern which has prevailed until now. There has never been any doubt about provincial responsibility for education and the role of local school boards as instrumentalities of the province. The Public Schools Act is quite explicit in this regard: "The Minister, subject to the provisions of this Act . . . has charge of the maintenance and management of all Provincial schools established under this Act" (Section 6(b)).

As the province became settled, the number of school boards grew and was about 600 in the 1920s (Alexander, 1961). Effective control resided centrally and contact with individual schools and school boards was made sporadically by an itinerant force of provincial Inspectors of Schools. The Putnam-Weir Report (1925) drew attention to the inadequacy of so many small districts and an outcome was the establishment of a large administration unit on an experimental basis by abolishing 63 local boards. This paved the way for later consolidations.

Following the Cameron Report (1945), the number of school districts was reduced from 650 to 74 (Cameron Report, 1945, p. 88), and this later grew to 82 by 1960 (Chant, 1960, p. 56). A further recommendation from the Cameron Report was that the "Inspector of Schools should become an advisor to the Board in each district and Boards should have the right to appoint the inspector as an executive official of the Board" (Alexander, 1961, p. 4).

The net effect of consolidation and the changed duties of the Inspector of Schools resulted in the need for almost daily contact with the school board and an increase in administration duties (McLellan, 1961). This change in role was eventually recognized by a change in title in 1958 from Inspector of Schools to District Superintendent of Schools, as noted previously. Another change had also become evident. The closer working relationships between the inspector and the school board resulted in an orientation in attitude from largely ministry to local. This increased after 1955 when provision was made for a district superintendent to become executive officer of the board (Graham, 1961). Boards also became involved in the process of selection of new appointees by making a recommendation from a list of applicants forwarded by the ministry. This process also tended to emphasize the district rather than the provincial nature of the appointment. Except for the Vancouver School District,

however, all appointments were made by the ministry of education and the superintendents were civil servants employed by the ministry. Following a change in government in 1973, the Public Schools Act (1958, Section 12) and Regulations (Regulation 11A) were amended resulting in provision being made for boards of school districts with an enrolment exceeding 20,000 to appoint a superintendent of schools in lieu of a ministry appointed district superintendent. Six districts became eligible and the boards opted to make such appointments.

A further development occurred in July, 1979, when Regulation 11A was amended to make the minimum enrolment 4,000. A stated aim of this change was to give school boards greater scope in selecting a superintendent than existed previously (Hansard, 1979, p. 641). The change was supported by the B.C. School Trustees Association, the B.C. Teachers Federation and the Association of B.C. School Superintendents (Ministry of Education, Note 2).

Almost simultaneously, amendments made to the Public Schools Act prescribed that new appointments of Superintendents of Schools by boards be made under term contracts (three - five years) and made provision for a superintendent whose contract is not renewed to be offered a teaching or supervisory position in the district (Education Statutes Amendment Act, 1979, Pt. 15).

The position of school superintendent in British Columbia has a much shorter history and a different genealogy from its counterpart in U.S.A. The decision to allow more school boards to select and employ their own superintendents may mean that the position of school superintendent will acquire more of the characteristics of the American model. One additional difference should be noted. In the evolution of the U.S. school superintendency, the period when there was an emphasis on business management and efficiency resulted in unitary control being established and the superintendent in most districts

became the chief executive officer (Campbell et al., 1965, p. 191). In Canada in general, however, and in British Columbia in particular, the normal practice has been for a school board to appoint a secretary-treasurer, one of whose roles has been business management. The position is established with statutory authority and the secretary-treasurer has always been employed by the school board. In most school districts, a system of dual control has operated since the district superintendent has not been an employee of the board. School districts which exceeded the previous minimum enrolment of 20,000 have had the option of unitary or dual control. Only four of the seven districts in this category (June, 1979) had established the superintendent as chief executive officer. The secretary-treasurer, therefore, emerges as a potentially significant factor in influencing the process of decision-making and in becoming involved in conflict situations.

Superintendent - School Board Relationships

The Nature of Conflict

Conflict is a term which occurs frequently in literature on management and, with regard to this study, in relation to the role of the school superintendent. Overt conflict can be said to occur when two or more groups move beyond certain socially accepted norms of resolving disagreements (Weeres, 1971, p. 2). In a broader sense, it occurs in society at large and, according to Weeres, "conflict is endemic to the political processes of democracy" (p. 1). It is regarded as necessary at times to ensure that an organization fulfills its goals or that a government becomes more responsive to the electorate.

A great deal of conflict is, however, not expressed openly but may be detected through a high turnover rate, absenteeism, hostile attitudes, lack

of cooperation or other low-key signs of discontent.

If one regards a school district as a social system, the model of educational administration as a social process developed by Getzels and Guba (1957) can be used to conceptualize conflict in terms of interactions between institutions and individuals.

Associated with the institutions are roles and expectations which are determined by the goals of the system. Individuals have their own personalities and need-dispositions and interactions between these constitute social behaviour. The model, therefore, has two dimensions; a nomothetic or normative dimension, defined by the institutions of the social system, and an ideographic or individual dimension, defined by the individuals. Since the institutions are normative and define the roles, the roles determine, at least to a large degree, the role expectations upon the actor in the role. Roles are, therefore, identified more with positions than with persons and are regarded as "institutional givens" (Getzels and Guba, 1957, p. 426). Furthermore, roles are regarded as complementary and interdependent. It would, for example, clearly be impossible to define the role of a school superintendent without defining the role of school board members.

Using this model, it is possible to identify both institutional and individual conflict. Both of these impinge on the roles of school superintendent and school board member. Conflict can theoretically occur within the nomothetic dimension and such an incongruity is represented by role conflict which occurs "whenever a role incumbent is required to conform simultaneously to a number of expectations which are mutually exclusive, contradictory or inconsistent" (Getzels, 1958, p. 161). Personality conflict can also occur within the ideographic dimension as a result of opposing needs and dispositions within the individual. Finally, it is possible for role - personality

conflict to occur and this is represented by incongruence between the nomothetic and ideographic dimensions.

This approach by Getzels and Guba is consonant with that used by Gross, Mason & McEachern (1958) in their study of the role of the school superintendent. Gross et al (1958) define a role as "a set of expectations . . . a set of evaluative standards applied to an incumbent of a particular position" (p. 60). The authors further point out that this definition enables the concept to be used "in analysis in which the incumbents of the position . . . are definers of the role" (p. 61). Such is the case in this study.

In a later study, Rizzo, House and Lirtzman (1970) analysed role conflict and role ambiguity in complex organizations. In a situation where an employee receives orders from more than one superior, violating the principle of single accountability and role theory, one can expect role conflict and its associated reduction in organizational effectiveness and personal satisfaction. A number of studies are cited which indicate that "professionals in such situations experience stress as a result of being caught in the middle" (Rizzo et al., 1970, p. 151). Rizzo et al. found that accountability to one superior reduced inconsistent expectations and resulted in less role conflict.

Role ambiguity is another aspect of role theory which the literature suggests can have an effect on performance and satisfaction (Lyons, 1971; Rizzo et al., 1970; Rogers & Molnar, 1976). Some uncertainty exists, however, about the direction of the effect. Role ambiguity can occur if the incumbent lacks or feels a lack of adequate role relevant information, particularly as a result of a restriction of information or uncertainty about the quality of the information (Lyons, 1971).

Further refinement of the concept of role conflict was provided by Kahn,

Wolfe, Quinn, Spock & Rosenthal (1964, pp. 19-20) in identifying four inter-related aspects:

- (1) person-role conflict when role requirements are inconsistent with personal values of the incumbent;
- (2) inter-role conflict, in which a person has two or more roles simultaneously;
- (3) inter-sender conflict when inconsistent pressures are applied by two or more role senders; and
- (4) intra-sender conflict when inconsistent demands are made on the incumbent by a single member of the role set.

Person-role conflict could occur either for superintendents or for school board members but is not of significance in this study. The other three types of conflict, however, are all potentially applicable to superintendents in particular, but may also affect school board members.

Superintendent - School Board Conflict

Gross (1958) drew attention to some of the problems experienced by superintendents in working with school boards and in providing effective educational leadership. The study indicated that both role conflict and role ambiguity existed and clearer statements of the rights and obligations of both superintendents and school board members were needed. Gross noted that

these data strongly suggest that in many school systems superintendents and school boards do not agree on the crucial problem of who is supposed to do what, on what is policy making and what is administration (p. 125).

This, however, tends to be an over-simplified view of a complex situation.

A lack of consensus or even overt conflict often leads to a desire to replace the superintendent. Carlson (1972) carried out a series of secondary analyses of data collected in a number of studies of superintendents. He concluded from demographic characteristics of superintendents in the United States "that the superintendency constitutes a relatively open elite" (p. 35). Few barriers for entry into the position were found. As Carlson points out, however, the superintendency "also appears to be one elite from which many exit" (p. 37), a statement based on reports of losses from the position into other fields. The position is also characterized by a considerable degree of mobility, often reflecting the result of intense conflict situations.

Carlson's major thesis is in distinguishing between career-bound and place-bound superintendents and in establishing the relationship between these types and executive succession. According to Carlson, the career-bound superintendent aims high early in his career in education, is active professionally and pursues prestigious graduate training early. Typically, the place-bound superintendent develops his ambitions later and these often develop only as opportunity arises. He is less active in pursuing his studies and professional interests and less concerned about where he does his graduate study. The career-bound superintendent is more progressive in his educational views and less satisfied in his job than the place-bound superintendent (p. 65).

This categorization of superintendents becomes important when the question of succession arises. The superintendency in the United States appears to have a typical life history. Often the appointment has been made because of a lack of satisfaction with a predecessor or his achievements

and is associated with the election of a new school board. At first there is a honeymoon period but eventually some dissatisfaction arises and conflicts emerge. Satisfaction progressively decreases, opposition increases and the search for a successor begins anew. Carlson's study indicates that in these circumstances, the appointment will be given to a career-bound superintendent. On the other hand, when it becomes necessary for a superintendent to be replaced and no major dissatisfaction has arisen, an appointment of either type will be made. Carlson postulates that the outcomes for a school district can be predicted on a knowledge of the origins of the successor.

If the school board chooses a successor from within the containing organization, the central tendency of his performance will be to stabilize what exists; if the school board reaches outside the containing school system for a successor, the central tendency of his performance will be to alter what exists (p. 157).

Thus, a rather extreme mechanism for the resolution of conflict between a superintendent and a school board, but one which appears to occur on an episodic basis, lies in the succession process, a process which Lutz and Iannaccone (1978) consider to be unnecessarily traumatic.

Harris (1970) compared school board member and superintendent perceptions in Colorado for selected tasks and decisions, using a self-report questionnaire. Role conflict was indicated in areas which included, inter alia, developing budget priorities, provision of special services, teacher evaluation and professional staff appointments and dismissals. The study showed a propensity for older board members to expect superintendent dominance in decision-making. Superintendents in larger districts

expected less direction in discretionary matters than superintendents in smaller districts. Younger superintendents perceived more superintendent dominance in relation to physical facilities, indicating conflict with board member expectations in this area. Length of service as a superintendent had no effect on any variable.

A study of school committee member and superintendent perceptions of roles, responsibilities and relationships (Lynch, 1976) in Massachusetts indicated a lack of congruence of perceptions regarding hiring of personnel below the rank of assistant superintendent, involvement of middle management in the administrative team, long-range planning, personnel evaluation and parent and community relations.

Overfield (1970) conducted a survey of Missouri's 924 superintendents and board of education perceptions of actual and ideal involvement in policy execution tasks. The conclusions of the study were as follows:

1. Board of education members are more involved in policy execution functions than is generally recommended by writers in the field of educational administration.
2. Generally, there is an inverse relationship between the degree of school board members' participation in policy-execution functions and the size of the school district.
3. Generally, board of education presidents perceive that school board members are functioning and should be functioning in policy-execution functions to a greater degree than superintendents perceive the involvement.
4. Generally, superintendents and board of education presidents perceive that school board members should become involved in policy-execution functions more than they are at present.
5. Generally, superintendents and board of education presidents view school board members' role to be greatest in the task area of school buildings and construction (p. 3834).

Pabian (1971) based a study of the perceptions of superintendent and presidents of boards of education for the role of the New Jersey superintendent on the questionnaire developed by Gross (1958). The conclusions of the study as reported by Pabian (1971) were:

1. There was a lack of consensus between superintendents and board presidents in New Jersey regarding the perception of the role of the New Jersey superintendent of schools with superintendents perceiving the role as endowed with more authority than did board presidents.
2. Superintendents and board presidents in New Jersey approached consensus concerning the division of responsibility in the areas of textbook selection, instructional policy, plant maintenance and attendance regulations.
3. Superintendents and board presidents in New Jersey lacked consensus concerning the division of responsibility in public relations, budget preparation, policy initiation and teacher salary negotiations.
4. Neither age, experience nor educational level of the respondent had an influence on the perception of either role by either respondent group.
5. There was a greater tendency toward consensus as to role between board presidents and superintendents revealed in this study than was reported by Gross et al. in Massachusetts (p. 2969)

There have been suggestions (Scott, 1976) that the position in U.S.A. has declined in status, is fraught with insurmountable problems and even requires legislative action for the assignment of superintendent and board responsibilities. Cunningham (1977) claims that "the demands and challenges (of urban superintendency) seem almost unmanageable" (p. 112). This view is supported by Nolte (cited in McGhehey, 1971), who states that

the present confusion as to the precise legal nature of the position tends to produce misunderstandings within the school staff, lack of public understanding, hinders educational innovation and creates confusion and divisiveness in professional negotiations (p. 67).

Downey (1976) drew attention to some ambiguities in the legal status of school superintendents in Alberta and a number of these have since been resolved. Recent changes to the superintendency in British Columbia may well result in the development of similar ambiguities.

Knezevich (1969) refers to a review by James of doctoral dissertations which, inter alia, examined school board - superintendent conflict and in which James concluded that "conflicts are inevitable and therefore one mark of a vigorous and healthy school board is successful management of conflict" (p. 231). Knezevich, however, acknowledges that the consolidation of very small districts into larger units, the emergence of the superintendent as the chief executive officer and "the increasing complexity of public education . . . makes it more important than ever to provide an adequate legal basis for the superintendency in public education." He goes on to call for "recodification of statutes dealing with public education and the determination therein of the status, authority and responsibility of superintendents of schools in public education" (p. 238).

McGhehey (1971) refers to the vagueness of the legal status of the superintendency in U.S.A. and suggests this is a contributing factor to instability in the position. Vlaanderen (1971) is much more specific: "Before a lay board makes an educational decision it should hear a recommendation from the educator it has chosen for its executive officer: state laws should so require" and, further, "decisions which are purely professional in nature should be reserved for professionals" (pp. 49-50). In view of the difficulties

which have been experienced in distinguishing between administration and policy, one wonders about the practicality of such a suggestion. As Campbell et al. (1965) have stated,

the interaction between executive and policy maker is so intricate in the policy forming stage as well as in the policy implementing stage that it is hopeless to separate these functions in practice (p. 182).

As Zeigler (1976) points out, part of the difficulty with the superintendent - school board relationship stems from an adherence to a traditional democratic theory in which the school board, as an elected group, is a policy making body and the superintendent is employed to administer policy. Mann (1975a) also refers to the separation of the roles of the board of education and that of the superintendent. For the former, the role is to formulate policies for the school system; for the latter, it is to put the policies into practice, a distinction made by Davies (1951) and one which is being increasingly questioned.

Zeigler (1976) suggests that there are some indications that in reality, the situation is more akin to the technological model of decision-making in which the key roles are filled by the expert professionals rather than the elected lay persons. This view was reinforced by a 1974-1975 study of school districts. On the basis of another study by Zeigler and Jennings, Zeigler, Tucker and Wilson (1977a) concluded that

superintendents are the dominant actors in educational decision-making and that their decisions are only occasionally made within a context of community participation through interest groups (p. 223).

A later detailed observational study of eleven public school districts in U.S.A. and Canada showed variation in the participation of superintendents in decision-making but still indicated that the superintendent, at least during board meetings, played the key role in decision making. Although not subscribing

to the view, Boyd (1976) reports that a conclusion from the Zeigler-Jennings study was "for the most part, school boards do not govern but merely legitimize the policy recommendations of the superintendents" (p. 542). This function of legitimating policies rather than representing the community, had previously been identified by Kerr (1964).

Cooper (1973), in describing the development of the superintendency and in arguing for independent board staff as a means of combating the dominance of the superintendent, notes that the superintendency "has been characterized by sustained increases in prestige and influence" (p. 2). He compares this with the essentially unchanged status of the school board with the inevitable consequence that

the board is almost totally dependent on the data gathered, interpreted and presented by central office personnel, on alternatives and priorities established by them, and on their specific policy recommendations (p. 2).

The superintendent is pictured by some, according to Boyd (1976), as a "beleaguered public official, typically beset from all sides, constantly facing conflictual situations" (p. 541). Adding to these pressures has been the trend in U.S.A. to increasing centralization of authority over educational policy and the increasing influence of the natural teachers' union. Somewhat cynically, Boyd (1979) comments that "one thing, at least, that will be left to manage is conflict" (p. 282).

Some years earlier, Hencley (1960) had drawn attention to the emphasis in research on the relationships between the superintendent and the board and with the administrative staff to the neglect of the superintendent's perception of other referent groups in the broader social context. He identified three types of reference groups; intraorganizational, extra-organizational and interstitial. His study showed that a number of different

types of conflict occurred between superintendents and others. Most conflict was attributed to three main types:

- (1) expected and actual conflict, when there was a significant difference between the superintendents' views and their perceptions of the views of others;
 - (2) unexpected conflict, when superintendents thought that there were no significant differences between their views and those of others when such differences did exist; and
 - (3) expected but imagined conflict in which the superintendents' expectations and their perceptions of the expectations of others were significantly different.
- These three types of conflicts accounted for 82 percent of the identified conflict, and of this, 62 percent was attributed to misperception of other's opinions and value positions. While recognizing that "it is probably both normal and desirable that some conflict should exist" (Hencley, 1960, p. 4), a view expressed by a number of writers, Hencley considers that the effectiveness and efficiency of superintendents would be increased if more were known about the apparent high incidence of conflict and ways found to alter the conflict patterns.

Lipham, Gregg and Rossmiller (1969) carried out a study of a school board as an agency for resolving conflict. The study used as a base the Getzel's model of administration as a social process and the school board was regarded as having an interstitial position between the school system and society, with particular reference to the allocation of resources. The study suggested that avoidance of conflict was not necessarily in the best interests of schools and that "some conflict may be essential if progress is to be made" (p. 4). Collective negotiations were seen to have some positive

value by in effect forcing school boards to be more effective in their mediator function.

Wright (1977) replicated in New Jersey the Lynch study (1976) in Massachusetts, examining perceived roles, responsibilities and relationships of school board members and superintendents with regard to clusters of role activity which included community relations and interaction between superintendents and the school board. Again there were indications of conflicting role expectations between the groups responsible for school governance.

Wright concluded that

- (1) there was encroachment by school board members on the administrative functions of the superintendent and in the day-to-day operations of schools;
- (2) there was concern by school board members with the involvement of citizens and community groups in the formation of policy; and
- (3) contrary to the findings of many other studies, concern about financial matters was not considered by other groups of respondents to be a major problem.

Diedrich (1978) conducted a study in Michigan of the perceptions of superintendents and school board members of their preferred roles. The instrument developed by Diedrich for his study is used in this study, enabling the Diedrich study to be largely replicated as well as allowing for the collection of additional data to test some hypotheses peculiar to educational governance in British Columbia. The conclusions from the Diedrich study therefore are particularly relevant to this study.

Diedrich reported twenty-six major findings of which "those having the most significant implications for educational decision-making role relationships" were

1. Board members and superintendents agreed that the board of education should be more influential than any other individuals or groups in making decisions related to School - Community Relations.
2. Board members and superintendents agreed that the local teachers' association . . . should play only minor roles in making . . . decisions.
3. Board members and superintendents agreed that while building principals should have substantial involvement in a majority of decisions, [they] should play minor roles in deciding on matters associated with Personnel Administration - Administrators.
4. Board members consistently preferred greater decisional influence for the superintendent in making educational decisions than the superintendents desired.
5. Superintendents consistently preferred less decisional influence for the board of education than did board members.
6. Board members tended to prefer a centralized school district decision-making structure with greater involvement of the administrative and teaching staffs than the superintendents desired.
7. Superintendents preferred a more decentralized school district decision-making structure with greater involvement of the administrative and teaching staffs than the board members desired.
8. The greatest number of substantive differences between the decision-making role preferences of board members and superintendents occurred in the areas of Business Management and Curriculum and Instruction.
9. Only the demographic variable of district size was found to have a substantial relationship with the amount of decision-making influence respondents preferred for each other. Board members from larger school districts preferred less involvement of the superintendent in decisions associated with teacher personnel issues and School Operations than did board members from small school systems. Superintendents from larger school districts preferred less involvement of the board of education in administrative personnel decisions than did superintendents from smaller school districts (p. 3258).

The Situation in Canada

The literature reviewed to this point has been concerned, in the main, with superintendent - school board relationships in U.S. school districts.

As noted earlier, superintendent and school board roles in Canada differ somewhat from those in the United States. Firstly, the degree of centralization of control as expressed through the provincial ministries of education has traditionally been much greater than in most of the states. In general, the movement towards local employment of superintendents has been relatively recent and in British Columbia it will be some time before this effect can be assessed. Secondly, a general pattern has been to maintain a dual system of administration within a school district by requiring the secretary-treasurer to report directly to the board and not to the superintendent.

The superintendent-school board relationship has received some attention in Canada. Charlton (1972), in emphasizing the essentially political nature of the position of a school trustee, indicated a willingness to move away from the harmony model and to recognize that there would also be some degree of conflict but claimed that this in itself should not prevent cooperation between a school board and its officials.

Gannon (1973) investigated the role of the superintendent in Alberta following the change in 1970 from provincially appointed to locally appointed superintendents. The instrument used was a questionnaire which sought responses from superintendents and school board chairmen of their perceptions of the role of the superintendent with regard to specified administrative duties. Conclusions reached were:

1. A significant lack of agreement existed among superintendents, board chairmen and specialists as to what the desired role of the school superintendent should be, especially in the areas of pupil personnel, physical facilities, finance and business management.
2. A significant lack of agreement existed between superintendents with less than two years experience as superintendent and superintendents with two or more years of experience as superintendent,

as to what the desired role of the superintendent should be, especially in the areas of pupil personnel and physical facilities.

3. In general, specialists, and to a lesser extent superintendents, desired greater responsibility for the superintendent than did the board chairmen.
4. Superintendents should act in at least an advisory capacity for all administrative duties.
5. Superintendents should be assigned greater responsibility in the areas of curriculum and instruction and school-community relations.
6. Superintendents should be assigned the least responsibility in matters pertaining to non-professional staff and salary negotiations (p. 3750).

A study by Lall (1968) in Saskatchewan indicated differences in the perceptions of different referent groups for the role of the school superintendent. The referent groups were superintendents, principals, teachers and board members. Of particular interest was the extent of the difference in expectations by respondents from urban and rural districts. These respondents and those with an educational level at or beyond master's level were more supportive of the superintendent role than other referent groups.

A study of trustees views on the role of the superintendent in British Columbia (Armstrong and Kratzmann, 1974) indicated a very high correlation between the way the role of the superintendent in seven designated areas was perceived in the now and in the should be. It also suggested a small trend toward limiting the authority of the superintendent. However, the study did not attempt to determine the superintendents' perception of their own role.

Hickcox (1974) has drawn attention to the increased power of administrators in school systems in Ontario as a result of increased size and complexity of the systems. Increased militancy of teacher unions and a trend towards centralizing of decision-making for major funding is seen to have reduced the importance of the role of the trustee. Hickcox argues for "a

sharper delineation of the function of trustees in larger units of administration and a clear statement of the powers of the local boards" (p. 35). He refers to the problem of a superintendent who is an employee of the board and an appointee of the department (of education) as "a classic case of role conflict" and suggests some ways in which the importance of the role of the trustee could be restored and a better balance of power obtained. This dual role for district superintendents was a characteristic of most positions of school superintendent in British Columbia at the time the data for this study were collected.

A research project of particular relevance to this study was an inquiry into the school superintendency in Alberta (Downey, 1976). Until 1971, superintendents in Alberta were officers of the department of education. During the 1960's, permissive legislation allowed local appointments to be made but this meant an increased financial burden on school districts. In 1970, a new School Act mandated all school districts to employ their own superintendent. Some problems were experienced during the transition to a more decentralized control of schools through locally employed superintendents. A request was made by the Superintendent's Association for the Department of Education to undertake a study and this resulted in the Downey Report. The task of the inquiry was to examine the superintendent role from 1971-1975 and its objectives were:

- (i) to describe the real role(s) and position(s) of the Alberta superintendent -- in terms of the perceptions of various reference groups (including the superintendents themselves);
- (ii) to identify the ideal role(s) and position(s) -- again in terms of various reference groups' perceptions;
- (iii) to assess the discrepancies between the real and the ideal -- as so identified; and
- (iv) to draw implications from these discrepancies for future policy and action.

Part of the study involved seeking responses to a questionnaire which, inter alia, sought information from a wide range of respondents (superintendents, school trustees, school administrators, secretary-treasurers, teachers) on who should be responsible and who should exert most influence in decision-making in the following areas:

- (1) staff
- (2) school equipment and supplies
- (3) budget
- (4) school operation
- (5) policy

The findings were that the school board has and should have major decision-making responsibility with regard to budget, staff and policy. The superintendent was seen to have and should have "the most influence in practically all categories of the decision-making process" (p. 17). In general, it was thought that principals should have more influence in all categories than they were perceived to have.

Some of the conclusions which emerged from the inquiry as a whole were:

- (1) The ambiguities in the legislation and regulations related to the change-over, along with certain lingering traditions and perceptions of the past, have created uncertainty as to the legal status of the superintendent.
- (2) Some lingering role conflicts have flared up under the new arrangements.
- (3) The new arrangements have created a new burden of conflicting expectations for the superintendent.
- (4) Conflicting images of the educational leader (educational statesman vs. business executive) have emerged -- with various reference groups adopting one or other image and holding corresponding expectations.

Downey contends that the change in the position of the Alberta superintendent resulted in a movement "from role clarity to role misperception and role conflict" (p. 23). He points to an increase in role conflict in the relationship between superintendent and secretary-treasurer and the emergence of conflicting expectations regarding the superintendent's relationship with the Department of Education, compounded by some legal constraints on the superintendent to perform some functions on behalf of the provincial authority and to provide a link between it and the school district.

It is not surprising, therefore, that Schott (1977) uses the Alberta experience to argue for the return in that province to the situation in which, in general, the school superintendent is provincially appointed and is then able to provide educational leadership "unhampered by conflicting local pressures and the whims of capricious boards of trustees" (p. 23).

Thus, there are indications in the literature of a lack of clarity in school superintendent and school board member roles and suggestions of some role conflict and role ambiguity, particularly with regard to the process of decision-making.

Politics and Participation in Decision-Making

The previous discussion has tended to assume that superintendent - school board interactions and the processes of decision-making occur in isolation from social and political forces in the community. During the last thirty years there has been an increased interest shown in the process of decision-making in education and the "apolitical myth" has come under challenge (Eliot, 1959; Campbell, Cunningham & McPhee, 1965; Gross, 1958; Sayre, 1963; Wirt & Kirst, 1975; Zeigler, Tucker & Wilson, 1977a). Politics came to be viewed less in partisan terms and more as "the set of interactions that influence and shape the authoritative allocation of values" (Scribner &

Englert, 1977, p. 22). The political and social climate of the sixties resulted in moves for increased participation in school governance (Mann, 1977; Zeigler, Tucker & Wilson, 1977a). Mann identifies a movement over time from direct democracy, based on widespread individual participation in lay school boards elected in small cohesive communities to polyarchal democracy in which issues are decided by elites and constituencies have periodic opportunities to replace elites. Under these circumstances the nature of representation becomes important. Ideally, the representative's actions should be in the interests of the community and the representative should be responsive to the community. Mann claims that

studies of school boards indicate that boards are in fact rather insulated from the communication of interests from much of their diverse constituency and boards themselves are not much inclined to translate the representational responsibilities into attempts to control schools. Large parts of the task of representing the wishes and welfare of the public thus fell to professional educators, especially school administrators (p. 91).

In similar vein, Zeigler (1972) had earlier considered it probable "that school boards are somewhat more acquiescent than are other public bodies in their relations with administrative officers" (p. 172). This view is reinforced by the conclusion of Zeigler, Tucker & Wilson (1977a). Their later observational study of communication and decision-making at school board meetings showed a very high level of concurrence between the voting behaviour of the school board and the stated position of the superintendent on policy issues.

This suggests that superintendents are very much aware that "influencing processes are essential for the improvement of education and also for overcoming efforts to thwart changes" (Friesen, 1975, p. 4), and that a superintendent's activities are inextricably involved with political behaviour,

defined as "any activity concerned with the competition between and among individuals over the control of policy and decision-making" (Kirby, 1971, p. 2).

Nunnery and Kimbrough (1971) leave one in no doubt where they stand. They consider that school men have "a moral obligation to thrust themselves into political action" (p. iii), and provide a guide for both understanding and becoming involved in the politics of education at a local level. Pitman (1972), in discussing political aspects of school governance makes it clear that school board members' concerns about education are essentially political.

Boyd (1976), in a comprehensive review of studies on school governance, analysed arguments for competing views of the real wielders of power. An earlier view that control was vested in the dominant social class was replaced with the view that professional educators were in control and community elected school boards merely rubber stamped. This view is supported by Zeigler et al. (1977a) and Kerr (1964). However, according to Boyd (1975), a number of other studies (Iannaccone & Lutz, 1970; McCarty & Ramsey, 1971) have shown that the situation is far more complex and involves many more variables, including the type of school district -- size, degree of urbanism, heterogeneity and socio-economic status -- and the type of issue. This suggests that although "educators tend to dominate local educational policy-making, they usually operate within significant, and generally neglected or underestimated, constraints imposed by the local community and school board -- not to mention those imposed by state and national forces" (Boyd, 1976, p. 572). Furthermore

the local citizenry and board will tend to have more influence in external, redistributive and strategic policy decisions and in smaller and more homogeneous communities where the professionals tend to anticipate or reflect (especially in middle and upper

class communities) community demands. The professionals, on the other hand, will tend to have more influence in internal and routine policy decisions, and in larger and more heterogeneous communities (pp. 572-573).

Coleman (1977) suggests that educational organizations have lost some of their hierarchical structure and that rather than influence being the prerogative of an elite, usually considered to be a professional one, there has been increased emphasis on representation in recent years. This, says Coleman, has resulted in a trend towards the diffusion of influence with the following consequences:

1. Conflict, and consultative modes of operation, become increasingly important features of educational decision-making.
2. Senior administrators increasingly feel powerless.
3. Frustration increases amongst laymen since everyone feels powerless (p. 81).

Coleman sees this increased influence diffusion creating a different kind of decision-making which in many ways parallels the Peterson and Williams (1972) model of a school board as an arena for political bargaining. In this model three types of bargaining are identified.

- (1) democratic bargaining in which the decision makers aim for coalitions or compromises which will satisfy the majority;
- (2) pluralist bargaining which attempts to satisfy competing interests, even against majority opinion;
- (3) ideological bargaining in which decisions are reached in accord with an individual's own set of values and beliefs

It is likely that school boards operate in all three of these modes from time to time, depending on the nature of the community and the issue.

A model of decision-making which assumes power diffusion is based on participation, conflict and compromise and has implications for both trustees

and administrators. As Coleman has pointed out, it lends support to the Lutz model of the school board as a meta-mediator defined as follows:

A meta-mediator is a decision-making system that processes all competing demands, organizes, reorganizes, modifies, generalizes, illuminates and emphasizes and in general re-shapes these demands into an operational decision involving, usually, the distribution of limited resources (cited in Coleman, 1977, p. 84).

Talcott Parsons (1958) has also written of the function of a board (not only a school board) as "a mediating structure between the affairs of an organization at the managerial level and its 'public' " (p. 48).

This view of decision-making implies that trustees need to determine the values and preferences of their constituents (Coleman, 1977, p. 85) and indicates a movement of the role of a school board member away from the trustee or independent view towards that of a delegate view of representation.

Some years ago, Gross (1958) suggested that there was a need for school systems to create avenues through which citizens could more effectively express their concerns, other than through the ballot box or by being perceived as attempting to put pressure on either the superintendent or the board (p. 146).

Zeigler and Jennings (1974) noted a difference between the perceptions of the public and school board members concerning the nature of the representation by school board members. The school board members were far more disposed towards the trustee style than the public, possibly indicating a change in attitude of board members towards those of their more experienced colleagues as a result of the socialization process (Cistone, 1977; Lutz & Iannaccone, 1978).

A study in California by Talmage and Ornstein (1976) attempted to assess attitudes of superintendents towards broadly based community participation in decision-making. The study indicated that superintendents "are not opposed

to some form of community participation but are more favorable to community advisement than to community control" (p. 44), and that this is regarded more favorably on curriculum and school finance issues. Community control over personnel issues received least support from superintendents.

Within a school system itself, conflict arises from time to time between the school and community, the school system and community, school and students, school board and teachers, school and ethnic groups. Lawrence (1978) has shown that size of the system is a contributing factor in generating organizational conflict and some very large city school systems (New York, Chicago) have experimented with ways to reduce effective size and to create conflict regulatory mechanisms (Weeres, 1971). Such changes have implications for school superintendents and school board members. Movement towards increased participation by community groups results in demands for changes in the power structure and for involvement in the decision-making process. Weeres suggests that these moves are likely to be opposed in general by teachers at the individual school level but more particularly at the school district level by teacher organizations which have made increasing gains in this area themselves. They can be expected to be reluctant to lose their hard-won influence or to willingly share the stage with others. Weeres also suggests that an effect of increased participation by community groups would be more demands for greater autonomy at the building principal level.

Larsen (1973) in discussing accountability through lay and professional groups, implies that a clarification of board and superintendent roles can occur by broadening the base for decision-making, not only at the system level, but at the school level as well.

Zeigler (1972) suggests that although the public may support greater involvement of teachers in decision-making, this view is not supported by

school board members and superintendents. Even less support from all three groups is predicated for student involvement.

Participation of course cannot be considered in isolation from autonomy. Williams (1973) has developed a conceptual model for analysing the basis of autonomy in urban education. The legitimacy of the professional educators' basis for autonomy is questioned as a result of increasing divergence between the ideology of the educators and that of society. Thus, says Williams, "as the values of the education profession are in themselves seen as sacred by many in the profession, the potential for conflict characterizing this relationship is obviously high" (p. 79). He goes on to suggest that, if this value discrepancy does not decrease, "continuing conflict between the professionals who staff large-city systems and community groups is almost certain to escalate and the long-term survival of the systems as public institutions is problematic" (p. 83). Williams considers that the most effective strategy to cope with this problem is to develop new processes of decision-making. Such an argument, if valid, has implications for the selection of superintendents and training of superintendents as well as for operating procedures for boards.

Coleman (1974) reported the situation in Manitoba with regard to the relative degree of involvement of trustees and superintendents in decision-making in 25 major decision areas. Both trustees and administrators considered that the administrators had a higher involvement in decision-making, except for the budgetary and community relationship areas. In Coleman's view, "trustees do not seem to represent the community very adequately" (p. 55). He suggests that one explanation could be the absence of mechanisms which allow for community involvement in decision-making on a continuing basis.

The O.E.C.D. (Note 3) report on educational policy in Canada pointed out that decentralization can be an illusion unless provision is made for increased participation, the goals of which are described as:

To rediscover a certain form of direct democracy, i.e., the exercise by the largest number of citizens possible, powers of administration over public matters;

To bring citizens into a more direct relationship with decision-making than is possible under a system of electing representatives;

To improve administrative procedures, by transferring to intermediate and local levels those decisions which must be taken rapidly and flexibly, to take account of specific local circumstances (para. 214).

These views are consistent with those put forward by Zeigler, Tucker and Wilson. Lutz and Iannaccone (1978), however, in developing their "dissatisfaction theory of governance" maintain that educational governance of school districts in America is fundamentally a successful government (p. 132). Rather than attempting to increase participation, they consider that attention should be focussed on ways of making the episodic changes of board and superintendent turnover less traumatic. One of the more effective ways of doing this would be to increase the amount of participation while still maintaining an essentially democratic representative structure.

Downey (1977) categorizes educational policy-making in four forms: (1) incrementalism, (2) special interest pleading, (3) rationalism, and (4) negotiation. He sees a shift away from the incrementalism and rationalism modes towards special interest pleading and negotiation, both of which provide more opportunities for the use of what Downey describes as "the free play of politics" (p. 135). This trend in educational policy-making is coupled with a shift in power from elected representatives and appointed administrators to teachers and community groups (p. 135). Downey has developed a model which recognizes and combines the political view and rational view of policy-

making. He argues that opportunities should be provided for participation during appropriate phases of policy development of those groups which are involved or affected. For this to be effective, according to Downey,

administrators would have to ensure, not only that all value and belief systems find access to the policy process, but also that appropriate information finds its way to those who choose and those who influence (p. 142).

Relatively little attention has been paid to the participation in educational decision-making by students -- those who are most intimately involved and most directly affected. Earlier student unrest in the tertiary institutions percolated to some extent into secondary schools but has largely left the decision-making process unchanged. Levin (1977) adopts a supportive but rather despondent attitude to the possibility of increased student involvement in school governance. He argues that, apart from the potential value of student participation per se in individual schools, a major value should be in enhancing the attainment of the often-stated school goal of the development of good citizenship.

Rationale for the Study

The review of the literature establishes that there has been ongoing concern by writers and researchers with superintendent-school board interactions. It has been shown that there is often a lack of congruence in the perception of roles and the potential for considerable role conflict exists. In its simplest form, this has been seen mainly as a two-way competition for power between professional administrators and lay school board members. This view no longer obtains. Educational governance is no longer considered to be the exclusive preserve of superintendents and school boards with the community exercising spasmodic control over both; directly over the board,

through the ballot box and indirectly over the superintendent by the choice of school board members. In recent years, other actors have become much more involved and highly complex interactive networks have developed.

Teachers have challenged the professional dominance of the administrators as the experts in education while, at the same time, through collective bargaining, challenging the political influence of the school board. Doubts have been expressed about the effectiveness of the representation of the community by school boards and pressure exerted for developing more effective participatory mechanisms. It is likely that part of this trend could be attributed to a reaction by the community against the increasing influence of teacher organizations.

The development of flatter administrative structures has resulted in greater participation by other board office administrators. Parents and community interest groups have recognized that there are many ways in which they can exert greater influence. In all, the trend has been to drag educational governance at the local level out of a mythical, apolitical vacuum into the political bargaining arena.

Adding to the complexity has been the expressed intention in Canada to further decentralize administration from provincial to local level while at the same time there are indications of increased provincial financial control and reduction of autonomy. Federal influence also has progressively become more pervasive and this has made additional demands on superintendents and school board members. Given this environment, the process of decision-making in school districts is indeed a complex one.

The literature further suggests that role conflict and role ambiguity are accentuated if the responsibility of an employee is divided between two supervisors, the ministry of education and the school board. The opportunity

existed for this effect to be investigated. The potential for role conflict also exists within the dual administrative arrangement common in British Columbia in which executive responsibilities are shared between the superintendent and the secretary-treasurer. Finally, a number of studies have suggested that role perceptions are influenced to some extent by demographic factors.

Against this background, a major aim of this study has been to identify the perceptions of school superintendents and school board members of the relative degrees of influence they would wish themselves and other potential participant individuals and groups to have in educational decision-making.

Definition of Terms

Griffiths (1958) uses a definition of perception attributed to Ittelson and Cantril in which perceiving is described as

that part of the process of living by which each one of us, from his own particular point of view, creates for himself the world within which he has his life's experiences and through which he strives to gain his satisfactions (p. 125).

Perception, then, is taken to mean an understanding of what is believed to be or what could be. It is something which is intrinsic to that individual and can only be self-reported.

Some clarification of the terms 'decision' and 'decision-making' is also necessary. As Eilon (1969) points out, many books on management and decision theory do not define the term decision. It is hard to isolate a decision from the decision-making process but it is most often associated with making a choice between alternative courses of action. Eilon quotes Ofstad's definition of the operation "to make a decision" as "to make a judgment regarding what one ought to do in a certain situation after having deliberated on some

alternative courses of action" (p. B172). In similar vein, Griffiths (1958) applies the term decision to "all judgments which affect a course of action" (p. 123). In this study, it has not been assumed that the process is entirely rational.

This study is concerned with perceptions of who ideally should be the decision-makers in specified educational decision areas rather than with the process of decision-making per se. It is, however, also concerned with the perception of the respondents of the amount of influence individuals or groups other than the decision-maker should have on the process of decision-making. It therefore assumes the existence of an implicit decision process which makes provision for input from other than the decision-makers.

The term "school board" is used in this study to refer to essentially similar lay governance bodies in school districts in North America. The more specific terms "board of education" and "board of school trustees" are also used, particularly when referring to other studies. Members of such boards are, in general, described as school board members. In stating the hypotheses and in describing the method and results for this British Columbia study, the term "school board" refers specifically to a board of school trustees and the term "school trustee" is used instead of school board member.

Operational Definitions

- (1) School superintendent is operationally defined as a district superintendent or a superintendent of schools as provided for in Section 12 of the Public Schools Act.
- (2) School trustee is operationally defined as an elected member of a Board of School Trustees. (Section 23 of the Public Schools Act).

- (3) A school superintendent employed by a school board is a superintendent of schools as defined above.
- (4) Preferred role in decision-making is operationally defined as the ranking of alternative actions in hypothetical decision-making activities and is measured by responses to the Decisional Influence Inventory.
- (5) Role is defined as a set of activities or potential behaviour performed by an actor in a set of social relationships.

Major Hypotheses

Arising out of the literature review and the stated objectives of the study, four major hypotheses were developed:

1. Superintendent and school trustee role perceptions for themselves:

that there are significant differences between superintendent and school trustee perceptions of the preferred role for each other in educational decision-making, with each preferring a greater influence for themselves.

2. Superintendent and school trustee role perceptions for others:

that there are significant differences between superintendent and school trustee perceptions of the preferred role for other groups and individuals in educational decision-making.

3. Superintendent and school trustee role perceptions according to the nature of the employer of the superintendent :

that there are no significant relationships between superintendent and school trustee perceptions of the preferred roles for themselves and each other and the nature of the employer of the superintendent.

4. Superintendent and school trustee role perceptions and demographic variables:

that there are no significant relationships between superintendent and school trustee perceptions of the preferred roles for themselves and each other and specific demographic and personal variables.

These hypotheses are examined in detail in Chapter IV with data collected from a sample of superintendents and school trustees in British Columbia, using the method and procedures described in Chapter III.

Chapter III

METHOD AND PROCEDURE

This chapter includes a discussion of the sample, the procedures and the instrument used for data collection. It concludes with an analysis of the characteristics of the respondents.

Population and Sample

The population for the study consisted of school superintendents and school trustees in the province of British Columbia. With two exceptions, each of the school districts has a school board which varies in size from five to nine members. In one school district, an Official Trustee has been appointed in lieu of a school board. In the other instance, there are three members on the board.

When the data for the study were collected, there were seven districts in which the school superintendent was employed by the school board and this group was included in the sample as a criterion group. A further group of nine school superintendents exists in which the superintendent provides professional leadership to two school boards.

The population of school superintendents was 67. In view of the total population size and the desirability of including all superintendents employed by school boards (seven) and those with a dual superintendency role (nine), it was decided to consider the total population of superintendents as the sample. Each of the superintendents was matched with a single school district using a random sampling of the dual superintendents to determine the school district to be included. The sample of school trustees was then determined by randomly selecting two trustees from each of the school

districts chosen for the study. Random numbers with an upper limit of the number on the board were assigned to the names of trustees listed alphabetically by individual school district. Two school trustees were included from each board because a relatively low response rate from school board members had been reported in a number of similar studies. Selecting trustees from each school district covered by the study increased the chances of getting responses from the criterion group of superintendents. The sample of school trustees was 132, selected from 66 school districts.

Design

The study uses a correlational design to explore relationships which may exist between the perceptions of superintendents and school trustees for the preferred roles of themselves and others in decision-making. It also explores whether these perceptions are related to specific demographic variables and to the nature of the employment of the superintendent. It is a data analysis design based on the results of a single survey using a self-report questionnaire as the instrument.

The limitations of such a design are recognized, particularly the fact that "correlation does not imply causation but causation necessarily implies correlation" (Tuckman, 1978, p. 149). Campbell and Stanley (1966) point out that correlational studies, in spite of their acknowledged limitations, can be useful "inasmuch as they expose causal hypotheses to disconfirmation" (p. 64). They further state that "the relatively inexpensive correlational approach can provide a preliminary survey of hypotheses and those which survive can be checked through the more expensive experimental manipulation" (p. 64). It is in this context that this study has been approached. It was considered that if significant relationships could be

established, some further study would be warranted.

Variables. The variables used in this study are defined as follows:

1. the dependent variable is "preferred role in decision-making."
2. the independent variable is "the perceiver" and this includes the two levels, superintendents and trustees.
3. the moderator variable is "nature of employment of the superintendent" and again there are two levels, board of school trustees and ministry of education.

Instrumentation

Data were sought from each superintendent and selected school trustees by using a modification of a questionnaire which was "designed to determine the perceptions of the respondents for the amount of influence they prefer specified groups or individuals to have in educational decision-making" (Diedrich, 1978, p. 3258). The Diedrich "Decisional Influence Inventory" was developed for a study in Michigan; the results of the study were discussed in Chapter II. Approval was obtained to use the questionnaire in this study (See Appendix A).

Modifications. A number of modifications were made to reflect the differences in decision-making structures between school districts in the United States and Canada. The number of potential influence groups was extended from nine to eleven by including ministry of education and secretary-treasurer as additional groups. A single category of citizens, parents or civic groups was divided into community groups and school-based parent/citizen groups. A category of local teacher association was included as a broadly based influence group rather than restricting its role to collective bargaining. A further modification resulted in the order of

the various influence groups being determined by the generality of that group's role. The influence groups included in the instrument and the three sub-groups created were as follows:

- | | |
|--------------------------|--|
| 1. provincial level | ministry of education |
| 2. school district level | school board
superintendent
secretary-treasurer
other board office administrators
local teachers association
community groups |
| 3. school level | school council/parent teachers association
building principal
teachers at each school
students at each school |

The order of the eleven groups and individuals reflects a decreasing level of generality of their involvement in educational decision-making.

The Diedrich Inventory sought responses to 25 selected educational decisions grouped into categories of business management, curriculum and instruction, pupil personnel, school-community relations, personnel administration and school operations. Analysis of Diedrich's data using inter-item correlations indicated that the decision-making process for these items was best categorized by sub-dividing personnel administration into administrators and teachers and by grouping some items under the category of pupil rules/organization. A review of the literature also indicated that these eight categories are considered to be among the major areas of educational decision-making which have been investigated in other studies.

In this study, some items within categories were modified, some were grouped differently, two were deleted and seven additional items were added, giving a total inventory of 30 items in the same eight categories used by Diedrich in the analysis of his data.

The Questionnaire. The categories included in the Decisional Influence Inventory used were:

business management
 curriculum and instruction
 pupil personnel
 school-community relations
 personnel administration (administrators)
 personnel administration (teachers)
 school operations

Each category included a number of conceptually related items, as

illustrated in the category of business management:

1. Ideally, who should determine school district budget priorities?
2. Ideally, who should establish the district budget?
3. Ideally, who should determine the appropriateness of district level expenditure within categories after the budget has been approved?

The items used in the decisional areas are shown in full in the Decisional Influence Inventory in Appendix B. Respondents were asked to indicate on a five point scale the degree of influence they consider each of the listed groups should ideally have in each item of the decisional categories. They were also asked to indicate which group or individual should be responsible for making the final decision.

A second part of the questionnaire sought a range of personal and demographic data from all respondents. Information was sought on age, sex, educational qualifications, years of experience in previous and current positions, nature of the superintendent's employer, enrollment category and classification of municipality as rural or urban. The same questionnaire was used for superintendents and school trustees.

Validity and Reliability

Validity refers to the extent to which the instrument measures what it is supposed to measure. In discussing the survey in research, Dean, Eickhorn and Dean (1967) refer to the problems of communication in using a questionnaire. Questions may be interpreted differently, the context may not be understood and the scale may be inappropriate. In their view, "much of the effort of a successful survey researcher goes into maximizing the validity and reliability of the communication between questionnaire and respondent by careful construction of the instrument" (p. 271).

The Diedrich Decisional Influence Inventory was subject to pre-testing on school superintendents and boards of education members not included in the study. Subsequent modifications were made. A further check on validity was made using an inter-item analysis and this resulted in changes being made to the grouping of items within decisional categories. Comments on the modified inventory used in this study were sought from respondents not included in the sample. Respondents were asked to comment on the relevance of the items, the appropriateness of the groupings, the adequacy of the range of influence groups included, the presence of ambiguity in expression and the clarity of the layout. Modifications made to the Diedrich inventory maintained the same conceptual grouping of items within the categories established by Diedrich as valid for the purposes of this study.

An instrument used in research must also be examined for its reliability. Diedrich undertook an examination of the reliability of the inventory by determining correlation coefficients for the responses of pairs of board members from the same school district and reports that 81% of the correlations

were .70 or greater, concluding "that the instrument evidenced a substantial degree of reliability" (p. 22).

Internal validity. Only one questionnaire was used in the study and this was mailed simultaneously to all superintendents and to selected school trustees. A decision to extend the number of school boards which may employ a school superintendent was announced by the Minister of Education during the period questionnaires were being returned. Since the decision was widely known before its announcement, it is not likely to have affected responses during the study.

Inclusion of the total population of superintendents removed the possibility of bias due to selection procedures. Selection bias for school trustees was reduced by (1) randomly selecting the board to be sampled when a superintendent served more than one board; (2) randomly selecting two school trustees from all other school boards. The selection procedures did not take into account age, sex or years of experience in the positions, but on the basis of the sampling procedures used for school trustees, it is assumed that the sample selected is representative of the population.

External validity. Based on the selection procedures used and the methodology of the study, the results are generalizable for British Columbia. Some comparisons may be made between the results and those obtained in similar studies elsewhere but no basis exists for any conclusions to be considered applicable in other provinces or beyond.

Procedure

A copy of the modified Decisional Influence Inventory, a letter from the researcher explaining the study, a supporting letter from the Director of Graduate Programs in the Faculty of Education and a stamped self-addressed

envelope were mailed in late June, 1979 to all school superintendents in British Columbia and to the random sample of school board members from selected school districts. (See Appendices C, D & E.) Slightly different versions of the supporting letter were sent to school trustees and superintendents.

Each inventory was assigned a code number which enabled returns to be checked. Respondents were assured of complete confidentiality. A follow-up letter to non-respondents was sent early in July and the package included another copy of all the material previously sent. (See Appendix F). A further attempt to improve the response, particularly from school trustees, was made by telephoning superintendents and the selected trustees in school districts from which there had been no response. Some difficulties were experienced because data collection was undertaken in the last weeks of the school year. Follow-up was also hampered because many school superintendents and school trustees were on summer vacation. Both of these factors had an adverse effect on the response rate.

Data Analysis

The questionnaire was designed to allow data from the items on decisional influence to be card punched directly from the protocols. The responses to the demographic information section required pre-coding. The identity number assigned to each respondent distinguished between superintendents and school trustees and enabled responses from the same school district to be identified for more detailed analysis. Data analysis was carried out using the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (Version 7).

Characteristics of Respondents

Details of the response to the Decisional Influence Inventory are given

in Table 1. The response rate of 78% for superintendents was considerably higher than the 54% response rate from school trustees. The sample had included two trustees from each school district and the response rate of trustees on a school district basis was 79%. The response rates were considerably less than obtained by Diedrich (88% for superintendents; 80% for school board members), but are comparable with figures reported in other studies reviewed in Chapter II.

Age of respondents. Table 2 gives the distribution of age ranges for superintendents and school trustees. More of the trustee respondents (27.9%) were between 30 and 39 years old than superintendents (16.3%). On the other hand, more of the trustees (17.6%) were in the range 60 years or over than superintendents (2.0%). The age range 40 years to 60 years accounted for 80.2% of the superintendents but only 54.4% of the school trustees.

Respondents by school district enrollment. There are no significant differences between the two types of responses listed in Table 3. A high proportion (76%) of both types of response came from school districts with an enrollment of less than 10,000 students. The population for the study contained 70% in this category.

Sex of respondents. There was one response from the two female superintendents in the sample (and population) of superintendents. Sex of superintendents was not included in any analysis. The percentage of female trustees responding (41.2) was higher than the percentage of females in the sample (36.0).

Level of formal education. Table 4 lists numbers and percentages of trustees and superintendents according to the highest level of formal education reached. Nearly 94% of the superintendents reported having a masters degree

Table 1
Responses to Decisional Influence Inventory

	Number of Trustees		Number of Superintendents
	Individual	District	
Distributed	132 ^a	67	67
Returned	71	53	52
Useable	68	51	49
% Response	54	79	78

^a One school district does not have a school board

Table 2
Age of Respondents

Age in Years	Trustees		Superintendents	
	<u>N</u>	%	<u>N</u>	%
Less than 30	-	-	-	-
30 - 39	19	27.9	8	16.3
40 - 49	20	29.4	20	40.8
50 - 59	17	25.0	20	40.8
60 or over	12	17.6	1	2.0
Total	68		49	

Table 3
Responses by School District Enrollment

School District Enrollment	Trustees		Superintendents	
	<u>N</u>	%	<u>N</u>	%
Less than 5,000	30	44.1	25	51.0
5,000 - 10,000	22	32.4	12	24.5
10,000 - 15,000	3	4.4	2	4.1
15,000 - 20,000	7	10.3	6	12.2
More than 20,000	6	8.8	4	8.2
Total	68		49	

Table 4
Level of Formal Education of Respondents

	Trustees		Superintendents	
	<u>N</u>	%	<u>N</u>	%
Some secondary school	8	11.8		
Senior secondary school graduate	9	13.2		
Some post-secondary	14	20.6		
Post-secondary graduate	31	45.6	3	6.1
Masters degree	2	2.9	39	79.6
Doctoral degree	4	5.9	7	14.3
Total	68		49	

or higher and 56% of the school trustees indicated that they held qualifications at or above post secondary graduate level.

Length of experience. Respondents were asked to indicate the number of years they had spent in their position in any school district and in their present school district. The results in Table 5 indicate that 62% of the school trustees had less than five years of experience in the position. One third of the superintendents also reported having less than five years of experience. Only four superintendents had had a total experience greater than ten years.

Other factors. Responses from superintendents indicated that 40 were employed by the ministry of education, 6 by a school board and 3 were jointly employed. There were 43 superintendents who work in only one school district and 5 who work in two school districts; one did not respond to that item.

Summary

In this chapter, the method and procedures have been detailed and the characteristics of the respondents described as a precursor to the analysis of data in testing the major hypotheses on which this study is based.

It should be noted that the small number of female superintendents in British Columbia is consistent with the North American pattern. In the United States, the few female superintendents are mostly in small, non-metropolitan districts. Downey (1976) noted that in Alberta, there was not one woman among the 93 superintendents; Carlson (1972, p. 8) pointed out that the chances of movement to administrative positions is seven to ten times greater for men than for women.

The level of formal education for superintendents is comparable with the 96% with masters degrees or higher reported by Carlson (1972, p. 26)

Table 5
Length of Experience of Respondents

Years of Experience	Trustees				Superintendents			
	Any school district		Present school district		Any school district		Present school district	
	Number and Percentage of Respondents							
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1 - 2	24	35.3	24	35.3	11	22.4	25	51.0
3 - 4	18	26.5	18	26.5	6	12.2	12	24.5
5 - 6	8	11.8	9	13.2	16	32.7	8	16.3
7 - 8	4	5.9	4	5.9	7	14.3	3	6.1
9 - 10	4	5.9	4	5.9	5	10.2	1	2.0
> 10	10	14.7	9	13.2	4	8.2	-	-
Total	68		68		49		49	

for a national sample of 1100 superintendents in the United States.

The mobility of British Columbia superintendents seems to be similar to that in Alberta in 1976. Downey (1976) reported that 48% of the superintendents had held their present position for less than three years, compared with 51% in the present British Columbia sample.

Chapter IV

RESULTS

This chapter is concerned with comparing the mean responses of superintendents and school trustees to the Decisional Influence Inventory, applying statistical tests to determine the significance of the results in testing each of the hypotheses and in analysing the responses on final decision-making authority.

Analysis of the results employs descriptive statistics using mean scores of respondents for each of the decisional categories and the statistical measures of chi square tests of independence, t-tests and Pearson product moment correlations. The level of significance used to reject the hypotheses is $p < .05$ but significance at the .01 level is indicated where this occurs.

Comparison of Mean Responses of Superintendents

The means for the responses of superintendent perceptions of the preferred roles of the eleven designated potential participants in decision-making in each of the eight decisional categories included in the inventory were determined and are shown in Table 6. The responses were scaled from 1 representing a very high level of influence to 5 representing no influence. A high item response was obtained with N varying from 46 to 49.

Influence of Participant Groups in Decision-Making

Ministry of education. Superintendents indicated they prefer little influence for the ministry of education except for curriculum and instruction where the influence preferred ($\bar{X} = 2.57$) was at a moderately high level.

School board. A high to very high level of influence was indicated for the school board in business management, curriculum and instruction, school-community relations and personnel administration (administrators). This

Table 6

Mean Responses of Superintendents for the Preferred Roles of Participants in Decision-Making

Decisional Area	Mean Responses ^a										
	Ministry of Ed. \bar{X}	School Board \bar{X}	Supt. \bar{X}	Sec.-Treas. \bar{X}	Other Board Office Admin. \bar{X}	Local Teacher Assoc. \bar{X}	Comm. Groups \bar{X}	School Council Parent Groups \bar{X}	Bldg. Principal \bar{X}	Teachers at School \bar{X}	Students at School \bar{X}
Business Management	3.84	1.61	1.20	1.98	2.72	4.00	4.53	4.40	2.91	3.75	4.70
Curriculum & Instruction	2.57	1.80	1.37	4.76	2.51	3.43	3.85	3.53	1.90	2.19	3.89
Pupil Personnel	4.61	3.52	2.44	4.81	3.42	4.77	4.78	4.53	1.39	2.22	4.36
School-Comm. Relations	4.34	1.30	1.96	3.06	3.16	4.22	3.06	3.06	2.91	3.99	4.61
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	4.32	1.55	1.90	4.37	3.08	4.38	4.67	4.50	3.82	3.99	4.70
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	4.27	2.86	1.21	4.55	2.40	3.64	4.78	4.65	1.90	3.08	4.76
Pupil rules/Organization	4.41	2.37	2.28	4.68	3.38	4.28	3.97	3.34	1.16	1.60	2.52
School Operations	4.86	4.33	3.36	4.56	3.82	4.67	4.82	4.44	1.07	1.95	4.35

Note: N ranged from 46 to 49

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence

decreased to a high to moderate level for personnel administration (teachers) and pupil rules/organization and towards little influence for pupil personnel ($\bar{X} = 3.52$). The lowest level of influence for the school board was preferred in school operations ($\bar{X} = 4.33$).

Superintendent. Superintendents indicated a preference for a high to very high level of influence for themselves in most categories, particularly in business management ($\bar{X} = 1.20$) and personnel administration (teachers) where $\bar{X} = 1.21$. Even in the area of least influence -- school operations ($\bar{X} = 3.36$) -- the level of influence preferred was only slightly less than moderate.

Secretary treasurer. The only area accorded a high to very high level of influence for the secretary-treasurer was business management ($\bar{X} = 1.98$). The school-community relations category was placed at slightly less than a moderate level of influence but all other categories were in the range little to no influence.

Other board office administrators. The degree of influence preferred by superintendents for other board office administrators clustered around the moderate level of influence. The mean was not less than 2.0 nor more than 4.0 in any category, suggesting a wide ranging, middle level management role.

Local teachers association. The influence of this group was perceived ideally to be very small in most areas with means greater than 4.0 being recorded in six categories. The associations were seen to warrant the greatest influence in matters of curriculum and instruction ($\bar{X} = 3.43$) and personnel administration (teachers) where $\bar{X} = 3.64$. The degree of influence desired even in these instances was, however, relatively small.

Community groups. A low level of influence was also accorded to community groups with the most influence desired at a moderate level ($\bar{X} = 3.06$) for school-community relations.

School council/parent groups. The pattern of influence levels attributed by superintendents to school council/parent groups is very similar to that for community groups.

Building principals. This group was perceived to warrant a high to very high level of influence in curriculum and instruction, pupil personnel, personnel administration (teachers), pupil rules/organization and school operations. The level of influence preferred for building principals in personnel administration ($\bar{X} = 3.82$) was the smallest for this group in any of the decisional areas.

Teachers at each school. Superintendents considered that teachers should exert their greatest influence in decision-making in the categories of pupil rules/organization and school operations, but with a level of influence verging on high for both pupil personnel ($\bar{X} = 2.22$) and curriculum and instruction ($\bar{X} = 2.19$).

Students at each school. Responses indicate that it was considered that students should have little or no influence in any decisional area except pupil rules/organization where a moderate to high amount of influence ($\bar{X} = 2.52$) was preferred.

Preferred Influence of Superintendents Within Decisional Areas

Business Management. Superintendents clearly prefer themselves, the secretary-treasurer and the school board to have the most influence in business management with the next most influential groups being other board office administrators and building principals.

Curriculum and Instruction. According to superintendents, the most influential should be the superintendent, followed by the school board and the building principal. Next in order are teachers, other board office administrators and the ministry of education. The role perceived for the secretary-treasurer in curriculum and instruction was considered to be the

least influential.

Pupil personnel. The only group to be given a score indicating a high to very high level of influence in the pupil personnel category was the building principal ($\bar{X} = 1.39$), followed by teachers ($\bar{X} = 2.22$) and superintendents ($\bar{X} = 2.44$). All other groups and individuals were considered to warrant less than a moderate level of influence.

School community relations. The most influential group was ideally perceived to be the school board ($\bar{X} = 1.30$), followed by the superintendent ($\bar{X} = 1.96$) with the building principal exerting marginally above a moderate level of influence ($\bar{X} = 2.91$). Groups desired to have little to no influence in this area are the ministry of education, local teachers association and students.

Personnel administration (administrators). In this category, a clear division of preferred influence emerges. Only the school board ($\bar{X} = 1.55$) and the superintendent ($\bar{X} = 1.90$) were perceived ideally to have a level of influence beyond that of moderate. Superintendents considered that most of the other groups should have little to no influence on decisions in this area.

Personnel administration (teachers). Groups assigned the highest level of influence in the decisional category of personnel administration (teachers) were the superintendent ($\bar{X} = 1.21$) and the building principal ($\bar{X} = 1.90$). Other board office administrators and the school board were assigned levels of influence ranging between moderate and high; all other groups were in the range moderate to no influence.

Pupil rules/organization. This was considered to be mainly the prerogative of the building principal ($\bar{X} = 1.16$) and teachers with the superintendent, the school board and students, in that order, ideally having a moderate to high

level of influence.

School operations. A high to very high level of influence was accorded to the building principal and the teachers at each school. The mean for the building principal ($\bar{X} = 1.07$) indicates the highest level of influence accorded by superintendents to any group or individuals. Other groups and individuals, including the superintendent, were seen as ideally having minimal influence.

Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees

The means for the responses of school trustee perceptions of the preferred roles of the eleven designated potential participants in decision-making in each of the eight decisional categories are shown in Table 7. The responses were again scaled from 1 representing a very high level of influence to 5 representing no influence. The item response rate ranged from $N = 63$ to $N = 68$.

Influence of Participant Groups in Decision-making

Ministry of education. School trustees indicated that they prefer little influence for the ministry of education except for curriculum and instruction where the preferred level of influence was slightly above moderate ($\bar{X} = 2.75$).

School board. School trustees indicated a preference for a high to very high level of influence for the school board in the decisional categories of business management, curriculum and instruction, school-community relations, personnel administration (administrators) and pupil roles/organization. Apart from personnel administration (teachers) where $\bar{X} = 2.16$, the level of influence preferred in the other categories of pupil personnel and school operations showed these to be areas where school trustees would wish to have the least amount of influence.

Table 7

Mean Responses of School Trustees for the Preferred Roles of Participants in Decision-Making

Decisional Area	Mean Responses ^a										
	Ministry of Ed.	School Board	Supt.	Sec.-Treas.	Other Board Office Admin.	Local Teacher Assoc.	Comm. Groups	School Council Parent Groups	Bldg. Principal	Teachers at School	Students at School
	\bar{X}	\bar{X}	\bar{X}	\bar{X}	\bar{X}	\bar{X}	\bar{X}	\bar{X}	\bar{X}	\bar{X}	\bar{X}
Business Management	3.55	1.29	1.49	1.65	2.94	4.17	4.45	4.40	3.43	4.09	4.77
Curriculum & Instruction	2.75	1.70	1.23	4.53	2.94	3.43	4.17	3.68	2.63	2.73	4.28
Pupil Personnel	4.47	3.10	1.97	4.64	3.73	4.60	4.74	4.46	1.86	2.24	4.44
School-Comm. Relations	4.18	1.32	2.27	2.99	3.61	4.30	3.29	3.37	3.37	4.14	4.50
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	4.18	1.23	1.87	4.01	3.45	4.47	4.71	4.48	4.02	4.22	4.80
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	4.06	2.16	1.11	4.45	2.96	3.70	4.76	4.54	2.49	3.52	4.79
Pupil rules/Organization	4.06	1.76	1.65	4.19	3.46	3.89	3.98	3.27	1.75	2.21	2.87
School Operations	4.89	3.88	2.56	4.38	3.87	4.49	4.84	4.56	1.44	2.42	4.65

Note: N ranged from 63 to 68

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence

Superintendent. A high to very high level of influence was accorded to superintendents in all categories except school-community relations and school operations. Even in these two areas, however, the level desired was expressed as moderate to high.

Secretary-treasurer. A high to very high level of influence ($\bar{X} = 1.65$) in business management was seen as the ideal for the secretary-treasurer. A moderate level in school-community relations was preferred but little to no influence in the other decisional areas investigated.

Other board office administrators. School trustees considered that these administrators should exert moderate to little influence in all decisional areas.

Local teachers association. The perceptions of school trustees for the role of the local teachers association in decision-making showed little or no influence preferred in five areas (business management, pupil personnel, school-community relations, personnel administration (administrators) and school operations), but moderate to little influence preferred for curriculum and instruction, personnel administration (teachers) and pupil rules/organization.

Community groups. Little or no influence was accorded to community groups except that in school-community relations, a response of $\bar{X} = 3.29$ indicated slightly less than a moderate level of influence was preferred.

School council/parent groups. A similar pattern obtains for school council/parent groups as was shown for other community groups. In school-community relations, however, the degree of influence perceived as ideal was marginally greater than for community groups.

Building principals. The building principal was assigned a significant

role in decision-making in the school related areas of pupil personnel, pupil rules/organization and school operations. A moderate to high level of influence for the building principal was indicated by school trustee response means of 2.49 and 2.63 for personnel administration (teachers) and curriculum and instruction respectively.

Teachers at each school. School trustees expressed a preference for teachers to exert a moderate to high level of influence in pupil rules/organization, pupil personnel, school operations and curriculum and instruction. The role of teachers was seen ideally to lead to least influence in decision-making in business management, school-community relations and personnel administration (administrators).

Students at each school. Students were seen to have little role to play in any of the decisional areas, except for pupil rules/organization where the desired level ($\bar{X} = 2.87$) was slightly above a moderate level of influence.

Preferred Influence of School Trustees Within Decisional Areas

Business management. School trustees indicated a pre-eminent role preference for themselves and superintendents in decision-making in business management. The role preferred for the secretary-treasurer ($\bar{X} = 1.65$) is less influential than that for the superintendent ($\bar{X} = 1.49$) but is still at a high to very high level. Other board office administrators were accorded a moderate level of influence but the contribution desired from other groups is small.

Curriculum and instruction. The results indicate a preference for the school superintendent to be at the forefront in this area ($\bar{X} = 1.23$) but with a high to very high level of influence assigned to the school board ($\bar{X} = 1.70$). A much lower level of influence was accorded to the building principal, but

ahead of both the ministry of education and other board office administrators. Teachers were accorded a level of influence equal to that of the ministry of education.

Pupil personnel. The data indicate that school trustees showed a preference for the building principal to be the most influential in decisions affecting pupil personnel ($\bar{X} = 1.86$). Ideally, according to trustees, the next most influential should be the superintendent ($\bar{X} = 1.97$) followed by teachers at the school ($\bar{X} = 2.24$). Trustees accorded themselves a moderate level of influence ($\bar{X} = 3.10$) and other groups were mostly in the little to no influence range.

School-community relations. The high level of influence accorded to the school board by trustees ($\bar{X} = 1.32$) in the decisional area of school-community relations relative to other groups is quite marked. The nearest mean response ($\bar{X} = 2.27$) was accorded to superintendents; the score for the secretary-treasurer ($\bar{X} = 2.94$) is close to a moderate level but other groups were accorded less than a moderate level of influence.

Personnel administration (administrators). School trustees indicated that they wish the school board to have the greatest influence ($\bar{X} = 1.23$) in decisions concerning administrators with only the superintendent ($\bar{X} = 1.87$) having an influence level above moderate. This area is clearly seen as one almost exclusively within the domain of trustees and superintendents.

Personnel administration (teachers). It was considered that superintendents should be the most influential in decisions affecting teachers ($\bar{X} = 1.11$) with the other groups accorded a level of influence beyond moderate being, in order, school board, building principal and other board office administrators.

Pupil rules/organization. The superintendent ($\bar{X} = 1.65$) was preferred by trustees to be the most influential, closely followed by both the building principal ($\bar{X} = 1.75$) and the school board ($\bar{X} = 1.76$). Teachers and students were both accorded a moderate to high level of influence.

School operations. This area was regarded quite clearly as the domain of the building principal ($\bar{X} = 1.44$) with only teachers ($\bar{X} = 2.42$) and the superintendent ($\bar{X} = 2.56$) exerting a level of influence beyond moderate. The school board was assigned its lowest level of influence in any category ($\bar{X} = 3.88$) and all other groups were in the little to no influence range. The score for the ministry of education ($\bar{X} = 4.89$) indicated a preference for the lowest level of influence in this area for any group in any of the decisional categories.

Summary

The role preferences of school trustees and school superintendents for various potential participants in educational decision-making were determined by respondents assigning ideal levels of influence to the groups or individuals in specific decisional areas. An analysis of the responses indicates that school trustees and school superintendents consider that the school board and the superintendent should exert the most influence in decision-making in most of the decisional areas investigated. This is particularly pronounced in the decisional areas of business management, curriculum and instruction, school-community relations, personnel administration (administrators), personnel administration (teachers) and pupil rules/organization. Least influence desired is in school operations.

The only other group or individual accorded a high to very high level of influence in a number of areas, mostly on an individual school basis, is

the building principal. The main areas are pupil personnel, pupil rules/organization and school operations.

A minimal role in all areas except curriculum and instruction is perceived for the ministry of education. The secretary-treasurer is seen ideally to play a major role only in business management. Other board office administrators in general are seen ideally to have a moderate level of influence across a wide range of decisional areas. In general, the local teachers associations, community groups and school council/parent groups are not accorded much influence in any area. Teachers are perceived ideally to have a moderate to high level of influence in three school-oriented areas and in curriculum and instruction. Only with regard to pupil rules/organization are students accorded any real measure of influence.

Some differences in the relative degrees of influence assigned by school trustees and school superintendents are apparent, both for themselves and for other groups and individuals. In the next section, the significance of these differences is analysed in testing the specific hypotheses proposed in this study.

Role Perceptions and Decisional Influence

This section is divided into four parts which correspond with the four major hypotheses stated in Chapter II. In the first part, data concerned with role perceptions of school trustees and superintendents are analyzed. Then follows an analysis of the responses of school trustees and superintendents for the preferred role of individuals and groups other than themselves in decision-making. The third major hypothesis is then tested to determine the extent of relationships between the nature of the employer of the superintendent on perceptions of the preferred roles of superintendents and school trustees. In the fourth part, relationships between the responses and a

number of demographic variables are examined.

Preferred Roles for School Trustees and Superintendents

Hypothesis 1 is concerned with differences between school trustee and superintendent perceptions of the preferred role of these groups in decision-making. The statistical measure used is the t-test and the level of significance used for rejecting the hypothesis is .05.

Hypothesis 1. That there are significant differences between superintendent and school trustee perceptions of the preferred role for each other in educational decision-making, with each preferring a greater influence for themselves.

Role of School Board: superintendent and school trustee perceptions. Mean differences between the responses of school trustees and superintendents for the preferred role of the school board in decision-making are given in Table 8. Significant differences at the .01 level were found in business management, personnel administration (administrators), personnel administration (teachers), pupil rules/organization, and school operations. The difference in pupil personnel responses is significant at the .05 level but no significant differences were found for curriculum and instruction and school-community relations.

Role of Superintendent: superintendent and school trustee perceptions. Mean differences between the responses of school trustees and superintendents for the preferred role of school superintendents are given in Table 9. The differences are significant at the .01 level in business management, pupil personnel, pupil rules/organization and in school operations. For school-community relations, the difference is significant at the .05 level. No significant differences were found for personnel administration (administrators) or curriculum and instruction.

Role of superintendent and school board: superintendent perceptions. The

Table 8

Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees
and Superintendents for the Preferred Role
of the School Board in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses				Mean difference	t-test value
	Trustees		Superintendents			
	<u>N</u>	<u>X̄</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>X̄</u>		
Business Management	66	1.29	47	1.61	-.32	-3.83 **
Curriculum & Instruction	68	1.70	47	1.80	-.10	-.81
Pupil Personnel	68	3.10	49	3.52	-.42	-2.52 *
School-Comm. Relations	64	1.32	47	1.30	.02	.14
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	67	1.23	49	1.55	-.32	-3.81 **
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	68	2.16	49	2.86	-.70	-3.60 **
Pupil rules/ Organization	68	1.76	49	2.37	-.61	-3.52 **
School Operations	68	3.88	49	4.33	-.45	-2.73 **

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Table 9

Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees
and Superintendents for the Preferred Role
of the Superintendent in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses				Mean difference	t-test value
	Trustees		Superintendents			
	<u>N</u>	<u>\bar{X}</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>\bar{X}</u>		
Business Management	66	1.49	47	1.20	.29	3.22 **
Curriculum & Instruction	68	1.23	47	1.37	-.14	-1.90
Pupil Personnel	68	1.97	49	2.44	-.47	-3.22 **
School-Comm. Relations	64	2.27	47	1.96	.31	1.98 *
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	66	1.87	46	1.90	-.03	-.36
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	68	1.11	49	1.21	-.10	-1.63
Pupil rules/ Organization	68	1.65	49	2.28	-.63	-4.58 **
School Operations	68	2.56	49	3.36	-.80	-4.48 **

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence

* p < .05

** p < .01

mean responses of superintendents for their perceptions of the ideal role of the school board and superintendents in decision-making in each of the decisional areas, the mean differences and the t-test values are given in Table 10. In all categories, except pupil rules/organization, the differences are significant at the .01 level.

Role of school board and superintendent: school trustee perceptions. Data enabling these responses to be compared are shown in Table 11. There is no significant difference between the means in pupil rules/organization; the difference is significant at the .05 level in business management and at the .01 level in each of the other six decisional areas.

Summary From Tables 8 and 9, it is clear that significant differences were found between superintendent and school trustee perceptions of the roles of the superintendent and the school board and the hypothesis proposed cannot be rejected. The results in Table 10 indicate that superintendents prefer a more influential role for themselves than school trustees in all areas except school-community relations and personnel administration (administrators). On the other hand, the results in Table 11 show that school trustees prefer a more influential role for the school board in business management, school community relations and personnel administration (administrators). Potential for role conflict seems to exist in business management since each group prefers itself to have the greatest influence in this area.

Preferred Roles for Other Groups and Individuals

Hypothesis 2 is tested using t-tests to compare the responses of school trustees and superintendents for the preferred role of groups and individuals other than themselves in decision-making. The level of significance used to reject the hypothesis is .05.

The hypothesis is tested by comparing the mean responses of superintendents

Table 10

Comparison of Mean Responses of Superintendents
for the Preferred Roles of the School Board
and Superintendent in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses		Mean difference	t-test value
	Board Role \bar{X}	Superintendent Role \bar{X}		
Business Management	1.61	1.20	.41	5.73 **
Curriculum and Instruction	1.80	1.37	.43	4.33 **
Pupil Personnel	3.52	2.44	1.08	9.32 **
School-Community Relations	1.30	1.96	- .66	-5.90 **
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	1.55	1.90	- .35	-3.40 **
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	2.86	1.21	1.65	10.45 **
Pupil rules/ Organization	2.37	2.28	.09	.74
School Organization	4.33	3.36	.97	8.05 **

Note: N varied from 46 to 49

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Table 11

Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees
for the Preferred Roles of the School Board
and Superintendent in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses		Mean difference	t-test value
	Board Role \bar{X}	Superintendent Role \bar{X}		
Business Management	1.29	1.49	- .20	- 2.37 *
Curriculum and Instruction	1.70	1.23	.47	6.18 **
Pupil Personnel	3.10	1.97	1.13	10.39 **
School-Community Relations	1.32	2.27	-.95	-10.09 **
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	1.23	1.87	-.64	- 8.44 **
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	2.16	1.11	1.05	9.49 **
Pupil rules/Organization	1.76	1.65	.10	.96
School Operations	3.88	2.56	1.32	12.89 **

Note: N varied from 64 to 68

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

and school trustees for the preferred role of the following groups or individuals:

Ministry of education
 Secretary-treasurer
 Board office administrators (other than the superintendent)

Local teachers association

Community groups

School council/parent teacher association
 Building principal
 Teachers

Students

Hypothesis 2. That there are significant differences between superintendent and school trustee perceptions of the preferred role for other groups and individuals in educational decision-making.

Role of ministry of education. The relevant statistics are listed in Table 12. A statistically significant difference at the .05 level was found in the category pupil rules/organization. No significant differences were found in any of the other categories. The data indicate that superintendents prefer a smaller degree of influence for the ministry of education than do school trustees in all areas except school operations and curriculum and instruction.

Role of secretary-treasurer. The data given in Table 13 show that superintendents prefer less influence than school trustees for the secretary-treasurer in all categories. These differences are statistically significant at the .01 level for pupil rules/organization and at the .05 level for business management, curriculum and instruction, and personnel administration (administrators). No significant differences were found for the other categories of pupil personnel, school-community relations, personnel administration (teachers) and school operations.

Table 12

Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees
and Superintendents for the Preferred Role
of the Ministry of Education in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses				Mean differences	t-test value
	Trustees		Superintendents			
	<u>N</u>	<u>X̄</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>X̄</u>		
Business Management	66	3.55	47	3.84	- .29	-1.69
Curriculum & Instruction	68	2.75	47	2.57	.18	1.03
Pupil Personnel	68	4.47	49	4.61	- .14	-1.09
School-Comm. Relations	64	4.18	47	4.34	- .16	-1.19
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	67	4.18	49	4.32	- .14	-1.29
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	68	4.06	49	4.27	- .21	-1.51
Pupil rules/Organization	68	4.06	49	4.41	- .35	-2.23 *
School Operations	68	4.89	49	4.86	.03	.54

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence

* $p < .05$

Table 13

Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees
and Superintendents for the Preferred Role
of the Secretary-Treasurer in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses				Mean differences	t-test value
	Trustees		Superintendents			
	<u>N</u>	<u>X̄</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>X̄</u>		
Business Management	66	1.65	47	1.98	- .33	-2.01 *
Curriculum & Instruction	68	4.53	46	4.76	- .23	-2.12 *
Pupil Personnel	67	4.64	49	4.81	- .17	-1.92
School Comm. Relations	64	2.99	47	3.06	- .07	- .31
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	67	4.01	49	4.37	- .36	-2.21 *
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	68	4.45	49	4.55	- .10	- .79
Pupil rules/ Organization	68	4.19	49	4.68	- .49	-3.11 **
School Operations	68	4.38	49	4.56	- .18	-1.51

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Role of other board office administrators. Table 14 indicates that superintendents prefer more influence for these officers in all categories than do school trustees. The mean differences are statistically significant at the .05 level in school-community relations, personnel administration (teachers) and curriculum and instruction.

Role of the local teachers association. Table 15 shows that the differences in perceptions are small and are statistically significant at the .05 level in pupil personnel and pupil rules/organization. Superintendents indicated that they would prefer to see an even smaller amount of influence for the local teachers association than the low level assigned by school trustees.

Role of community groups. A statistically significant difference between superintendent and trustee perceptions of the preferred role of community groups in decision-making was found at the .01 level in curriculum and instruction (Table 16). No significant differences between perceptions were found in the other seven decisional areas. In the area where a statistically significant difference was noted, the superintendents indicated a preference for a higher level of influence for community groups in curriculum and instruction than did school trustees.

Role of school council/parent teacher associations. The responses listed in Table 17 show very little difference between the perceptions of the two groups of respondents and in no decisional area is the difference statistically significant at the .05 level.

Role of building principals. The data given in Table 18 show that superintendents prefer building principals to be accorded a higher level of influence in all decisional areas than do school trustees. Furthermore, these differences are significant in all areas except for personnel administration (administrators) and in five categories the level of significance is .01.

Table 14

Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees
and Superintendents for the Preferred Role
of Other Board Office Administrators in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses				Mean difference	t-test value
	Trustees		Superintendents			
	N	\bar{X}	N	\bar{X}		
Business Management	66	2.94	46	2.72	.22	1.44
Curriculum & Instruction	68	2.94	47	2.51	.43	1.99 *
Pupil Personnel	68	3.73	49	3.42	.31	1.54
School-Comm Relations	64	3.61	47	3.16	.45	2.46 *
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	67	3.45	49	3.08	.37	1.76
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	68	2.96	49	2.40	.56	2.29 *
Pupil rules/ Organization	68	3.46	49	3.38	.08	.44
School Operations	68	3.87	49	3.82	.05	.32

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence

* $p < .05$

Table 15

Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees
and Superintendents for the Preferred Role
of the Local Teachers Association in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses				Mean difference	t-test value
	Trustees		Superintendents			
	<u>N</u>	<u>\bar{X}</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>\bar{X}</u>		
Business Management	65	4.17	46	4.00	.17	1.18
Curriculum & Instruction	67	3.43	47	3.43	.00	.01
Pupil Personnel	68	4.60	49	4.77	-.17	-2.00 *
School-Comm. Relations	64	4.30	46	4.22	.08	.59
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	67	4.47	49	4.38	.09	.78
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	68	3.70	48	3.64	.06	.34
Pupil rules/Organization	68	3.89	49	4.28	-.39	-2.43 *
School Operations	67	4.49	49	4.67	-.18	-1.67

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence

* $p < .05$

Table 16

Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees
and Superintendents for the Preferred Role
of Community Groups in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses				Mean difference	t-test value
	Trustees		Superintendents			
	<u>N</u>	<u>\bar{X}</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>\bar{X}</u>		
Business Management	66	4.45	46	4.53	-.08	-.66
Curriculum & Instruction	68	4.17	47	3.85	.32	2.64 **
Pupil Personnel	68	4.74	49	4.78	-.04	-.53
School-Comm. Relations	64	3.29	47	3.06	.23	1.23
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	66	4.71	49	4.67	.04	.50
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	68	4.76	49	4.78	-.02	-.22
Pupil rules/Organization	68	3.98	49	3.97	.01	.05
School Operations	68	4.84	49	4.82	.02	.24

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence

** p < .01

Table 17

Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees
and Superintendents for the Preferred Role of a
School Council/Parent Teacher Association in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses				Mean difference	t-test value
	Trustees		Superintendents			
	<u>N</u>	<u>\bar{X}</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>\bar{X}</u>		
Business Management	66	4.40	46	4.40	.00	.04
Curriculum & Instruction	68	3.68	47	3.53	.15	.94
Pupil Personnel	68	4.46	49	4.53	-.07	-.58
School-Comm. Relations	64	3.37	47	3.06	.31	1.63
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	67	4.48	49	4.50	-.02	-.14
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	68	4.54	49	4.65	-.11	-1.01
Pupil rules/ Organization	68	3.27	49	3.34	-.07	-.37
School Operations	68	4.56	49	4.44	.12	1.16

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence

Table 18

Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees
and Superintendents for the Preferred Role
of the Building Principal in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses				Mean difference	t-test value
	Trustees		Superintendents			
	<u>N</u>	<u>\bar{X}</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>\bar{X}</u>		
Business Management	66	3.43	46	2.91	.52	3.09 **
Curriculum & Instruction	68	2.63	47	1.90	.73	4.00 **
Pupil Personnel	68	1.86	49	1.39	.47	3.15 **
School-Comm. Relations	64	3.37	47	2.91	.46	2.60 *
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	67	4.02	48	3.82	.20	1.30
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	68	2.49	49	1.90	.59	3.38 **
Pupil rules/ Organization	68	1.75	49	1.16	.59	3.59 **
School Operations	68	1.44	49	1.07	.37	2.45 *

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Role of teachers. From Table 19 it can be seen that no significant differences emerged in the decisional areas of pupil personnel, school-community relations and personnel administration (administrators). Differences are significant at the .01 level for curriculum and instruction, personnel administration (teachers), pupil rules/organization and school operations. In business management, the difference is significant at the .05 level. Superintendents showed a preference for a greater influence for teachers in decision-making than did school trustees.

Role of students. Both superintendents and school trustees indicated that students should ideally have little or no influence in decision-making, except with regard to pupil rules/organization (Table 20). In general, superintendents ascribed a higher level of involvement to students than did trustees but the difference is only significant in school operations and curriculum and instruction.

Summary. From the summary given in Table 21, it can be seen that Hypothesis 2 is:

1. rejected for the ministry of education, except in the area of pupil rules/organization;
2. rejected for the secretary-treasurer in pupil personnel, school-community relations, personnel administration (teachers) and school operations. It is not rejected in business management, curriculum and instruction, personnel administration (administrators) and pupil rules/organization;
3. rejected for other board office administrators except for curriculum and instruction, school-community relations and personnel administration (teachers);
4. rejected for the local teachers association except for pupil personnel and pupil rules/organization;

Table 19

Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees
and Superintendents for the Preferred Role
of Teachers at Each School in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses				Mean difference	t-test value
	Trustees		Superintendents			
	<u>N</u>	<u>X̄</u>	<u>N</u>	<u>X̄</u>		
Business Management	65	4.09	46	3.75	.24	2.57 *
Curriculum & Instruction	67	2.73	47	2.19	.54	3.21 **
Pupil Personnel	68	2.24	49	2.22	.02	.14
School-Comm. Relations	64	4.14	47	3.99	.15	1.00
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	67	4.22	49	3.99	.23	1.52
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	68	3.52	49	3.08	.44	2.81 **
Pupil rules/ Organization	68	2.21	49	1.60	.61	3.49 **
School Operations	67	2.42	48	1.95	.47	3.02 **

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

Table 20

Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees
and Superintendents for the Preferred Role
of Students at Each School in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses				Mean difference	t-test value
	Trustees		Superintendents			
	<u>N</u>	\bar{X}	<u>N</u>	\bar{X}		
Business Management	66	4.77	46	4.70	.07	.87
Curriculum & Instruction	68	4.28	47	3.89	.39	2.67 **
Pupil Personnel	68	4.44	49	4.36	.08	.61
School-Comm. Relations	63	4.50	47	4.61	-.11	-.95
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	67	4.80	49	4.70	.10	1.16
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	68	4.79	48	4.76	.03	.31
Pupil rules/ Organization	68	2.87	49	2.52	.35	1.72
School Operations	68	4.65	48	4.35	.30	2.62 *

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence

* p < .05

** p < .01

Table 21

Summary of Significant Differences Between the Mean Responses of School Trustees and Superintendents for the Preferred Roles of Participants in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Significant Differences Between Mean Responses										
	Ministry of Ed.	School Board	Supt.	Sec.-Treas.	Other Board Office Admin.	Local Teacher Assoc	Comm. Groups	School Council Parents Groups	Bldg. Principal	Teacher at School	Students at School
Business Management	**	**	**	*				**	*	*	
Curriculum & Instruction				*	*		**	**	**	**	**
Pupil Personnel	*	*	**			*		**			
School-Comm. Relations			*		*			*			
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	**	**		*					**	**	
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	**	**			*			**	**	**	
Pupil rules/Organization	*	**	**	**		*		**	**	**	*
School Operations	**	**	**					*	*	**	*

* $p < .05$

** $p < .01$

5. rejected for community groups except in curriculum and instruction;
6. rejected for school council/parent groups in all decisional areas;
7. not rejected for the building principal except for personnel administration (administrators);
8. not rejected for teachers at each school except in pupil personnel, school-community relations and personnel administration (administrators); and
9. rejected for students at each school except in curriculum and instruction and school operations.

Preferred Roles and Superintendent Employer

In this part of the statistical analysis, hypothesis 3 is tested using either t-tests or Pearson Product Moment correlations to determine whether perceptions of the respondent groups differ according to the nature of the employer of the superintendent and whether any relationships exist between the perceptions of these sub-groups for their roles in decision-making.

Hypothesis 3. That there are no significant relationships between superintendent and school trustee perceptions of the preferred roles for themselves and each other and the nature of the employer of the superintendent.

Data used in testing this hypothesis are in Tables 22-24. In Table 22, the mean responses of superintendents employed by school boards are compared with those of superintendents employed by the ministry of education. In general, the differences between the mean responses of the differently employed superintendents are small but a higher level of influence for the superintendent is preferred by the ministry employed superintendents. The differences are statistically significant at the .05 level in the decisional areas of curriculum and instruction and personnel administration (teachers).

The mean responses of school trustees for the preferred role of the

Table 22

Comparison of Mean Responses of School Board Employed and Ministry of Education Employed Superintendents for the Preferred Role of Superintendents in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses of Supts.		Mean differences	t-test value
	Board ^b employed \bar{X}	Ministry ^c employed \bar{X}		
Business Management	1.20	1.19	.01	.02
Curriculum & Instruction	1.80	1.34	.46	2.32*
Pupil Personnel	2.54	2.49	.05	.15
School-Comm. Relations	2.06	1.97	.09	.22
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	1.92	1.89	.03	.13
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	1.67	1.16	.51	2.66*
Pupil rules/Organization	2.58	2.29	.29	.82
School Operations	3.89	3.29	.60	1.40

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence

^b N varied between 5 and 6

^c N varied between 38 and 40

* $p < .05$

school board are shown in Table 23 according to the nature of the employment of the school superintendent. The differences between the means are small but reach statistical significance at the .05 level in the decisional area of personnel administration (administrators).

The relationships between the perceptions of superintendents employed by the ministry and trustees of those boards of the preferred role in decision-making for superintendents were examined and the correlations obtained are listed in column A of Table 24. For ministry-employed superintendents, significant differences between the preferences of superintendents and trustees of boards with ministry employed superintendents for the role of superintendents were found in the decisional areas of curriculum and instruction ($r = .308$) and personnel administration (teachers) where $r = .510$. Caution should be exercised in drawing any conclusions from this result since the amount of variance explained by the correlations is small. Even in the two cases where the difference is statistically significant, the correlations are moderate.

The relationships between the perceptions of superintendents employed by the ministry and trustees of those boards of the preferred role in decision-making for school trustees were also examined. The correlation coefficients obtained are shown in column B of Table 24. All of the correlations are low and none is statistically significant at the .05 level.

It was hoped that it would have been possible to determine the nature of any relationship between the role preferences of superintendents employed by a school board and trustees of those boards for the superintendent and the school board.

The number of matched respondents of superintendents and school trustees in which the school board was the employer of the superintendent was, however,

Table 23

Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees
(Board Employed Superintendent) and School Trustees
(Ministry Employed Superintendent) for the Preferred Role of the
School Board in Decision-making

Mean ^a Responses of Trustees				
Decisional Area	Board ^b employer	Ministry ^c employer	Mean differences	t-test value
Business Management	1.08	1.33	- .25	- 1.89
Curriculum & Instruction	1.81	1.67	.14	.76
Pupil Personnel	3.04	3.07	- .03	- .14
School-Comm. Relations	1.17	1.33	- .16	- 1.02
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	1.40	1.19	.21	2.13*
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	2.36	2.10	.26	.87
Pupil rules/ Organization	2.00	1.69	.31	1.12
School Operations	3.97	3.82	.15	.49

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence.

^b N varied between 12 and 13

^c N varied between 48 and 49

* $p < .05$

Table 24

Pearson Product Moment Correlations Between Mean Responses of Superintendents and School Trustees (Ministry Employed Superintendents) for the Preferred Roles of the Superintendent and School Board in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Correlations Between Superintendent and School Trustee Preferences for the Role of	
	A Superintendent	B School Board
Business Management	- .106	- .153
Curriculum & Instruction	.308*	.043
Pupil Personnel	.065	.250
School-Community Relations	- .138	.169
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	.136	.075
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	.510*	.097
Pupil rules/Organization	.034	.074
School Operations	- .125	.153

Note: N = 34

* p < .05

too small ($N = 4$) for any valid conclusions to be drawn from calculated correlation coefficients.

Summary. In all areas where it was possible to test the null hypothesis it cannot be rejected except with regard to the role of the superintendent in curriculum and instruction and personnel administration (teachers) and with regard to the role of the school board in personnel administration (administrators).

Preferred Roles and Demographic Variables

Hypothesis 4 is concerned with relationships between demographic variables and the preferred roles of superintendents and school trustees in decision-making. The statistical measures used were Pearson correlations where the demographic variable was interval and t-tests where the variable could be dichotomized and mean differences obtained.

Hypothesis 4. That there are no significant relationships between superintendent and school trustee perceptions of the preferred roles for themselves and each other and specific demographic and personal variables.

The demographic and personnel variables examined for superintendents and school trustees were: age, sex, total years in the position, years in office in the district, level of formal education, school district enrollment, and classification of the school district as urban or rural.

Age. Correlation values for superintendent perceptions of the role of the superintendent with age of the superintendent are shown in Table 25. The correlations indicate a weak positive relationship in four decisional areas and a weak negative relationship in the other four areas. None is statistically significant.

Correlation values for school trustee perceptions of the preferred role of the superintendent with age of the trustee are shown in Table 26. Again,

Table 25

Pearson Product Moment Correlations Between Mean Responses of Superintendents for the Preferred Role of the Superintendent in Decision-making and Specific Demographic Variables

Decisional	Correlation coefficients of superintendent preferences for the role of the superintendent and;					Level of education
	Age of superintendent	Total years as superintendent	Years in district as superintendent	School district enrollment		
Business Management	-.075	-.242	-.135	-.026		-.049
Curriculum & Instruction	-.054	-.106	-.203	.187		.312*
Pupil Personnel	-.231	-.297*	-.220	-.070		.345*
School-Comm. Relations	.069	-.157	-.256*	-.084		.070
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	.027	-.109	-.107	-.047		-.034
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	.020	.073	-.157	.182		.382*
Pupil rules/Organization	.119	-.032	-.084	-.014		.227
School Operations	-.011	-.087	-.232	.183		.152

Note: N varied between 47-49

* p < .05

Table 26

Pearson Product Moment Correlations Between Mean Responses of School Trustees for the Preferred Role of the Superintendent in Decision-making and Specific Demographic Variables

Correlation coefficients of school trustee preferences for the role of the superintendent and;						
Decisional Area	Age of trustee	Total years as trustee	Years in district as trustee	School district enrollment	Level of education	
Business Management	- .141	- .099	- .090	- .120		.024
Curriculum & Instruction	.033	.012	.017	- .004		- .117
Pupil Personnel	- .074	- .016	.016	.073		.103
School-Comm. Relations	- .169	- .055	- .066	- .204		- .201
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	- .093	- .093	- .108	.071		.008
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	.046	- .186	- .177	.124		.173
Pupil rules/Organization	.146	.176	.189	.068		.094
School Operations	- .055	.043	- .001	.167		.079

Note: N varied between 64 and 68

the correlations are weak and none is significant.

Table 27 shows the correlation coefficients obtained when one variable is the age of superintendents and the other is superintendent perceptions of the preferred role of the school board. A weak, negative relationship is indicated in all areas, except pupil rules/organization in which the relationship is weak and positive. The strongest relationship is with curriculum and instruction where $r = -.255$, showing a slight tendency for the degree of influence perceived by superintendents for school trustees to decrease with increased age of superintendents. This correlation coefficient is statistically significant at the .05 level.

The correlation values between school trustee perceptions for the preferred role of the school board and age of trustees are all very weak and none is significant (Table 28).

Total Years in the Position

Correlations between superintendent mean responses for the superintendent role in decision-making with total years as a superintendent are weak in most cases (Table 25) but reach a moderately weak level for pupil personnel ($r = -.297$). This is statistically significant at the .05 level. Except for personnel administration (teachers), the correlations are negative, indicating a slight tendency for more experienced superintendents to prefer less influence in decision-making for superintendents.

Correlation values for school trustee responses for the superintendent role and total years as trustee (Table 26) are weak and none is significant.

Most of the correlations are weak and negative for the variables superintendent responses for the school board role and total years as superintendent (Table 27). The only one reaching a significance level of .05 ($r = -.300$) is

Table 27

Pearson Product Moment Correlations Between Mean Responses of Superintendents for the Preferred Role of the School Board in Decision-making and Specific Demographic Variables

Decisional Area	Correlation coefficients of superintendent preferences for the role of the school board and;				Level of education
	Age of superintendent	Total years as superintendent	Years in district as superintendent	School district enrollment	
Business Management	-.053	-.036	.101	.080	.123
Curriculum & Instruction	-.255*	-.300*	-.294*	-.175	-.029
Pupil Personnel	-.229	-.014	.050	.077	.256*
School-Comm. Relations	-.058	-.130	-.018	.290*	-.085
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	-.019	.094	.288*	.325*	.212
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	-.025	-.089	-.086	.126	.175
Pupil rules/ Organization	.023	.054	-.034	-.006	.144
School Operations	-.110	-.191	-.146	.151	.205

Note: N varied between 47-49

* p < .05

Table 28

Pearson Product Moment Correlations Between Mean Responses of School Trustees for the Preferred Role of the School Board in Decision-making and Specific Demographic Variables

Decisional Area	Correlation coefficients of school trustee preferences for the role of the school board and;					Level of education
	Age of trustee	Total years as trustee	Years in district as trustee	School district enrollment	School district	
Business Management	-.072	.045	.014	-.088	-.102	
Curriculum & Instruction	.058	-.068	-.132	-.032	.066	
Pupil Personnel	.029	.054	.057	.022	-.077	
School-Comm. Relations	.021	.226*	.154	-.208*	-.281*	
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	.038	.037	.062	.393*	.029	
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	-.080	.003	-.015	.300*	.082	
Pupil rules/ Organization	-.035	.021	.053	.129	.180	
School Operations	-.011	.144	.104	.173	.002	

Note: N varied between 64-68

* p < .05

again in the decisional area of curriculum and instruction indicating that more experienced superintendents prefer less influence for the school board in this area.

A weak positive correlation value of .226 in the decisional area of school-community relations is significant at the .05 level for school trustee mean responses for the role of the school board and "total years as trustee" as a variable (Table 28). This indicates that the longer a trustee serves on school boards, the greater the level of influence preferred for the school board in school-community relations.

Years in office in the school district. Correlation coefficients between "years in office in the district" and the respective mean responses of superintendents and school trustees for the preferred role of superintendents and the school board are listed in Tables 25-28.

Table 25 indicates that superintendent preferences for their own role are negatively correlated with years spent as a superintendent in the school district. Statistical significance at the .05 level was achieved in the area of school-community relations ($r = -.256$).

For superintendent preferences for the school board role (Table 27), five of the relationships are weakly negative and the other three weakly positive. Significance at the .05 level is reached ($r = -.294$) in curriculum and instruction and in personnel administration (administrators) where $r = .288$. This seems to suggest that the longer a superintendent spends in a school district, the less the influence preferred for the school board in curriculum and instruction. On the other hand, the greater the district experience of the superintendent, the greater the level of influence preferred for the school board in decisions related to personnel administration (administrators).

Correlation values obtained between school trustee preferences for either the superintendent role or the school board role and years as a trustee in the district as the variable are very weak and none is significant (Tables 26 and 28).

School district enrollment. Correlations of superintendent and school trustee role perceptions of the superintendent and school district enrollment are weak and none is statistically significant (Tables 25 and 26).

A majority of the correlations of superintendent role preferences for the school board and school district enrollment indicate a weak positive relationship (Table 27). The strongest positive relationships, both significant at the .05 level are in school-community relations ($r = .290$) and personnel administration (administrators) ($r = .325$). This suggests that in larger school districts, superintendents prefer a higher level of influence for the school board in school-community relations and in personnel administration (administrators) than in smaller school districts.

When school trustee preferences for the school board role are correlated with school district enrollment as variable (Table 28) the relationships are somewhat stronger (but still moderately weak to moderate) in school-community relations ($r = -.208$) and in both the administrator category of personnel administration ($r = .393$) and the teacher category ($r = .300$). Each of these is also statistically significant at the .05 level. These results suggest that trustees prefer a greater level of influence for the school board in personnel administration (administrators) and personnel administration (teachers), the larger the enrollment of the school district. Conversely, a lesser amount of influence is preferred in school-community relations, the larger the school district enrollment.

Level of formal education. Weak but somewhat stronger relationships than with other demographic variables were found between superintendent preferences for the superintendent role and the level of education of superintendents (Table 25). Those which are statistically significant are all positive and occur in curriculum and instruction, pupil personnel and personnel administration (teachers).

No significant relationships were found between school trustee preferences for the superintendent role and level of education of the school trustees (Table 26).

Most of the correlations obtained between mean responses of superintendents for the preferred role of the school board and level of education of the superintendent are also weakly positive (Table 27). Significance is reached at the .05 level in the decisional area of pupil personnel ($r = .256$), indicating that the higher the level of education of superintendents, the greater the influence preferred for the school board in this area. School trustee preferences for the school board role, however, showed a weak but statistically significant negative correlation ($r = -.281$) with level of education of school trustees in the decisional area of school-community relations (Table 28).

Sex. This variable was not considered for superintendents due to the imbalance in the population. As noted previously, there were only two female superintendents in the population. The responses of school trustees, however, were broken down by sex and Table 29 shows the data for trustee preferences for the role of the school board. There is a statistically significant difference at the .05 level in curriculum and instruction. Data for school trustee preferences for the role of the superintendent and the sex of school trustees are given in Table 30. None of the mean differences is significant at the level required.

Table 29

Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees by Sex
for the Preferred Role of the School Board in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses		Mean difference	t-test value
	Male ^b \bar{X}	Female ^c \bar{X}		
Business Management	1.29	1.30	- .01	- .08
Curriculum & Instruction	1.58	1.89	- .31	- 2.14*
Pupil Personnel	3.03	3.20	- .17	- .77
School-Comm. Relations	1.39	1.22	.17	1.34
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	1.19	1.29	- .10	- 1.16
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	2.11	2.24	- .13	- .54
Pupil rules/Organization	1.78	1.73	.05	.20
School Operations	3.78	4.02	- .24	- 1.02

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence

^b N varied from 37-40

^c N varied from 27-28

* $p < .05$

Table 30

Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees by Sex
for the Preferred Role of the Superintendent in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses		Mean difference	t-test value
	Male ^b \bar{X}	Female ^c \bar{X}		
Business Management	1.50	1.49	.01	.08
Curriculum & Instruction	1.21	1.28	-.07	-.60
Pupil Personnel	1.86	2.13	-.27	-1.35
School-Comm. Relations	2.22	2.35	-.13	-.61
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	1.90	1.82	.08	.66
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	1.13	1.08	.05	.97
Pupil rules/Organization	1.63	1.70	-.07	-.46
School Operations	2.51	2.64	-.13	-.57

^a1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence

^bN varied between 37-40

^cN varied between 27-28

Urban/Rural Classification of School District

No criteria were given in the questionnaire to assist with this classification. A number of respondents ($N = 19$) classified the municipality in which the school district is located as both urban and rural. These responses were excluded from the analysis, the results of which are tabulated in Tables 31-34.

In general, the mean differences are small and are not significant in any of the decisional areas for either the superintendent responses for the superintendent role (Table 31) or the school trustee responses for the school board role (Table 32).

A statistically significant difference between urban and rural superintendents for the role of the school board in decision-making in curriculum and instruction was found (Table 33). The mean differences in responses of urban and rural school trustees for the preferred role of the superintendent were also found to be statistically significant ($p < .05$) (Table 34) in school-community relations and pupil rules/organization.

Summary. The number of correlation values or t-test values found to be statistically significant at the .05 level was 21 out of a total of 208 calculated. The null hypothesis proposed cannot, therefore, be rejected in approximately 90% of the cases examined.

Final Decision-Making Authority

Respondents were asked to indicate the group or individual who ideally should be responsible for actually making the final decision. This was done by placing a circle around the level of influence rating assigned to the final decision-maker. In a very high proportion of responses, the circling corresponded with the highest level of influence accorded to any ~~group~~ or individual. The question may have posed problems for some respondents or it

Table 31

Comparison of Mean Responses of Superintendents, Urban and Rural,
for the Preferred Role of the Superintendent in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses		Mean difference	t-test value
	Urban ^b \bar{X}	Rural ^c \bar{X}		
Business Management	1.18	1.29	- .11	- 1.15
Curriculum & Instruction	1.39	1.36	.03	.21
Pupil Personnel	2.36	2.65	- .29	- 1.29
School-Comm. Relations	1.93	1.98	- .05	- .19
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	1.99	1.89	.10	.82
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	1.32	1.17	.15	1.02
Pupil rules/Organization	2.29	2.29	.00	.00
School Operations	3.35	3.49	- .14	- .51

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence

^b N varied between 19-21

^c N varied between 18-21

Table 32

Comparison of Mean Responses of Superintendents, Urban and Rural,
for the Preferred Role of the School Board in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses		Mean differences	t-test value
	Urban ^b \bar{X}	Rural ^c \bar{X}		
Business Management	1.61	1.67	- .06	- .36
Curriculum & Instruction	1.58	2.00	- .42	-2.38*
Pupil Personnel	3.48	3.57	- .09	- .33
School-Comm. Relations	1.28	1.35	- .07	- .44
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	1.64	1.49	.15	.87
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	2.67	2.95	- .28	- .81
Pupil rules/Organization	2.33	2.48	- .15	- .45
School Operations	4.29	4.41	- .12	- .57

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence.

^b N varied between 19-21

^c N varied between 20-21

* $p < .05$

Table 33

Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees, Urban and Rural,
for the Preferred Role of the Superintendent in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses		Mean differences	t-test value
	Urban ^b \bar{X}	Rural ^c \bar{X}		
Business Management	1.41	1.52	- .11	- .63
Curriculum & Instruction	1.29	1.18	.11	1.13
Pupil Personnel	2.13	1.89	.24	1.19
School-Comm. Relations	2.00	2.53	- .53	- 2.25*
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	1.89	1.89	.00	.00
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	1.17	1.08	.09	1.50
Pupil rules/Organization	1.46	1.81	- .35	- 2.08*
School Operations	2.70	2.56	.14	.51

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence.

^b N varied between 21-23

^c N varied between 30-32

* $p < .05$

Table 34

Comparison of Mean Responses of School Trustees, Urban and Rural,
for the Preferred Role of the School Board in Decision-making

Decisional Area	Mean ^a Responses		Mean differences	t-test value
	Urban ^b X	Rural ^c X		
Business Management	1.36	1.23	.13	1.19
Curriculum & Instruction	1.72	1.71	.01	.09
Pupil Personnel	3.24	3.17	.07	.27
School-Comm. Relations	1.19	1.44	- .25	- 1.77
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	1.28	1.15	.13	1.62
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	2.22	2.10	.12	.44
Pupil rules/Organization	1.74	1.77	- .03	- .11
School Operations	3.94	3.95	- .01	- .02

^a 1 = very high level of influence; 2 = high level of influence; 3 = moderate level of influence; 4 = little influence; 5 = no influence.

^b N varied between 21-23

^c N varied between 30-32

may simply have been overlooked, but a small number did not answer at all and some did not circle a number for all items. The response rate, however, was at least 95% on all items.

Analysis of Responses

The responses of superintendents and school trustees are shown in Appendix G. Significant differences were found in 11 of the 30 items as follows (see Table 36 for full details):

Business management	Item 3 - determining the appropriateness of expenditure after budget approval
Curriculum and instruction	Item 4 - selection of text books
Pupil personnel	Item 9 - formation of classes 10 - promotion to secondary school 11 - student suspension
School-community relations	Nil
Personnel administration (administrators)	Item 16 - selection of principals 17 - transfer of principals
Personnel administration (teachers)	Item 20 - hiring of teachers 23 - professional development
Pupil rules/organization	Item 26 - pupil conduct
School operations	Item 28 - teacher assignment to classes.

The results were also analysed by collapsing the responses to individual items into total scores for categories and converting these to percentages to enable a comparison to be made between the final decision-making preferences of superintendents and school trustees. These results are shown in Table 35, omitting for simplicity all percentages less than one.

The table shows that the difference between the perceptions of superintendents and school trustees for final decision-making authority in business management is due to the different roles ascribed to the superintendent and secretary treasurer.

Table 35

Comparison of Percentage Responses of School Trustees and Superintendents
for Final Decision-making Authority

Decisional Areas	Ministry of Ed.	School Board	Supt.	Sec.-Treas.	Other Board Office Admin.	Local Teacher Assoc.	Comm. Groups	School Council Parent Groups	Bldg. Principal	Teachers at School	Students at School
Business Management		73.0 70.1	9.2 26.1	16.3 3.7					1.0 -		
Curriculum & Instruction	8.2 8.4	44.4 43.2	37.2 36.1		2.1 3.5				3.0 7.0	4.8 -	
Pupil Personnel		12.8 9.9	29.6 15.4		- 2.2				45.1 65.9	17.5 4.9	1.9 1.6
School-Comm. Relations		85.0 76.3	1.5 9.6	1.5 3.0	1.0 -	1.0 -	7.2 4.4	- 2.2	1.5 2.2		
Personnel Admin. (administrators)	- 1.1	70.7 50.3	26.6 47.5		- 1.1						
Personnel Admin. (teachers)	2.8 -	23.2 14.5	63.6 62.3		3.5 7.1	2.3 1.9			2.5 7.8	1.8 4.9	
Pupil rules/Organization	1.5 -	45.1 21.3	12.0 4.5						36.1 69.7	1.5 2.2	3.0 2.2
School Operations		2.5 1.5	19.1 2.2	2.0 -					67.8 91.2	7.5 5.1	

Note: The upper figure is the trustee response; the lower figure is the superintendent response.

In pupil personnel, the differences are more pronounced at the school level than at the district level. More trustee responses indicated that teachers should make the decisions than did the superintendents. Differences between the two groups are small in curriculum and instruction but at school level, more trustee responses gave decision-making power to teachers than did superintendents.

In personnel administration (administrators) nearly three times as many school trustee responses indicated that the school board should make the decisions as those which favoured the superintendent. Superintendents were almost equally divided on this question. In personnel administration (teachers) superintendent and school trustee gave the superintendent an equal rating as the major decision-maker but there were more trustee responses than superintendent responses favouring the school board as the final decision-maker. This difference is reflected in the additional role ascribed by superintendents to other board office administrators, the building principal and teachers at the school.

Marked differences are apparent in pupil rules/organization with more school trustee responses preferring a district role (57%) compared with a school-based role (40.6%). For superintendents, the respective figures are 25.8% and 74.1%. In school operations, more school trustee responses (19.1%) favoured superintendents to make the decisions than did superintendent responses (2.2%). A much higher proportion of superintendent responses (91.2%) indicated that the building principal should make the decisions than did school trustee responses (67.8%).

Chapter V

SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The study examined the perceptions of superintendents and school trustees in British Columbia for the preferred roles of themselves and others in selected areas of educational decision-making. A self-report questionnaire was used and the responses were analysed using t-tests, Pearson correlations and chi-square tests. The study also attempted to determine whether the role perceptions were related to the nature of the employer of the superintendent and to specific demographic variables.

In this chapter, the main conclusions are listed in two parts. In the first part, the order, in general, follows the presentation of the results in Chapter IV in examining the first three major hypotheses. It also includes conclusions from the section on final decision-making authority. Conclusions based on results obtained in testing Hypothesis 4 are listed in the second part of this chapter. In both parts, implications of some of the conclusions are suggested.

Decisional Influence and Decision-Making Authority

An analysis of the perceptions of school trustees and superintendents for preferred roles for themselves and others in educational decision-making leads to the following conclusions:

1. The school board and the superintendent should exert the most influence in decision-making in all areas, except pupil personnel and school operations.

2. School trustees prefer more influence for the school board than the ideal perceived by superintendents in all decisional areas except

school-community relations.

3. Superintendents prefer the school board to have less influence than that perceived by school trustees in all areas except school-community relations.

4. School trustees prefer superintendents to have more influence than the superintendents would wish in all areas except business management and school-community relations.

5. Superintendents prefer more influence for themselves in business management and school-community relations than that accorded them by school trustees but less influence than accorded to them in all other areas.

6. Superintendents prefer to have more influence for themselves than what they accord to the school board except in school-community relations and personnel administration (administrators).

7. School trustees prefer less influence for the school board than for the superintendent in all areas except business management, school community relations and personnel administration (administrators).

8. Superintendents and school trustees prefer the final decision-making authority to reside in central office in all areas except pupil personnel, pupil rules/organization and school operations. In these areas, superintendents expressed a greater preference for more authority to be decentralized than did school trustees.

9. Trustee responses indicated a preference for greater decision-making authority for teachers in some areas than did superintendent responses but less in others.

10. Although school trustees accord more decisional influence to the superintendent than to the secretary-treasurer, their responses indicated a

greater preference for the secretary-treasurer to make the final decisions. The opposite conclusion can be drawn from school superintendent responses.

11. The building principal should exert a high to very high level of influence in school related decisional areas. Superintendents consistently accorded a higher level of influence to the building principal than did school trustees.

12. The ministry of education should play a minor role in all areas except curriculum and instruction. In most areas, superintendents preferred a lower level of influence than did school trustees.

13. The secretary-treasurer should play a major role only in business management. Superintendents preferred less influence for the secretary-treasurer in all categories than did the school trustees.

14. Other board office administrators should exert a moderate level of influence in a wide range of decisional areas. Again, superintendents accorded a greater influence than did school trustees.

15. Groups external to the school should not be accorded much influence in any decisional area.

16. School councils/parent teacher associations should not be accorded much influence in any decisional area.

17. The greatest influence of teachers should be in the school oriented areas of pupil personnel, pupil rules/organization and school operations. Superintendents accorded a higher level of influence in all categories than did school trustees.

18. Students should have little influence except with regard to pupil rules/organization. Superintendents assigned a greater influence (but still very small) to students than did school trustees.

19. Ministry employed superintendents prefer a higher level of influence than board employed superintendents, particularly in curriculum and instruction and personnel administration (teachers).

These two areas are in a midway position between those which have a school board orientation and those with a school building orientation.

20. School boards which employ a superintendent prefer more influence for the superintendent in business management, pupil personnel and school-community relations than boards which do not employ a superintendent. Conversely, they prefer significantly less influence for the superintendent in personnel administration (administrators).

This suggests that such boards feel more confident about according "their man" more influence in areas which tend to be regarded as ones within the domain of the school board. The lesser influence for the superintendent in personnel administration possibly reflects the school board's own involvement with school superintendent selection and evaluation.

21. Except for the role of the superintendent in curriculum and instruction and in personnel administration (teachers), correlations between superintendent and school trustee preferences for the role of superintendent and school board in districts which do not employ a superintendent are quite low and are not statistically significant.

This suggests that in most decisional areas in such school districts, there is a lack of congruence between the perceptions of superintendents and school trustees.

Decisional Influence and Demographic Variables

No statistically significant correlation coefficients were found for the decisional categories of business management, pupil rules/organization and school operations and any of the superintendent or school trustee

demographic variables of age, total years of experience, years in office in the district or level of education, nor with school district enrollment.

The perceptions of superintendents and school trustees, male or female, urban or rural, for preferred roles in these same three decisional areas also did not differ significantly with the exception of school trustees, urban or rural, for the role of the superintendent in pupil/rules organization. Urban school trustees prefer the superintendent to exert greater influence in this area than do rural trustees.

In the other five decisional areas, the following conclusions can be made based on the statistically significant ($p < .05$) correlation values found, but are subject to the general proviso that even in these cases, the correlations are moderately weak.

Curriculum and Instruction

1. The higher the educational level of superintendents, the greater the level of influence preferred by superintendents for the superintendent.
2. The greater (a) the age of the superintendent; (b) the total experience of the superintendent; and (c) the experience of the superintendent in the school district, the less the influence preferred by superintendents for the school board.
3. Male school trustees prefer more influence for the school board than do female school trustees.
4. Urban superintendents prefer more influence for the school board than do rural superintendents.

These conclusions suggest that curriculum and instruction is an area of central concern to superintendents and that it becomes increasingly important as experience and knowledge in the area increase. This view is not necessarily in conflict

with the additional influence in curriculum and instruction preferred by urban superintendents for the school board but may reflect not only an increased emphasis in this area but the availability of greater expertise and resources than in rural areas.

Pupil Personnel

1. The greater the total experience of the superintendent, the less the influence preferred by superintendents for the superintendent.

This conclusion is consistent with an expectation that more experienced superintendents would place greater reliance on the building principal in this decisional area.

2. The higher the educational level of superintendents, the greater the influence preferred by superintendents for the superintendent and the school board.

School-Community Relations

1. The greater the district experience of the superintendent, the less the influence preferred by superintendents for the superintendent.

This could imply that as experience grows in the district, the role in school-community relations is seen to be less important. Alternatively, it may be seen as an appropriate role for the school board or simply reflect the increased influence preferred by superintendents in curriculum and instruction.

2. The greater the school district enrollment (a) the greater the influence preferred by superintendents for the school board, and (b) the less the influence preferred by school trustees for the school board.

This suggests the potential for some role conflict and role ambiguity in the area of school-community relations in large school districts.

3. The greater the school trustee total experience, the greater the influence preferred by school trustees for the school board.

One could speculate from this that more experienced trustees give greater recognition to the importance of the role of the school board in school-community relations.

4. The higher the educational level of school trustees, the less the influence preferred by school trustees for the school board.

This may be related to the rôle ascribed in this area to superintendents but the relationship with educational level of school trustees was not determined. It may simply reflect the value ascribed to this decisional area and be indicative of a distance between such trustees and their constituency.

5. Urban school trustees prefer more influence for the superintendent in this area than do rural trustees.

This may be related to the previous conclusion. It could also reflect the fact that rural districts are smaller and school trustees are more likely to see this as an area where their influence could be quite considerable. Relative mobility of superintendents could be another factor.

Personnel Administration (administrators)

1. The greater the district experience of the superintendent, the greater the influence preferred by superintendents for the school board.

One assumes that this is an expression of increased confidence of the superintendent in the school board. Zeigler, however, would probably claim that it means that the experienced superintendent has the board well trained to legitimate the superintendent's decisions and can afford to cede influence.

2. The greater the school district enrollment, the greater the influence preferred by superintendents and school trustees for the school board.

This implies that there is a shift in decisional influence in personnel administration (administrators) away from the superintendent to the school board as school district enrollment increases. Perceptions of superintendents and school trustees are congruent but conflict could arise in individual situations if a superintendent's role perceptions

did not change in moving from a small to a large school district.

Personnel Administration (teachers)

1. The higher the educational level of the superintendent, the greater the influence preferred by superintendents for the superintendent.
2. The greater the school district enrollment, the greater the influence preferred by school trustees for the school board.

Comparison of Conclusions

This study was largely based on the methodology of the Diedrich Michigan study reported in Chapter II and the instrument used was modified from the Diedrich Decisional Inventory. There is substantial agreement between the findings of this study and the first seven of the nine "most significant" of the Diedrich findings (see Chapter II, p.). Where comparisons can be made with demographic variables used in the two studies, the main conclusion in both studies is that those demographic variables showed little relationship with the level of influence each group preferred for each other.

Suggestions for Further Research

It is suggested that some avenues for further research could be

1. Replication of the study in, say, three years time when approximately 50% of the school boards could be expected to be employing the superintendent.
2. Detailed study in a small sample of districts to explore the nature of role conflict in the area of business management and role conflict and role ambiguity in school-community relations.

3. Determining the perceptions of groups other than superintendents and school trustees for preferred levels of influence in educational decision-making.

APPENDIX A

Permission to use Decisional Influence Inventory

Crawford AuSable School District

WILLIAM E. DIEDRICH, PH. D., Superintendent
PAUL B. LERG, Assistant Superintendent
HOWARD W. TAYLOR, Community School Director
KENT S. REYNOLDS, Secondary Principal
MICHAEL J. BRANCH, Assistant Principal
DALE A. NICHOLAS, Middle School Principal
MELVIN G. NUNN, Elementary Principal
DAVID A. HAWKINS, Elementary Principal

GRAYLING, MICHIGAN 49738

May 24, 1979

Mr. John C. Cusack
Simon Fraser University
Building #1, Faculty of Education
Burnaby, B.C., Canada V5A 1S6

Dear Mr. Cusack:

Your request to Dr. Mills was inadvertently sent to me. In the interest of facilitating matters I have taken the liberty to enclose a copy of the Decisional Influence Inventory. The same questionnaire was used with both Board Members and Superintendents. The only exception to this was in the Demographic Data Sheet. Here, two different sheets were employed. Please feel free to use the entire inventory or relevant portions in your study.

It may also be of interest to you to know that Dr. Martin S. Serediak, currently a faculty member in the Department of Labor Studies on Economics at Mount Royal College in Alberta, Canada conducted a parallel study in Decisional Influence. While his work focused on governance at the univerisity level, many of the decisional areas would be equally applicable for public schools. You may wish to review his questionnaire.

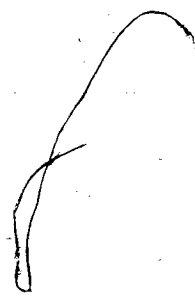
Best wishes in your research efforts. I would be most interested in your conclusions. If I can be of any service, please do not hesitate to contact me.

Sincerely,

William E. Diedrich, Ph.D.
Superintendent

Enclosure:

WED/mjg



APPENDIX B

Decisional Influence Inventory

2

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DECISIONAL INFLUENCE INVENTORY

This questionnaire consists of two parts. In the first part, you will be asked to indicate your preferences for the amount of influence, or say, various individuals and groups SHOULD or SHOULD NOT have in certain educational decisions. You are NOT asked what currently exists in your school district.

In the second part of the questionnaire, you are asked for some personal and demographic information. Your responses will be kept strictly confidential and neither you nor your school district will be specifically identified or be identifiable in any reports of the study.

A code number has been placed on the questionnaire to enable receipt and return of the forms to be determined. The list of names associated with the code numbers will be destroyed as soon as the data is collected.

Please do not discuss the items presented in the questionnaire with others before completing and returning it.

Thank you for your time and assistance.

INSTRUCTIONS

Please read the following directions and examine the example below before completing the questionnaire.

1. Refer to the key below and place a 1-5 in the box under the name of each of the persons or groups according to the degree of influence you feel they SHOULD ideally have in the decision.
2. Circle the box under the name of the person or group who you feel SHOULD ideally have responsibility for actually making the final decision. This should be interpreted in an operational sense, not a legal sense. A decision is considered to be made if it does not require ratification by another person or group.

KEY

- 1 - Should have a VERY HIGH level of influence
- 2 - Should have a HIGH level of influence
- 3 - Should have a MODERATE level of influence
- 4 - Should have a LITTLE influence
- 5 - Should have NO influence

- Should be responsible for actually MAKING THE FINAL DECISION

EXAMPLE

DECISION ITEMS	Ministry of education	School board	Superintendent	Secretary-treasurer	Other board office administrators	Local teachers association	Community groups	School council/parent teacher association	Building principal	Teachers at each school	Students at each school
Ideally, who SHOULD decide on the educational specifications for a new school building?	2	①	1	5	2	5	5	3	2	3	5

EXPLANATION

According to this respondent, the school board and the superintendent should both have a high level of influence in contributing to this particular decision, with the school board (circled) designated as the preferred body to actually make the final decision. The Ministry, board office personnel and the building principal should, in the opinion of the respondent, have a high level of influence whereas the influence of parent bodies and teachers should be moderate. Other groups, rated as 5, should have no influence in the matter.

- Note that
- (a) the same number may be used more than once in an item
 - (b) not all numbers between 1-5 need be used in an item
 - (c) a number is placed in every box
 - (d) one number is circled

KEY

1 - Should have a VERY HIGH level of influence
 2 - Should have a HIGH level of influence
 3 - Should have a MODERATE level of influence
 4 - Should have a LITTLE influence
 5 - Should have NO influence

- Should be responsible for actually MAKING THE FINAL DECISION

Ministry of Education
 School board
 Superintendent
 Secretary-treasurer
 Other board administrators
 Local teachers association
 Community groups
 School council/parent teacher association
 Building principal
 Teachers at each school
 Students at each school

	Ministry of Education	School board	Superintendent	Secretary-treasurer	Other board administrators	Local teachers association	Community groups	School council/parent teacher association	Building principal	Teachers at each school	Students at each school
BUSINESS MANAGEMENT											
1. Ideally, who should determine school district budget priorities?											
2. Ideally, who should establish the district budget?											
3. Ideally, who should determine the appropriateness of district level expenditure within categories after the budget has been approved?											
CURRICULUM AND INSTRUCTION											
4. Ideally, who should select textbooks for the district?											
5. Ideally, who should decide how the curriculum of the district will be changed, i.e., revisions, deletions, additions?											
6. Ideally, who should determine the method by which the effectiveness of the instructional program will be evaluated?											
7. Ideally, who should determine the goals of the district - what skills, knowledge and attitudes the graduating student should possess?											
8. Ideally, who should determine the method by which student progress is reported to parents?											
PUPIL PERSONNEL											
9. Ideally, who should establish the criteria by which students are grouped for instruction, i.e., how classes are formed?											
10. Ideally, who should decide if a pupil in grade 7 is not to be promoted to secondary school?											
11. Ideally, who should decide on individual student suspensions of less than five days' duration?											
12. Ideally, who should decide which school in the district a student shall attend?											
SCHOOL - COMMUNITY RELATIONS											
13. Ideally, who should decide if a school is to be closed permanently?											
14. Ideally, who should determine which community organizations may use school facilities?											
15. Ideally, who should select individuals to serve as members of district wide community committees?											
PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION (administrators)											
16. Ideally, who should select new building principals?											
17. Ideally, who should determine which building principals will be transferred or reassigned within the district?											
18. Ideally, who should determine evaluation procedures for building principals?											
19. Ideally, who should select a new school superintendent?											

KEY

1 - Should have a VERY HIGH level of influence
 2 - Should have a HIGH level of influence
 3 - Should have a MODERATE level of influence
 4 - Should have a LITTLE influence
 5 - Should have NO influence

○ - Should be responsible for actually MAKING THE FINAL DECISION

	Ministry of Education	School board	Superintendent	Secretary-treasurer	Other board officers administrators	Local Teachers Association	Community groups	School/council/parent teacher association	Building Principal	Teachers at each school	Students at each school
PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION (teachers)											
20. Ideally, who should decide which teachers to hire?											
21. Ideally, who should decide which teachers will be transferred within the district?											
22. Ideally, who should decide teacher evaluation procedures?											
23. Ideally, who should determine professional development programs for teachers?											
24. Ideally, who should decide what is to be placed in a teacher's personnel file?											
25. Ideally, who should determine which teachers are to be released because of reduced enrollments?											
PUPIL RULES/ORGANIZATION											
26. Ideally, who should determine rules governing pupil conduct?											
27. Ideally, who should decide which student clubs or other student groups will be permitted in schools of the district?											
SCHOOL OPERATIONS											
28. Ideally, who should decide the assignment of teachers to classes?											
29. Ideally, who should decide on agenda items for individual school staff meetings?											
30. Ideally, who should determine the amount of money available for specific departmental or grade level expenditure after a school has received its budget allocations?											

REMINDER

Please review your responses to ensure that:

- a. Each space has an entry of 1-5
- b. The person or group who should be responsible for ACTUALLY MAKING THE DECISION has been circled.

PLEASE CONTINUE TO NEXT PAGE

DECISIONAL INFLUENCE INVENTORY

Please enter in the boxes below a check mark or a number, whichever is appropriate.

- | | | |
|--|--|--------------------------|
| 1. In what school enrollment category is your school district? | less than 5000 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | 5000 - 10000 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | 10000 - 15000 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | 15000 - 20000 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | more than 20000 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 2. Is your school district in a municipality classified as.... | urban | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | rural | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 3. What is your age? | less than 30 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | 30 - 39 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | 40 - 49 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | 50 - 59 | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | 60 or over | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 4. What is the highest level of formal education you have reached? | some secondary school | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | senior secondary school graduate | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | some post-secondary | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | post-secondary graduate (university, college, institute) | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | masters degree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | doctoral degree | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 5. What is your sex? | male | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | female | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 6. How many members of each sex are on your school board? | male | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | female | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 7. Answer (1) OR (2)
For how many years <u>in any school district</u> have you been a.... | (1) school superintendent? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | (2) school trustee? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 8. Answer (1) OR (2)
For how many years <u>in your present school district</u> have you been a..... | (1) school superintendent? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | (2) school trustee? | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 9. Who pays the salary of the school superintendent in your school district? | school board | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | ministry | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| 10. If you have checked "ministry" in item 9, does the superintendent also work with another school board? | yes | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| | no | <input type="checkbox"/> |

APPENDIX C

Letter from Researcher to Superintendents and School Trustees

Dear

During my experience as an educational administrator in the State of South Australia, I have developed an interest in decision making as it affects schools.

At present I am undertaking graduate study at Simon Fraser University and as my master's thesis I am making a study of the decision making role preferences for school boards and superintendents of schools. My Senior Supervisor for the study is Dr. M. Manley-Casimir, Director of Graduate Programs in the Faculty of Education.

Your assistance with this study is requested by completing the enclosed questionnaire and returning it to me in the stamped addressed envelope provided. This questionnaire is being sent to all school superintendents in British Columbia and to a sample of school board members in each school district. All responses will be treated in confidence and will be aggregated for statistical analysis. No information reported will enable specific responses from individuals or school districts to be identified. Completed questionnaires will not be seen by any other individual or organization.

In order to complete the research in the time available to me and also to increase the reliability of the data, I would be most appreciative if you would complete and return the questionnaire as soon as possible after you receive it and, until you do so, not to discuss it with any other recipients.

If you have any questions, please call me at 291-4259 or, in the evenings, at home on 294-5897. I hope that the study will not only be of interest to you but that it may have some useful outcomes for you. I look forward to sharing the findings with you.

Yours sincerely,

John Cusack

APPENDIX D

Letter from Director of Graduate Programs to School Trustees

Dear

Enclosed with this letter is a questionnaire which has been prepared as part of a study being undertaken by Mr. John Cusack, a graduate student, towards his thesis for the degree of Master of Arts (Education) at Simon Fraser University.

I know that many demands are made on your time but hope that you will be sufficiently interested in the results of this study to spend approximately 15 - 20 minutes in completing the questionnaire.

This research proposal has been examined by me and has my support. Your cooperation would be greatly appreciated and a high level of participation will enhance the value of the study. Further details are given in the enclosed material.

Sincerely,

Mike Manley-Casimir
Director Graduate Programs
Faculty of Education

MMC:mh

Enclosure

APPENDIX E

Letter from Director of Graduate Programs to Superintendents

[Handwritten mark]

Dear

Enclosed with this letter is a questionnaire which has been prepared as part of a study being undertaken by Mr. John Cusack, a graduate student, towards his thesis for the degree of Master of Arts (Education) at Simon Fraser University.

I am aware that you are often asked for information of various kinds and appreciate that you are busy at the end of a school year but hope that you will be willing to spend approximately 15 - 20 minutes in completing the questionnaire.

This research proposal has been examined by me and has my support. I am sure that the topic is also one in which you will have some interest.

Your cooperation with the research project would be greatly appreciated and a high level of participation will enhance its value. Further detail of the study is given in the enclosed material.

Yours sincerely

Mike Manley-Casimir
Director Graduate Programs
Faculty of Education

MMC:mh

Enclosure

APPENDIX F

Follow-up Letter to Non-Respondents

12th July, 1979

Dear

Recently, you and other selected school trustees and school superintendents from school districts in British Columbia received a request to participate in a study of decision making preferences.

The response to this study has been most gratifying and many responses have been returned, including a number which indicated considerable interest in the results of the study.

I would like to thank you very much if you have already taken time to be a part of this study and have returned the questionnaire. Some responses are undoubtedly still in the mail. If you have not yet responded, may I again seek your cooperation in completing the questionnaire and returning it to me by July 31st.

The nature of the study is such that your response will contribute significantly to the validity of the results. It is hoped that the findings of this research will be valuable both to you and to other educational leaders.

I am enclosing a further copy of material sent to you in case the original material is not readily available and would be most grateful for your assistance.

Yours sincerely,

John Cusack

Graduate Student

APPENDIX G

Final Decision-making: Chi-Square Tests

Table 36

Comparison of Percentage Responses of School Trustees and Superintendents for Final Decision-making Authority

Decision Items	Responses of Participant Individual/Group										χ ²	df	P		
	Ministry of Ed.	School Board	Supt.	Sec.-Treas.	Other Board Office Admin.	Local Teacher Assoc.	Comm. Groups	School Council-Parent Groups	Bldg. Principal	Teachers at School				Students at School	
1	1	61	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	4.33	4	
2	-	44	1	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	3.54	3	
3	9	55	3	7	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	22.68	4	< .001
4	8	39	5	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	12.68	6	< .05
5	4	27	14	22	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6.86	6	
6	5	11	28	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	6.44	6	
7	7	14	35	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1.05	3	
8	1	17	11	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9.33	7	
9	4	30	26	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	14.70	4	< .01
10	4	13	24	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	15.24	4	< .01
11	7	12	42	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	10.30	4	< .05
12	1	7	35	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	9.26	9	
13	5	53	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	5.87	4	
	4	38	4	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
	2	38	12	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
	1	24	8	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
		4	17	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
		1	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
		1	4	1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
		-	3	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
		1	8	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
		1	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			
		27	24	1	1	1	1	1	1	2	2	5			
		16	22	-	4	-	-	-	-	1	1	3			
		64	-	-	-	2	-	-	-	-	-	-			
		42	2	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-			

Table 36 (Con't)

Decision Items	Responses of Participant Individual/Group											x ²	df	p
	Ministry of Ed.	School Board	Supt.	Sec. Treas.	Other Board Office Admin.	Local Teacher Assoc.	Comm. Groups	School Council-Parent Groups	Bldg. Principal	Teachers at School	Students at School			
14		60	1	3	1	1	2					5.36	6	
		38	1	4			2							
15		41	3		2	11	1					12.66	7	
		23	10			6	3							
16		58	6		1					1		17.29	4	< .01
	1	27	18											
17		42	20		1							13.17	3	< .01
		16	28		2									
18		17	43	1			1			1		9.32	5	
		5	41											
19	1	66										1.55	2	
	1	44												
20		15	44		4		4				4	10.10	4	< .05
		2	32		4						7			
21		12	48		5					1		2.86	4	
		4	38		3									
22	3	9	48	1	1		1			1		7.04	7	
	1	4	33											
23	3	5	46	1	1	8				3		43.47	7	< .001
		3	10		7	4				12				
24	4	14	41	1	1		3			2		4.76	8	
	1	8	29	2	2	1	1			1				
25	1	37	25	2	2		1					6.07	5	
		18	25		3									
26	1	31	10				23			1		17.66	6	< .01
		9	2				31			2				

Table 36 (Con't)

Decision Items	Responses of Participant Individual/Group											χ ²	df	p
	Ministry of Ed.	School Board	Supt.	Sec. Treas.	Other Board Office Admin.	Local Teacher Assoc.	Comm. Groups	School Council-Parent Groups	Bldg. Principal	Teachers at School	Students at School			
27	1	29	6	1	1				25	1	3	12.77	7	
	-	10	2	-	-				31	-	1			
28		1	26						38	1		19.66	4	< .001
		1	2						43	-				
29		1	6			1			47	11		5.72	5	
		1	-			-			38	6				
30		3	6	4	1				50	3		10.56	6	
		-	1	-	-				43	1				

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